

JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Vol.19 No.2

2016

ISSN 1027-9776



DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
The Islamia University of Bahawalpur
PAKISTAN

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
The Islamia University of Bahawalpur
PAKISTAN

JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

ISSN 1027-9776

Vol.19 No.2

2016

EDITORIAL BOARD

| | |
|------------------------|--|
| PATRON | Professor Dr. Qaiser Mushtaq Vice Chancellor |
| Chief Editor | Professor Dr. M. Asghar Hashmi Dean, Faculty of Education |
| Managing Editor | Dr. Akhtar Ali Chairman, Department of Education |
| Members | Dr. Nasreen Akhter Department of Education Dr. Sabiha Hameed Rehmani Department of Education Dr. Irshad Hussain Department of Educational Training |

Note

Views expressed in the articles of this journal are of authors and do not reflect the views of the Journal of Educational Research.

SUBSCRIPTION

Annual Rs.200/-
Single Copy Rs.100/-
Special Issue Rs.150/-

FOREIGN

Individuals US\$15.00 Annual
Libraries US\$10.00 Single copy
Institutions US\$12.00
Special Issue US\$10.00

EDITORIAL/ADVISORYBOARD

1. **Professor Dr. G.K. Verma**
Professor Emeritus, University of Manchester, UK
2. **Professor Dr. William Bill Gulam**
Salford University, Manchester, UK
3. **Professor Dr. Muhammad Rashid**
Dean, Faculty of Education, Preston University, Islamabad
4. **Professor Dr. Harald Husemann**
Department of Education, Osnabrueck University, Germany
5. **Professor Dr. Zafar Iqbal**
Chairman, Department of EPM
Faculty of Education, AIOU, Islamabad
6. **Professor Dr. Aytakin Isman**
Dean, Faculty Education, Sakarya University, Turkey
7. **Dr. Badrul Khan**
Facilitator in E-Learning, Instructional Design and Technologies
McWendon University, Springfield, USA
8. **Professor Dr. Ugur Demiray**
Dean, Faculty of Communication Sciences
Anadolu University, Eskisehir, Turkey
9. **Dr. Joy Mylek**
Consultant, The Open Polytechnic of New Zealand
10. **Professor Dr. Paul Kawachi**
Kurume City Fukuoka-830-0003 Japan
11. **Professor Dr. Ahmad Farooq Mashhadi**
Department of Education, BZU Multan
12. **Dr. Akhtar Ali**
Department of Education,
The Islamia University of Bahawalpur
13. **Professor Dr. Ibrahim Khalid**
University of Education Lahore

- Corrective Feedback for Young Learners: A Study of Corrective Feedback Preferences and Practices of Pakistani Teachers at Primary Level** 1-14
Mamuna Ghani and Saeed Ahmad
- Active and Receptive Behaviours of Trainee Teachers and Students during Teaching-Learning Process in Classrooms** 15-31
Muhammad Uzair-ul-Hassan, Iram Parveen and Muhammad Riaz
- Learning Styles and their Relationship with Achievement of English Scores from Higher Secondary Schools and Colleges Students of District Lahore** 32-48
Mehboob-Ul-Hassan and Razaqat Ali Akbar
- School Principals as Effective Change Agents: A Study of Essential Skills and Attributes** 49-61
Muhammad Athar Hussain, Syed Zubair Haider, Imtiaz Ahmed and Shoukat Ali
- Attitudes and Perceptions of the Saudi EFL Learners about the Pakistani EFL Teachers** 62-77
Asif Ahmad, Shahzad Karim and Mohammad Imran Khokhar
- Religious Thinking and Social Attitude: A Case Study of Pakistani University Students** 78-91
Mohammad Nadeem, Nasreen Akhter and Muhammad Ayub Buzdar
- Link between Personality Traits and Procrastination among University Students** 92-104
Masood Nadeem, Areeba Ather Malik and Fatima Javaid
- Action Research a Tool to Build Capacity of Teacher Educators** 105-116
Nahid Parween Anwar

Corrective Feedback for Young Learners: A Study of Corrective Feedback Preferences and Practices of Pakistani Teachers at Primary Level

Mamuna Ghani*
Saeed Ahmad**

Abstract

In Pakistan, language teachers usually provide feedback on errors in L2 writings of students. Although, it is a time consuming process but they take it as important task of their duty. The present study focuses to find the preferences and practices of the teachers to provide written corrective feedback (WCF) for young learners' texts i.e. the students' writing at primary level. These practices and preferences are divided into: attitude of teachers towards WCF, grammatical categories mostly focused for correction, WCF methods used by the teachers and professional knowledge of teachers about WCF. The current study is descriptive in nature and survey design was adopted to precede the research. To find the preferences and practices of the teachers for WCF, questionnaire as a research tool was devised on five points Likert Scale. A sample of 107 teachers was selected through random sampling. Through questionnaire data it was explored that most of the teachers believe that providing feedback for learners' errors at primary school level is of great importance and teachers usually use explicit method of WCF or mixture of both implicit and explicit CF methods to respond learners' errors. Mostly the spelling errors, grammatical errors and orthographical errors are focused by the L2 teachers at this level. Further, it was explored that topics on written corrective feedback are not included in teachers' professional development courses or trainings and teachers do not have any model to follow for corrective feedback on L2 writings.

Keywords: Written Corrective Feedback, Error Treatment, WCF Perceptions, Attitude towards WCF

Introduction

In second language teaching the terms error correction, error treatment and corrective feedback refer to teachers' responses to learners' errors. Whereas, written

* Dean Faculty of Arts/Chairperson Department of English, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, Pakistan. E-mail: drghani2009@yahoo.com (Corresponding Author)

**PhD Scholar, Department of English, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, Pakistan
E-mail: saeed.dsd@gmail.com

corrective feedback (WCF) means to provide the feedback on errors in students' writings.

Regarding error and error corrective feedback in second language learning, there have always been contrastive views. As defined by Lennon (1991), an error is "a linguistic form or combination of forms which in the same context and under similar conditions of production would, in all likelihood, not be produced by the speakers' native speakers' counterparts" (p. 182). Further, regarding error there are views that it is a sign that language learning process is being taking place. It is like a window through which a teacher can peep into the mind of a learner. Contrary to that there are views about error that it should be avoided at every cost. Same is the case with corrective feedback (CF). There are contrastive views about effectiveness of corrective feedback in L2 learning. Some researchers believe corrective feedback as important variable for second language learning whereas some researchers are on the opposite end. In Pakistani context, there are studies to find the effects of corrective feedback (Gul & Sherwin, 2012; Noureen, Akhtar & Nisa, 2013; Ahmad, Slam, & Saeed, 2013) but this study focuses on perception and attitude of teachers towards CF at primary school level where learners are at beginning level of L2 learning.

Review of Related Literature

Feedback on learners' errors has got attention of researchers in the previous three or four decades. The subject matter of corrective feedback (CF) in the second language acquisition always tends to create disagreement among both language teachers and second language acquisition researchers on many issue related to it. It is a fact that literature of corrective feedback studies provides a continuum that ranges from advantageous (Russell & Spada, 2006) to ineffective and possibly harmfulness of corrective feedback nature (e.g., Polio et al., 1998; Truscott, 1999).

There are many linguists that lay emphasis on absence of corrective feedback so that learners may be able to test their linguistic hypothesis about the target language. Truscott (1996) doesn't believe about the effectiveness of corrective feedback (CF) and argues that feedback is not only unnecessary and ineffective but harmful to students' out products. He is of the view that teachers should adopt an approach for students that is correction free. He argues that "acquisition of a grammatical structure is a gradual process, not a sudden discovery as the intuitive view of correction would imply" (Truscott, 1996, p. 342). Further, he asserts that it causes frustration among learners who are receiving feedback. Similarly studies like Polio et al., 1998; Truscott and Hsu (2008) also prove that corrective feedback is not effective for learners.

Contrary to that there are researchers that consider corrective feedback as an important variable for second language learning. Also, teachers may have strong views in favor of corrective feedback based on their classroom experiences. If we review the literature about corrective feedback, majority of studies demonstrate that it is helpful for

creating accuracy in learners' oral and written out products e.g. Lalande, 1982; Ferris, 1995b, 1997; Chandler, 2000; Ferris and Roberts, 2001.

Ferris (1999) in her dialogue with Truscott provided strong arguments about the effectiveness of error corrections. Ashwell (2000) asserts that teacher believe that providing feedback to students writings helps them to create accuracy in their writings. Leki (1990) is of that view that students' good writing means the writing without any errors and students want every single error in their writings to be corrected. Studies (like Ferris, 1997; Ashwell, 2000; Ferris and Robert 2001; Sheen 2007; Bitchener and Knoch, 2009) also support the view that error correction or corrective feedback (CF) is necessary for growing knowledge of the learners.

Other issue related to corrections of errors is what to correct in students' writings. Different teachers adopt different error categories to correct the learners' error but it is a fact that corrective feedback if provided systematically and selectively can be more effective for the learners (Hammerly, 1991). Frequency of errors is another criterion to select the strategy for learners' errors. Examination of errors by the teachers is necessary at every stage of students learning so that they may be able to make a hierarchy for the correction of errors (Hendrickson, 1980). Ferris and Roberts's (2001) and Ferris & Hedgcock (2005) have given categories of errors that frequently occur in students' writings. These are: verb errors, noun ending errors, article errors, wrong word errors, sentence structure errors, spelling errors and other errors. Also Ferris (1999) error hierarchy can also be used to respond learners' errors on the basis of "treatable errors and untreatable error".

Another controversy for responding to learners' error is the use of corrective feedback strategy. Feedback on L2 learners' errors is mainly divided into two categories that are direct feedback or explicit feedback and indirect feedback also named implicit feedback (Lee, 2004). Direct feedback or explicit method of error correction is a technique of correcting students' error by giving an explicit written correction where as in indirect feedback or implicit feedback correction is provided by indicating an error by underline, circle or code etc. (Lee, 2004). There is also disagreement over the effectiveness of corrective feedback strategies. Both methods of corrective feedback are helpful and to create accuracy in L2 writings. Some studies prove that indirect method of CF is more effective for creating accuracy in L2 writings (Lalande, 1982; Ferris, 2002; Ferris, 2006; Miceli, 2006). Similarly, study results of Sheen (2007) confirm that direct method of CF is more effective compare to indirect method of CF.

For proving feedback to students' writings, teachers should develop various theory-laden methods because feedback with a rationale behind it can be more beneficial for students than others. There are certain factors that teachers should take

into consideration to adopt either direct feedback or indirect feedback method of CF. The factors as suggested by different researchers are as under.

For designing an effective instruction types, linguistic categories should be taken into consideration. As error corrective methods have dissimilar effectiveness for different types of grammatical items therefore feedback method adopted for corrective feedback should be as per type of error category. Efficacy of CF strategy depends on what is being analyzed by the teacher (Ferris & Helt, 2000). Study results of Carroll et al. (1992) in which they analyzed the consequential effects of explicit feedback on students' errors found that explicit feedback group surpassed the other group in accuracy. Likewise, there are studies with results that implicit strategy of CF is more effective for grammatical errors and orthographic errors as this method of CF enhances the learners' ability of self correction and self editing. Also, a study by Ferris & Roberts (2001) confirmed the results that learners were with ability to correct 80% of their errors if they were responded by implicit feedback method by their teachers.

Depending on the type of structures, some forms are learnt by inductive instruction and others by deductive instruction. As argued by Ferris and Helt (2000), effectiveness of feedback strategy depends on what is being analyzed. Different corrective feedback methods have different types of effectiveness for different error categories. Mostly, a language teacher corrects treatable error by direct feedback methods and indirect feedback method is used for untreatable errors. These patterns of corrective feedback also affect students in their short-term and long-term progress (Ferris 1999, p. 06).

Similarly, comparative effectiveness of feedback methods also differs when they are used for items and rules learning. There are studies to prove that direct or implicit method of instruction is helpful more for rules learning where as other is helpful for items learning. The study results of Michas and Berry's (1994) prove that for L2 learners, explicit rules presented with examples are more helpful than the implicit presentation of word/pronunciation pairings. Similarly, In Ellis's (1991) study, explicit instruction of rules, brought about with solid knowledge of the rules, was not very successful. However explicit instruction plus exemplification of rule was the most fruitful. Factors pertaining to context (i.e. use of language in a contextual setting) and isolation also play an important role to use either direct feedback or indirect feedback for manner of correction.

For providing feedback to students' writings, student's preferences about feedback method are most important. There are research evidences that students like one method of feedback most or the other in different circumstances. For example study results of Ferris & Roberts (2001) and Rennie (2000) prove that learners prefer direct feedback to indirect feedback. Whereas there are some researchers (like Lalande, 1982;

Lee, 2004) to claim that indirect feedback is more effective to make learners to lead towards accuracy than direct feedback.

Purpose of L2 Learning is another factor to make teachers to decide that which method of error correction will be effective for learners. In short-term courses direct feedback method is more effective whereas in long courses, especially learning for academic purposes, indirect feedback is more effective (Ferris, 2002).

Use of WCF method is also determined by the level of learning. Students at the early learning stage do not have either the formal linguistic knowledge or the acquired competence to correct errors by themselves. At this stage direct feedback method of corrective feedback is more helpful for them as compared to indirect feedback. When students are at mature level then teacher should try to make feedback indirect. At this stage focus on error location must be preferred to error identification. Ferris (2002, p. 57) emphasizes that while using different corrective feedback methods, students' level of learning should be taken into consideration. She argues that for students at initial level it will be the best strategy to provide feedback through indirect feedback method but direct feedback should be there to correct the learners' errors because at this level a student is benefited more through direct feedback method.

The present study is specific for the preferences and practices of teachers for providing CF on writings of young learners in Pakistan i.e. at primary school level.

English Language Status in Pakistan

Punjab, consisting almost half population of Pakistan, has made great strides in educational system since last two decades. This development of educational system includes advancement in students' enrolment, retention of students in schools, staff attendance, functioning of facilities, infrastructure, teachers' professional development and quality education. At present this province is with over 52,000 public schools, 321,064 teachers for about 11 million students from early grade *Katchi* to 12th grade in primary, elementary, high and higher secondary schools.

Review report (2015) published by Ministry of Education describes that in Pakistan under the 18th Constitutional Amendment, education is now a provincial subject. Under provincial management, public sector formal school system is the largest service provider in Pakistan and it consists of 12 academic years. It starts from Primary level and ends at Intermediate level or Higher Secondary School Certificate (HSSC).

Under the Chief Minister of Punjab Province, Schools Reform Roadmap Program since its inception i.e. December 2010, student teacher attendance, school infrastructure with effective governance have developed a lot to promote the quality education in the province. Further it was evoked to make the "quality education for all" the top most priority of government in Punjab. Students' enrollment is being focused

especially for the early grades. Indicators of student presence for “*Katchi*” and Grade 1 to 5 are devised to focus more the attendance of students at primary level.

To promote the quality education in the public schools, Directorate of Staff Development Punjab is with basic responsibility of professional development of the teachers. The professional development of teachers is carried out through in-house trainings and mentoring of teachers. For mentoring of teachers department is with four thousand key players i.e. District Teacher Educators (DTEs). These DTEs are professionally trained to monitor and mentor the teachers about teaching methodology, students’ assessment and other classroom activities. After observing teacher lesson, DTEs provide coaching on structured form namely Mentoring Visit Form (MVF). Teachers present status and development plan is created as per devised nine indicators mentioned in MVF. In this mentoring visit form, indicator about the provision of corrective feedback is with following ranking: (i) Student notebooks show evidence of regular written work assigned and checked but no proper written feedback provided. (ii) Student notebooks show evidence of regular written work assigned along with proper written feedback provided by teacher. After that DTE provides coaching about the feedback patterns and correction methodologies along with other indicators. Thus every teacher at primary level is professionally gauged and trained about CF along with other indicators. English is taught as compulsory subject at primary level. Providing feedback to students’ writings is considered as compulsory part of teachers practices at this level. The current study is designed to find the preferences and practices of English teachers at primary school level to provide the error corrective feedback on L2 writings.

Objectives of the Study

For the current study, following objectives were set:

1. To find out preferences of teachers for providing feedback on young learners’ writings.
2. To explore the professional knowledge of teachers for providing written corrective feedback on young learners writings.
3. To know the young learners’ types of error frequently corrected by the teachers in L2 writings.
4. To know kinds of strategies teachers believe are most effective to create accuracy in young learners L2 writings.

Method of the Study

The current study is descriptive in nature and survey design was adopted to precede the research. All English language teachers at primary schools of Punjab constitute the population of the study. Out of total population, a sample of 120 teachers was selected through random sampling to collect the data. Questionnaire was used to collect the data. Questionnaire consisted of 18 items developed on five point Likert scale (Strongly Agree, Agree, Uncertain, Disagree and Strongly Disagree) as per

objectives of the study. The questionnaire was refined for validity of content and reliability test by obtaining experts judgments and changes were made as per suggestions of experts.

To find out the preferences and practices of the teachers for written corrective feedback, these 120 English language teachers of primary schools level were given the questionnaire to respond as per their choice. Questionnaire response rate was 89% as 107 English teachers out of 120 responded for the questionnaire.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

Questionnaire data were analyzed to obtain mean, standard deviation. The results of the data were discussed qualitatively on the basis of opinions and findings made by the earlier researchers. Objective wise interpretation of data is given below.

Teachers' Attitude towards Corrective Feedback

The questionnaire data about teachers' attitude towards CF is presented here with statistical values of means and standard deviation in table 1.

Table 1
Teachers' attitude towards corrective feedback

| S. No. | Questionnaire Statements | Mean (N=107) | Std. Error | Std. Deviation |
|--------|--|--------------|------------|----------------|
| 1 | Providing feedback on student's writings is considered important by the teachers. | 4.14 | 0.084 | 0.874 |
| 2 | Feedback by teachers on students' writings helps them to improve accuracy in writing. | 4.66 | 0.062 | 0.643 |
| 3 | 20 to 30 minutes in average are spent by the teacher to correct the students' errors. | 2.54 | 0.134 | 1.382 |
| 4 | For a teacher responding to errors for all the students is difficult. | 4.02 | 0.125 | 1.288 |
| 5 | For teachers, giving response to all the errors is difficult. | 4.03 | 0.143 | 1.476 |
| 6 | Appreciative remarks are given by the teachers while providing feedback to students' writings. | 3.16 | 0.134 | 1.388 |
| 7 | Feedback on homework assignment is given daily by the teachers. | 2.75 | 0.13 | 1.347 |
| 8 | Comments given by the teachers are always understandable by the students. | 3.24 | 0.133 | 1.373 |
| 9 | Teachers make their students to redrafts their writings after providing feedback. | 4.14 | 0.108 | 1.12 |
| 10 | Students want their teachers to give response to their errors. | 4.23 | 0.12 | 1.241 |

The above table shows that for statement no. 1, mean is 4.14, standard error is 0.084 and standard deviation is 0.874. This statistical data depicts that providing

feedback to student's writings is considered important by teachers. For statement no. 2, mean is 4.66, standard error is 0.062 and standard deviation is 0.643. This statistical data reveals that all the teachers believe that providing feedback to students' writings is helpful for the students.

Similarly, for statement no. 3, a mean of 2.54, standard error of 0.134 and standard deviation of 1.382 depicts that in average about 20 to 30 minutes daily are spent by the teachers for providing feedback to students' writings. Whereas, for statement no. 4, mean is 4.02, standard error is 0.125 and standard deviation is 1.288. This statistical data represents that majority of teachers agree that for a teacher responding to errors for all the students is difficult process.

For statement no. 5, mean is 4.03, standard error is 0.143 and standard deviation is 1.476. Statistical data reveals that most of teachers believe that providing feedback to students writing is difficult process. Whereas, for statement no. 6, mean is 3.16, standard error is 0.134 and standard deviation is 1.38. This statistical data represents that about half of the teachers are of the view that appreciative remarks are given by the teachers while providing feedback to students' writings.

Also, statement no. 7 statistical results are with a mean of 2.75, standard error 0.13 and standard deviation 1.347. This statistical data show that majority of teachers do not provide feedback on homework assignment of the students. Also, for statement no. 8, mean is 3.24, standard error is 0.133 and standard deviation is 1.373 which represents that more than half respondents are of the view that comments given by the teachers are always understandable by the students.

For statement no. 9, mean of the data is 4.14, standard error is 0.108 and standard deviation is 1.12. This data reveals that vast majority of teachers make their students to redrafts their writings after providing feedback. Similarly, for statement no. 10, mean is 4.23, standard error is 0.12 and standard deviation is 1.24. This data clearly depicts that majority of teachers are of the view that students want their teachers to give response to their errors.

Teachers Professional Knowledge about Feedback

The data about the professional knowledge of teachers about feedback is presented in table 2.

In the above table, the mean for statement no.11 is 2.64 while standard error is 0.14 and standard deviation is 1.443. This data shows that teacher has no model or guiding principles to follow for providing feedback to students' writings. For statement no, 12, statistical results with a mean of 4.31, standard error of 0.139 and standard deviation of 1.442 depicts that most of the teacher agree that they do not have proper knowledge for providing feedback to students writings.

Table 2
Teachers' professional knowledge about feedback

| S. No. | Questionnaire Statements | Mean (N=107) | Std. Error | Std. Deviation |
|--------|--|--------------|------------|----------------|
| 11 | Teachers has model (guiding principles) to follow for providing feedback to students writings. | 2.64 | 0.14 | 1.443 |
| 12 | Teachers have proper knowledge to provide feedback for students' writings. | 4.31 | 0.117 | 1.209 |
| 13 | Topics on errors feedback are included in teachers' professional courses. | 2.07 | 0.139 | 1.442 |
| 14 | Teachers need some training on feedback to provide proper feedback. | 3.49 | 0.143 | 1.482 |

For statement no.13, a mean of 2.07, standard error of 0.143 and standard deviation of 1.482, shows that topics on feedback and error correction are not included in teachers professional courses. Whereas statement no. 14 is with a mean of 3.49, standard error of 0.143 and standard deviation of 1.48 represents that teachers need training on feedback.

Teachers' response for CF to correct error categories

Teachers' response for CF to correct error categories is presented in table 3 in the form of mean and standard deviation.

Table 3
Teachers' response for error categories

| S. No. | Questionnaire Statement | Mean (N=107) | Std. Error | Std. Deviation |
|--------|---|--------------|------------|----------------|
| 15 | Feedback is provided for all types of grammatical categories. | 3.58 | 0.14 | 1.447 |

□ N (107) = total number of population

In the above table statement no. 15 shows results about the feedback provided for error categories. The mean score for this statement is 3.58, standard error 0.14 and standard deviation is 1.447. The statistical description for above statement shows that teachers provide feedback to all kind of errors in students' writings.

Teachers' preferences for feedback strategies

Preference of teachers for feedback strategies are presented in the table 4.

For statement no.16, the standard deviation 1.262, standard error 0.12 and mean 4.03 depicts that explicit feedback method of error correction is mostly used by the teacher. Whereas for statement no.17 statistical description with a mean of 4.1, standard

error of 0.137 and standard deviation of 1.42 represents that implicit method of error correction is a less adopted practice for error correction.

Table 4
Teachers' preferences for feedback strategies

| S. No. | Questionnaire Statements | Mean (N=107) | Std. Error | Std. Deviation |
|--------|--|--------------|------------|----------------|
| 16 | Direct (explicit) feedback is provided by the teachers to correct the errors. | 4.03 | 0.122 | 1.262 |
| 17 | Indirect feedback is provided by the teachers to correct the learners' errors. | 4.1 | 0.137 | 1.42 |
| 18 | Mixture of both direct and indirect feedback is adopted for correcting the learners' errors. | 2.14 | 0.097 | 1.004 |

□ N (107) = total number of population

Similarly, for statement no.18, mean of 2.14, standard error of .097 and standard deviation of 1.004 depicts that a combination of both explicit and implicit method of error correction is used by teachers.

Findings

The present study was with objectives to find the attitude of teachers towards WCF, grammatical categories mostly focused for correction, WCF methods used by the teachers and professional knowledge of teachers about WCF. Following are given the objective wise findings of the study.

1. Regarding first objective of the study that is attitude of teachers towards feedback, the data results revealed that mostly providing feedback on students' writing is considered important by the teachers and teachers believe that it helps them to improve accuracy in writings. Further, teachers take it a complex process to respond towards the learners errors because it is a difficult to correct all the errors of the learners by spending about 20 to 30 minutes daily. Most of the teachers were of the view that they provide appreciative remarks as well while providing feedback to students' writings. Also, data findings made it clear that CF on students' homework assignments is not provided by all the teachers. Further, it was revealed that comments given by the teachers are always understandable by the students and majority of teachers make their students to redrafts their writings after providing feedback.
2. The second objective of the study was to analyze the primary schools teachers' professional knowledge about the written corrective feedback. It was found that teachers do not have any model (guiding principles) to follow for providing

feedback to students' writings. It was responded by most of the teachers that topics on errors feedback are not included in teachers' professional courses. Further, teachers were of the view that teachers need some trainings courses on for providing proper feedback.

3. For third objective of the study, it was found that most of the teachers provide feedback on all kind of error categories.
4. For fourth objective of the study it was found that teachers at primary level use direct (explicit) feedback to correct the learners error and indirect corrective feedback is not in optimum use. Further it was analyzed that mixture of both direct and indirect feedback is also adopted for correcting the learners' errors by majority of the teachers. Researchers (like Hendrickson, 1984; Ferris and Roberts, 2001; Ferris, 2002) too suggest that for learners at early age it is more useful to apply the direct method as compared to indirect method of CF. For learners at primary level guidance is needed to discover the nature of errors that is possible by direct CF method.

Recommendations

For providing corrective feedback on students' text at primary level, teachers make efforts and consume their time in this practice so findings of present study may add valuable understanding of written corrective feedback in Pakistani context especially at primary level. Current study reveals the practices, preferences and attitude of teachers for corrective feedback, selection of CF method, selection of error categories for correction and their present knowledge about the CF in L2 pedagogy. The recommendations on the basis of findings of this study are as under.

On the basis of findings of the study it is recommended that as teachers give importance for providing feedback to students' writings, they should provide feedback on daily basis on learner errors in L2 out products.

As per study results teachers usually provide feedback for all kind of errors. It is contrary to Ellis et al. (2008, p. 356) recommendations. Teachers should focus few error categories at specific time for effective learning.

At primary level students are with less knowledge and exposure of L2 so as suggested by Ferris (2002), teachers should use explicit or direct correction so that learners may benefit more from corrective feedback

Further, there is no awareness for primary level teachers in professional courses and trainings to provide CF for young learners so topics on corrective feedback should be included in teachers' professional degree courses and trainings. Further, trainings for in-service teachers should be organized to enhance their professional knowledge about providing feedback. Also, teachers should have knowledge about methods and patterns of error correction strategies at different levels of learning.

References

- Ahmad, I., Saeed, M., & Salam, M. (2013). Effects of corrective feedback on academic achievements of students: case of government secondary schools in Pakistan. *International Journal of Science and Research*, 2, 36-40.
- Ashwell, T. (2000). Patterns of teacher response to student writing in a multiple-draft composition classroom: Is content feedback followed by form feedback the best method? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 9, 227-258.
- Bitchener, J., & Knoch, U. (2009). The value of a focused approach to written corrective feedback. *ELT Journal*, 63, 204-211.
- Carroll, S., Roberge, Y., & Swain, M. (1992). The role of feedback in second language acquisition: Error correction and morphological generalization. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 13, 173-198.
- Chandler, J. (2003). The efficacy of various kinds of error feedback for improvement in the accuracy and fluency of L2 student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12, 267-296.
- Ellis, R. (1991). *Second language acquisition and language pedagogy*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Ellis, R., Sheen, Y., Murakami, M., & Takashima, H. (2008). The effects of focused and unfocused written corrective feedback in English as a foreign language context. *System*, 36(3), 353-371. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2008.02.001>
- Ferris, D.R. (1995b). Student reactions to teacher response in multiple-draft composition classrooms, *TESOL Quarterly*, 29, 33-53.
- Ferris, D. R. (1997). The influence of teacher commentary on student revision. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31, 315-339.
- Ferris, D.R. (1999). The case for grammar correction in L2 writing classes: A response to Truscott (1996). *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8(1), 1-11.
- Ferris, D.R. (2002). *Treatment of error in second language student writing*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Ferris, D.R., & Helt, M. (2000). Was Truscott right? New evidence on the effects of error correction in L2 writing classes. Paper presented at Proceedings of the American Association of Applied Linguistics Conference, Vancouver, B.C., March 11-14, 2000.

- Ferris, D., & Roberts, B. (2001). Error Feedback in L2 writing Classes: How Explicit Does it Need to be? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 10, 161–184.
- Ferris, D.R. (2006). Does error feedback help student writers? New evidence on the short- and long-term effects of written error correction. In K. Hyland & F. Hyland (Eds.), *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues*. (pp. 81-104). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ferris, D.R., & Hedgcock, J.S. (2005). *Teaching ESL Composition: Purpose, Process and Practice (2nd ed.)*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Govt. of Pakistan (2015), *Pakistan, Education for All 2015 National Review*, Ministry of Education, Trainings and Standards in Higher Education Academy of Educational Planning and Management Islamabad, Pakistan.
- Gul, M. Sherwin, R. (2012). Unveiling the focus of a teacher’s written feedback on students’ composition writing in Pakistan. *International Researcher. Volume No.1*, 60-66.
- Hammerly, H. (1991) Instructional strategies and SLA in early French immersion. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15(2), 245-59.
- Hendrickson, J. M. (1980). Error correction in foreign language teaching: Recent theory, research and practice. In K. Croff (Ed.), *Reading in English as a second language: For teachers and teacher trainees* (2nd ed., pp. 153-173). Cambridge: Winthrop Publishers, Inc.
- Lalande, J. F. (1982). Reducing composition errors: An experiment. *Modern Language Journal*, 66(2), 140-149.
- Lee, I., (2004). Error correction in L2 secondary writing classroom: the case of Hong Kong. *Journal of Second Language Writing* 13 (4), 285–312.
- Leki, I. (1990). Coaching from the margins: Issues in writing response. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Second Language Writing* (pp. 57-68). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lennon, P. (1991). Error: some problems of definition and identification. *Applied Linguistic*, 12(2), Oxford, pp. 180-195.
- Miceli, T. (2006) Foreign Language Students’ Perceptions of a Reflective Approach to Text Correction. *Flinders University Languages Group Online Review*, 3(1), 25-36.
- Michas, I. Berry, D.C. (1994) Implicit and explicit processes in a second language learning task. *European Journal of Cognitive Psychology*, 6, 357-381.

- Noureen, G. Akhtar, M., Nisa, Effect of descriptive feedback and corrective feedback on academic achievement of VII graders in Mathematics. *Pakistan Journal of Education*, 30-II, 33-45.
- Polio, C., Fleck, C., & Leder, N. (1998). "If only I had more time": ESL learners' changes in linguistic accuracy on essay revisions. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 7, 43– 68.
- Rennie, C. (2000). *Error feedback in ESL writing classes: What do students really want?* Master's thesis, California State University, Sacramento
- Russell, J., & Spada, N. (2006). The effectiveness of corrective feedback for second language acquisition: A meta-analysis of the research. In J. Norris, & L. Ortega (Eds.), *Synthesizing research on language learning and teaching* (pp. 131–164). Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Sheen, Y. (2007). The effect of focused written corrective feedback and language aptitude on ESL learners' acquisition of articles. *TESOL Quarterly*, 41, 255-283.
- Truscott, J. (1996). The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes. *Language Learning*, 46, 327– 369.
- Truscott, J. (1999). What's wrong with oral correction? *Canadian Modern Language review*, 55, 4.
- Truscott, J. & Hsu, Y.P. (2008). Error correction, revision, and learning. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 17, 292-305.

Active and Receptive Behaviours of Trainee Teachers and Students during Teaching-Learning Process in Classrooms

Muhammad Uzair-ul-Hassan*

Iram Parveen*

Muhammad Riaz*

Abstract

The study intends to investigate effectiveness of teaching-learning process through observing active and receptive behaviours of trainee teachers and students in classrooms. The objective is to observe and measure behaviors connected to active, enhanced receptive, and receptive learning. The study targets at finding and comparing effectiveness of teaching-learning process and is based on observation schedule analysis. It includes two groups of trainee teachers, one is of Master of Art in Education (M.A.) and other is of Bachelor of Education (B.Ed). Flanders' Interaction Observation Schedule has been used to observe and measure classroom behaviors of trainee teachers as well as students. The population consists of all male and female trainee teachers completing their academic courses at University. The study reveals that receptive/passive learning behaviours of both trainee teachers and students dominate in classrooms. Analysis, further, shows that trainee teachers of M.A Education program show more active and enhanced receptive learning behaviors i.e.; 31.4% and 27.8% respectively as compared to B.Ed trainee teachers i.e.; 20.1% and 23.6% respectively. This indicates trainee teachers of M.A Education degree programme are more inclined in creating active-learning environment among students' behaviors during teaching-learning process in classrooms. The study suggests that teachers of teacher-training institutes and universities should incorporate the elements of active learning (AL) technique during teaching to make prospective teachers understand that how teaching can be made active during teaching-learning process in classrooms

Key Words: Active behavior, receptive behavior, trainee teachers, teaching-learning process

Introduction

Schools play an important role in any society. Schools are responsible for shaping the destiny of nation by developing learners into sensible and competent

*University of Sargodha, Sargodha.

E-mail: uhassan74@gmail.com

citizens through provision of planned and systematic instruction. So schools need to be extremely effective commodity in the society. In order the schools to be effective, teaching and learning process needs to be effective. Learning marks its goal, if it results in concept building; sets a stage for new learning & endured for a longer period by the learners. There is no doubt that this goal of long lasting learning can be achieved only through quality teaching. If instructional process holds versatility in implementing variety of techniques/strategies according to the subject demand and encompasses learning needs of different learners, it surely leads to effective learning. Therefore, it is inevitably required that the quality of teaching be risen up to an acceptable standard of achieving the desired goal of effective learning. An extremely effective way to impart learning is considered by way to promote active engagement of students in the learning process where they can pose questions, actively construct the ideas & respond to the ideas of one another that can lead them to make knowledge on their own. Hur and Suh (2012) have highlighted that active learning process assists learners to get involved and has a positive and lasting impact on learning. Mere acquisition of knowledge through passive listening is insufficient for in depth understanding and thus cannot result in greater retention by the learners. Hence it becomes a sole responsibility of teachers to create an environment where learners are engaged in actively constructing knowledge on their own.

Contrary to this is the traditional approach to teaching where teacher's lecture is the only means for learning to take place. No doubt, traditional approaches prove to be useful to some extent, but drawback associated with this method is that students don't have their share in their own learning; rather they are passively filling their minds with bundles and packs of knowledge. Whereas, modern approach to effective learning demands that there should be a shift in the responsibility of learning from teacher to students. Therefore, a comprehensive way is to integrate lectures with different techniques and strategies that involve students in quest for knowledge and make learning happen on their own. Today, it has been understood that the term teaching & learning can't be separated from each other. It is a process where teachers and students altogether play their role in knowledge acquisition and each student gets a chance to respond & proceed according to his own ability. According to Maitles and McAlpine (2012), active learning needs teachers to use various teaching methods to involve students. So, active learning is much more goal oriented than passive learning as students continue to respond actively in the learning process and the teacher gets first-hand knowledge about their learning state. It should be clear that there is no borderline difference in active and passive learning. In a sense, all learning is active, however active engagement of learner in the learning process implies that the learner utilizes his mental capabilities and avails all possible opportunities to gain knowledge on his own.

According to Smyth (2009), active learning should be used frequently. Active Learning (AL) is a process of learning by doing. Indeed, active learning is essential for

effective learning. When a teacher involves students in some activity, for instance, asks questions, engage them in discussions, it leads them to think more wisely and express themselves more precisely. Therefore each teacher should act as enabler and mentor to create appropriate conditions for active learning. Teachers need to encompass learning needs of different students, divide time fairly among all students so that everyone can participate. They have to provide pupils with quality learning experiences to make teaching effective in the real sense. Here therefore, arises an issue to train the teachers for using effective instructional strategies and developing healthy student-teacher interactions leading to active learning in the classrooms. For this, teachers must not only possess good subject matter knowledge but also most importantly, pedagogical content knowledge to become able to design effective strategies for active engagement of learners in the learning process. Keeping ongoing teaching-learning process under observation, teaching skills leading to active learning and also the deficiencies in this area can well be examined. Observing trainee-teachers can best serve the purpose as teachers' training institutes can get the opportunity to get knowledge about the lacking within their products as well as within their own teaching system employed to train the future-teachers before introducing them in to the market. Therefore, proposed study is designed with the same intention of improving the quality of teaching learning process by investigating trainee-teachers' as well as their respective students' behaviors leading to active learning in the classroom settings. For this, the research study makes use of non-participant observational technique to collect the data from classes arranged for trainee teachers under teaching practice. The data collected is analyzed for locating the flaws in the system and improvements are suggested to make instructional process more meaningful and credible. The trainee-teachers must learn to develop effective teacher-learner interaction and implement active learning into the classrooms at the doorstep so as to overcome the barriers hitting educational scene of Pakistan. Hopefully the efforts of the researchers through this research study will share a useful contribution towards promoting active learning in the educational settings and pave the way towards educational progress.

Opposite arguments are developed against active learning (AL) technique that AL replaces more traditional approaches like lectures in the classrooms. No doubt, lectures have their advantages and have their place in a methodological toolbox. But still researches in this field compel that some kind of students' involvement with course content leads to gains in learning not seen using traditional approaches. For example, Breslow (1999) explained that use of AL strategy into the classrooms improves the learning outcomes as compared to teaching-learning process in which students are mere passive listeners and are not making an act of doing something. Murdoch and Guy (2002) investigated that small class students scored significantly higher on the final exam than did students in the large section as far as active learning is concerned. Reddy (2000) concluded that the outcome measures clearly indicated improved/enhanced

learning by the students in AL setting compared to traditional lecture-based format. Yaakov and Myzliek (1998) demonstrated that active training leads to better performance than passive training on the more difficult task. They further explained that active training seems to leave more durable traces in memory than passive training. The results of the study conducted by Ndoye (2003) revealed that experiential learning needs to be rooted in the culture and values of the social environment in which adults live and individual characteristics may influence the impact of experiential learning on adult professionals' abilities to reach higher levels of performance. Gupta (2004) suggested that cooperative learning was very well received by students, and they expressed willingness to join cooperative learning groups in other courses.

Handzic and Tolhurst (2002) found a significant positive effect of interaction on learners' overall decision accuracy and interactive learners tended to make smaller decision errors than their non-interactive counterparts irrespective of the stage of their decision making process. They suggested that future management education needs to consider forms of interactive learning in response to environment pressures for faster and more effective learning. The result of the study conducted by Sivan, Leung, Woon & Kember (2000) showed that active learning made a valuable contribution to the development of independent learning skills and the ability to apply knowledge. It also helped to create interest in the curriculum and to prepare students for their future careers. The activities used affected the quality of student learning by shaping the way that students studied and meeting desired learning outcomes. The study also showed that various forms of active learning contributed to the development of qualities like critical thinking and problem solving. Through these activities students discovered new information for them and became self-managed learners. The implications of this research were that development of critical thinking skills due to implementing active learning strategies in the classrooms will prove to be very helpful for students in management disciplines. Reason being- learning about specific information and procedures is becoming less and less important as the information itself rapidly becomes outdated.

Helman and Horswill (2002) concluded that students who completed the course on research design and statistics, that incorporated a number of non-traditional teaching techniques, outperformed a matched group of students who completed a previous course without these innovations. Their exam scores were 10.1% higher, indicating that the effect was not trivial. In the light of various learning approaches and modern concepts of learning, it is explicit that learning in an environment where a learner is actively engaged in the learning process is most successful and indeed a learners' need. If a learner is allowed for exploration, given an opportunity to actively participate and there is a shift of responsibility of learning towards learner, there can be seen significant improvement in learning process. Maurine, Indoshi, Okwach & Osodo (2012) explain that most Kiswahili classrooms were also seen to be dominated with teachers using the

lecture method and in few instances asking students questions and students responding to what had been asked by their teachers. According to them the results of their study assist teachers in improving their classroom communication and instructional strategies and promote students' academic achievement.

Currently, teachers in Pakistan are getting the professional teacher training under post-graduate courses namely B.Ed, M.Ed and M.A Education. Teachers-training institutes and universities have been offering these degree courses and have been successfully producing trained teachers. The reviewed literature available reveals that rare studies are assessing Active Learning (AL) of trainee teachers' teachings in classrooms. Therefore, the proposed study is designed to focus to assess the implementation of the Active Learning (AL) strategies by the trainee teachers of universities in Punjab, Pakistan. For this purpose, research questions have been formulated that clearly represent the foregrounds on which the study is conducted. The study intends to investigate the effectiveness of teaching-learning process of trainee teachers of M.A Education and B.Ed who were teaching in public and private schools.

The research study intend to achieve following objectives:

1. To study the need and importance of Active Learning through extensive literature review.
2. To explore behaviors of trainee teachers of M.A Education and BEd leading to active learning enhanced receptive learning and receptive learning.
3. To investigate student's behaviors leading to active learning, enhanced receptive learning and receptive learning taught by trainee teachers of M.A Education and BEd.
4. To compare average time spent on active learning, enhanced receptive learning and receptive learning by trainee teachers of B.Ed and M.A Education degree programme.
5. To compare the effectiveness of teaching learning process of trainee teachers of B.Ed and M.A Education.

Following are research questions of the study.

1. Are behaviours of trainee teachers in classrooms more receptive than active?
2. Are trainee teachers' behaviours of MA Education programme more active than BEd programme in the Universities?
3. Are trainee teachers' behaviours varying from primary to elementary to secondary classes?
4. Are trainee teachers' behaviours varying across subjects they teach?
5. Do trainee teachers stimulate students' active learning behaviours?
6. Do trainee teachers of MA Education programme stimulate students' active learning behaviours more than trainee teachers of BEd programme?

The study reveals the facts, why active teaching learning is essential for the students for Baining high academic achievement in various subjects. Teachers can get help to produce variety in their instructional method and thus making classroom environment more active and productive rather passive through maintaining traditional approaches in classes. The study also provides a guideline to the teacher-training institutions in magnifying their instructional strategies and communication methods according to needs of the trainee teachers as well as the needs of the market. It enables trainee teachers to get first-hand knowledge of the deficiencies in their instructional methods and mend their ways for creating an effective teaching-learning environment & proceed with a successful future career according to the needs. Active teaching-learning process is a dynamic and multi dimensional term, which has the great flexible capacities of adjustment in a variety of teaching learning situations. So the teachers would be facilitated to understand the nature of active and passive leaning and their affective functioning on the learners and in the classroom achievement as well. The study also provides a dimension for future researchers to seek guidelines for further research work in the field of active learning.

Methodology

This part deals with the research design of the study, population, sampling, variables, research questions, data collection instrument, certain methods and procedures that are used for collecting relevant data and information in order to achieve reliable conclusion, and methods of data analysis. This proposed study was targeted at finding and comparing the effectiveness of teaching learning process of trainee teachers of M.A Education and B.Ed of Department of Eductaion, University of Sargodha. It was a descriptive research in nature, and two groups of trainee teachers have been included to investigate the effectiveness of teaching learning process. One of the groups is trainee teachers of M.A Education and the other group is of trainee teachers of B.Ed. It was an observational study as Best (1977) states: "Observation is a technique that can often reveal characteristics of groups or individuals that would have been impossible to discover by other means. He asserts that as a data-gathering device; direct observation may take an important contribution to descriptive research" (Soni, 2003). 'Flanders' Interaction Observation Schedule' has been used in this study to gather information about the effectiveness of teaching learning process of trainee teachers of M.A Education and B.Ed in the perspective of classroom behaviors of trainee teachers as well as students.

The population for this study consisted of all the male, female trainee teachers of M.A Education and B.Ed getting and completing their academic courses at University of Sargodha in the sessions. The supervisors of these three classes M.A Education (Morning), M.A Education (Evening), and B.Ed were contacted to receive the list of trainee teachers placed at different schools of District Sargodha for teaching practice. The attendance registers (for trainee teachers) of the schools were the main

source of information about the exact number of trainee teachers practicing in those schools. Sample is a part of larger group of individuals, cases, and elements “called population” to gain information for the purpose of generalizing the results on population. As far as this study is concerned all the trainee teachers of M.A Education and B.Ed were placed by the faculty (supervisors) of the Department of Education, University of Sargodha, and the researches had no open choice to change the placement of the trainee teachers to make a well balanced design. Therefore, intact groups (clusters) were selected which included both the trainee teachers of M.A Education and B.Ed in a particular school. Furthermore, as the teaching practice comprised on two months, so in order to make the sample more and more representative of the population for this study, it was mutually decided with the supervisor to collect the data from the schools that were easily accessible and that occupied greater number of trainee teachers. These clusters were visited by researchers which were easy to access for administering and collecting the data to complete the research project. Trainee-teachers have been selected as per researchers’ convenience using intact group (cluster) sampling technique.

The tool used in this study is an observational schedule developed by Flanders, (1970), that is also available online. As Bell, (1987), describes Observation as a technique that can often reveal characteristics of group or individuals that would have been impossible to discover by other means. The observation schedule had two alternative sections. The first section contained a list of fifteen different behaviors, elicited by trainee teachers, and general information such as name of school, type of school, gender of pupils, class observed, date, time, and subject being taught. The second portion focused on a list of fifteen different behaviors elicited by concerned students of the trainee teachers as well as information like name of the trainee teacher, M.A Education/ B.Ed, duration of lesson, name of the observer and signature of the observer.

The observer had to judge each behavior of trainee teacher and students in the classroom alternatively and mark a check against each listed behavior elicited by trainee teachers and students. For this purpose a stopwatch was used. The first minute was reserved to judge teacher’s behaviors; therefore, all teachers’ behaviors were noticed & marked against each listed behavior in this minute. The second minute was reserved for students, and behaviors elicited by students as a whole were judged in this minute and checks were made against each listed behavior. Similarly all the time of the period was distributed alternatively between teacher and students to judge their behaviors. Educational planners have, for many years noticed that students’ learning is optimized when active learning strategies are implemented into the classrooms. So the teachers having post-graduate teachers’ training (B.Ed and M.A Education) must be fully equipped with all the professional qualities to implement AL strategies into the classrooms so as to produce exceptionally talented individual of the society. Therefore

the following research study explores and compares the teaching effectiveness of the trainee teachers of B.Ed and M.A education in terms of creating active learning environment in the classrooms so that deficit areas in professional training of the trainee-teachers be worked out in time by the experts in the field of Education. It is therefore an observational non-participant research study in which the researchers themselves observed the ongoing teaching-learning process of the trainee teachers of B.Ed and M.A Education using Flanders' Observation Schedule that encompasses teachers' as well as students' behaviors contributing to active learning, receptive learning and enhanced receptive learning. Attributes identified under different categories are as follows:

Receptive Learning Behaviors

1 = Lecturing/ giving talk, 6 = Listening to students read, 7 = Giving Dictation, 8 = Writing on the blackboard, 10 = Giving Direction/ Organizing, 11 = Marking/ Silent reading, 12 = Other administrative task etc

Active Learning Behaviors

2.1 = Asking questions-group, 2.3 = Individual – thinking, 5 = Leading Discussion, 9.1 = Assisting pupils writing, 9.2 = - Activity

Enhanced Receptive Learning Behaviors

2.2 = Individual – recall, 4 = Demonstrating activity

Receptive Learning Behaviors

1 = Listening to teacher, 6 = Reading, 7.1 = Writing – Copying, 10 = Waiting/ irrelevant behavior

Active Learning Behaviors

2.1 = Answering questions-group, 2.3 = Individual- thinking, 3 = Asking questions, 5 = Discussing T/L – with teacher, 5.1 = - with peers, 8 = Organizing activities, 9 = Performing activities

Enhanced Receptive Learning Behaviors

2.2 = Individual – recall, 4 = Observing Demonstration

The process of data collection began with the permission of the supervisors of M.A Education (Morning), M.A Education (Evening), and B.Ed as well as the Coordinator of the Department of Education, University of Sargodha. Secondly, after preparing a cover letter, all the heads of the concerning schools where trainee teachers were placed for teaching practice were contacted personally by the researchers before visiting their schools for data collection. A simil of the cover letter were handed over to them. Also the purpose of the research study and the importance of active learning were discussed. It was assured that information gained from their schools will be kept confidential and will only be used for research purposes. After the granted permission for the data collection from authorities of the concerned schools, the researchers visited the schools personally to acquire the required information. The supervisor gave

instructions to researchers on how to use and rate the different students'- trainee teachers' behaviors on the Flanders' Interaction Observational Schedule.

Data Analysis

Firstly, the observational schedule sheets of trainee teachers of M.A Education and B.Ed were sorted out to enter the data for computer analysis. Each category of behavior was calculated manually in percentages on the sheets for each trainee teacher. Data entry and analysis were performed by researchers themselves with the assistance of the supervisor. The software used for data analysis was Microsoft Excel. Data were analyzed using simple statistical methods such as percentage, average, and frequency tables etc. The samples were comprised on the trainee teachers of M.A Education. There were no mistake or missing values as the observational schedule was administered to collect data from samples. The whole sample was divided into two main groups i.e., trainee teachers of M.A Education and trainee teachers of B.Ed. The following table shows a breakdown of trainee teachers in the data.

Table 1

| Program | Male | Female | Total |
|---------------|------|--------|-------|
| M.A Education | 02 | 46 | 48 |
| B.Ed | 06 | 26 | 32 |

These two groups were investigated on the variable school (private and public), Gender, School Level (primary, middle, secondary), and subjects taught by trainee teachers. First of all observations schedule sheets of trainee teachers of M.A Education and trainee teachers of B.Ed were separated, then each listed behavior for teachers and students was calculated in percentages using the following formulas:

For trainee teachers:

$$\text{Each listed behavior (\%)} = \frac{\text{Total time against each behavior}}{\text{Total time of trainee teacher}} \times 100$$

For students:

$$\text{Each listed behavior (\%)} = \frac{\text{Total time against each behavior}}{\text{Total time of students}} \times 100$$

Data values on the variables trainee teachers of M.A Education and trainee teachers of B.Ed, school, school level, groups and subjects were typed into separate excel sheets and carefully checked. An average value of each listed behavior for trainee teachers of M.A Education, B.Ed, and their concerned students on active learning, receptive learning and enhanced receptive learning was calculated on the variables school, school level, gender of the trainee teachers and subjects taught by trainee teachers. Similarly overall an average value of active learning, receptive learning and enhanced receptive learning on the variables school, school level, gender of the trainee teachers, and subjects taught by trainee teachers was calculated to compare the

effectiveness of teaching learning process of trainee teachers of M.A Education and B.Ed.

Table 2

| Break down of teachers by key School | | | |
|--------------------------------------|--------|---------|-------|
| Program | Public | Private | Total |
| M.A Education | 17 | 31 | 48 |
| B.Ed | ---- | 32 | 32 |

Table 3

| Break down of teachers by key Subjects | | | |
|--|------|---------|-------|
| Program | Arts | Science | Total |
| M.A Education | 30 | 18 | 48 |
| B.Ed | 17 | 15 | 32 |

Table 4

| Break down of teachers by key School level | | | | |
|--|---------|--------|-----------|-------|
| Program | Primary | Middle | Secondary | Total |
| M.A Education | 07 | 06 | 33 | 48 |
| B.Ed | 07 | 09 | 16 | 32 |

Table 5

Percentage of active and receptive teaching behavior of trainee teachers of M.A Education and B.Ed

| Program | N | Active Learning Behavior (Average) | Receptive Learning Behavior (Average) | Enhanced Receptive Learning Behavior (Average) |
|---------------|----|------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|
| M.A Education | 48 | 46.4% | 36.9% | 26.9% |
| B.Ed | 32 | 20.9% | 43.2% | 22.1% |

This table shows that trainee teachers of M.A Education spending an average time 46.4% on the active learning, 36.9% on receptive learning, and 26.9% on enhanced receptive learning whereas trainee teachers of B.Ed spending an average time 20.9% on active learning, 43.2% on receptive learning, and 22.1% on enhanced receptive learning.

Table 6
Percentage of active and receptive learning behaviours of students taught by trainee teachers of M.A Education and B.Ed

| Students | Active Learning Behavior (Average) | Receptive Learning Behavior (Average) | Enhanced Receptive Learning Behavior (Average) |
|---------------|------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|
| M.A Education | 24.5% | 47.5% | 28.5% |
| B.Ed | 27.7% | 55.8% | 27.2% |

This table shows that students taught by trainee teachers of M.A Education are spending an average time 24.5% on active learning, 47.5% on receptive learning, and 28.5% on enhanced receptive learning whereas students taught by trainee teachers of B.Ed are spending an average time 27.7% on active learning, 55.8% on receptive learning, and 27.2% on enhanced receptive learning.

Table 7
Percentage of active and receptive teaching behaviours of male trainee teachers of M.A Education and B.Ed

| Male | N | Active Learning Behavior (Average) | Receptive Learning Behavior (Average) | Enhanced Receptive Learning Behavior (Average) |
|---------------|----|------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|
| M.A Education | 02 | 24.6% | 34.4% | 22% |
| B.Ed | 06 | 13.7% | 46.4% | 11.6% |

This table shows that male trainee teachers of M.A Education are spending an average time 24.6% on active learning, 34.4% on receptive learning, and 22% on enhanced receptive learning whereas male trainee teachers of B.Ed are spending an average time 13.7% on active learning, 46.4% on receptive learning, and 11.6% on enhanced receptive learning.

Table 8
Percentage of active and receptive teaching behavior of female trainee teachers of M.A Education and B.Ed

| Female | N | Active Learning Behavior (Average) | Receptive Learning Behavior (Average) | Enhanced Receptive Learning Behavior (Average) |
|---------------|----|------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|
| M.A Education | 46 | 23.5% | 37% | 27.1% |
| B.Ed | 26 | 22.6% | 43.2% | 24.5% |

This table shows that female trainee teachers of M.A Education are spending an average time 23.5% on active learning, 37% on receptive learning, and 27.1% on

enhanced receptive learning whereas male trainee teachers of B.Ed are spending an average time 22.6% on active learning, 43.2% on receptive learning, and 24.5% on enhanced receptive learning.

Table 9

Overall percentage of active and receptive teaching behavior of trainee teachers of M.A Education and B.Ed

| Primary | N | Active Learning Behavior (Average) | Receptive Learning Behavior (Average) | Enhanced Receptive Learning Behavior (Average) |
|---------------|----|------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|
| M.A Education | 07 | 24.4% | 34.9% | 31.3% |
| B.Ed | 07 | 33.9% | 45.2% | 19.4% |

This table shows that trainee teachers of M.A Education at primary level are spending an average time 24.4% on active learning, 34.9% on receptive learning, and 31.3% on enhanced receptive learning whereas male trainee teachers of B.Ed are spending an average time 33.6% on active learning, 45.2% on receptive learning, and 19.4% on enhanced receptive learning.

Table 10

Percentage of active and receptive behaviours of trainee teachers who taught at elementary level

| Middle | N | Active Learning Behavior (Average) | Receptive Learning Behavior (Average) | Enhanced Receptive Learning Behavior (Average) |
|---------------|----|------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|
| M.A Education | 06 | 25.8% | 44.8% | 37.2% |
| B.Ed | 09 | 19.9% | 40.3% | 30.3% |

This table shows that trainee teachers of M.A Education at middle level are spending an average time 25.8% on active learning, 44.8% on receptive learning, and 37.2% on enhanced receptive learning whereas male trainee teachers of B.Ed are spending an average time 19.9% on active learning, 40.3% on receptive learning, and 30.3% on enhanced receptive learning.

This table shows that trainee teachers of M.A Education at secondary level are spending an average time 22.8% on active learning, 35.5% on receptive learning, and 23.2% on enhanced receptive learning whereas trainee teachers of B.Ed at secondary level are spending an average time 15.8% on active learning, 45.2% on receptive learning, and 20.1% on enhanced receptive learning.

Table 11

Percentage of active and receptive behaviours of trainee teachers who taught at secondary level

| Secondary | N | Active Learning Behavior (Average) | Receptive Learning Behavior (Average) | Enhanced Receptive Learning Behavior (Average) |
|---------------|----|------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|
| M.A Education | 33 | 22.8% | 35.5% | 23.2% |
| B.Ed | 16 | 15.8% | 45.2% | 20.1% |

Table 12

Percentage of active and receptive learning behaviours of trainee teachers of M.A Education and B.Ed who taught arts subjects

| Arts | N | Active Learning Behavior (Average) | Receptive Learning Behavior (Average) | Enhanced Receptive Learning Behavior (Average) |
|---------------|----|------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|
| M.A Education | 30 | 18.1% | 38.5% | 26.7% |
| B.Ed | 17 | 23.1% | 33.8% | 22.3% |

This table shows that trainee teachers of M.A Education are spending an average time 18.1% on active learning, 38.5% on receptive learning, and 26.7% on enhanced receptive learning in the teaching of arts subjects whereas trainee teachers of B.Ed are spending an average time 23.1% on active learning, 33.8% on receptive learning, and 22.3% on enhanced receptive learning.

Table 13

Percentage of active and receptive learning behaviours of trainee teachers of M.A Education and B.Ed who taught science subjects

| Science | N | Active Learning Behavior (Average) | Receptive Learning Behavior (Average) | Enhanced Receptive Learning Behavior (Average) |
|---------------|----|------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|
| M.A Education | 18 | 24.1% | 49.8% | 22.5% |
| B.Ed | 15 | 24.2% | 44.1% | 21.9% |

This table shows that trainee teachers of M.A Education are spending an average time 24.1% on active learning, 49.8% on receptive learning, and 22.5% on enhanced receptive learning in the teaching of arts subjects whereas trainee teachers of B.Ed are spending an average time 24.2% on active learning, 44.1% on receptive learning, and 21.9% on enhanced receptive learning.

Overall results of this study show that trainee teachers of M.A. Education are spending more time i.e., 46.4% on active learning, 26.9% on enhanced receptive

learning, and 36.9% on receptive learning as compare to trainee teachers of B.Ed who are spending an average time i.e., 20.9% on active learning, 22.1% on enhanced receptive learning, and 43.2% on receptive learning. So it is concluded that trainee teachers of M.A Education are more effective teachers than Trainee teachers of B.Ed in classroom settings.

Discussion

Trainee teachers of M.A Education spent more time on active learning as compared to receptive and enhanced receptive learning. While trainee teachers of B.Ed spent less time on active learning. Therefore, study reveals that M.A Education trainee teachers' teaching is more active learning oriented than B.Ed trainee teachers. Students taught by trainee teachers of M.A Education spent less time on receptive learning and on enhanced receptive learning as compared to students taught by trainee teachers of B.Ed who spent more time on receptive and enhanced receptive learning. According to Maitles & McAlpine (2012), active learning needs teachers to use various teaching methods to involve students. Teachers of MA Education program are more diverse in their teaching methods that indicates active learning environment in classroom. In our study the male trainee teachers of M.A Education spent more time on active learning as compared to male trainee teachers of B.Ed who spent less time on active learning. Therefore, teaching of male M.A Education trainee teachers is more effective than male B.Ed trainee teachers. Female trainee teachers of M.A Education spent more time on active learning as compared to trainee teachers of B.Ed who spent less time on active learning. Therefore, teaching of female M.A Education trainee teachers seems better than female B.Ed trainee teachers.

Trainee teachers of M.A Education at primary level spent less time on active learning as compared to trainee teachers of B.Ed at primary who spent more time on active learning. Therefore, at primary level the B.Ed trainee teachers seem better than M.A Education trainee teachers. Trainee teachers of M.A Education at middle level spent more time on active learning as compared to trainee teachers of B.Ed at middle level who spent less time on active learning. Therefore, at middle the M.A Education trainee teachers are more effective than B.Ed trainee teachers. Trainee teachers of M.A Education at secondary level spent more time on active learning as compared to trainee teachers of B.Ed at secondary level who spent less time on active learning. Therefore, at secondary level the M.A Education trainee teachers seem better than B.Ed trainee teachers. The arts subjects taught by trainee teachers of M.A Education spent less time on active learning as compared to trainee teachers of B.Ed who spent more time on active learning. Therefore, teaching of arts subjects of B.Ed trainee teachers seem effective than M.A Education trainee teachers. Teaching of science subjects by both the trainee teachers of M.A Education and B.Ed has almost same values. Reddy's (2000) study showed that the outcome measures clearly indicated improved/enhanced learning by the students in active learning setting compared to traditional lecture-based format.

Our study compares various programs with respected to active and receptive behaviours of teachers and students, and indicates that active behaviour of teachers is a source to get students involved in active learning. The behaviours of trainee teachers of MA Education programme is a source of stimulation for students to actively involved in learning while trainee teachers of BEd programme have less active learning behaviours.

Conclusion

In receptive teaching-learning process teachers dominate the whole class and students are not actively involved in classrooms. Students are passive listeners and they are expected to do what the teachers want them to do. The analysis reflects the same in classrooms selected for the study. Whereas in the active teaching learning process, teacher creates such an environment in which students are actively engaged in all the learning activities arranged by the teacher so that they can play an active role to gain information, to enhance their present level of knowledge, to build their concepts as well as constructs. Observations recorded through Flander's interaction analysis schedule to measure the effective of teaching learning process indicate that trainee teachers of M.A Education although in minority are oriented towards active and enhanced receptive learning behaviours. Trainee teachers of the program show higher percentage of active learning and enhanced receptive learning behaviors as compared to active learning behaviors and enhanced receptive learning behaviors of trainee teachers of B.Ed degree program. Further, extensive use of receptive learning behaviors by trainee teachers of B.Ed degree programme as compared to receptive learning behaviors of trainee teachers of M.A education programme indicate that trainee teachers of M.A Education are better in stimulating active learning behaviours of students in classrooms. The study suggests that teachers of teacher-training institutes and universities should incorporate the elements of active learning (AL) technique in teachings to make prospective teachers understand that how teaching can be made active during teaching-learning process in classrooms. The research conducted indicates the effectiveness of teaching-learning process of trainee teachers in schools and further strongly suggests that teacher-training institutes and universities should bear the responsibility of training the teachers for implementing active learning (AL) technique into the classrooms. To do this, they must stay abreast with the current performances of the teachers under training sessions so that they can timely get the chance to rethink over the curriculum and teaching methods employed to teach the student-teachers. Also the weak/deficit areas of the trainee teachers' classroom performances regarding Active Learning (AL) shall be timely checked and worked out for the improvement of instruction.

Acknowledgement

We acknowledge the effort of trainee teachers in Sargodha who facilitated us in collecting data for the research work.

References

- Breslow, L. (1999). *New Research Points to the Importance of Using Active Learning in the Classroom*, (13)1. Retrieved in February 4, 2007 from: <http://www.rockley.com/TheRockleyReport/V114/Gaining%20Management%20Support.htm>
- Flanders, N.A. (1970). *Analysis Teaching Behavior*. Cambridge, Mass: Addison-Wesley.
- Gupta, M. L. (2004). Enhancing student performance through cooperative learning in physical sciences. University of Queensland Australia. *Journal of Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*. 29(1). Routledge, Retrieved in September 2007 from: <http://www.tandf.co.uk/journals/>
- Handzic, M. & Tolhurst, D. (2002). Evaluating an interactive learning environment in management education. *Journal for Educational Technology and Society* 6(3). Retrieved in September 27, 2007 from: http://ifets.ieee.org/periodical/vol_3_2002/handzic.html
- Helman, S. & Horswill, M. S. (2002). Does the introduction of non-traditional teaching techniques improve psychology undergraduates' performance in statistics? *Psychology Learning and Teaching*. 2(1): 12-16. Retrieved in September 25, 2007 from: <http://ltsnpsy.york.ac.uk/LTSNPsych/flat21files/21helman.pdf>
- Hur, J. W., & Suh, S. (2012). Making Learning Active with Interactive Whiteboards, Podcasts, and Digital Storytelling in ELL Classrooms. *Computers in the Schools*, 29(4), 320-338. doi: 10.1080/07380569.2012.734275
- Maitles, H., & McAlpine, C. (2012). 'I've adopted a tiger': enhancing teaching and learning with infants through an active and integrated approach. *Education 3-13*, 40(5), 515-531. doi: 10.1080/03004279.2010.550587
- Maurine, K., Indoshi, F. C., Okwach, T.O. & Osodo, J. (2012). International Journal of Educational Research and Technology. Department of Educational Communication, Technology and Curriculum Studies. 3(2). Maseno University, Kenya.
- Morton, M. (2006). Centre for Learning and Teaching Through Technology (LT3), University of Waterloo Created: July 17, 2006. Available online at retrieved September 10, 2007 from: <http://www.bucknell.edu/img/assets/8455/Michael%20Prince.pdf>

- Murdoch, B. & Guy, P. W. (2002). Active learning in small and large classes. *Journal of Accounting Education*. 11(3). Routledge. Retrieved in September 25, 2007 from: [://www.tandf.co.uk/journals/](http://www.tandf.co.uk/journals/)
- Ndoye, A. (2003). Experiential learning, self-beliefs and adult performance in Senegal University of Connecticut, USA, *International Journal of Lifelong Education*. 22(4): 353-366.-Routledge, part of the Taylor and Francis Group retrieved September 25, 2007 from: <http://www.tandf.co.uk/journals/>
- Reddy, I. K. (2000). Implementation of a Pharmaceutics Course in a Large Class through Active Learning using Quick-Thinks and Case-Based Learning. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*. 64(winter 2000). Retrieved September 25, 2007 from: http://www.ajpe.org/legacy/pdfs/aj_640402.pdf
- Sivan, A., Leung, R. W., Woon, C., Kember, D. (2000). An Implementation of Active Learning and its Effect on the Quality of Student Learning. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*. Routledge. 37(4): 381-389. Retrieved in September 2007 from: <http://www.tandf.co.uk/journals/>
- Smyth, K. E. (2009). Enhancing the agency of the listener: Introducing reception theory in a lecture. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 33(2), 131-140. doi: 10.1080/03098770902856660
- Yaakov, E. V. & Myzliek, H. D. (1998). Active versus Passive Procedural Learning in Older and Younger Adults, *Journal of Neuropsychological Rehabilitation*. 8(1). Retrieved in March 2014 from https://faculty.biu.ac.il/~vakil/papers/Vakil_1998_%2831%29.pdf

Learning Styles and their Relationship with Achievement of English Scores from Higher Secondary Schools and Colleges Students of District Lahore

Mehboob-Ul-Hassan*
Rafaqat Ali Akbar**

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to find out Learning styles and their relationship with achievement of English scores from higher schools and colleges of District Lahore. The sample consisted of 174 male and 324 female students selected randomly. Grasha & Riechmann's Learning Styles Scale (GRLSS) was used to find out the achievement of English scores with different learning styles. Demographic information and score of students were gathered through a questionnaire. Data was analysed by using Pearson Correlation and t-test. Results of the study show that there was a significant and strong positive correlation between competitive, collaborative, participant, avoidant, dependant and independent learning style and academic achievement scores. There was significant difference between competitive, avoidant, dependent, independent learning style and academic achievement score and was no significance difference between collaborative and participant learning styles. Findings more shows that science achievers use more competitive, avoidant, independent, collaborative and participant learning styles while arts achievers use more dependent learning style as compare to the science achievers at intermediate level in the subject of English.

Key Words: Learning styles, Achievement Score, Low and High Achievers

Introduction

Learning is continuous and lifelong process. Teachers evaluate individual learning and then familiarize their technique to get better outcomes by using different learning styles. They increase students learning more effortlessly and effectively (Prabhakar & Swapna, 2008). It occurs when students understand their strengths and weaknesses (Pashler, McDaniel, Rohrer & Bjork, 2009). The use of learning style in educational institutions has been remaining the continuous discussion across a wide diversity. It had a comprehensive effect on how information administered and problems of students are resolved (Najafi et al., 2010 & Pashler et al., 2009). Many theorists point

* PhD Scholar, Institute of Education and Research, University of the Punjab Lahore, Pakistan. E-mail: hassanbhattig@hotmail.com (Corresponding Author)

**Professor, Institute of Education and Research, University of the Punjab, Pakistan.
E-mail: rafaqat.ier@pu.edu.pk

up that learning style are an investigation of any field that are characterized by substantial abstract and confusion (Slavina, 2006). As reported by (Joseph & Gonzalez-DeHass, 2011) that learning styles are the amalgamation of subjects, full of feeling and physiological components for students. Stewart & Felicetti (1992) clarify that learning styles are the instructive settings under which students are well on the way to take in the imaginary learning (Wallace & Oxford, 1992). They articulate cognitive characteristics, sentimental and psychological manners that designate the learning environments Kolb, 1984).

The researches show that proper usage of learning styles in class room environment affecting academic achievement (Griggs & Dunn, 1984; Hall & Mosely, 2005). The knowledge of educators about the students learning style is beyond the limits of doubt. Alfonseca et al. (2006) focuses that proper use learning styles enable the students to get better academic achievements score in their educational career. Cuthbert (2005) pointed out that awareness of the learning styles is vibrant for allowing adjustment in the educators' pedagogical approaches. Several other studies found that the existence of a certain relationship between unambiguous features of learning styles and distinguished learning outcomes in terms of academic success (Brown, 1978; Cassidy, 2004). So, it is clear that learning styles motivate the students in their academic achievement, which are gauges to academic success at the end (Felder & Spurlin, 2005; Leung & Ivy, 2003; 2008; Chan, 2001; Cuthbert, 2005).

Study conducted by (Uzuntiryaki, 2007) demonstrates that the practicability of learning styles is additionally seen as a variable towards achievement in the learning procedure with diligent work. At that point, this study seeks after to appreciate the learning styles as a reason towards understudies' academic achievement (Joseph & Gonzalez-DeHass, 2011). Numerous researches show that educational achievement is subjected by learning styles (Leung & Ivy, 2003; Brown, 1978). Mohammad and Izadi (2011) elucidates that "various courses used by individuals to handle and deal with information or to respond to biological supports suggest their learning styles". Loo (2004) portrays learning style as a sort of perspective, getting a handle on and taking care of information. Various studies have demonstrated that educational implementation of understudies is associated with students learning styles (Sriphai, Damrongpanit & Sakulku, 2011)

Academic achievement scores perform as a gauge to measure students learning in limited span of time (Agarwal, 1983). As stated by (Cartmell *et al.*, 2007) that students' academic achievements can be improved while employing different learning styles as per students' demands. If learning styles are cord with the course, it has significantly positive effects on students' academic achievement scores. Those students who learnt through effectual styles of learning, they generally acquire outstanding academic achievement. They secure a good place in their work place or higher

educational institutions (James & Gardner, 1995). Each student is unique and dissimilar in all aspects of life from others (Chan, 2001). He also learnt from diverse styles of learning (Smith & Renzulli, 1984). These diverse styles of learning are seen as factors that play important role on students' academic achievement (Wang & Jin 2008). Among these factors numerous have been researched, demographic status (Casanova, et al., 2005; Ray, 2010 & O' Sullivan, 2006), intelligence (Deary, Strand, Smith, & Fernandes, 2007) and self-concept (Reynold, 1988; Goodwin, 1995) have been discussed in many studies.

Learning styles are suggested from socialization as they can be modified according to the situation. As reported by Damrongpanit & Sakulku, 2011) that the learner's distinctive learning style and their academic achievements are strongly related with each other. In his studies Lorna (2013) proposed that the vastness of knowing one's learning styles is extremely critical for each understudy concerned. It might be inferred that, it is key that understudies' learning styles be distinguished and utilized as a pioneer or reference for educators to be more fragile towards their understudies' adapting needs (Felder & Spurlin, 2005).

Several studies illustrates that academic achievements are influenced by students learning styles (Leung & Ivy, 2003). It is the need of the modern era to be aware of different learning styles to increase students' performance in their academic achievements scores (Graf & Kinshu, 2007). Studies conducted by (Sriphai, Damrongpanit & Sakulku, 2011) concludes that in learning process, learning style's usefulness can be observed as a key factor towards students' success. It is not only the dilemma of learning but also difficulty in understanding subjects, styles of learning and learning process (Joseph & Gonzalez-DeHass, 2011).

Grasha & Riechmann's of Learning Style scale (GRLSS) is one of the diverse instruments that are amassed especially for understudies in educational institutions (Hruska-Riechmann & Grasha, 1982). GRLSS bases the appreciation of learning styles in a wide association in students achievement scores (Lorna, 2013). Researcher (Alfonseca et. al. 2006, & Sriphai et al., 2011) suggests that GRLSS focuses on following six constructs: competitive, collaborative, avoidant, participant, dependant and independent learning style. Moseley (2005) concluded that learning styles become part of a process of receiving groups and individuals to understand the outline they are following and to consider what they would like to be in future tasks. As reported by (Keefe & Ferrel, 1990) that using Grasha & Riechmann learning style on students, increase academic achievement (Grasha, 1996). Students with different learning styles had high achievement score rather than the students with no learning styles. In his study Bostrom et al., (1990) stated that use of GRLSS in the Pakistani institutions put a huge negative relationship between A+ grade achievers and that of independent and

collaborative learning style. Furthermore, negative relationship exists between high achievers and independent learning style.

Charkins et al., (1985) uncovered that there exists a noteworthy distinction between learning styles preferences of male and females students. He further explained that by using avoidant, independent and participative learning style females gain more achievement scores than males. Alfonseca et al., (2006) illustrates that all learning styles have visible effects on students' whole academic achievements. The high achievers additionally offer support to gathering learning variable than low achievers. The high academic achievers have a strong inclination for gathering realizing.

In Pakistani educational institutions, English language is playing crucial role. Pakistani society warmly welcome those educational institutions who make compulsory English as medium of instruction. Unluckily, teachers use old and traditional styles of learning for students. Researchers like (Qamar et al., (2011) claimed that basic root cause for achievement and letdown of students in educational institutions is teachers beliefs, improper usage of learning styles and administration. In their research (Akhtar, 201; Khurshid & Mahmood (2012) explain that both science and arts students are engaged with different learning styles. Most of the teachers may slump with learning quality as they have no more pedagogical skills. Deficiency of these skills leads towards elimination of learning styles (Farooq & Regnier, 2011). Keeping in view the importance of learning styles, the focus of the study was to explore the relationship between higher secondary schools and colleges students learning styles and academic achievement scores. This study also focused on difference between learning styles of higher achievers and low achievers in academic stream in the subject of English at intermediate. The following research questions were framed to achieve the objectives of the study.

Research Questions

Following research questions were framed

1. What is relationship between higher secondary schools and colleges students learning styles and academic achievement scores?
2. What is difference between low achievers and high achievers of higher secondary schools and colleges students' academic achievement scores?
3. What is difference between science and arts students of higher secondary schools and colleges students' academic achievement scores?

Research Methodology

This study was descriptive in nature and two stage sampling technique was used. At 1st stage 15 male and 18 female colleges and higher secondary schools of District Lahore were selected. At 2nd stage 174 male and 324 female students of science and arts students were selected conveniently. The survey instrument of was (Hruska-

Grasha & Riechmann, 1982) learning style scale. This research instrument was subcategories in six different parts like Competitive, Collaborative, Avoidant, Participant, Dependent and Independent learning style response mode of Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Undecided, Agree, & Strongly Agree. Five Hundred and Thirty (530) copies of the questionnaire were distributed to the selected students. Five Hundred and six (506) copies were returned, remaining were discarded because of incomplete data with 95.47 % rate of return. Remaining copies were used for data analysis in SPSS.

Data Analysis and its Interpretation

The following section improvised the analysis of data. There were 48 likert type statements in questionnaire that were used to obtain data regarding students learning styles and their academic achievements. Data was analysed in SPSS using Pearson Correlation, Mean, Median, Standard Deviation and t-test were used to explore students learning styles.

Research Question 1

What is relationship between higher secondary schools and colleges students learning styles and academic achievement scores?

| Sr. No. | Learning Style | Academic Achievement | |
|---------|------------------------------|----------------------|------|
| 1 | Competitive Learning Style | Pearson Correlation | .760 |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | .003 |
| | Academic Achievement | Pearson Correlation | 1 |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | |
| 2 | Collaborative Learning Style | Pearson Correlation | .697 |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | .017 |
| | Academic Achievement | Pearson Correlation | 1 |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | |
| 3 | Avoidant Learning Style | Pearson Correlation | .745 |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | .015 |
| | Academic Achievement | Pearson Correlation | 1 |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | |
| 4 | Participant Learning Style | Pearson Correlation | .654 |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | .020 |
| | Academic Achievement | Pearson Correlation | 1 |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | |
| 5 | Dependant Learning Style | Pearson Correlation | .971 |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | .002 |

| | | | |
|---|----------------------------|---------------------|------|
| | Academic Achievement | Pearson Correlation | 1 |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | |
| 6 | Independent Learning Style | Pearson Correlation | .754 |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | .014 |
| | Academic Achievement | Pearson Correlation | 1 |
| | | Sig. (2-tailed) | |

. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). $\alpha > 0.05$

A closer look at the above Sr. No.1 shows the Pearson correlation to determine the relationship between different learning styles and academic achievement scores. There is a significant and strong positive correlation between competitive learning style and academic achievement scores ($r=.760, n=506, p<.005$).

The interpretation of the above Sr. No. 2 shows that there is significant and strong relationship between two variables. It is clear that change in one variable (collaborative learning style) is strongly correlates with the change in other variable that is (academic achievement). In the above table value of Pearson's R is .697. Hence we conclude that there is a strong relationship between collaborative learning style and academic achievement ($r=.697, n=506, p<.017$).

A closer look at the above Sr. No. 3 shows that there is a significant and strong positive correlation between avoidant learning style and academic achievement scores ($r=.745, n=506, p<.015$). Its mean that change in one variable (avoidant learning style) is strongly correlates with the change in other variable that is (academic achievement).

The interpretation of the above Sr. No. 4 shows that there is significant and strong relationship between two variables. In the above table value of Pearson's R is .654. Hence we conclude that there is a strong relationship between participant learning style and academic achievement ($r=.654, n=506, p<.020$).

A closer look at the above Sr. No. 5 shows the there is a significant and strong positive correlation between dependant learning style and academic achievement scores ($r=.971, n=506, p<.002$). Its mean that change in one variable (Dependant Learning Style) is strongly correlates with the change in other variable that is (academic achievement).

The interpretation of the above Sr. No. 6 shows the Pearson correlation to determine the relationship between learning style and academic achievement scores. There is a significant and strong positive correlation between Independent Learning Style and academic achievement scores ($r=.754, n=506, p<.014$). Its mean that change in one variable (Independent Learning Style) is strongly correlates with the change in other variable that is (academic achievement).

Research Question 2

What is difference between low achievers and high achievers of higher secondary schools and colleges students' academic achievement scores?

| No | Learning Style | Academic Achiever | N | Mean | Std. Dev. | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> |
|----|----------------------|-------------------|-----|---------|-----------|----------|----------|
| 1 | Competitive Style | Low Achievers | 174 | 26.6552 | 4.51671 | 1.263 | .004* |
| | | High Achievers | 332 | 27.1837 | 4.44904 | | |
| 2 | Collaborative Style | Low Achievers | 174 | 25.4368 | 4.29733 | -.390 | .405 |
| | | High Achievers | 332 | 25.5994 | 4.54375 | | |
| 3 | Avoidant Style | Low Achievers | 174 | 22.1782 | 3.5866 | .344 | .005* |
| | | High Achievers | 332 | 22.0542 | 4.2946 | | |
| 4 | Participant Learning | Low Achievers | 174 | 14.9253 | 2.77273 | -.448 | .758 |
| | | High Achievers | 332 | 15.0452 | 2.90344 | | |
| 5 | Dependent Style | Low Achievers | 174 | 34.1864 | 4.63164 | 3.394 | .001* |
| | | High Achievers | 332 | 33.1446 | 3.67101 | | |
| 6 | Independent Style | Low Achievers | 174 | 34.9310 | 12.82005 | 2.35 | .003* |
| | | High Achievers | 332 | 35.3012 | 12.47764 | | |

* $p \leq 0.05$ and $p \geq 0.05$

The analysis of the Sr. No. 1 above table reveals that there is a significance difference between competitive learning style and academic achievement score of college students, $t(504) = 1.263$, $p < .005$. It is concludes that high achievers use more competitive learning style ($M = 27.1937$, $SD = 4.44904$) as compare to the low achievers ($M = 26.6552$, $SD = 4.51671$).

The interpretation of above Sr. No. 2 shows that there is no significance difference between the learning styles of high achievers and low achievers, $t(504) = -.390$, $p > .405$. It can be concluded that low achievers ($M = 25.4368$, $SD = 4.29733$) use about same collaborative learning style as have high achievers ($M = 25.5994$, $SD = 4.54375$).

A closer look at the above Sr. No. 3 reveals that there is significance difference between Avoidant learning Style and Academic Achievement score of college students, $t(504) = .344$, $p < .001$. It is concludes that low achievers use more avoidant learning style ($M = 22.1782$, $SD = 3.5866$) as compare to the high achievers ($M = 22.0542$, $SD = 4.2946$).

The above table of Sr. No. 4 reflects that value of t was not significant at $p < 0.05$ for low achievers and high achievers of participant learning style. Hence, it concludes that low achievers ($M = 14.9253$, $SD = 2.77273$) use about same learning style like high achievers ($M = 15.0452$, $SD = 2.90344$).

The interpretation of the above Sr. No. 5 reveals that there is significance difference between dependent style and academic achievement score of college students, $t(504) = 3.394$, $p < .005$. It is concludes that low achievers use more dependent

learning style (M=34.1864, SD=4.63164) as compare to the high achievers (M=33.1446, SD=3.67101).

The interpretation of the above Sr. No.6 reveals that there is significance difference between independent style and academic achievement score of college students, $t(504) = 2.35, p < .003$. It is concludes that high achievers use more independent learning style (M=35.3012, SD=12.47764) as compare to the low achievers (M=34.9310, SD=12.82005).

Research Question 3

What is the difference between science and arts students of higher secondary schools and colleges students' academic achievement scores?

| Sr. No. | Learning Style | Group | N | Mean | Std. Dev. | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> |
|---------|----------------------|---------|-----|---------|-----------|----------|----------|
| 1 | Competitive Style | Science | 296 | 27.1111 | 4.28201 | 3.594 | .009* |
| | | Arts | 210 | 26.8714 | 4.74394 | | |
| 2 | Collaborative Style | Science | 296 | 25.6431 | 4.22835 | .581 | .078 |
| | | Arts | 210 | 25.4095 | 4.75967 | | |
| 3 | Avoidant Style | Science | 296 | 22.2929 | 3.70423 | 1.202 | .002* |
| | | Arts | 210 | 21.8381 | 4.51499 | | |
| 4 | Participant Learning | Science | 296 | 15.0236 | 2.67927 | 3.231 | .637 |
| | | Arts | 210 | 14.9810 | 3.09184 | | |
| 5 | Dependent Style | Science | 296 | 33.1211 | 4.95591 | 3.264 | .004* |
| | | Arts | 210 | 34.1619 | 5.82200 | | |
| 6 | Independent Style | Science | 296 | 35.0067 | 12.84286 | 3.692 | .035* |
| | | Arts | 210 | 35.4048 | 12.20687 | | |

The analysis of the above table reveals that there is a significance difference between competitive learning style with different groups of college students, $t(504) = 3.594, p < .005$. It is concludes that science achievers use more competitive learning style (M=27.1111, SD=4.28201) as compare to the arts achievers (M=26.8714, SD=4.74394).

The interpretation of above table shows that there is no significance difference between the learning styles by Group (Science & Arts), $t(504) = .581, p > .078$. It can be concluded that science achievers (M=25.6431, SD=4.22835) have about same collaborative learning style as have arts achievers (M=25.4095, SD=4.75967).

A closer look at the above table reveals that there is significance difference between Avoidant learning Style by Group (Science & Arts) of college students, $t(504) = 1.202, p < .001$. It is concludes that science achievers use more avoidant learning style (M=22.2929, SD=3.70423) as compare to the arts achievers (M=21.8381, SD=4.51499).

The above table reflects that value of t (3.231) was not significant at $p < 0.05$ for science achievers and arts achievers of participant learning style. Hence, it concludes that science achievers ($M=15.0236$, $SD=2.67927$) use about same learning style like arts achievers ($M=14.9810$, $SD=3.09184$).

A closer look at the above table reveals that there is significance difference between dependent style by Group (Science & Arts) of college students, $t(504) = 3.264$, $p < .005$. It is concludes that arts achievers use more dependent learning style ($M=34.1619$, $SD=5.82200$) as compare to the science achievers ($M=33.1211$, $SD=4.95591$).

A closer look at the above table reveals that there is significance difference between independent style by Group (Science & Arts) of college students, $t(504) = 3.692$, $p < .005$. It is concludes that science achievers use more independent learning style ($M=35.0067$, $SD=12.84286$) as compare to the arts achievers ($M=35.4048$, $SD=12.20687$).

Discussion

The present study unravelled the viability and significance of different learning styles among the students of different levels. Learning styles bring significant enhancement on academic achievements according to many educational psychologists (Felder & Spurlin, 1995). The study conducted by (Dunn, Denig & Lovelace, 2001) revealed that successful learner be trained in variety of ways. When the students are naturally taught with more than one learning styles, the considerable improvement is observed. It is necessary for the teacher to identify the apt teaching method. Teachers are able to ensure optimal learning environment for the majority of students in a class (Felder & Brent, 2005).

It reveals clear indication that the overall achievement of the students is highly influenced by the learning styles they possess. A large number of students chose to prefer competitive learning styles. The students successfully develop a structure to 'see' and 'sense' the overall scenario and finally able to apply this learning skill to other academic domains. The findings of (Lin & Hyde, 1989) are similar to these ones. The results corroborated that high achievement students acquire larger global status than those who are moderate or low achievers. The high flyers, through global learning style can successfully undertake enormous workloads as well as able to engage themselves on multiple tasks. Contrary to low achievers, the high achievers prefer group learning variable. The high achievers possess a considerable predilection towards group learning variable than those who are said to be low achievers. As stated by (Curry, 1983; Mohammad & Izadi, 2011) that group learning is strongly preferred with these high achievers, contributes significantly for effective peer interaction and opportunities for the application of acquired learning for more comprehension, retention ability and performance in competition. The findings of (Leung & Ivy, 2003; Lovelace, 2005

concludes that collaborative learning style and Avoidant learning style with academic achievement scores of male and female students are significantly effects on those student that use these two learning styles. The findings of our study interlink with previous research.

Through the use of these learning styles in many of subjects like in English, the performance of the students considerably increased who retain moderate standards and those who mere pass (Dunn, Beaudry & Klavas 1989). Cutting across new challenges may invoke frustration among the students but they seldom express these thoughts. Many researches shows that competitive learning style and academic achievement are significantly correlate with each other (Armbruster, Patel, Johnson, & Weiss 2009). The findings of our study are linked with previous one. Accordingly, the need to learning styles by the teachers becomes more dire need of the hour for the inculcation of positive learning styles among the students such as sense of competition and collaborative working. These findings are similar to the work of (Moradkhan & Mirtaheri, 2011). The study of (Slavina, 2006) shows that excelling students increased their performance if learning styles processed harmonious to each other. The students are innately dependent. They may get frustrated in new challenging situation but do not express in class. As reported by (Was et al., 2009) that students from many education institutions use participant learning style and dependant learning style in the class room. It increases their inner abilities of thinking, reasoning. Many studies conducted by (Brown, 1978; Slavina, 2006) focused that these learning styles have positive effects and increase students participation in the class room. The take part in discussion and science students make their learning more strong as compare to the arts learners.

A research study on engineers and science students in Aalborg University revealed that the students were more agile, more visual and respondent in teaching and learning sessions. It is the responsibility of the teachers to enhance their motivation by upgrading their teaching skills. Democratic learning such as pupil centred techniques with free style participation and cooperation positively enhance students' performance and reinforcing their attitude for learning introductory English (Armbruster, et al., 2009). Accordingly, the teachers must employ such learning styles that are compatible to those of students for the improvement students' achievements. With reference to the findings of this study, there is no difference in gender in preferring to be dependent on learning styles. In the context of competition, the mean for male was lower than the females. Contrary to male students who preferred avoidance, females prefer free style. Accordingly, there is no significant relationship of gender with students' learning styles. A research study showed high score of females on motivation in preferring active learning styles than males. Female students allocated more time than males on preparation of class presentation and assignments completion (Bostrom, et al., 1990). This revealed that as compared to males who prefer avoidance, female students are more prone to the type of free learning style. Chan (2001) concludes that while ensuring

science and arts independent learning style and academic achievement are the essential outputs in many conditions. In previous studies it has been focused that initial learners have been provided much influential option in the school environment to make learning positive and strong (Wang & Jin, 2008). These two learning styles are more supported for science students for better achievements. It also seems that mostly male students give their preference towards learning while using Active Experimentation. These learners have the abilities to make their learning strong via testing and measurement and its implementation in their educational career. This result is similar to the results of other researches, like Mohammad & Izadi (2011), Moradkhan & Mirtahter (2011) & Najafi et al., (2010) which show relationship between learning styles and educational advancement. In their research (Najafi et al., 2010) showed that in investigating the relationship between learning styles by Meyers-Briggs and educational advancement, there is relationship between sensational-intuitive aspect and educational advancement. This was the only relationship from all four aspects of personality by (Charkins, and O'Toole, 1985, Crtmell, 2007). As there is mostly perception that all human have universal needs and same communicable factors in educational involvement might not be valuable in changing towards learner approaches. When they are studying and have to provide services in perception of the students towards positive direction (Felder & Henriques, 1995).

Conclusion

Different style learners acquire the capability for more achievement than those who bring about fixed learning styles. It is inferred that the overall academic achievement is strongly affected by the learning styles. To impart effective learning, teachers must be aware of the practical worth of learning styles. The scope of learning styles framework is not restricted to mere the change in the subject but also plays vital role across all subjects. Accordingly, the results provide many future researches to proliferate this phenomenon. As a matter of result, variable of other learning styles must also be used in the researches. Usually, learning is acquired through variety of ways by a successful learner. On the whole, the students' learning has a wide range due to their certain degree of aptitudes, preferences and predilections. In the context of learning styles, students preferred six learning styles out of nine. Consequently, it can be inferred that most of the students retain multiple learning styles or a variety of learning. It is because they are able to learn in effective way. It is concluded from the research that GRLLS instrument can be used as a motivating tool for students in different educational institutions to make teaching and learning effective. In many researches like Armbruster et al., (2009) give focus that instructors and teachers can become flexible and dynamic while using many of the learning styles. These can be approach in educational institutions that suits the learners.

References

- Agarwal S.C. (1983). A comparative Study of Learning Styles of High and Low Creative Students Belonging to Different Types of Institution. *Ph.D. Thesis, Edu.* Meerut University.
- Akhtar, Z. (2011). A Comparative Study of Students Learning Style, Socio-economic Status and Learning Achievement of Developed and Under-developed Districts of Pakistan. *Language in India*, 11(6), 92-101
- Alfonseca, A., Carro, R., Martin, E., Ortigas, A. & Paredes, P. (2006). The Impact of Learning Styles on Student Grouping for Collaborative Learning: A case Study. *User Model User-adap Inter*, 16 (3-4), 377-401.
- Armbruster, P., Patel, M., Johnson, E., & Weiss, M. (2009). Active learning and Student Centered Pedagogy Improve Student Attitudes and Performance in Introductory Biology. *CBE Life Science Education*, 8 (3), 203-213.
- Bostrom, R. P., Olfman, L. & Sein, M. K. (1990). The Importance of Learning Style in End-User Training, *MIS Quarterly*, 14, 101 - 119.
- Brown, R. (1978). The Effects of Congruency between Learning Styles and Teaching Styles on college student achievement. *College Student Journal*, 12, 307-309.
- Cartmell, D.D., Majors, M., Ashlock, M.A. & Sitton, S.P. (2007). Assessing Agricultural communications Student's Learning Style: Baseline Study. *NACTA Journal*, 51 (1) 2-7.
- Casanova, P. F., García-Linares, M. C., De La Torre, M. J. & De La Villa Carpi, M. (2005). Influence of Family and Socio-Demographic Variables on Students with Low Academic Achievement, *Educational Psychology*, 25 (4), 423-435.
- Cassidy, S. (2004). Learning styles: An overview of theories, models, and measures, *Educational Psychology*, 24(4), 419-444.
- Chan, F. M. (2001). The use of variety of learning and teaching skills: How the classroom can change the learning style. *BTP Journal*. 3(1), 1-20.
- Charkins, R. J., O'Toole, D. M. & Wetzal, J. N. (1985). Linking Teacher and Student Learning Styles with Student Achievement and Attitudes. *Journal of Economic Educ.*, 16, 111-120.

- Curry, A., (1983). An Organization of Learning Styles Theory and Constructs. *American Educational Research Association*, 1-25.
- Cuthbert, P.F. (2005). The student Learning Process: Learning Styles or learning approaches? *Teach. Higher Education*, 10 (2), 235-249.
- Deary, I.J., Strand, S., Smith, P. & Fernandes, C. (2007). Intelligence and educational achievement. *Intelligence*, 35(1), 13-21. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.intell.2006.02.001>
- Dunn, R., Beaudry, J.S. & Klavas, A. (1989). Survey of Research on Learning Styles. *Educational Leadership*, 46(6), 50-58.
- Dunn, R., Denig, S. & Lovelace, M. K. (2001). Two sides of the same coin or different strokes for different folks? *Teacher Librarian*, 28 (3). Retrieved from EBSCO host database.
- Farooq, M. S., & Regnier, J., C. (2011). Role of Learning Styles in the Quality of Learning at Different Levels. *Informatica Economică*, 15(3), 28-45.
- Felder, R.M. & Henriques, E.R. (1995). Learning and Teaching Styles in Foreign and Second Language Education,” *Foreign Language Annals*, 28 (1), 21–31.
- Felder, R. M. & Brent, R. (2005). Understanding student differences. *Journal of Engineering Education*, 94 (1), 57-72. Retrieved from [http://www4ncsu.edu/unity/lockers/users/f/felder/public/Papers/Understanding Differences. Pdf](http://www4ncsu.edu/unity/lockers/users/f/felder/public/Papers/Understanding%20Differences.Pdf)
- Felder, R.M. & Spurlin, J. (2005). Application, Reliability, and Validity of the Index of Learning Styles. *International Journal of Engineering Education*, 21,103-112.
- Goodwin, D. D. (1995). Effects of matching student and instructor learning style preferences on academic achievement in English. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Arkansas, United States of America. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 57(03), 997A.
- Graf, S. & Kinshu, K (2007). Providing adaptive courses in learning management systems with respect to learning styles. In G. Richards (Ed.), *Proceedings of the World Conference on e-learning in Corporate, Government, Healthcare, and Higher education (e-learn)*. Chesapeake, VA: AACE Press, pp. 2576-2583.

- Grasha, A. F. (1996). Teaching with Style: The Integration of Teaching and Learning Styles in the Classroom. *Essays on Teaching Excellence*, 7(5), 1995-96
- Griggs, S.A. & Dunn, R.S. (1984). Selected Case Studies of the Learning Style Preferences of gifted students. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 28:115-119.
- Hall, E. & Moseley, D. (2005). Is there a role for learning styles in Personalized Education and Training? *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 24(3), 243-255.
- Hruska-Riechmann, S., and Grasha, A.F. (1982). The Grasha–Reichmann student learning style scales. In: Keef, J. (Ed.), *Student Learning Styles and Brain Behaviour*. National Association of Secondary School Principals, Reston: VA, pp. 81-86.
- James, W.B. & Gardner, D.L. (1995). Learning styles: implications for distance learning. *New Directions Adult & Continuing Education*, Issue 67, 19-31.
- Joseph, M. F. & Gonzalez-DeHass, A. (2011). *How do Students' Mastery and Performance Goals Relate to Math Anxiety?* *Eurasia Journal of Mathematics, Science & Technology Education*, 2011, 7(4), 227-242
- Keefe, J. W., & Ferrel, B. (1990). Developing a defensible learning style paradigm. *Educational Leadership*, 10, 57-61.
- Kolb, D.A. (1984). *Experiential Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.
- Khurshid, F. & Mahmood, N. (2012). Learning styles of natural sciences, social sciences and humanities students at graduate level. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 3(9).
- Leung, Y.-F., & Ivy, M. I. (2003). How useful are course websites? A study of students' perceptions. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education*, 2(2), 15-25
- Lin, M.C., & Hyde, J.S. (1989). Gender, mathematics, and science. *Educational Researcher*, 18, 17-27.

- Loo, R. (2004). Kolb's learning styles and learning preferences: Is there a linkage? *Educational Psychology*, 24(1), 99-108. Retrieved from EBSCO host database.
- Lovelace, M. (2005). Meta-analysis of experimental research based on the Dunn and Dunn Model. *Journal of Educational Research*, 98(3), 176-183. Retrieved February 14, 2009, from Academic Search Complete database
- Lorna, L. G. (2013). Relationships between learning style preferences and academic performance of students. *Inter. J. Educat. Res. Technol.*, 4(2), 70- 76
- Moseley, D. (2005). Is there a role for learning styles in personalized education and training? *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 24(3), 243-105 255. Doi: 10.1080/02601370500134933.
- Mohammad, Z.E, R., Izadi, S. (2011). Learning Styles as Predictors of High School Students' Educational Performance. *Studies in Learning & Instruction*, 2(2).
- Moradkhan, D. & Mirtaheri, S. (2011). The relationship between Iranian EFL learners' perceptual learning styles and their teachers' teaching styles. *Journal of English Studies*, Islamic Azad University, Science & Research Branch, 1(4), 41-52.
- Najafi, K. M, Karimi, Sh, Jamshidi, N. (2010). Comparison of learning styles and preferred teaching methods of students in FASA University of Medical Sciences. *Arak Medical University Journal (AMUJ)*. 12(4): 89-94.
- O'Sullivan, E. M., (2009). The demographic and academic profile of Irish dental school faculty members. *Journal of the Irish Dental Association*, 55(6), 296-301
- Pashler, H., McDaniel, M., Rohrer, D. & Bjork, R. (2008). Learning styles: concepts and evidence. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 9, 105–119.
- Pashler, H., McDaniel, Rohrer, D. & Bjork, R. (2009). Learning styles: Concepts and evidence. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest (Wiley-Blackwell)*, 9(3), 105-119. doi:10.1111/j.1539-6053.2009.01038.

- Prabhakar, V. & Swapna, B. (2009). Influence of learning styles. *Int. J .Learn.* 16(9).
- Qamar, A. Q., Nawaz, A. & Khan, N. (2011). Prediction of the problems, user satisfaction and prospects of e-learning in HEIs of KPK, Pakistan. *International Journal of Science and Technology Education Research*, 2(2), pp. 13 – 21.
- Ray, B. D. (2010). Academic Achievement and Demographic Traits of Home School Students: A Nationwide Study, *Academic Leadership*, 8 (1). [Online] Available: http://www.academicleadership.org/pdf/ALJ_ISSN_1533-7812_8_1_392.pdf
- Reynolds, W. M. (1988). Measurement of academic self-concept in college students. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 52, 223-240. http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa5202_4
- O' Slavin. R. E. (2006). *Educational Psychology: Theory and Practice* (8th. Ed). United States of America: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Sriphai, S., Damrongpanit, S., & Sakulku, J. (2011). An investigation of learning styles influencing mathematics achievement of seventh-grade students. *Educational Research and Reviews*. 6 (15), 835-842.
- Smith, L.H. & Renzulli., J.S. (1984). Learning style preferences: a practical approach for classroom teachers. *Theory into Practice*, 23, 44-50.
- Sriphai, S., Damrongpanit, S., & Sakulku, J. (2011). An investigation of learning styles influencing mathematics achievement of seventh-grade students. *Educational Research and Reviews*. 6 (15), 835-842.
- Stewart, K.L. & Felicetti, L.A. (1992). Learning styles of marketing majors. *Educational Research, Quarterly*, 15(2), 15-23.
- Uzuntiryaki, E. (2007). Learning Styles and High School Students' Achievement. *Science Education International*, 18(1), 25-37
- Was, C. A., Al-Harthy, I., Stack-Oden, M. & Isaacson, R. M. (2009). Academic identity status and the relationship to Achievement Goal orientation. *Electronic Journal of research in Educational Psychology*, 7(2). 627-652.

- Wallace, B. & Oxford, R.L. (1992). Disparity in Learning Styles and Teaching styles in the ESL Classroom: does this mean war. *Alabama-Mississippi Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages*, 1, 45-68.
- Wang M., & Jin, G. (2008). *Learning styles and English teaching*. US China Foreign Language, 6(5), 30-33.

School Principals as Effective Change Agents: A Study of Essential Skills and Attributes

Muhammad Athar Hussain*
Syed Zubair Haider**
Imtiaz Ahmed***
Shoukat Ali***

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to examine the perceptions of principals who have been identified as successful with respect to the skills and attributes that they perceive as important to their success as change agents in their schools. Utilizing a quantitative design, the investigators surveyed 76 principals of secondary schools in three districts of Karachi. The survey was comprised of four sections focusing on demographic information about the principals and their schools, skills and attributes rated on Likert Scale and school wide changes initiated by the principals. Frequency statistics, the Mann Whitney U test and mean ranks were utilized to determine significance and trends at the 0 .05 levels of significance. It has been found that women are far more democratic in their approach to leadership while men have traditionally been more autocratic and dictatorial.

Key words: Principal, Change Agent, Effective, Skills, Attributes, Schools

Introduction

The review of the related literature clarifies that at a minimum, principals who are effective change agents must satisfy three criteria: (a) they must engage in innovation; (b) they must hold their jobs long enough to see the innovation through from inception to the point where there are visible results; and (c) the visible results must include a positive change in student outcomes (Ibrahim & Al-Mashhadany, 2012). Although this particular definition has the virtue of empirical verifiability, it raises

* Lecturer, Department of Education, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, R.Y.Khan Campus, E-mail: athar.hussain@iub.edu.pk (Corresponding Author)

** Assistant Professor, Department of Educational Training, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, R.Y.Khan Campus. E-mail: zubairiub@hotmail.com

*** Assistant Professor, Department of Teacher Education, University of Karachi, Karachi

*** Lecturer, Department of Commerce, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, Bahawal Nagar Campus

numerous questions about the necessary skills employed by successful principals to instigate change that affects student outcomes (Jonas, Johansson & Olofsson, 2005).

The literature is replete with advice to principals on how to instigate and maintain change (Ross & Gray, 2006), develop effective schools (Brookover & Lezotte, 1982), exercise transformational leadership (Ubben, Hughes & Norris, 2001), work effectively with various stakeholder groups (Nardelli, 2012), and survive in their position (Chapko & Buchko, 2002; Mathews, 2002; Rooney, 2000). There is also a large body of literature dealing with the principal as an educational leader from the early work of Stogdill (1948) to the present emphasis on transformational leadership (Hallinger, 2011).

Principals are charged with the responsibility of creating a building climate that is conducive to providing students with the best possible education. Principals are the educational leaders of their buildings (Hallinger, 2003). To be an educational leader is to engage in a variety of activities and deal with several different stakeholder constituencies whose goals may vary widely. According to Daresh (2001), effective principals provide a sense of mission to their schools, engage in participative management, provide support for instruction, monitor instruction, and are resourceful. Bennis and Nanus (1985) have suggested that successful leaders develop a vision for the organization, engage in effective communication, cultivate trust within their organization, engage in self-renewal, and focus on success.

Nardelli (2012) noted that successful principals express their faith in children, have an ability to work effectively with people, work aggressively in securing the resources for their schools, are enthusiastic about their jobs, are committed to education, can distinguish between long-term and short-term educational goals, are adaptable, and are able to engage in long-term strategies (Louis & Robinson, 2012). The above leadership variables have very little overlap, yet there is little a professional educator can disagree with in terms of the characteristics of successful leadership. What one can say about these skills, attributes, and others like them in the literature is that none of them are exhaustive. It is less a case of inadequate theorizing than it is trying to conceptualize a very complex job. Therefore, this study will focus on one aspect of the principalship: the role of change agent.

The personal experiences of the investigators, have found that every high achieving school has as its instructional leader a principal who is both effective and skilled in moving a school, staff and community to a higher level. These personal observations are confirmed by effective schools research (Fullan, 2002). As anyone who has attempted to institute change in an organization understands, change brings conflict. Heck & Hallinger (2009) noted that the most common form of formal human organization is the bureaucracy, which is conservative, depends on a hierarchical power structure, and is resistant to change. Officeholders and bureaucracies tend to have

vested interests in the maintenance of the status even if the organization is failing. People resist change because it brings uncertainty. Often people would rather deal with an unsatisfying present than with an uncertain future, even if that future presents the possibility of an improved life (Hoffer, 1963).

Current research indicates that although principal success cannot be directly attributed to longevity, it is generally indicated that in order to implement programs, and philosophies that are new and innovative, it will take a minimum of five years for substantive change to occur (Israel & Kasper, 2004). This period generally includes the attainment of tenure and its inherent vote of confidence by the superintendent and the school board. As the educational leader of the school, the principal is responsible for the implementation of school improvement and change (Ross & Gray, 2006). A successful principal is necessarily a successful change agent. As change agents, what are the skills and attributes principals need to enable them to generate positive change? That is the focus of this study.

Research Questions

The study was guided by one research question which was “Do male and female successful principals identify similar skills and attributes as important to being a successful change agent?”

Methodology

Instrumentation

A researcher-constructed self-administered survey was used as an instrument for this research. It consisted of four sections: (a) personal and school demographics; (b) description of changes made in the school over the past five years; (c) essential skills of a change agent; and (d) personal attributes needed to be an effective change agent. Personal demographic variables included age, gender, racial /ethnic background, highest degree, years of experience as a principal, and years as principal in their present school. School demographics included percentage of students who are free or reduced lunch eligible and racial/ ethnic makeup of the student body.

The second part of the survey instrument requested the participants to indicate the types of innovations that they have initiated in their present school from a list of several alternatives. In addition, space was provided for them to describe their innovations in their own words. The third part of the survey instrument provided a list of 28 skills derived from a review of the research on educational change and innovation and leadership studies that are associated with being a successful change agent. Participants were requested to indicate the importance of each skill on a five-point scale, with 1 indicating that the skill was not at all important to 5, indicating extreme importance, based upon their experience in implementing an innovative program described in the previous section. Typical skills include in the said section pertain to

abilities to make decisions, communicate orally and in written form, and inspire others. The fourth part of the survey provided a list of 27 personal attributes derived from the same sources as the skills. Participants were asked to rate the importance of each attribute using the same five-point scale as when rating skills. Personal attributes included such aspects as intelligence, decisiveness, sense of humor, and ability to organize others. In the lists of skills and attributes blank spaces were given so that the participants may mention additional important criteria.

The Jury of Experts included middle and elementary school principals, a constructive feedback from the pretest respondents. The reliability of the pretest was analyzed using the SPSS based system statistical program with the following results. The coefficient of alpha equaling 0.8469 was obtained for skills, and the coefficient of alpha equaling 0.8571 was obtained for attributes. In the actual study, the alpha for the 28 skills equaled 0.89571 and the alpha for the 27 attributes was 0.8981. According to SPSS for Windows (Georte & Mallery, 2001), the rule of thumb of a value of 0.80 to 0.90 is considered good to excellent.

Data Collection

The Department of Education and Literacy, Government of Sindh has made lists of every school in the province, their addresses, and the names of the schools' principals available to the public. This database was used to select the research sample for the study. Each school that met the specific criteria framed for the sake of eligibility to be included in the sample (i.e., an elementary or middle school that demonstrates evidence of achievement growth over the prior five years) was sent a survey instrument. Each instrument assigned a school code on it. The school code matched to addresses in a separate database in order to track incoming questionnaires.

Data Analysis

Preliminary analyses included the presentation of descriptive statistics on the demographic backgrounds of the principals and their schools. These demographics were utilized to compare the demographics of the population to establish the representativeness of the research sample. The data related to the skills and attributes listed for the respondents on a five point *Likert Scale* was analyzed using the Mann Whitney U test.

Results

Description of the Study's Participants

A survey, developed by the researcher was mailed to 240 principals in three districts located in the city of Karachi. The districts of East, West and Central were selected because they contained a wide variety of schools and communities. The districts selected contained schools, which were in urban settings as well as in suburban, and even rural, environments.

Section three provided 28 skills described in the literature as important for principals to have when changing their schools. A five- point Likert Scale was used by the respondent principals to indicate the importance to them of the identified skills utilized in changing their schools. The degrees of importance ranged from 1- Not at all important to 5- Extremely important. Section Four of the survey provided 27 attributes described in the literature as important for principals to have when changing their schools. The same 5-point Likert Scale described for Section Three was utilized in rating the importance of each listed attribute. The survey instrument was designed to be able to be completed in its entirety in 10-15 minutes. The data, once collected and recorded, was analyzed for interpretation. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was utilized by the researcher to analyze the data.

Several different methods were utilized to analyze, summarize, and represent the findings. The data obtained in section one was tabulated in table from using frequencies, and means as vehicles to interpret demographic profiles of the respondents and their schools. Frequencies and tables were utilized to tabulate responses in Section Two. These responses dealt with innovations implemented by principal respondents when changing their schools. Literature-based responses and newly identified innovations were analyzed in this section. The Mann Whitney U Test for Ordinal Numbers was utilized to analyze the data in sections three and four in the survey. The use of the mean rank and significance were the two basic statistical elements utilized to analyze the responses generated through the Likert Scale. In every case data were represented in tables, and narratives accompanied the tables to describe the findings.

Table 1
Demographic characteristics of the participants

| Characteristics | Frequency & Percentage | | | |
|---|------------------------|----------|-----------------|----------|
| 1) Age (in years) | < 30 | 30 – 39 | 40 – 49 | |
| | 1 (1%) | 3 (4%) | 12 (16%) | |
| | 50 – 59 | > 60 | | |
| | 47 (62%) | 13 (17%) | | |
| 2) Gender | Male 44(56%) | | Female 34 (44%) | |
| 3) Academic Qualification | Bachelors | Masters | M.Phil/PhD | |
| | 22 (29%) | 50 (66%) | 4 (5%) | |
| 4) Principal ship Experience (in years) | 0 – 5 | 6 – 10 | 11 – 15 | > 15 |
| | 31 (41%) | 19 (25%) | 11 (16%) | 14 (18%) |
| 4) Principal ship Current Position (in years) | 0 – 5 | 6 – 10 | 11 – 15 | > 15 |
| | 51 (67%) | 13 (17%) | 07 (09%) | 04 (06%) |

The demographic background of the principal respondents' (Table 1) shows that seventy nine percent (60) of the respondents were 50 years of age or above, and

(16) 21% of the respondents were 49 years of age or less. Instrument of those who responded 56% (44) of the respondents were male and 44% (34) were female. Table 2 shows the gender of the principal respondents. The respondents were asked to identify their earned highest degree. Of those who responded; 63% (48) indicated a Master's degree; 36% (27) indicated a Doctorate degree; and 1% (1) gave no response. The respondents were asked to indicate the number of years of experience as a principal in general and the number of years as principal in their present school.

Innovative Practices

Respondent principals indicated on the survey those innovative programs described in the literature as potentially helpful in improving schools. Respondents were asked to select only those innovations made during their tenure as principal. They could select as few or as many as were applicable. Technological upgrade received the largest number of responses by the respondent principals at a rate of 87% which represents 68 respondent principals. Staff Development was acknowledged as an innovation by 82% which corresponds to 64 respondent principals. Staff Reorganization was acknowledged as an innovative strategy by only 31% which corresponds to 24 principals. Table 2 shows the frequency of innovative practices utilized by the respondent principals and the percentage represented.

Table 2
Innovative practices of principal respondents

| Innovations | Frequency | Percentage |
|---------------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| 1) Parents Involvement Program | 55 | 71% |
| 2) Shared Decision-making | 50 | 64% |
| 3) Curriculum Reform | 56 | 72% |
| 4) Technological Upgrade | 68 | 87% |
| 5) Assignment/Project Support | 35 | 45% |
| 6) Staff Development | 64 | 82% |
| 7) School Reorganization | 35 | 45% |
| 8) Staff Reorganization | 24 | 31% |
| 9) Improvement in Physical Facilities | 40 | 51% |
| 10) Improve School Climate | 50 | 64% |
| 11) Community Outreach Programs | 33 | 42% |

This segment provided an opportunity for respondent principals to describe innovative programs that had been initiated by them and were in place for a minimum of five years under their leadership. Out of the 78 respondent principals, 19(24%) did not offer additional innovations that met the requirement of having been in place for five years. Fifty nine (76%) respondent principals, who responded to the open-ended

segment of the survey, offered a wide range of innovative responses which by the very nature of the responses indicated a thoughtful, contemplative and serious consideration of the survey. The investigator categorized the responses into several categories ranging from school reform to specific curriculum areas. Five principals (6%) indicated writing process; seven principals (9%) indicated balanced literacy; two principals (3%) indicated special student courses; four principals (5%) indicated student mentor programs; six principals (8%) indicated connected math programs; nine principals (12%) indicated student social action programs; two principals (3%) indicated whole school reform; two principals (3%) indicated micro-society; one principal (1%) indicated multiple intelligences; 6 principals (8%) indicated technology-specific programs for classrooms; one principal (1%) indicated reading/writing rooms; two principals (3%) indicated parent book groups; three principals (4%) indicated small learning communities; and two principals (3%) indicated bilingual classes.

Presentation of Data for Research Question

Do male and female successful principals identify similar skills and attributes as important to being a successful change agent? Of the 78 surveys returned to the researcher, 44 were from male principals, and 34 were from female principals. Using the Likert Scale, all 28 skills were rated as having some degree of importance by both male and female principal respondents. Utilizing the Mann Whitney U test for ordinal numbers, five of the skills were identified as having a level of significant difference between the male respondents and female respondents. Significance had been established as a p value of less than .05. The five skills were: Conceptualize New Avenues of Change (p= .028); Manage Finances (p = .030); Develop Staff (p = .023); Develop a Collaborative Model (p = .002); and Inspire Others (p = .044). Table 3 shows the test statistics for significance (p < .05) utilizing the Mann- Whitney U test.

Table 3
Significant of male and female principal respondents

| Skill | Mann-Whitney U | Z | ASYMP. Sig. (2 Tailed) |
|--|----------------|--------|------------------------|
| 1) Conceptualize New Avenues of Change | 553.500 | -2.204 | .028 |
| 2) Manage Finances | 548.500 | -2.164 | .030 |
| 3) Staff Development | 553.000 | -2.271 | .023 |
| 4) Develop Collaborative Model | 466.500 | -3.095 | .002 |
| 5) Inspire Others | 572.000 | -2.014 | .044 |

To further establish the perceptual difference between the male and female successful principal respondents, the mean rank for each skill was examined. It was found, in each case, the mean rank for female principal respondents was higher than the

male counterpart. A skill by skill analysis shows us a female mean rank 45.22 and the male mean rank was 34.08 for conceptualize new avenues of change; a female mean rank of 45.37 and a male mean rank of 34.97 for Manage Finances; a female mean rank of 45.24 and a male mean rank of 35.07 for Develop Staff; a female mean rank of 47.78 and male mean rank of 33.10 for Develop A Collaborative Model; and a female mean rank of 44.68 male mean rank of 35.50 for Inspire Others. Of these five skills¹ the widest spread in mean rank between female and male respondents was noted in Develop a Collaborative Model with a 14.68 spread. Table 4 shows the mean ranks of each of the five skills found to be significant through the Mann-Whitney U test.

Table 4
Mean ranks of significant skills of male and female principal respondents

| Skill | Gender | N | Mean Rank | Sum of Ranks |
|--|--------|----|-----------|--------------|
| 1) Conceptualize New Avenues of Change | Male | 44 | 35.08 | 1543.50 |
| | Female | 34 | 45.22 | 1537.50 |
| 2) Manage Finances | Male | 44 | 34.97 | 1538.50 |
| | Female | 34 | 45.37 | 1542.50 |
| 3) Staff Development | Male | 44 | 35.07 | 1543.00 |
| | Female | 34 | 45.24 | 1538.00 |
| 4) Develop Collaborative Model | Male | 44 | 33.10 | 1456.50 |
| | Female | 34 | 47.78 | 1624.50 |
| 5) Inspire Others | Male | 44 | 35.50 | 1562.00 |
| | Female | 34 | 44.68 | 1519.00 |

Using the Likert Scale, all 27 attributes were rated as having some degree of importance by both male and female principal respondents. Utilizing the Mann Whitney U test for ordinal numbers, four of the attributes were identified as having a level of significant difference between the male respondents and female respondents. Significance had been established as a p value of less than .05. The four attributes were: Courageous (p = .005); Has High Standards (p = .049); emotionally Intelligent (p = .029) and Proactive (p .012). Table 5 shows the test statistics for significance (p < .05) utilizing the Mann-Whitney U test.

Table 5
Significant attributes of male and female principal respondents

| Attribute | Mann-Whitney U | Z | ASYMP. Sig. (2 Tailed) |
|----------------------------|----------------|--------|------------------------|
| 1) Courageous | 490.000 | -2.792 | .005 |
| 2) Has High Standards | 589.000 | -1.971 | .049 |
| 3) Emotionally Intelligent | 556.000 | -2.178 | .029 |
| 4) Proactive | 528.000 | -2.506 | .012 |

To further establish the perceptual difference between the male and female successful principal respondents, the mean rank for each attribute was examined. It was found, in each case, the mean rank for female principal respondents was higher than the male counterpart. An attribute by attribute analysis shows a female mean rank of 47.09 and the male mean rank was 33.64 for Courageous; a female mean rank of 44.18 and a male mean rank of 35.89 for Has High Standards; a female mean rank of 45.13 and a male mean rank of 35.15 for Emotionally Intelligent and a female mean rank of 45.97 and male mean rank of 34.50 for Proactive, Of these four attributes, the widest spread in mean rank between female and male respondents was noted in Courageous with a 13.45 spread. Table 6 shows the mean ranks of each of the four attributes found to be significant through the Mann-Whitney U test.

Table 6
Mean ranks of significant attributes of male and female principal respondents

| Skills | Gender | N | Mean Rank | Sum of Ranks |
|----------------------------|--------|----|-----------|--------------|
| 1) Courageous | Male | 44 | 33.64 | 1480.00 |
| | Female | 34 | 47.09 | 1601.00 |
| 2) Has High Standards | Male | 44 | 35.89 | 1579.00 |
| | Female | 34 | 44.18 | 1502.00 |
| 3) Emotionally Intelligent | Male | 44 | 35.15 | 1546.50 |
| | Female | 34 | 45.13 | 1534.50 |
| 4) Proactive | Male | 44 | 34.50 | 1518.00 |
| | Female | 34 | 45.97 | 1563.00 |

Discussion

The 78 returned surveys showed a gender composite of 44 males and 34 females. The ratio of male to female principal respondents differs widely from the normal male to female ratio in the business world. This indicates that in education the percentages of women in administrative and supervisory roles are higher than the percentage in business. The literature further indicates that meta-analysis has shown that only one major difference in leadership style exists between men and women. It has been found that women are far more democratic in their approach to leadership while men have traditionally been more autocratic and dictatorial (Northouse, 2001). This meta-analysis finding is consistent with the findings of this study in looking at the skills and attributes that showed significant differences between the responses of men and women respondents.

The Likert Scale ratings revealed that although all 28 skills were rated by the combined men and women respondents as having some degree of importance, five skills were found to have a significant difference between the male and female principal respondents. The Mann Whitney U Test for Ordinal Numbers was utilized to ascertain

significance in responses of male and female principals. The five skills identified as having a significant difference between male and female respondent principals were Conceptualize New Avenues of Change; Manage Finances; Develop Staff; Develop a Collaborative Model; and Inspire Others. The mean ranks for female respondent principals were for each of the skills higher than the mean ranks for male respondent principals. This indicates that female respondent principals felt more strongly about these five skills than the male respondents.

When looking at these five skills the researcher observed a notable connection. Four of the significant differences showing a higher degree of importance for females rather than males were skills that had human relations implications. Conceptualize New Change, Develop Staff Develop a Collaborative Model, and Inspire Others are skills that are important when one wishes to have a constituency that works together and is part of a team that is in accord with the change process and feels part of the design. This finding is consistent with the literature as noted in previous paragraphs regarding the democratic leanings of women in supervisory positions. Inspiring Others and Develop Staff along with create a Collaborative model are on target to this philosophical viewpoint. It is also clear that female respondent principals were more concerned with having adequate funding for a project than their male counterparts. These five skills seem to indicate a relative conservative bent on the part of female respondent principals. Collegiality and deference to fiscal responsibility seem to be prevalent necessities for the female principals.

When analyzing the attributes of male and female respondent principals the researcher found that there were four attributes that had a significant response difference between male and female respondent principals. Once again the female respondent principals felt more strongly about the four attributes than their male counterparts. The four attributes with significant differences were Courageous, Has High Standards, Emotionally intelligent, and Proactive. Three of these attributes seem to fit into a category that can be described as character values. Being courageous, having high standards and being emotionally intelligent are attributes this researcher looks at as character aspects. They deal with the perception issues of constituencies that look upon the leaders as people with strength of character and with the inner ability to manage and deal with issues calmly and rationally. The attribute of being proactive is one that clearly suggests that one is willing to take the initiative and enter into a commitment of change.

Future researchers might wish to expand on this study by creating focus groups and interview sessions with principals of elementary and middle schools. Such would provide an opportunity for respondent principals to further elaborate on critical skills and attributes that they perceive have led them to a successful principal-ship. Delving into the methodology of the change process utilized by these principals might add

greatly to the knowledge base of what skills and attributes are critical to the successful implementation of change in the schools. Future studies might wish to investigate the similarities and differences between principals of high schools as well as principals of charter, parochial and/or private schools. Future researchers might be most interested in examining other performance indicators such as student attendance, mathematics scores and student suspensions in order to establish the effectiveness of innovations made by principals who participate.

Conclusion

The related literature suggests that women are far more democratic in their approach to leadership while men have traditionally been more autocratic and dictatorial (Northouse, 2001). This meta-analysis finding is consistent with the findings of this study while looking at the skills and attributes that showed significant differences between the responses of men and women respondents. Conceptualize change process, staff –development initiatives based on collaborative model, and being inspiration for other sare pre-requisite skills essential to work as team leader cum team member. This is in line with change process based on sense of ownership, collaboration and partnership. The findings of this study also calls for significant sector wide reforms in teacher preparation programs focused on educational leadership, management and policy studies for developing the essential knowledge, disposition and skills contextualized in Pakistani setting. This will enable principals operate as reflective practitioners, critical thinkers and change agents.

References

- Bennis, W. G., & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders: Strategies for taking Charge*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Brookover, W. B., & Lezotte, L. (1982). *Creating effective schools*. Holmes Beach, FL: Learning Publications.
- Chapko, M. A., & Buchko, M. (2002). What principals should know and be able to do: some serious (and not so serious) suggestions. *Principal*, 82(1), 42-44.
- Daresh, J. C. (2001). *Beginning the principalship* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, Inc.
- Fullan, M. (2002). *The change leader*. Educational Leadership, May, 16-20.
- Georte, D., & Mallery, P. (2001). *SPSS for Windows – Step by Step – A Simple Guide and Reference*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn& Bacon.

- Hallinger, P. (2003). Leading educational change: Reflections on the practice of instructional and transformational leadership. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 33(3), 329–352.
- Hallinger, P. (2011). Leadership for learning: Lessons from 40 years of empirical research. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 49(2), 125-142.
- Heck, R., & Hallinger, P. (2009). Assessing the contribution of distributed leadership to school improvement and growth in math achievement. *American Educational Research Journal*, 46(3), 659-689.
- Hoffer, E. (1963). *The ordeal of change*. Cutchogue, New York: Buccaneer Books. 117 pp.
- Ibrahim, A. M., & Al-Mashhadany, A. (2012). Roles of educational leaders in inducing change in public schools: Al Ain as a case study. *International Journal of Arts & Sciences*, 5(5), 455-476.
- Israel, M. S., & Kasper, B. B. (2004). Reframing leadership to create change. *The Educational Forum*, 69(1), 16-26.
- Jason, M. H. (2000). The role of the principal as transformational leader in a multicultural learning community. *The High School Journal*, 83(3), 1-9.
- Jonas, H., Johansson, O., & Olofsson, A. (2005). Successful principal ship: The Swedish case. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 43(6), 595-606.
- Louis, K. S., & Robinson, V. M. (2012). External mandates and instructional leadership: school leaders as mediating agents. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 50(5), 629-665.
- Mathews, J.A. (2002). A Resource-Based View of Schumpeterian Dynamics. *Journal of Evolutionary Economics* 12, 29-54.
- Nardelli, B. (2012). *The catholic school leader as change agent: Case studies of two catholic school principals*. Doctoral dissertation, Capella University. Retrieved from Pro Quest Dissertations and Theses.
- Northouse, P. G. (2001). *Leadership: Theory and Practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication, Inc.
- Rooney, J. (2000). Survival skills for the new Principal. *Educational Leadership*, 58(1), 77.

- Ross, J. A., & Gray, P. (2006). School leadership and student achievement: The mediating effects of teacher beliefs. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 29(3), 798-822.
- Stogdill, R. M. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *Journal of Psychology*, 25, 35-71.
- Ubben, G. C., Hughes, L. W., & Norris, C. J. (2001). *The principal: Creative leadership for effective schools* (4thed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Attitudes and Perceptions of the Saudi EFL Learners about the Pakistani EFL Teachers

Asif Ahmad*

Shahzad Karim**

Mohammad Imran Khokhar***

Abstract

The present study aims at investigating the attitudes and perceptions of the Saudi EFL learners about the non-Arab non-native EFL teachers i.e. the Pakistani EFL teachers teaching English language in the Saudi Universities. These teachers neither share the L1 (Arabic) of the Saudi EFL learners nor they are the Native English Speaking (NES) teachers. This is a seminal study in the sense that it focuses on the non-Arab non-native(Pakistani) EFL teachers and investigates whether their inability to speak English as a native speaker (NS) or to speak Arabic as the L1 of the Saudi EFL learners is an advantage or a disadvantage in teaching English to the Saudi EFL learners. The results show that although the English language program (ELP) administrators prefer to hire the NES teachers, the Saudi EFL learners do not necessarily prefer the NES teachers to the non-Arab non-native (Pakistani) EFL teachers. Instead, they believe that both native and non-native English language teachers complement each other. It is the qualification and professional preparation that is more important than being a native or a non-native English language teacher.

Keywords: Native English Speaking teachers, Non-native English-speaking teachers, EFL learners, EFL teachers

Introduction

A large number of people in the world, including the English language learners and their parents, EFL teachers, administrators of English Language Programs (ELPs) and other decision makers are of the opinion that NES teachers are the ideal teachers of English as a second or foreign language based simply on the fact that they are highly proficient in English (Braine, 2005). Since English is their mother-tongue and their

*Lecturer in English, English Language Institute, King Abdulaziz University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

**Assistant Professor, Department of English, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, Pakistan, E-mail:shahzad.karim@iub.edu.pk

*** Lecturer in English, English Language Institute, King Abdulaziz University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

language competence is well above the non-native EFL teachers, they are perceived to be better or more competent than them even if they do not possess any specific language teaching related qualifications (Ahmad & Ahmed, 2015). This uncritical assumption has political implications because it confers status and power on a specific group of teachers and the majority of EFL teachers who happen to be non-natives feel marginalized despite the fact that they earn professional qualifications for this particular job. Since many stake holders believe that the NES teachers are inherently better EFL teachers, the ELP administrators prefer hiring NES teachers which results into a serious disadvantage for the majority of non-native EFL teachers. A number of affluent students go to the English-speaking countries to learn English as a second or foreign language. In such an ESL contexts where students go to private language schools, administrators claim that the students who come to study in these programs expect to be taught by the NES teachers (Medgyes, 1994). That is why the decision makers justify that they have to hire only NES teachers in order to satisfy the customers' pressing demands. Whether this reason is valid or not it is a separate debate, but it surely has certain political and pedagogical implications. In fact, a large majority of people learn English as a foreign language and similarly a vast majority of EFL teachers in the world consists of non-native teachers. So, hiring only NES teachers can have serious repercussions for non-native EFL teachers.

A vast majority of people is learning English across the globe. The supply of the NES teachers in the TESOL job market is very limited and non-native EFL teachers are increasing every day to meet the demands. In the last 20 years, a great deal of research has focused on the issues of the non-native EFL teachers. The NES teachers are considered to be better and more competent EFL teachers by the ELP administrators and they base their preference on learners' perceptions about the non-native EFL teachers. As a result, the non-native EFL teachers feel marginalized. However, at the same time research studies have questioned the legitimacy of considering a native teacher as an ideal language teacher (Ahmad, 2016; Medgyes, 1992; Philipson, 1992).

Many Pakistani EFL teachers are teaching English language in the Middle East especially in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) along with their other non-Arab non-native colleagues such as Indians, Bengalis, Turkish, Filipinos, Sri Lankans, Indonesians, Malaysian and Arab non-native colleagues such as Egyptians, Jordanians, Sudanese, Moroccans, Algerians, Yemenis, Syrians, Tunisians and native colleagues such as Americans, British, Canadians, New Zealanders, Australians and South Africans. The Pakistani EFL teachers have a non-native status, and they have to compete with the NES teachers as well as the Arab EFL teachers to survive in the TESOL job market especially in the Middle East. In the Non-native Speaker Movement, it is assumed that non-native English-speaking teachers share L1 and its culture with their students. Contrary to this, the NES teachers speak English as their L1. Speaking English as an L1 is the principal strength of a NES teacher and sharing Arabic

as an L1 and its culture with the Arab students is the major strength of the Arab EFL teachers respectively. However, the scenario in this study is altogether different from the two mentioned above. The present study focuses on the Pakistani EFL teachers teaching English in the KSA. These teachers neither share the L1 (Arabic language) of the Saudi EFL learners nor they are the native speakers of English language. Hence, they have a different status called 'the non-Arab non-native EFL teacher'. Therefore, the present study focuses on the concept of non-Arab non-native EFL teachers with special focus on the Pakistani EFL teachers teaching English in various universities in the KSA. The study investigates the Saudi EFL learners' attitudes and perceptions about the Pakistani EFL teachers. The study also explores whether the Pakistani EFL teachers' inability to speak English as a native speaker (NS) or to speak Arabic as the L1 of the Saudi EFL learners is an advantage or a disadvantage in teaching English to the Saudi EFL learners.

The study is of great significance because ELT is flourishing just like an industry in the Middle East and many non-Arab non-native EFL teachers are working in this industry. Therefore, it is very important to know about the learners' attitudes and perceptions about their non-Arab non-native EFL teachers because it may play a significant role to determine the future job scope of these non-Arab non-native EFL teachers in the Middle East and particularly in the KSA.

Literature Review

Native and non-native issues pertaining to their identities and performance are receiving more attention from scholars and researchers such as Al-Omrani (2008), Arvaand Medgyes (2000), Braine (1999; 2005) Llurda (2004), Medgyes (1994; 2001), and Mehboob (2003; 2004). Another landmark development in the field of native and non-native dichotomy is the establishment of Non-Native Caucus in TESOL Organization in 1998 followed by the issuance of a 'TESOL statement on non-native speakers of English and hiring practices' by the executive board of TESOL in October 1991 and 'the position statement against discrimination of non-native speakers of English in the field of TESOL' issued by TESOL Organization in 2006. The 'TESOL statement on non-native speakers of English and hiring practices' emphasizes that while recruiting EFL teachers the focus should not only be on just being a native speaker of English language but teachers' professional qualification, teaching skills, and experience should also be given an equal weight age.

In May 2015, 13 ELPs in the Middle East posted job advertisements on Dave Sperling's ESL Café (www.eslcafe.com) and 10 out of 13 ELPs strictly demanded NES teachers from the UK, the USA, and Canada which was a gross violation of the TESOL position statement. Paradigm Talent recruitment agency posted a job advertisement at Dave Sperling's ESL café on July 01, 2013 to recruit 70 female teachers for Princess Nora University's Preparatory Year Program in Riyadh, Saudi

Arabia. The job opportunity was restricted to the American, British and South African citizens only quite irrespective of their qualification or experience. Similarly the newspapers in Hong Kong were replete with advertisements for NES teachers (Braine & Ling, 2007).

According to The British Council (2000), there were 750 million people who spoke English as a foreign language and 375 million people who spoke English as a second language. The difference between the two groups is that the EFL speakers use English occasionally for example for business or pleasure and they do not live in an English-speaking community, while the ESL speakers use English on a daily basis because they live in an English-speaking community. These impressive numbers are driven by adult speakers around the world who use English to communicate in the workplace.

Literature on native and non-native issues reveals that the ELP administrators base their decision on the basis of EFL learners' perceptions and attitudes towards non-native teachers. However, there is a strong need to test these perceptions. Cook (2000) asserts that the idea of the overwhelming preference for NES teachers is not always true. Philipson (1992) challenges the belief that the NES teachers are always better than the non-native EFL teachers. He admits that the native speakers might be better in grammatical judgments, but mostly they face difficult to explain the Meta linguistic knowledge of their native language unless they obtain professional qualification of being an English language teacher and are trained to do so.

Moussu and Braine (2006) in their 14-week long quantitative study investigated the perceptions of 88 ESL students belonging to 21 different countries. The participants responded to a questionnaire twice: at the beginning and at the end of the semester. All the students expressed positive attitude towards their non-native teachers although some were somewhat skeptical at the beginning of the semester. The results reveal that the students denied the idea that non-native teachers should not teach ESL classes. In another study, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) investigated the attitudes of 76 EFL learners towards native and non-native teachers. They concluded that though 60% of the participants preferred native teachers; 71 % of them expressed their desire to be taught by both native and non-native teachers collaboratively.

Ahmad and Ahmed (2014) administered a survey to 120 non-Arab non-native EFL teachers in the KSA to investigate their self-perceptions. They found that almost all the non-native teachers held a very positive self-image and they were quite successful while working with both the NES teachers and the Arab non-native EFL teachers. In the same vein, Ahmad (2016) investigated the attitudes of 12 instructional supervisors towards non-Arab non-native EFL teachers from four universities in the KSA and found that the supervisors were generally very positive towards these non-Arab non-native EFL teachers.

On the basis of his Hungarian EFL teachers' experiences, Medgyes (1994), hypothesized that the non-native teachers may prove to be better than the native teachers in six unique ways. He asserts that non-native teachers can: (1) prove to be a better model for their learners because being second language learners they themselves have gone through the same stages that their second language learners are passing through, (2) provide effective guidance about language learning strategies to their learners, (3) give more information about the rules and syntactic structures of English language, (4) better anticipate and prevent language difficulties faced by their learners, (5) be more sensitive to their learners' needs, (6) benefit their learners by their ability to use the learners' mother tongue. On the other side, Medgyes (1999) admits that the native speakers have one great advantage over the non-native speakers and that is their language competence.

Borg (2006) endorses five-point criteria for identifying a good language teacher which includes: (1) personal qualities, (2) pedagogical skills, (3) classroom practices, (4) subject matter, and (5) psychological constructs such as knowledge and attitude. Therefore, it seems appropriate that the ELP administrators should not take their decisions only on the basis of the nationality of the teacher. Liang (2002) also concluded that in native and non-native issues, the focus should be on the level of professionalism rather than the ethnic background of the teacher.

The native and non-native issue is debatable and will probably remain contentious, but it doesn't pose any serious harm as long as this debate remains within the bounds of linguistic or sociolinguistic perspectives. However, when the teachers are recruited or terminated on the basis of their ethnic background i.e. being natives or non-natives, it is considered sheer discrimination.

Research Questions

In the light of the above given literature the present study intends to investigate the following research questions:

1. Who is better in teaching English as a foreign language to the Saudi EFL learners: the Arab EFL teachers or the non-Arab non-native EFL (Pakistani) teachers? And why?
2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of studying English from the Arab EFL teachers and the non-Arab non-native (Pakistani) EFL teachers?
3. In which subject areas or skills are the non-Arab non-native (Pakistani) EFL teachers superior to the Arab EFL teachers and vice versa?

Methodology

In this study, quantitative method of research was employed to investigate the Saudi EFL learners' attitudes and perceptions and about their non-Arab non-native (Pakistani) EFL teachers. The data was collected from 400 randomly selected students

across the KSA. All selected students were studying at pre-intermediate level in the foundation year (FY) programs being run in the state (Public sector) universities. At the time of data collection, only those classes were selected that were being taught by the non-Arab non-native (Pakistani) EFL teachers in a 14 week long semester. The data was collected at the end of the second semester; therefore, all the learners were sufficiently exposed to the non-Arab non-native (Pakistani) EFL teachers, their accents, teaching techniques, and classroom management skills etc. The data was collected from only those students who had already been taught by the native English language teachers as well as the Arab EFL teachers during their first semester.

Data Collection Tool

Questionnaire

A questionnaire was used for data collection. The questionnaire was divided into three parts. The entire content of the questionnaire was made available in Arabic language along with English language so that the students could refer to its Arabic connotations in case they felt unsure about something. Each questionnaire consisted of a cover letter and a 'key-definitions' section which included distinctive definitions of native and non-native English-speaking teachers in English as well as in Arabic.

The part 1 of the questionnaire consisted of four questions which included questions about age, number of years spent learning English in the KSA, whether studied in government or private schools, and whether taught by the Arab EFL teachers, the non-Arab non-native EFL teachers or the NES teachers. The part 2 of the questionnaire consisted of two questions about the general perceptions of the participants towards the Arab EFL teachers and the non-Arab non-native EFL teachers. The part 3 consisted of six questions eliciting the participants' perceptions about the Arab EFL teachers as well as the non-Arab non-native EFL teachers with regards to teaching oral skills, reading and writing skills, and teaching grammar and vocabulary.

The entire data collection tool was translated into Arabic by an Arab EFL teacher so that the learners' perceptions and attitudes were truly and accurately represented. The questionnaire was piloted and modified according to the feedback received before it was administered for full scale data collection.

Findings

Findings of part - 1

The part - 1 of the questionnaire is about demographic data which includes information related to (1) participants' age, (2) years spent in learning English in the KSA, (3) whether studied in government or private schools, and (4) whether taught by the Arab EFL teachers, the non-Arab non-native EFL teachers or the NES teachers.

Table 1
How old are you?

| Age Group | Responses | Percentage |
|-----------|-----------|------------|
| A: 18-20 | 350 | 87.5% |
| B: 21-23 | 50 | 12.5% |
| C: 24-26 | 0 | 0% |
| D: 27-29 | 0 | 0% |

Table 2
How many years have you spent learning English in Saudi Arabia?

| Studied English in Saudi Arabia | Responses | Percentage |
|---------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| A: 2 years | 0 | 0% |
| B: 4 years | 80 | 20% |
| C: 6 years | 100 | 25% |
| D: 8 years | 190 | 47.5% |
| E: 12 years | 30 | 7.5% |

Table 3
Have you studied English in a government school or a private school?

| Studied in Government or Private Schools | Responses | Percentage |
|--|-----------|------------|
| Government Schools | 360 | 90% |
| Private Schools | 40 | 10% |

Table 4
Have you studied English from the Arab non-natives, the non-Arab non-natives or the native English speaking teachers?

| Studied from Arab non-natives | | Studied from non-Arab non-natives | | Studied from natives | |
|-------------------------------|-----|-----------------------------------|-----|----------------------|-----|
| Egyptians | 260 | Pakistani | 296 | Canadians | 150 |
| Saudis | 210 | Indians | 97 | Americans | 110 |
| Tunisians | 140 | Turkish | 5 | British | 70 |
| Jordanians | 90 | Malaysians | 1 | South Africans | 40 |
| Syrians | 60 | Indonesians | 1 | New Zealanders | 20 |
| Sudanese | 40 | | | Irish | 10 |
| Moroccans | 30 | | | | |
| Algerians | 10 | | | | |

The Arab students spend twelve to fourteen mandatory years in schools before they enroll onto a university-based four-year bachelor's degree program irrespective of

the nature of the degrees or disciplines. The students in the KSA are enrolled in schools at the age of 5–6 years. There are two tracks: Regular and Tahfeez-ul-Quran schooling. Both tracks include primary education called Elementary Schooling that lasts for 6 years. The secondary and higher secondary education called Intermediate and Secondary Schooling last for 3 years each. However, one or two years are extended for Tahfeez-ul-Quran students in order to let them to complete Hifz-e-Quran before the completion of secondary education. Before they enroll on to degree programs, they attend a year-long mandatory intensive English language program called Foundation Year (FY). Upon successful completion of the FY, they join professional colleges such as faculty of engineering, medicine or science or faculty of law or business etc. The participants of this study belonged to the normal age group. They were 18 or above i.e. having 12-14 years of schooling apart from one year of FY. This indicates that the vast majority of the students who participated in this study were fresh school graduates (87.5 %). Those who were above 21 were probably either from Tahfeez-ul-Quran track or repeaters who lost one or two years.

As for the number of years spent studying English, those students who studied English for 4 years (20%) were probably from Tahfeez-ul-Quran schools. These students studied English for three years in secondary schools and one year in the FY program. On the other hand, those students who studied English for 6 years (20%) were probably from Regular schooling and studied English as a mandatory subject in intermediate and secondary schools but they seem to have excluded the FY and counted the number of years they had studied prior to the FY. The majority of students studied English for 8 years (47.5 %) which means either they took private courses or repeated one or two years on top of studying English for six years in schools and one year at FY. A small minority of the students studied English for twelve years (7.5%). It is most likely that they went to private English Medium schools and had studied English for 12 years. They too seem to have counted twelve years of schooling but probably did not include 1 year of FY at university.

Education in the KSA is free for all at all levels. That is why 90% of the students surveyed had got their education from the government schools. However, there is a growing trend of studying in private English medium schools because of the modern facilities and internationally oriented curriculum. Nevertheless, a vast majority studies in government schools. The results indicate that on average each student surveyed studied from one native and two non-natives EFL teachers until they reached the FY program. As indicated above, 90% of the students studied in government schools and the majority of English teachers are Arab EFL teachers with few non-Arab non-native EFL teachers and very few NES teachers. On the other hand, English teachers at private schools are only NES teachers. The percentage of those students who studied from the NES teachers is low because just 10% students seem to have studied in

private schools. Majority of the students who studied from the NES teachers had their first exposure when they enrolled onto FY program.

Findings of part - 2

The part - 2 is about general perceptions of the participants about the Arab EFL teachers and the non-Arab non-native EFL teachers in the KSA. There are 2 questions: question 1 explores the advantages of sharing L1 and culture whereas question2explores the disadvantages of having a non-Arab non-native EFL teacher.

Table 5

I learn English better from an Arab teacher because we share the same language and culture

| Advantages of Sharing Mother-tongue and Culture | Responses | Percentage |
|---|-----------|------------|
| Strongly Agree | 70 | 17.5% |
| Agree | 90 | 22.5% |
| Neutral | 120 | 30% |
| Disagree | 70 | 17.5% |
| Strongly Disagree | 50 | 12.5% |

Table 6

I feel de-motivated when I have non-Arab EFL teachers

| Motivation Level | Responses | Percentage |
|-------------------|-----------|------------|
| Strongly Agree | 10 | 2.5% |
| Agree | 30 | 7.5% |
| Neutral | 150 | 37.5% |
| Disagree | 200 | 50% |
| Strongly Disagree | 10 | 2.5% |

Whether students learnt English better from an Arab EFL teacher or a non-Arab EFL teacher, no overwhelming preference was found for the Arab EFL teachers. 40% of the respondents believed that they learnt English better from an Arab teacher whereas 30% believed otherwise. Still as many as 30% remained neutral which might mean they could not observe any marked difference. Also, a sizable number of the students (52.5%) did not feel de-motivated when they had a non-Arab non-native teacher and 37.5% students remained neutral. However, a small minority (10%) felt anxious when they had a non-Arab teacher.

While studying the perceptions of the university students in Honk Kong towards non-native English-speaking teachers who shared Chinese with their students Brain and Ling (2007) found a similar trend that sharing students' culture and the ability to use their mother-tongue in an EFL classroom was perceived as a comfort and a sign of a good EFL teacher. In the post-audio-lingual method and post-direct method ELT world, limited use of mother-tongue is seen as a motivating factor especially in the lower level EFL programs. There seems to be a strong correlation with limited use of L1 and students comfort in lower level EFL classes. Brain and Ling (2007) also found that the Chinese students had a positive attitude towards non-native EFL teachers because they knew that the non-native EFL teachers had gone through a similar educational system, shared the same cultural background, and therefore they better understood the difficulties faced by the Chinese students. On the contrary, Al-Omrani (2008) did not find any negative or positive features of the Arab EFL teachers with regards to sharing first language and culture with the Arab beginning level EFL learners. Moreover, he found that the Arab intermediate and advanced level EFL learners did not view it as an advantage that the Arab teachers share the same first language or culture. In such circumstances, he argues, the students tend to rely too much on their L1 and do not get sufficiently exposed to the target language.

Findings of part - 3

The part - 3 is about the perceptions of the participants with regards to their experience of learning oral skills, reading and writing skills, and grammar and vocabulary by the Arab and non-Arab teachers.

Oral skills

Table 7

The non-Arab non-native EFL teachers teach oral skills better than the Arab EFL teachers

| Oral Skills by Non-Arab Teachers | Responses | Percentage |
|----------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Strongly Agree | 150 | 37.5% |
| Agree | 120 | 30% |
| Neutral | 30 | 7.5% |
| Disagree | 70 | 17.5% |
| Strongly Disagree | 30 | 7.5% |

The results indicate that the majority (67.5%) of the participants think that non-Arab non-native teachers teach oral skills better than Arab EFL teachers. A small minority of students (7.5%) remained neutral.

Table 8

The Arab EFL teachers teach oral skills better than the non-Arab non-native EFL teachers

| Oral Skills by Arab Teachers | Responses | Percentage |
|------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Strongly Agree | 10 | 2.5% |
| Agree | 110 | 27.5% |
| Neutral | 160 | 40% |
| Disagree | 80 | 20% |
| Strongly Disagree | 40 | 10% |

Similarly, 30% of the participants believed that the Arab EFL teachers teach oral skills better than the non-Arab non-native EFL teachers. Studies by Al-Omrani (2008); Benke and Medgyes (2005) and Mehboob (2003) found that the EFL learners thought that NES teachers were better than non-native English-speaking teachers because a class with a NES teacher was motivating and it forced the learners to speak only English and the learners got more opportunities to practice English language. The present scenario of the non-Arab non-native EFL teachers teaching English to the Arab learners has more or less the same situation. Here, Pakistani teachers in Saudi Arabia are unable to share Arabic with their learners. As a result, the students are forced to talk in English and eventually get more opportunities to practice English rather than switching to Arabic more often as usually is the case when they are taught by the Arab EFL teachers.

Reading and writing skills

Table 9

The non-Arab non-native EFL teachers teach reading and writing skills better than the Arab EFL teachers

| Reading and Writing Skills by Non-Arab Teachers | Responses | Percentage |
|---|-----------|------------|
| Strongly Agree | 120 | 30% |
| Agree | 140 | 35% |
| Neutral | 40 | 10% |
| Disagree | 50 | 12.5% |
| Strongly Disagree | 50 | 12.5% |

Table 10

The Arab EFL teachers teach reading and writing skills better than the non-Arab non-native EFL teachers

| Reading and Writing Skills by Arab Teachers | Responses | Percentage |
|---|-----------|------------|
| Strongly Agree | 40 | 10% |
| Agree | 70 | 17.5% |
| Neutral | 120 | 30% |
| Disagree | 110 | 27.5% |
| Strongly Disagree | 60 | 15% |

The results indicate that the majority of the students surveyed think that the non-Arab non-native EFL teachers teach reading and writing skills better than the Arab non-native EFL teachers. 65 % of the students believed that the non-Arab non-native EFL teachers are better whereas only 30% of the students disagreed with them. A small minority of the students (10%) remained neutral. Similarly, 27.5% of the students surveyed believed that the Arab EFL teachers teach reading and writing skills better than the non-Arab EFL teachers. Prior studies do not distinguish between the Arab and the non-Arab non-natives, so this is an area to be further investigated and demands a full length study.

Grammar and vocabulary

Table 11

The non-Arab non-native EFL teachers teach grammar and vocabulary better than the Arab EFL teachers

| Grammar and Vocabulary by Non-Arab Teachers | Responses | Percentage |
|---|-----------|------------|
| Strongly Agree | 50 | 12.5% |
| Agree | 110 | 27.5% |
| Neutral | 70 | 17.5% |
| Disagree | 110 | 27.5% |
| Strongly Disagree | 60 | 15% |

Table 12

The Arab EFL teachers teach grammar and vocabulary better than the non-Arab non-native EFL teachers

| Grammar and Vocabulary by Arab Teachers | Responses | Percentage |
|---|-----------|------------|
| Strongly Agree | 150 | 37.5% |
| Agree | 80 | 20% |
| Neutral | 70 | 17.5% |
| Disagree | 110 | 27.5% |
| Strongly Disagree | 40 | 10% |

The results indicate that the students surveyed expressed their attitudes quite meaningfully. 40 % of the respondents believed that the non-Arab non-native EFL teachers teach grammar and vocabulary better than the Arab EFL teachers, whereas 57.5% believed otherwise. Grammar teaching was seen as the strongest area of then on-native EFL teachers (Mehboob, 2003). Arva and Medgyes (2000) also stated that the NES teachers in their research study acknowledged that the non-native EFL teachers have better understanding of grammar as compared to the NES teachers. Al-Omrani (2008) found that 49 out of 50 ESL learners in his research study held the opinion that they were able to understand grammar better when taught by the non-native EFL

teachers. Both the Arab and the non-Arab EFL teachers seem to be in the same boat when it comes to teaching grammar and vocabulary. However, the Arab EFL teachers definitely have an advantage especially while teaching to the lower level Arab EFL learners.

Discussion

In response to research question 1: *Who is better in teaching English as a foreign language to the Arab EFL learners: the Arab EFL teachers or the non-Arab non-native EFL teachers? And why?*

The results of the study do not reveal any meaningful or overwhelming preference for either of them. The Arab EFL teachers are perceived to be better because, (1) they can provide meaning to the students in their mother-tongue, and (2) they can understand students' problems better because they share the students' culture. On the other hand, the non-Arab Pakistani EFL teachers are considered to be better in teaching oral skills because it maximizes student talk-time in the EFL classroom.

Majority of the students surveyed seem to be in agreement with their counterparts across the globe in their belief that the non-native English language teachers are a better option for lower levels as they could offer meanings of difficult words in their mother-tongue (the non-Arab non-native EFL teachers in our case) and the native teachers were a better option for advanced level because they could offer more accurate pronunciation and real life meanings of English expressions without switching to L1 (the Pakistani EFL teachers in our case).

In response to research question 2: *What are the advantages and disadvantages of studying English from the Arab EFL teachers and the non-Arab non-native EFL teachers?*

The results show that there are some advantages and some disadvantages of learning English from both the Arab and non-Arab EFL teachers. The biggest advantage of having the Arab teachers is for the lower level students because they feel more comfortable with them whereas the biggest advantage of having the non-Arab teachers is for higher level students because it increases their talk time and creates more opportunities to use the target language.

In response to research question 3: *In which subject areas or skills are the non-Arab non-native EFL teachers superior to the Arab EFL teachers and vice versa?*

The results do not reveal very significant difference between the Arabs and the non-Arabs with regards to teaching language skills or sub skills. However, the Saudi students seem to believe that the Arab EFL teachers seem to be better at teaching grammar and vocabulary. On the contrary, students seem to be learning oral, reading and writing skills better from the non-Arab Non-native EFL teachers.

In short, both the Arab and non-Arab EFL teachers are non-native teachers of English as a foreign language with their specific strengths and weaknesses. They can minimize each other's weaknesses and maximize students' learning if they work collaboratively.

Conclusion

The prime objective of this study was to investigate the Saudi EFL learners' perceptions and attitudes towards the Pakistani teachers in order to determine the current status of the Pakistani EFL teachers in the eyes of the Saudi EFL learners because it is immensely important for the future of Pakistani workforce in the KSA education job market. It is evident from the findings that the learners who participated in this study did not hold any significantly negative attitude towards the Pakistani EFL teachers just because of their nationality or identity.

The results of the study show that there are some differences between the Arab non-native and the Pakistani EFL teachers. However, the Saudi learners do not seem to prefer one over the other overwhelmingly. All the teachers have their strengths and weaknesses. Teaching oral skills was found to be the main strength of the Pakistani EFL teachers because they could enhance students' talk-time without switching to the Arabic language. On the other hand, knowing the host culture and offering help in mother-tongue to lower level students was the main advantage of having the Arab non-native EFL teachers.

In short, the Pakistani EFL teachers in the KSA were found to be on an equal footing with their other counterpart EFL teachers in this study and there appears to be no disadvantage of being a non-Arab EFL teacher in the KSA.

Recommendations

The findings of this research study have implications for the EFL classroom teaching practices, language teacher education programs, EFL program administrators and recruitment managers. The implications derived from this study are given below:

1. Not knowing Arabic while teaching English to the Arab learners is not a disadvantage for the Pakistani EFL teachers or other non-Arab non-native EFL teachers. It is strength especially when teaching oral skills to the EFL learners. It helps to maximize the student talk time and to reduce the excessive use of Arabic in EFL classroom. So there is no harm in hiring non-Arab non-native ELF teachers for the Arab EFL classrooms; rather it is an advantage for the higher level classes.
2. A mix of both the Arab and the non-Arab EFL teachers will make a very good combination for collaborative teaching in any EFL program in the KSA.
3. Higher level classes will benefit more if assigned to the non-Arab EFL teachers. Similarly, it is to students' advantage if lower level classes are assigned to the Arab EFL teachers with the autonomy of the limited use of Arabic as L1.

References

- Ahmad, A. (2016). Attitudes of the Instructional Supervisors towards non-Arab non-native EFL teachers. *The Bridge: Journal of Educational Research-Informed Practice*, 3(1), 61-77.
- Ahmad, A., & Ahmed, P. S. (2015). Self-perceptions of non-Arab non-native English-speaking teachers: *International Journal of Linguistics, Literature and Culture*. 1 (3), 40-55.
- Al-Omrani, A. H. (2008). *The perceptions of Saudi EFL and ESL students towards native and non-native English-speaking teachers* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). Indiana University of Pennsylvania.
- Arva, V., & Medgyes, P. (2000). Native and non-native teachers in the classroom. *System*, 28, 355–372.
- Benke, E., & Medgyes, P. (2005). Differences in teaching behavior between native and nonnative speaker teachers: As seen by the learners. In E. Llurda (Ed.), *Non-native language teachers: Perceptions, challenges and contributions to the profession* (pp.195 – 215). New York, NY: Springer Science + Business Media, LLC.
- Borg, S. (2006). The distinctive characteristics of foreign language teachers: *Language Teaching Research*, 10, 3-31.
- Braine, G. (1999). Introduction. In G. Braine (Ed.), *Non-native educators in English language teaching* (pp. xiii – xxi). Mahwah, NJ: Laurence Erlbaum Associates.
- Braine, G. (2005). A history of research on non-native speaker English teachers: In E. Llurda (Ed.), *Non-native language teachers: perceptions, challenges and contributions to the profession* (pp.13 – 23). New York, NY: Springer Science + Business Media, LLC.
- Braine, G., & Ling, C. Y. (2007). *The attitudes of university students towards non-native speakers' English teachers in Hong Kong*: SAGE Publication.
- Cook, V. (2000). Comments on Vivian Cook's "Going beyond the native speaker in language teaching." The author responds. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34(2), 329-332.
- Dave Sperling's ESL café (2013). Last retrieved on July 03, 2013 at: <http://www.eslcafe.com/joblist/index.cgi?read=28819>
- Lasagabaster, D., & Sierra, J. M. (2005). What do students think about the pros and cons of having a native speaker teacher? In E. Llurda (Ed.), *Non-native language teachers: perceptions, challenges and contributions to the profession* (pp.217 – 241). New York, NY: Springer Science + Business Media, LLC.

- Liang, K. (2002). *English as a second language (ESL) students' attitudes towards non-native English-speaking teachers' accentedness* (Unpublished Master's thesis). California State University, Los Angeles.
- Llurda, E. (2004). Non-native speaker teachers and English as an international Language. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 14(3), 314-323
- Medgyes, P. (1992). Native or non-native: Who's worth more? *ELT Journal*, 46(4), 340-349.
- Medgyes, P. (1994). *The Non-Native teacher*. London: Macmillan.
- Medgyes, P. (1999). *The Non-Native teacher*. (2nd edition) Germany: Hueber.
- Medgyes, P. (2001). When the teacher is a non-native speaker. In M. Celce-Maurica (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp.429 - 442). Boston: Heinle&Heinle.
- Mehboob, A. (2003). *Status of nonnative English speakers as ESL teachers in the United States* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). Indiana University.
- Mehboob, A. (2004). Native or non-native: what do students enrolled in an intensive English program think? In L. Kammhi-Stein (Ed.), *Learning and teaching from experience: perspective on non-native English-speaking professionals* (pp. 121 - 147). Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Moussu, L., & Braine, G. (2006). The attitudes of ESL students towards nonnative English language teachers. *TESL Reporter*, 39, 33-47
- Philipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic Imperialism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- TESOL. (2006). *Position Statement against Discrimination of Nonnative Speakers of English in the Field of TESOL*. Washington, DC. : TESOL.
- The British Council: last retrieved May 22, 2013. <http://www.britishcouncil.org/learning-faq-the-english-language.html>

Religious Thinking and Social Attitude: A Case Study of Pakistani University Students

Mohammad Nadeem*

Nasreen Akhter**

Muhammad Ayub Buzdar***

Abstract

Thinking has a close relationship with attitude of human beings. Actions of people represent their mind set. Religion of a person impacts the mind set and behavior of people. Present study religious thinking and social attitude was an attempt to explore effect of religiosity on social attitude of university level students in Pakistan. It focused to search affiliation of university students with their religion, conclude their social beliefs, social practices and impact of religiosity factor on social attitude of students. This was a qualitative research based on interview of 114 students from eight universities in Pakistan to gain the deep understanding of the problem investigated. Thematic data analysis technique was applied to extract results from the data gathered through interviews. Results revealed that the university students, generally, support religious harmony and undermined religious sectarianism. The students' religiousness was expressed through their behavior, conduct, manners, and even routine actions. The study recommended further research to explore the factors which contribute in shaping university students' religiousness and social attitudes.

Key Words: Religion; Religious Thinking; Social Attitude; Pakistani University Students

Introduction

Other than education, religiosity has been anticipated as an additional source of good life (Peterson & Webb, 2006). Numerous studies believed that religious individuals are better in health, having good physical fitness and even live long life (McIntosh & Spilka, 1990; Williams & Sternthal, 2007). Supporting this opinion, Pendleton (1990) embraced that such individuals show larger amounts of pleasure,

* Lecturer in Department of Education, Govt. S. E. College Bahawalpur

E-mail: nadeem2770@gmail.com (Corresponding Author)

** Assistant Professor, Department of Education, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur

E-mail: drnasreenakhtar01@gmail.com

*** Assistant Professor of Education, Government College University Faisalabad.

happiness and satisfaction with life. They have brought down suicide rates (Helliwell & Putnam, 2004) and higher efforts against life misfortunes. An investigation led by Morgan and Sternk (2010) takes up the question on impact of preservationist religiosity and its concerns for attitude formation towards science and nature. Outcomes of their study uncover that the general population who are religious assume a critical part in framing attitude towards science and society.

To investigate relationship amongst religiosity and education, Barro and McCleary (2006) proposed a clarification of positive relationship between them. They inferred that more instructed people are moderately equipped for logical, conceptual and social considerations. They may have the capacity to justify religious beliefs in this regard. Wang, Jing-Ru Lin and Sheau-Wen (2009) oppose that if the students are given good environment, their behavior will doubtlessly be created towards a decent sense. Merrill, Read, and Le Cheminant (2009) additionally reasoned that religiosity plays out a key part in enhancing the personal satisfaction of good life.

Religiosity, in its widest nature, is a systematic sociological term used to indicate the various aspects of religious actions, commitment and principles (religious theory). In its different sense, religiosity bargains more with how much religious a human being is, and less with how an individual is religious in preparing certain observances, restating assured myths, venerating certain symbols (Hill & Hood, 1999; Brink, 1993). In such manner, the discoveries of Abdel-Khalek (2010) uncovers that religiosity might be considered as a remarkable part of and a contributing component to personal life satisfaction among Muslim students. Along these lines, Islamic beliefs and practices may possibly be coordinated in the psychotherapeutic approaches among Muslim patrons. One of the conspicuous elements impacted by the religion is the state of attitude development. It is a phenomenon we can rely on as a lifetime partner. It is based upon our desires, discernments, and meaning of reality (Grimme & Grimme, 2010). A few researchers do trust that attitude formation might be intrinsic or may have organic starting points (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993).

Former studies about religiosity and life among college graduates have been recorded in a considerable group of the Muslim nations. Such kind of work was conducted by Tiliouine and Belgoumidi (2009) who investigated the connections between religiosity meaning in life and subjective wellbeing in a sample of Muslims residing in Algeria. The results demonstrate that religiosity fundamentally contributes in giving benevolence in social life. However, Krech (2008) presents the outcomes from the European viewpoint. He demonstrates that effect of religious range can't be totally disposed of. Individual experiences with various religious preferences appear to influence both religiosity and social attitude. Henningsgaard and Arnau (2008) focused their study on Christian college students and called attention to constructive

relationship among religiosity, deep sense of creature and enormous five identities attributes i.e. extraversion, suitability, good faith, openness and neuroticism.

The circumstance in Pakistan is critical in this situation. There are affirmations of radicalism and fear based oppression in Pakistani society. In the perspective of Human Rights Documentation Center (2001), the entire world takes a gander at Pakistan as the place that is known for the general population having outrageous and narrow minded mentality. This view is upheld by Gill (2012) who depicts that Pakistan is a standout amongst the most glaring cases of religious bigotry in the world. Winthrop and Graff (2010) in their study condemn state funded instruction support of Pakistan. Their report states that current curriculum is supporter of advancing fanaticism and extreme disposition among the students and opposed to advancing tolerant and positive social attitude. They also condemn absence of school facilities, educational module, and educators' predispositions for not empowering equalization and better societal mentality advancement among the students. Keeping in view the above conversation, it seemed valuable to conduct a study to assess the religious speculation and social dispositions of students in higher level of education so that a definite picture of the mentality of new era might be discovered.

Research Questions of the study

Religiosity and social dispositions have fluctuated depths. Their dominance and strength fluctuate under social, political and monetary settings. The present study looks into investigate religious and behavioral elements that mostly coincide with Pakistani Muslim society. The study endeavored to answer following research questions:

1. What are the social beliefs of Pakistani university students?
2. What kinds of social practices are performed by Pakistani university students?
3. How strongly Pakistani university students are affiliated with their religion?
4. How do students' religious aspects affect their social attitudes?

Research Methodology

Research Design and Participants

This study required wide and significant investigation of the relationship of two imperative components of human life. While depicting different research techniques Nenty (2009) characterizes that the examination that is to describe, clarify or deduce a few fragments of present phenomenon is descriptive and in addition survey study. Therefore, present study was conducted following survey method of descriptive research using interview technique of data collection.

Population of this study was university level students. For sampling, eight universities of Pakistan and 160 students enrolled in the universities were randomly chosen. They were given a letter to give consent to be included in the study but 114

were ready to participate and others refused to contribute. Therefore, a sample of 114 students was finalized. Table 1 indicates university wise distribution of the sample

Table 1
University Wise Distribution of the participants

| Sr. No | Names of University | f | % |
|--------|--|----|------|
| 1 | University of Punjab, Lahore | 16 | 14.0 |
| 2 | University of Sargodha, Sargodha | 14 | 12.3 |
| 3 | Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan | 16 | 14.0 |
| 4 | University of Karachi, Karachi | 18 | 15.9 |
| 5 | University of Sindh, Jamshoro | 12 | 10.5 |
| 6 | University of Baluchistan, Quetta | 12 | 10.5 |
| 7 | University of Peshawar, Peshawar | 14 | 12.3 |
| 8 | Karakorum International University, Gilgit, Gilgit Baltistan | 12 | 10.5 |

Instrument and its Validation

For current study, an interview comprised on ten items was developed to record the information from the interviewee about their religious aspects and social attitude. Content and face validity of interview items were assured through a panel of five experts of the field. They were asked to rate appropriateness of items in connection to language, content and reasonableness of items keeping in view the targets of study conveyed to them. The experts evaluated items. They raised some questions and gave suggestions to improve some items. The questions which were endorsed by more than 80% of experts were incorporated as it in the tool. However items less than 80% endorsement rates were adjusted according to the recommendations of experts. Items of the interview finalized for the students were:

1. What do you think is the best way to express religiosity?
2. To what extent your religion effects your relations with others?
3. While dealings with others, to what extent do you value their religion?
4. How do you behave with the people who are not more religious?
5. In your opinion, generally, how do religious people behave with other people?
6. Would you like to take help from such a person who has different religious associations than you?
7. To you, how much beneficial are those people for the society who do not perform their religious obligations?
8. What type of role, students' religious parties are performing in educational institutions?
9. In your opinion, which steps may be taken to improve the peoples' social attitudes?

The interview was piloted on a sample of five students and its content material was surveyed. It was observed that all items were researchable and understandable for students.

Data Collection

A sheet containing the items was dispersed among participants for reference and collected at the end of the meeting. We, collected data by personal visits of the faculties of the eight universities. On the way to the start of interview, the participants were advised on the extent of the study. They were asked for to sign a consent form. These interviews were recorded by an audio recording device. However, interviewees were guaranteed confidentiality of information provided by them. Each interview approximately finished in 60 to 70 minutes.

Data Analysis

After gathering information, we transformed all the audiotapes. The information was coded and dissected utilizing Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis (IPA). IPA is comprehensively utilized as a part of research when a researcher needs and want to perceive individuals' perception, experience, and feeling of events in their lives. Initially, we read through two transcripts to pick up a valuation for the points of interest of inclusion as experienced by the participants of the study. Step wise detail of information analysis with illustrations has given in Table 02.

Firstly, extraordinary meaning units were separated from the information, composed and assembled. In present study, a meaning unit was an item in the transcripts that uncovered a specific response to consideration. Generally, 359 meaning units were formed. Furthermore, we read every meaning unit to close its general theme(s) and afterward dole out a code to every theme. Overall, 33 codes were created and filled in as methods for coding to each transcript. The best fit codes were recognized and completed for consideration. Secondly, dependability was ascertained by partitioning the quantity of assertions by the entirety of the quantity of understandings and contradictions and multiplying the quotient by 100. After the finish of coding process, 25% of the transcripts were checked by a third member to guarantee the unwavering quality and precision of the past coding. Average *inter-rater reliability was 0.89*. In third and final phase, codes with related themes were assembled to create groups/ categories. There were seven groups framed out (see Table 02). The groups designed one comprehensive cluster which summed up the adaptation in university students' social attitude through their involvements.

Results and Interpretation

Data of the study revealed different results regarding the research questions under investigation. Table 2 shows brief view of the themes derived from data. Interpretation of results and discussion has given after the table

Table 2
Brief view of results/ themes derived from data

| Steps | Description | Number | Examples |
|-----------------------------|--|--|---|
| 1. Assembling Meaning Units | A meaning unit is a precise which reflects the opinion of interviewee. These units reveal a particular response of the respondent to inclusion. These were gathered from transcripts of data gathered from respondents | 359 meaning units formed from the transcripts. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Religious persons should not support sectarianism and express their religiousness according to golden principles of Islam. 2. A person should behave friendly and speak gently for conveying religious messages. This was adopted by the Holy Prophet (PBUH) to preach religious teachings |
| 2. Coding | Each meaning unit was assigned a code and its' general theme recognized at this stage. | 44 codes generated. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Religious Harmony 2. Religious awareness 3. Religious prayers 4. Equality in relations 5. Relation of peace and brotherhood 6. Relations with non-religious persons 7. Benefits of society 8. Religious and social norms 9. Attitude of highly religious people with others (These nine codes were subsequently grouped to form various categories). |
| 3. Categorizing | Codes with related themes were grouped to create categories. There were seven categories. | | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Manifestation of Religiousness 2. Religion and Social Relations 3. Relations' Effects on Religion 4. Gaining Help from a |

| | | |
|---------------|--|---|
| | | Non-Religious Person |
| | | 5. Role of Religious Persons towards Benefits of Society |
| | | 6. Role of Religious Political Parties in Society |
| | | 7. Role of Students Religious Organizations in Educational Institutions |
| 4. Clustering | Categories were grouped one cluster to Present results | 1. Results of study |

1. *Manifestation of Religiousness*

Data analysis demonstrates that participants uncover diverse levels of religious association. One of the interview objectives was to examine students' viewpoints about their religious inclinations and approaches to express them. Information demonstrates that students uncover distinctive parts of religious affiliations. Real points of view determined in such manner have given beneath:

1.1 *Religious Harmony*

A noteworthy strategy to express religiosity was portrayed religious concordance. Students stress that a religious individual ought to evade sectarianism and animosity. A male student of M.A. English, 25, states "*religious people ought not bolster sectarianism and express their religiousness as indicated by brilliant standards of Islam*". Students additionally demonstrate that profound quality and goodness are likewise better approach to show religiousness. A female student of M.Sc. Physics, 21, tells "*a man ought to carry on friendly and speak tenderly to convey religious messages. This was embraced by the Holy Prophet (PBUH) to lecture religious lessons*". It is found that huge number of female students bolsters goodness, harmony and non-abrasiveness as real techniques for indicating religious affiliations. Sectarianism, brutality, and forcing thoughts are debilitated by numerous studies.

1.2 *Religious Awareness*

Another portion of sample trusts that religious awareness is an imperative angle to show religiousness. People ought to have sensible learning of religious standards. A female student of M.Sc. Botany, 20, states "*we can't take after religion without its in-depth awareness. Profound study of Holy Quran and Hadith empowers us to consider our life, its targets and method for living*".

1.3 Prayers

Prayers are another wellspring of articulation of religion as communicated by another group of students. They uncover that prayers have a vital part to express religiosity. In such manner, a female student of M.A. Economics, 24, uncovers *"in spite of the fact that religiousness or religiosity is an individual matter of each person yet it is better uncovered through our prayers on which we follow up on in day by day life"*. The essential pillars of Islam present the prayers as compulsory obligations for Muslims everywhere throughout the world. A female student of M.A. English, 21, uncovers *"religiosity is perceived through consistently and dependably playing out the fundamental mainstays of Islam i.e., Performance of prayers, fasting, performing pilgrimage, and paying Zakat and if a commitment is missed he ought to look for pardon from Almighty Allah"*.

1.4 Physical Appearance

Physical appearance is another aspect through which a man might be distinguished whether he is religious or not. Different recognitions have been identified from the respondents. A section among them contends that a man might be apparent through his/her physically condition or appearance. A student of M.A. Arabic, 22, says *"as per portrayed method for wearing dresses by Islam, a man might be recognized as religious or non-religious"*. It is evident from respondents' view that physical appearance and in addition fair conduct and dealings with others have a huge part in human life in regard to religion.

2 Religion and Social Relations

The subjects of the study were asked in account of their relations, dealings and conduct with the general population of different religions. These inquiries were requested in the interview to look at the effect of religion of students on their social relations.

2.1 Equality in Relations

Islam is a religion of uniformity in human life. Islamic lessons are full with the historical occasions of equal treatments with different gatherings of people groups. A female student of M.A. Statistics, 21, communicates *"Islam is the religion in which there is no distinction amongst rich and poor and Islam orders us to treat with other individuals similarly whether they are Muslims or non-Muslims"*. This uncovers that students are very much aware with respect to Islamic estimation of equity among individuals. Students are aware about such kind of religious instruction which show them to respect others with no segregation even with non-Muslims.

2.2 Likeness and Dis-likeness for Self and Others

Islam shows us that we ought to like the things for others which we like for ourselves and dislike those things for others which we don't care for ourselves. In such manner, a student of M.Sc. Organic science, 21, talks *"our religion influences our*

relations with others so we ought to like the things which we like for us and we ought to hate the things which we don't care for or select for us". The opinion shows importance of brotherhood among Muslims too. Students have understanding of requirements to show their love for their fellows. Therefore, their thinking exhibits their knowledge about such significant value of Islam.

2.3 *Relations of Peace and Brotherhood*

Islam is the religion of peace as viewed by most of the participants. It shows to treat others delicately and tenderly. A male student of M.A. Education, 20, tells "*Islam is a religion of peace and shows us to set up serene relations with others even with non-religious people*". The viewpoint of participants indicates huge significance of tender relationship, peaceful associations and communication with one another. Such philosophy is appreciating in a sense that students want calm in society. Therefore, they wish to develop nonviolent relations with others in the community.

3 *Relations' Effects on Religion*

Relations with the general population of others religions equally influence individual's own particular religion. In such manner, a female student of M.A. English, 20, says "*relations with the general population of different religions hurtfully influence our religion as we can't have the capacity to offer supplications or discuss Holy Quran*". The students uncover that all religions ought to be given due regard and freedom. They think, if followers of one religion do not respect the followers of others' religion, it may harm them and show their disrespect for them too in return.

3.1 *Valuing Others' Religion*

Students viewed that they respect other's religion while interacting with them. The general population of different religions has their own particular timings to worship and devotion in their religious practices. A female student of M.Sc. Bio Chemistry, 22, states "*while taking some work from a man who is not Muslim, we ought to deal with his religious schedules and devotion timings and work together with him in his/her free or relaxation time*". This shows a positive sign of thinking and impact of education system in Pakistan that students give value and respect to their non- Muslim companions learning with them.

3.2 *Persuasive Attitude with Non-Religious Persons*

A noteworthy section of the sample shows the compelling and influential conduct while cooperating with non-religious people groups. They trust that these sorts of conduct surprise a non-religious individual decidedly. A male student of M .A. History, 24, uncovers "*we can convince a man towards the religion through our conduct and dealings with him/her. In the event that resilience is kept up while managing non-religious groups, they may get to be religious by watching our attitude and reasonable interactions with them*". It is found that the attitude of religious people, their activities,

prayers and dealings with non-religious individuals influence them decidedly or contrarily.

3.3 *Religious Persons' Attitude with Non-Muslims*

In a religion, the demeanor of religious individuals in different social settings exceedingly matters. Students condemn the more regrettable dealings of religious people with others which they saw in their everyday life. A female student of M.A. Statistics, 21, criticizes "*religious people of different religions (other than Islam) don't collaborate in a decent way with the general population of different religions*". Religious individuals must stay away from terrible mentalities towards others. Strict, brutal and harsh conduct of religious individuals is discouraged by numerous studies. It is found from the data that students believed religious individuals don't carry on delicately and tenderly as per most of the sample students. This kind of mentality is destructive for them as well as for the religion of Islam.

4 *Gaining Help from a Non-Religious Person*

Having assistance from a non-religious individual was another perspective to consider the religiosity of the participants. Students' reactions mirror their three sorts of demeanors in such manner. The main group was supportive of tolerating assistance from non-religious people. The second group declined to get help and the third one held blended perspectives with respect to getting help. A male student of M.A. Political Science, 21, states "*he will get the assistance from a non-religious individual since they speak truth and they are reasonable in dealings*". Such type of indications describes that majority of Muslim students have a vision to perform positive social attitude with minorities residing around them. They have observation that non religious people are honest with them and a part of their society. Students feel that having a relation with non Muslims is their need, so they do not hesitate to get help from them. Such type of feeling has developed among students due to the quality of openness, honesty and fair dealings of non religious people.

5 *Role of Religious Persons towards Benefits of Society*

Respondents were asked about those people who did not perform religious obligations. It was asked, if these people seemed productive for the general public to them. The students communicated two sorts of feeling. A female student of M.A. Education, 25, said "*those individuals, who don't follow up on their religious commitments, can't perform better in societal affairs and subsequently they are not useful for society*".

6 *Role of Religious Political Parties in Society*

Society and religion are interconnected with each other. An individual from a particular religion reveals his religious thoughts on bases of which the society was build up. At the point when the question about the part of religious political parties in the society was asked from the respondents they opined against their positive role in such

manner. A female student of M.A. Arabic, 23, states "*in the realm of today, religious political groups are not playing out their positive role in our society but they simply criticize on each other*". Students demonstrate their disrespect toward religious political parties and performing part in the society. This is due to the negative observation of students regarding role of religious political parties in Pakistan who only work for the benefits of their leaders. This is an alarming situation for the leaders of the religious political parties. They should think and perform well for the benefits of society.

7 Role of Students Religious Organizations in Educational Institutions

Different religious groups/associations are working in the educational organizations of Pakistan. These associations have their own particular constitution and thoughts to work in higher education bodies. Students of higher education institutions don't care for these sorts of associations in the universities and they condemn their part in the higher learning organizations. A female student of M.A. Psychology, 25, expresses "*these sorts of religious associations obliterate the eventual fate of students. Really, solid hands of political pioneers are behind these associations so member students don't falter to do any wrong activity with institutional organization and additionally with their colleagues in their institutions*".

Discussion

Past researches led on secondary school educational modules in Pakistan additionally uncover that course book in Social Studies and different subjects are penetrated by the possibility that Muslims constitute a flawless community. Students participated for the present studies were concentrating on the educational module that was set up under strategy rules given by the Government of Pakistan. Current investigation prescribes that the subject of Islamic philosophy ought to be made mandatory in all colleges which reassert the prior inquiries about Islamic lessons, including a necessary perusing and remembrance of Qur'an. The Government of Pakistan (2007) declared that new course readings will contain remarkable sections managing peace, equality of genders, morals and good values that will open about the nation's financial, social and cultural establishments. In such manner, educational programs might be amended in the light of above looks into and the sought incorporations are still to be made.

Criticizing a persons' religion is the fundamental reason for societal disorder. Discoveries of the study uncover it as root cause of social disturbance which open entryways for religious political agitation. Current study opposes the viewpoint of Gill (2012) and The Center of Human Documentation (2001) and proposes peace and harmony in the society. Students ought to quit criticizing others' religions in the institutions as well as outside of the society. It will help them in avoidance of feedback by other religion's groups of different religions toward their own particular religion. A same point of view got from the study was to work for promoting harmony as

recommended by Hassan (2007) and to evade religious sectarianism. In such manner, religious pioneers ought not bolster sectarianism and treat others as indicated by standards of Islam. Furthermore, for the majority sample part, religiousness is communicated through human conduct, behavior, and even routine activities. Diverse perspectives like religious knowledge, prayers, and physical appearance of student need to be improving as manifestation of religiousness. In this regard, a significant portion of the sample bolsters attractive behavior while communicating with non-religious individuals. Present study endorsed the viewpoint of Abdel-Khalek (2010) who concentrates on the humanistic qualities for happiness and also condemned the awful attitude of individuals.

Conclusions

Students reveal diverse aspects of keeping up peace in the public eye. Dominant part of the students declares to accept on equality in relations. They accept on same sort of likings and disliking for self as well as other people. Students underscored esteeming others religion in keeping relations with them. In like manner, a huge fragment of the sample has believed in compelling and convincing relations while associating with non-religious individuals. Majority of the students concentrate on humanistic attributes of a perfect religious individual, and condemn the un-humanistic attitude of religious individuals with others which they see in their day by day life. A significant group of students are agreeable to getting assistance from non-religious individuals. In such manner, they contend that non-religious individuals have faith in speaking truth. They are reasonable in dealings and work sincerely. A group of students is agreeable to the constructive part of religious individuals for benefits of the society while some of them rejected this notion. Another group of students criticize the negative part of religious political groups and students' religious parties in educational institutions and suggest their part emphatically, for example, upgrade of educational quality, presentation of fundamental Islamic thoughts in educational organizations, and so on.

A possible range for future research is to investigate religiosity and irreverence, religion association with monetary variables, relationship of happiness with religiosity, social qualities and religion. Another feasible area of research is to analyze separated support of some different religions with societal variables with a view to recognizing best practices of social disposition in a Pakistani society.

References

- Abdel-Khalek, A. M. (2010). Quality of life, subjective well-being, and religiosity in Muslim college students. *Quality of Life Research, 19*(8), 1133–1143. doi: 10.1007/s11136-010-9676-7
- Barro, R. J., & McCleary, R. M. (2006). Religion and political economy in an international panel. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion, 45*(2), 149–175. doi:10.1111/j.1468-5906.2006.00299.x
- Brink, T. (1993). Religiosity: measurement in Survey of Social Science: Psychology. In Frank N. & Magill (Eds). *Pasadena, NJ: Salem Press.*
- Eagly, & Chaiken, S. (1993). *The psychology of attitudes.* Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers.
- Gill, S. (2012). *Tolerance is a Positive Force.* Retrieved from <http://www.diversityreporter.com>
- Graff, C., & Winthrop, R. (2010). *Beyond Madrasas: Assessing the Link between Education and Militancy in Pakistan.* Retrieved on May 13, 2016, from <http://www.brookings.edu/research/papers/2010/06/pakistan-education-winthrop>
- Grimme, D., & Grimme, S. (2010). The Nature of Attitude – 3. Types of People. *Ezine Articles.* Retrieved on July 24, 2012, from <http://ezinearticles.com/?The-Nature-of-Attitude---3-Types-of-People&id=94055>
- Hancock, B., & Group, T. F. (2002). *An Introduction to Qualitative Research.* India: Trent Focus Group.
- Hassan, R. (2007). On Being Religious: Patterns of Religious Commitment in Muslim Societies. *The Muslim World, 97*(3), 437–478. doi:10.1111/j.1478-1913.2007.00190.x
- Helliwell, J. F., & Putnam, R. D. (2004). The social context of well-being. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Sciences, 359*(1449), 1435–1446. doi:10.1098/rstb.2004.1522
- Henningsgaard, J. M., & Arnau, R. C. (2008). Relationships between religiosity, spirituality, and personality: A multivariate analysis. *Personality and Individual Differences, 45*(8), 703–708. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2008.07.004
- Hill, P. C., & Hood, R. W. (1999). *Measures of religiosity.* Birmingham, Ala.: Religious Education Press.

- Human Rights Documentation Centre. (2001). *The Religious in tolerance in Pakistan*. New Delhi: Voice of the Asia-Pacific Human Rights Network. Retrieved from <http://www.hrdc.net/sahrdc/hrfeatures/HRF31.htm>
- Hurworth, R. (2003). Photo-Interviewing for research. *Social Research Update*, 40. Retrieved from <http://sru.soc.surrey.ac.uk/SRU40.html>
- Krech, O. (2008). *The impacts of religious diversity on people's social attitudes*. Retrieved from http://www.relemerge.org/project_01
- McIntosh, D. N., & Spilka, B. B. (1990). Religion and physical health: the role of personal faith and control beliefs. *Research in the Social Scientific study of Religion*, 2(1), 167–194.
- Merrill, R., Read, C., & Le Cheminant, A. (2009). The influence of religiosity on positive and negative outcomes associated with stress among college students. *Mental Health, Religion & Culture*, 12(5), 501–511. doi: 10.1080/13674670902774106
- Morgan, K. H., & Sternke, E. A. (2010). *The Effects of Religiosity on Attitudes towards Science and Biomedical Research: A Structural Equation Model Analysis*. Available on http://citation.allacademic.com/meta/p_mla_apa_research_citation/1/8/3/8/8/p1
- Nenty, H. J. (2009). Writing a quantitative research thesis. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*, 1(1), 19–32.
- Pendleton, B. F. (1990). Religious domains and general well-being. *Social Indicators Research*, 22(3), 255–276. doi: 10.1007/BF00301101
- Peterson, M., & Webb, D. (2006). Religion and Spirituality in Quality of Life Studies. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, 1(1), 107–116. doi: 10.1007/s11482-006-9006.
- Tiliouine, H., & Belgoumidi, A. (2009). An Exploratory Study of Religiosity, Meaning in Life and Subjective Wellbeing in Muslim Students from Algeria. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, 4(1), 109–127. doi: 10.1007/s11482-009-9076-8
- Wang, J., Lin, S. & Wen, S. (2009). Evaluating Elementary and Secondary School Science Learning Environments in Taiwan. *International Journal of Science Education*, 31(7), 853–872. doi: 10.1080/09500690701636361
- Williams, D. R., & Sternthal, M. J. (2007). Spirituality, religion and health: evidence and research directions. *The Medical journal of Australia*, 186(10), 47–50.

Link between Personality Traits and Procrastination among University Students

Masood Nadeem*
Areeba Ather Malik**
Fatima Javaid**

Abstract

Present research examined the effects of personality traits on procrastination and it also investigated that how personality traits play an integral role in the development of procrastination. It was assumed that different personality traits had its positive and negative impact on procrastination. The sample was selected by using two-way cluster sampling, included 254 students (74 males and 180 females) from The Islamia University of Bahawalpur. Tuckman Procrastination Scale (Tuckman, 1991), HEXACO Personality Inventory- Revised (Ashton & Lee, 2009) were administered to the selected participants. Results pointed out positive relationship among honesty-humility, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and procrastination, while emotionality has negative correlation with procrastination. Similarly it was indicated through multiple regression analysis that personality traits were stronger predictor of procrastination. In sum, the present findings provide adequate understanding of the relationship of some positive and negative impact of personality traits on procrastination. The implications of the findings are discussed and recommendations are taken into consideration for future research.

Key words: Personality Traits, Procrastination, Two-way cluster sampling

Introduction

Students instill a variety of experiences in academic settings that manipulate their perceptions and behavior over their academic performances. One of the most essential concerns in the field of educational psychology is to challenge to recognize why some students stop striving when faced with speculative and educational difficulties, whereas others rise to the occasion using tactics and diligence, thus attaining higher grades.

* Assistant professor, Department of Psychology, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, Pakistan, E mail: masood.nadeem@iub.edu.pk (Corresponding Author)

** M.Phil Scholar, Department of Psychology, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, Pakistan.

Nowadays, it is noticeable that many students easily give up on their life and accept failure leading to frustration thus affecting their self-regulation and decision-making and therefore, students' preferred behavioral styles such as procrastination. However, Personality traits such as emotional stability; extraversion or urgency, analytical and agreeableness can affect students' coping skills and ability to adapt them to the ever challenging university life while others may provoke them to adopt some of the negative strategies.

The present study aims at connecting some of the learning processes i.e., procrastination with personality traits of students particularly at the university level. Furthermore, it has been evaluated that how some factors can affect the performance of the university students. To understand the personality traits and its link with other variables, there is a need to have some conceptual framework about personality.

Personality is the mixture of mechanisms within the individual that are systematized and comparatively persistent and that affect his or her connections with, psychological traits and variations to the intra psychic social and physical environments (Larsen & Buss, 2005). It states to a set of primary traits that regulate how an individual naturally thinks, behaves and feels (McGeown et al., 2014). Hence it can be safely concluded that personality basically carries some unique attributes which make an individual differently from others. Some of them are discussed further.

Literally every definition of personality carries its own unique construct regarding the occurrences, but there is an abundance of traditional theories of personality that describes the phenomena more precisely, e.g., dispositional (trait) perspective, humanistic, psychodynamic behaviorist, biological, social learning and evolutionary perspective (Allport, 1973). As the present study focuses on the personality traits of an individual, so there is a need to explain trait theory specifically.

Trait theory (also called dispositions theory) is a kind of model to explain the human personality and is considered as the empirical justification of the present research. Trait theorists are predominantly concerned within the dimension of traits, which can be well-defined as customary patterns of behavior, thought, and emotion (Kassin, 2003). According to Gordon Allport (pioneer of trait theory), fundamental, central and secondary traits may dominate an individual behavior, customize and provide a complete picture of a person in certain circumstances respectively (Nicholson, 1998).

Personality traits can be generally defined as formal and customary arrangements of perception, behavior, and consequence. Personality traits are hypothesized as constant individual difference features clarifying an entity's or person's temperament to specific configurations of cognitions, emotions, and behavior (Hogan, Hogan, & Roberts, 1996).

Ashton and Lee (2008) have recently found a cross cultural evidence of personality construct, which is particularly statistical and lexical in nature, and amassed a six-dimensional structure of personality traits, known as HEXACO (i.e., Honesty-Humility, Emotionality, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Openness to experience) (Aghababaei & Arji, 2013).

Many researches pointed out that personality is an essential resource of the individual which is not only interrelated with significant life consequences, i.e., mental, physical health, subjective well-being (Ozer & Benet-Martínez, 2006; Roberts, Kuncel, Shiner, Capsi, & Goldberg, 2007) but also has a vital and prominent part in describing academic attainment and success (Poropat, 2009). However, academic process at the high school level can play a central role in the growth of personality by giving different opportunities related to learning and other co-curricular activities that contour personality (Roberts, 2006; Bleidorn, 2012).

Another few researches also revealed some of the negative effects of personality on individual's academic achievement, i.e., neuroticism and conscientiousness are positively linked with procrastination which may lead to low grades (Watson, 2001; Lay, Kovacs, & Danto, 1998; Johnson & Bloom, 1995; Schouwenburg & Lay, 1995).

Similarly, some of the researchers also evaluated that extraversion increases the level of procrastination and there is a linear relationship between extraversion and procrastination (Johnson & Bloom, 1995; McCown, Petzel, & Rupert, 1987). While some other studies show the negative relationship between extraversion and procrastination, particularly in academic contexts (Lay, 1992; Wessman, 1973; Lay, 1986).

In many researches there is also a slight orientation of gender and age differences regarding the relationship of personality traits and some of its negative consequences, i.e., procrastination among students (Fleet, Stainton, Hewitt, Sherry, & Lay, 2012). According to researches, male are more vulnerable to procrastinate as compared to females, as women may owe more self-control (Else-Quest, Hyde, Goldsmith & van Hall, 2006; van Eerde, 2003).

Conclusively, one of the prevailing phenomenons that may affect the academic performance of university students is procrastination, and this phenomenon is highly linked with personality traits, in order to find out that how personality traits moderate or improve the level of procrastination. This study strives to locate this bidirectional relationship of personality traits and procrastination.

Theoretical Framework

There is a complex interaction of behavioral, psychodynamic and social influences that helps to develop procrastination. However, like other psychological

aspects there is less evidence of the theoretical framework and foundations of procrastination, but some theory's emphasize on the phenomenon very well. Among them, cognitive theory is the most proficient, as it holds the concept that procrastination may sometimes be the result of irrational beliefs.

Rationale of the Study

After going through a plenty of literature review (Lai Badayai, Chandrasekaran, Lee, & Kulasingam, 2015), it is obvious that the level of procrastination has been increasing in Pakistan. At the same time, personality traits have been considered as an integral part of the research nationally and internationally. Increased quantity of procrastination due to some of the personality traits, i.e., conscientiousness, less emotional stability is one of the issues that are common and prevailing among college and university students, which in turn influence badly the individual's academic performance.

In this study, the attempt is made to explore which personality trait is the root of procrastination, and it also tends to evaluate behavioral magnitudes of procrastination which may result in a student's inability to organize things effectively.

Hypotheses

On the basis of literature review and existing researches, the following hypotheses created for this study.

1. There is a significant relationship between personality traits and procrastination
 - a. Honesty- Humility, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness Personality traits has a significant positive relationship with procrastination.
 - b. Emotionality, Extraversion and Openness Personality trait has a significant negative relationship with procrastination.

Research Methodology

Research Design

The study was quantitative, with cross sectional survey research design.

Participants

Participants of the study were male and female students of The Islamia University of Bahawalpur (IUB). Total 254 participants (74 males and 180 females) participated in the study. Their age range, gender, socioeconomic status, program, GPA etc. were calculated. Eligibility criterion was enrolled students of an academic session in any of the Discipline and Programs in the IUB. Individuals having any kind of physical and psychological illness were excluded from the study.

Table 1
Frequency Distribution of Respondents (n=254) According to their Gender, Age, Socioeconomic Status, Marital Status and Residence

| Respondent's Characteristics | n (254) | % |
|------------------------------|---------|------|
| Gender | | |
| Male | 74 | 29.1 |
| Female | 180 | 70.9 |
| Age | | |
| 15-25 | 240 | 94.5 |
| 26-30 | 12 | 4.7 |
| 31-35 | 2 | .8 |
| 36-40 | 0 | 0 |
| Socioeconomic Status | | |
| Low | 4 | 1.6 |
| Middle | 237 | 93.3 |
| High | 13 | 5.1 |
| Marital Status | | |
| Married | 12 | 32.0 |
| Unmarried | 242 | 42.0 |
| Residence | | |
| Urban | 181 | 71.3 |
| Rural | 73 | 28.7 |

Sampling Procedure

Random cluster two-stage sampling technique was used for selecting participants, as employed in similar few studies (Hosseini & Khayyer, 2009). Therefore, in the present study participants were randomly selected using two-staged sampling procedure.

However, total sample size was 254 students. Only willing participants were asked to fill in the required questionnaires.

Measures and Covariates

Demographic Questionnaire. Participant's age, gender, marital status, socioeconomic status, education level, residence, etc. was included in demographic sheet.

Tuckman Procrastination Scale. Procrastination was assessed using the Tuckman Procrastination Scale. This scale formerly includes 35 items with a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .90 (Tuckman, 1991). For the purpose of this study, a well-established summarized version of only 16 items was used. These items were from the

35 item scales that had high reliability of .86. Greater scores point out high procrastination, whereas lower scores indicate less procrastination. The scale displayed high internal consistency reliability of the sample ($\alpha = .84$). The scale was applied after its Urdu translation by experts and after assessing the psychometric properties of the scale in the pilot study.

HEXACO Personality Inventory- Revised. Urdu translated version was used in the main study after assessing its reliability and validity. Scoring criteria of HEXACO-PI- R is with normal mean of each item, but Items specified with “R” (reverse items). Feature scale scores must be calculated as means across all items in facet, after recording of reverse-keyed items. 60-item versions of the HEXACO-PI-R are very diminutive and are not planning to have greater internal consistency reliability (Ashton & Lee, 2009).

Procedure

This study was conducted in three phases. The participants (male and female students) were approached by making clusters of overall faculties of IUB, departments were selected randomly in the University premises and lastly enrolled students in particular department were selected using random sampling. After debriefing the purpose of research, informed consent was taken and only willing participants were given the instruments. The collected data were then analyzed using SPSS version 20.

Results

Data was analyzed for accuracy of input, outliers, and missing values. The normality of the data and conditions for analyses were checked visually with histograms and statistically with kurtosis-skews test for normality. Histogram showed a score distributed normally on all scales. To attain the objectives of this research analyses were carried out on a sample of 254 participants.

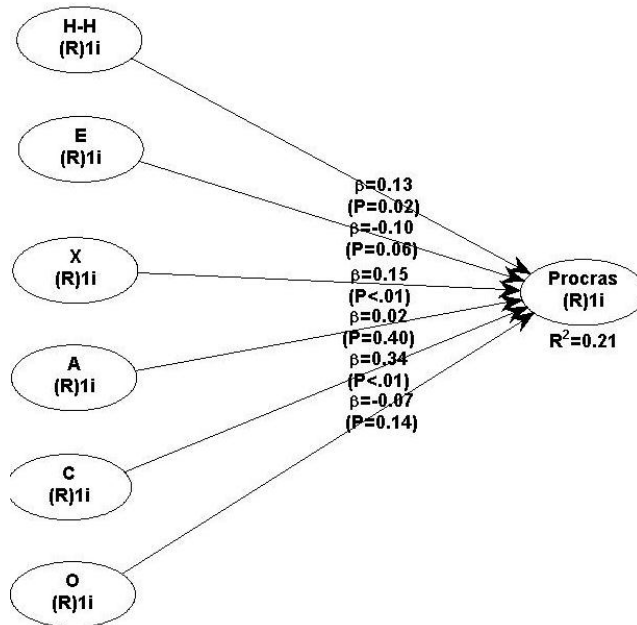
Correlation analysis was carried out to identify the relationship between personality traits, procrastination. Table 2 showed that procrastination has significant positive relation with honesty-humility, extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. There is a no significant relationship between emotionality, openness to experience and procrastination.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics and Correlation among key Variables (n = 254)

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|------------------------|--------|--------|-------|--------|--------|--------|-----|
| Procrastination | --- | | | | | | |
| Honesty-Humility | .207** | --- | | | | | |
| Emotionality | -.064 | .097 | --- | | | | |
| Extraversion | .245** | .129* | -.121 | --- | | | |
| Agreeableness | .173** | .283** | -.010 | .250** | --- | | |
| Conscientiousness | .340** | .321** | .026 | .340** | .306** | --- | |
| Openness to Experience | .006 | .130* | .060 | .297** | .126* | .234** | --- |

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

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).



PLS-SEM model of the Study including predictors, dependent variables and gender as moderator.

Note. This model presented that gender had a significant contribution to the prediction of personality traits and procrastination.

PT= Personality Traits as H= Honesty-Humility, E= Emotionality, X=Extraversion, A=Agreeableness, C=Conscientiousness and O=Openness to Experience. Procras= Procrastination.

Discussion

The current study investigated how personality traits affect the level of procrastination among university students. According to many researchers (Balkis, 2007; Ferrari, 1994; Fernie, Spada, Nikcevic, Georgiou, & Moneta, 2009; Watson, 2001) there are some aspects which provoke people to procrastinate e.g., personality traits, including responsibility, perfectionism, neurotic emotional characteristics etc., lack of time, influence on one's point of view.

Ultimate attention has been paid in exploring the association of procrastination with personality traits (Johnson & Bloom, 1995; Watson, 2001; Steel, Brothen, & Wambach, 2001). Therefore, to scientifically explore the interplay of these variables, certain hypotheses were formulated.

Relationship of Personality Traits and Procrastination

Personality traits and procrastination. Generally, the results of the current study provide an insight into the nature of personality traits and procrastination link with the moderating effect of other sub variables. Personality traits categorically include six components according to HEXACO: (i) Honesty- Humility, (ii) Emotionality, (iii) Extraversion, (iv) Agreeableness, (v) Conscientiousness, and (vi) Openness to experience (McCrae & Costa, 1999; Ashton & Lee, 2008).

However, to investigate the correlation of personality traits on procrastination, it was hypothesized that personality dimensions are correlated with procrastination. Finding revealed that with the increase of an H factor (i.e., Honesty- Humility), procrastination also increases. However, there is an abundance of researches regarding the relationship of variables in this perspective. But in an academic context where there is a high level of procrastination, some recent researches interpret that Honesty-Humility as the strongest predictor to be judged in an academic context as compared to other broad traits (Vries, Vries, & Born, 2010).

Furthermore, the results revealed the correlation between emotionality and procrastination, that with the increase of emotionality, procrastination decreases or vice versa. The level of significance is more than .05 ($p < .05$) and is different among other personality traits. This mirrors the findings of many researches (McCown, Petzel, & Rupert, 1987) which found that there is curve relationship between emotionality (neuroticism) and procrastination. However, some of the researches also revealed the linear and no significant relationship between emotionality and procrastination (Milgram & Tenne, 2000; Hess, Sherman, & Goodman, 2000; Dewitte & Schouwenberg, 2002).

According to the hypothesis of another personality trait, i.e., extraversion if increases, it may decrease procrastination. Findings revealed that with increasing extraversion, procrastination also increases. Moreover, the results also revealed the

significant ($p < .05$) positive relationship of extraversion with procrastination. Some of the studies support the results of the study (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985).

Furthermore, the results also revealed that one of the personality trait agreeableness has positive relationship with that to procrastination but is not significant ($p > .05$). The findings of some researches (Matthews & Zeidner, 2004; DeNeve & Cooper, 1998) support the phenomena that there are some personality traits having a positive relationship with procrastination, which may in turn affects their academic performance, and agreeableness, neuroticism are one of them.

The study has also found that there is significant ($p < .05$) positive relationship of conscientiousness with procrastination in contrast with the other personality traits. Being highly satisfied with the concept of positive relationship between conscientiousness and procrastination, the idea proposed by different studies (Barthelemy & Lounsbury, 2009; Paunonen & Ashton, 2001; Poropat, 2009) which suggest that there is considerable significant impact and correlation of conscientiousness with procrastination.

Finally, according to the results, openness to experience has no significant correlation with procrastination but has positive relationship. Researchers have emphasized that openness to experience has a significant linear relationship with procrastination. These results and similar studies (Lai, Badayai, Chandrasekaran, Lee, & Kulasingam, 2015) suggest that there is a correlation between different personality traits and procrastination.

Conclusion

This study concludes that Personality traits play an important role in procrastination. An individual thought process, cognition is an integral and central part of how he copes up with the situation regarding his social, educational and professional life. Personality traits are an influential feature of a person; some other personality aspects need to be investigated in order to better understand the root of procrastination.

Recommendations for Future Research

Future researches should consider more psychometric measures to assess more specific relationship. Cities other than Bahawalpur should be taken into consideration with larger sample size to establish more sound results. Furthermore, longitudinal research design will better predict the relationship of personality traits and procrastination. Lastly, practical ways should be addressed in future researches to reduce procrastination.

References

- Aghababaei, N., & Arji, A. (2013). Well-being and the HEXACO model of personality. *Personality and individual differences*, 56, 139-142.
- Allport, G. W. (1973). *Personality: A psychological interpretation*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Ashton, M. & Lee, K. (2009). The HEXACO model of personality structure. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 2 (5), 1952–1962. doi:10.1111/j.1751-9004.2008.00134.x.
- Ashton, M. C., & Lee, K. (2008). The HEXACO model of personality structure and the importance of the H factor. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 2 (5), 1952–1962. doi:10.1111/j.1751-9004.2008.00134.x.
- Balkis, M. (2007). Öretmen Adaylarının Davranışlarındaki Erteleme Eğiliminin, Karar Verme Stilleri ile ilişkisi. *Pamukkale Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*. 1, 21, 67.
- Barthelemy, J. J., & Lounsbury, J. W. (2009). The relationship between aggression and the Big Five personality factors in predicting academic success. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment*, 19, 159-170.
- Bleidorn, W. (2012). Hitting the road to adulthood short-term personality development during a major life transition. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 38, 1594–1608.
- DeNeve, K. M., Cooper, H. (1998). The happy personality: A meta-analysis of 137 personality traits and subjective well-being. *Psychological Bulletin*, 124(2): 197- 229.
- Dewitte, S., & Schouwenburg, H. C. (2002). Procrastination, temptations, and incentives: the struggle between the present and the future in procrastinators and the punctual. *European Journal of Personality*, 16, 469–489.
- Else-Quest, N. M., Hyde, J. S., Goldsmith, H. H., & Van Hulle, C. A. (2006). Gender differences in temperament: A meta- analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 132, 33-72. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.132.1.33>
- Eysenck, H. J., & Eysenck, M. W. (1985). *Personality and individual differences*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Fernie, B. A., Spada, S., & Macarantonio, M. (2009). Metacognitive beliefs about procrastination: development and concurrent validity of a self- report questionnaire. *Journal of Cognitive Psychotherapy*, 23 (4), 283-293.

- Ferrari, J. R. (1994). Dysfunctional procrastination and its relationship with self-esteem, interpersonal dependency, and self-defeating behaviors. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 17, 673-679.
- Fleet, G. L., Stainton, M., Hewitt, P. L., Sherry, S. B., & Slay, C. (2012). Procrastination automatic thoughts as a personality construct: An analysis of the procrastinatory cognitions inventory. *J Rat-Emo Cognitive-Behav Ther*. doi: 10.1007/s10942-012-0150-z
- Hess, B., Sherman, M., & Goodman, M. (2000). Eveningness predicts academic procrastination: The mediating role of neuroticism. *Journal of Social Behavior & Personality*, 15(5), 61-74.
- Hogan, R., Hogan, J., & Roberts, B.W. (1996). Personality measurement and employment decisions: Questions and answers. *American Psychologist*, 51, 469-477.
- Hosseini, F., & Khayyer, M. (2009). Prediction of behavioral and decisional procrastination considering meta-cognition beliefs in university students. *Iranian Journal of Psychiatry and Clinical Psychology*, 15 (3), 265-273.
- Johnson, J. L., & Bloom, A. M. (1995). An analysis of the contribution of the five factors of personality to variance in academic procrastination. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 18 (1), 127-133.
- Kassin, S. (2003). *Psychology*. USA: Prentice-Hall, Inc
- Lai, C. S., Rehman, A., Chandrasekaran, K., Lee, S. Y., & Kulasingan, R. (2015). An explanatory study on personality traits and procrastination among university students. *American journal of Applied Psychology*, 4 (3-1), 21-26.
- Larsen, R. J., & Buss, D. M. (2005). *Personality psychology: Domains of knowledge about human nature* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw Hill.
- Lay, C. (1986). At last, my research article on procrastination. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 20, 474-495.
- Lay, C. H., Kovacs, A., & Danto, D. (1998). The relation of trait procrastination to the Big Five factor conscientiousness: An assessment with primary-junior school. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 25, 187-193.
- Matthews, G., Zeidner, M. (2004). Traits, states, and trilogy of mind: An adaptive perspective on intellectual functioning. In Dai, D. Y., Sternberg, R. J. (Eds.), *Motivation, Emotion, and Cognition: Integrative Perspectives on Intellectual Functioning and Development* (pp. 143-174). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum,

- McCown, W., Petzel, T., & Rupert, P. (1987). Personality correlates and behaviors of chronic procrastinators. *Personality and Individual Differences, 11*, 71-79.
- McCrae R. R. & Costa, P. T. (1999). A five-factor theory of personality. In: LA Pervin, OP John (Eds.): *Handbook of Personality Psychology*. New York: Guilford, pp. 139–153.
- McGeown, S. P., Putwain, D., Simpson, E. G., Boffey, E, Markham, J., & Vince, A. (2014). Predictors of adolescents' academic motivation: Personality, self-efficacy and adolescents' characteristics. *Learning and Individual Differences, 32*: 278–286.
- Milgram, N. & Tenne, R. (2000). Personality correlates of decisional and task avoidant procrastination. *European Journal of Personality, 14*(2), 141–156.
- Nicholson, I. (1998). Gordon Allport, character, and the 'culture of personality', 1897-1937. *History of Psychology, 1*, 52-68.
- Ozer, D. J., & Benet-Martínez, V. (2006). Personality and the prediction of consequential outcomes. *Annual Review of Psychology, 57*, 401–421.
- Paunonen, S. V., Ashton, M. C. (2001). Big Five predictors of academic achievement. *Journal of Research in Personality, 35*, 78-90.
- Poropat, A. E. (2009). A meta-analysis of the five-factor model of personality and academic performance. *Psychological Bulletin, 2*, 322–338.
- Roberts, B. W. (2006). Personality development and organizational behavior. *Research on Organizational Behavior, 143-174*.
- Roberts, B. W., Kuncel, N. R., Shiner, R. L., Caspi, A., & Goldberg, L. R. (2007). The power of personality: The comparative validity of personality traits, socioeconomic status, and cognitive ability for predicting important life outcomes. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 2*, 313–345.
- Schouwenburg, H. C., & Lay, C. H. (1995). Trait procrastination and the big-five factors of personality. *Personality and Individual Differences, 18*(4), 481-490.
- Steel, P., Brothen, T., & Wambach, C. (2001). Procrastination and personality, performance, and mood. *Personality and Individual Differences, 30*(1), 95-106.
- Tuckman, B. W. (1991). The development and concurrent validity of the Procrastination Scale. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 51*(2), 473-480.

- Van Eerde, W. (2003). A meta-analytically derived nomological network of procrastination. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 35, 1401-1418. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869\(02\)00358-6](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(02)00358-6)
- Vries, A., Vries, R. E. & Born, M. P. (2010). Broad versus narrow traits: Conscientiousness and honesty–humility as predictors of academic criteria. *European Journal of Personality*, 25(5), 336-348.
- Watson, D. C. (2001). Procrastination and the five-factor model: A facet level analysis. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 30, 149–158.
- Wessman, A. (1973). Personality and the subjective experience of time. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 37, 103-114.

Action Research a Tool to Build Capacity of Teacher Educators

Nahid Parveen Anwar*

Abstract

Action research under the domain of practitioner research is gaining popularity in the arena of research for improvement. Koshy (2005) has claimed that learning through action leads to personal and professional development. Identifying the importance of action research as a tool for improvement, Aga Khan University- Institute for Educational Development offered Action research course to two groups of teacher educators under Strengthening Teacher Education in Pakistan (STEP) project. These teacher educators belong to teacher education institutes of Sindh and Balochistan. The course was offered in two alternative groups. Cohort one, (i) face to face only, and cohort two (ii) face to face with support in the field. This paper reports the efficacy of the course in improving knowledge and understanding of the course participants about action research. The analysis also explored their experience and skills to implement action research in their institutes. Two assessment tools were administered as pre-post design to gauge participants' knowledge and understanding and experience of using action research. The result shows significant increase ($p < 0.01$) in mean knowledge test scores as well as confidence in implementing action research in both the cohorts. However, the magnitude of this difference was comparatively bigger for participants of cohort face to face (f2f) with field support as compared to the participants of cohort receiving only face to face without any field support. In other words, field support seemed to have contributed positively in participant knowledge and reported skills of implementing action research.

Key Words: Action research; Professional development; Teacher education; Reflective practice

Introduction

The world is advancing very fast and knowledge is growing exponentially. Science and technology has contributed a lot towards creating an advance complex society. In response to such progression, the school has to play its critical role in equipping children with the advancing knowledge and skills. The aim to prepare

* Teaching Associate, Aga Khan University Institute for Educational Development, Karachi, E-mail : naheed.parveen@aku.edu

students to cope up with the challenges of the society is not possible without skilled teachers. Teachers need to have good content knowledge, to help students develop a better understanding of concepts and address students' misconceptions. Hammond (1998) has emphasized teacher to understand subject matter deeply and to connect the ideas across field and to everyday life. This level of understanding is essential to develop pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987). Therefore, teacher education programmes should emphasize on developing teacher's conceptual understanding of content and a repertoire of contemporary pedagogical knowledge specific to their subject areas. Here comes the role of teacher educators and teacher education institutes. Teacher educators should be well versed with child centered teaching, adopt ways to improve his own teaching and do research to improve teaching repertoire. Their main role is to develop student teachers' (prospective teachers) pedagogical content knowledge so that they may adopt interactive ways of teaching in their classrooms for better students' learning.

To improve classroom teaching, action research is considered as a tool and procedure for generating practical contextual knowledge for improvement. That is why action researchers have advocated teachers to improve their teaching through this research and institutes to progress as a learning community (Koshy, 2005). There is a need to facilitate teacher to undertake this research. For that professional development programme is recommended.

That is why, action research courses are offered in teacher education programmes at university level, in different parts of the world. However, the idea of action research is very much neglected from the teacher development courses offered at teacher education institutes of Pakistan. Knowing the significance of action research for improvement in teaching and learning process, Aga Khan University offered course for teacher educators under Strengthening Teacher Education in Pakistan (STEP) project. A short action research methods was designed and offered to the faculty of teacher education institutes (Government College of Education, Bureau of Curriculum, Provincial Institute for Teacher Education and Government Elementary College of Education) in Sindh, Baluchistan and Gilgit-Baltistan. This paper reports how much this course helped to improve CPs' knowledge and understanding about action research and explored their experiences and skills to implement action research in their workplace.

The course facilitated CPs to acquire some basic knowledge and understanding of action research method; its genesis, distinct phases of planning-action-observation and reflection, methods of data collection tools and reflection in action as core features of action research. The course also provided opportunity to acquire skills to develop proposal, conduct small scale action research in their institutes for improvement and write action research report. To achieve this entire twelve days course was offered in three distinct phases. Firstly, participants attended full day sessions at AKU-IED to

understand what is action research? How to implement it in the field? During this phase they developed research proposal, design data collection tools and ways to analysis data under supervision of AKU faculty. Secondly, they implemented research in their institutes. Lastly, they submitted their research reports and presented their findings in seminar in contextual clusters. The project offered this course to two cohorts; (i) cohort I, participant attended only session at AKU-IED. They conducted independent research in their institutes and submitted report. (ii) Cohort II, faculty worked closely with small group of participants and provided one to one support to the CPs in the field during action. Faculty also provided support and feedback on their research reports. This extra support in field was added in the design, after realizing the fact that participants were finding difficulty in implementing research in the field and they were unable to move cycle by cycle for improvement.

Literature Review

Action research is comparative a new domain of research which is considered as a way to bring improvement at personal and professional level (Koshy, 2005). The word ‘action’ specifies the practical nature of the research hence also called as practitioner research. That is why action research is gaining popularity as a mode of practicing research among practitioners.

Action research involves practitioner in rigorous cycle of planning, action, observation and reflection which can lead to change in practice, hence transformation (Kemmis & McTaggard, 2005; Koshy, 2005; Peters, 2004; Hopkins, 2002). Reflection-in-action (Schon, 1983) helps to develop teacher’s competencies, where, a teacher identifies a problem, plan for improvement, take action according to the plan, analyze to understand the situation, and construct new plan for further action. Hence, teachers are empowered by having ownership of the professional knowledge gained (Kang, 2007). This section highlights some important information on action research like, what is action research and its features, how to conduct action research and importance of action research for education.

What is Action Research?

The concept of action research was given by a social psychologist Kurt Lewin in 1946 but the value of linking action with understanding was developed by Stephen Corey who applied this method in different research projects. Later on in 1973 Elliott and Adelson used it to help teachers develop inquiry learning in the classroom. Since then many researchers have used and are using it for the improvement of the identified situation. Action research is particularly linked to improve practice (Elliott, 1991). Mostly action research is done by the individuals inquiring their own practice (McNiff, Lomax & Whitehaed, 1996). ‘Action’ is pertinent to practicing an idea which signifies improvement and increasing knowledge (Kemmis, McTaggart, 2005).

Cohen and Mannion (1989; 1994; 2007) define action research, as a small scale intervention in the functioning of the real world and a close examination of the effects of such intervention. On the same note, with further elaboration Kemmis cited in Hopkin,(2002) defined action research as a form of self-reflective enquiry undertaken by participants in social (including educational) situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of their own social or educational practice, their understanding of these practices, and the situation in which the practices are carried out. It is most rationally empowering when undertaken by individuals and sometimes in cooperation with outsiders (p. 43). In education, action research has been employed in school-bases curriculum development, professional development and policy development.

Researchers have agreed on the certain features of action research, researching own practice-not about other, subject matter a social practice, action susceptible for improvement, emergent, useful in real problem-solving, systematic inquiry, a cyclical process, aimed towards improvement, ensure everyone's participation, reflective process, construct theory from practice (Kemmis, McTaggart & Retallick, 2005; Koshy, 2005; Kember, 2000; McNiff, Lomax & Whitehead, 1996; Elliot, 1991; Carr and Kemmis, 1986). Improvement is a continuous process, trying to achieve the best. Warricon (2006) highlighted the on-going nature of the action research as it is a continuous and participative learning process with a starting point but no ending. Usually, the emergent nature of the action research draws attention to a new situation and directs the new step. However, the process continues till the problem gets resolved to the satisfaction of the participant. Superficially it seems that action research fail to see but the deeper understanding view the logical set of activities leading towards desired result and testing action (Warricon, 2006).

How to do Action Research?

Action research is found to be a powerful and useful model for practitioner research. It begins with inquisitiveness leading to formal inquiry by practitioner (Barlett & Burton, 2006). Referring to different case study Koshy (2005) compiled advantages as; set within specific context, researcher can be a participant, continuous evaluation and modification as it progresses, theory to emerge from the research, open-ended outcome, researcher can bring story to life. Kemmis, McTaggart and Retallick (2005) interpreted and explained the Lewin model in the action research planner. The distinct four moments that characterize the action research are, to develop a plan, to act, to observe and to reflect (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2005; Koshy 2005; Kember, 2000; Elliot, 1991). Whereas plan encloses general idea, reconnaissance, field of action, first action step, monitoring and time table. In this situation general idea can be fixed in advance and action seems to be a straight forward process based on reconnaissance (Kemmis, McTaggart, & Retallick, 2005). While Elliot (1991) argued that general idea should be allowed to shift and reconnaissance to occur in the spiral of activities instead of attempting once at the beginning of the first cycle. Although a clean rigid structure of

plan, act, observe and reflect is given but in actual the process may not be so neatly separated. Researcher might feel overlap between them. Koshy (2005) asserts that 'in reality the process is likely to be more fluid, open and responsive (p. 5). Kemmis and McTaggard (2005) emphasizes on the practical aspect of the classroom action research with the understanding that students and teachers are doing action rightly and properly in any situation resulting in the self-understanding of the situation.

Importance of Action Research in Education

Kurt Lewin sets base for knowledge production by solving societal problems. Action research supports practical problem solving in real life situations (Warican, 2006). Social practice has been identified as an essential component of action research and education is social practice involving students and teachers (Kember, 2000). Classrooms are hub of complex situations like curriculum, teaching and learning practices, assessment, discipline and many more. To address any or all situations action research could be a successful strategy to act and improve the situation. Classroom teaching has multidimensional aspects connected to each other. Elliot (1991) mentions that action research integrates teaching and teacher development, curriculum development and evaluation, research and philosophical reflection into unified conception of a reflective educational practice (p. 54).

It seems that, there is a strong relationship between process and product to improve practice. Quality of students' learning depends upon the quality of teaching by teacher. Elliot (1991) considers quality and processes on reciprocal basis and termed it as action research.

Action research is a strategy that empowers the individual teacher by gaining the control of practice (Mcniff, 1993). It is said that scholarship of teaching can be achieved by merging paradigm of learning and reflection. This merger resulted in scholarship of action research into teaching and learning (Badley, 2003). Scholarship in teaching is attained by improving teaching and learning. Boyer cited in Badley (2003) describes that scholarship of teaching depends upon four overlapping functions; discovery, integration, application and teaching. Boyer explained it further as stepping back from ones investigation, looking for connections, building bridges between theory and practice and communicating effectively to students. Such scholarship of teaching could be achieved by adapting Glassick cited in Badley (2003) framework to help scholars to become self-critical educators and inquirer in academic practice. Teachers can follow this framework to critically inquire their practice to improve their practices. For this action research could be the best option. Major components of the framework are clear goal, adequate preparation, appropriate method, significant results, effective presentation and reflective critique

The core goal of action research is to create sustainable learning capacities and give participant the option of increasing control over their own learning (Warrican, 2006).

Empirical data shows that teacher research enable teacher to bring fundamental changes in pedagogy and hence improve the quality of students' learning experiences and to improve the theories which underpin their practices and thereby development of educational theory (Elliot & Sarland, 1995). Kember (2000) has shown long term benefit of quality enhancement of teaching and learning through action research. He further elaborates the benefits as lasting improvement in teaching, understanding, how to conduct action research, development of capacity to reflect and monitor their own learning. Action research follows straightforward practical approach with simple methodology and does not require researcher to learn difficult data generation and analytical skills (Kember, 2000). That is why action research can be practiced by classroom teachers.

Reflective Practice

Generally the teachers are considered to be performing the role of technicians to apply the knowledge of content and pedagogy during classroom teaching. In contrast a new role 'reflective practitioner' is coined where teachers are the knowledge producer while solving problem in practice (Schon, 1983). Reflective practitioners accrue a new role to teaching practices whereby teacher shift their role from transmitter of knowledge to facilitator for the construction of knowledge with students. This role is beyond the perception of teacher as technical who simply apply knowledge of content and pedagogy. Reflective practitioners blend the two appropriately and as progresses further, refine and improve this remix. 'Reflection-in-action' is a distinctive feature of reflective teaching where teachers frame and reframe problem, seek solution and analyze to find direction for future (Schon, 1983).

Practice into theory paradigm, enables teacher to understand their own practice and to turn it in the form of research. Philosophically it is the knowledge of self where 'I' is the focus of inquiry and the status of an I-enquiry is personal. Improvement in the practice involves practitioner commitment towards the problem (McNiff, 1993). Action research is also an individual problem solving activity where individual act and reflect for self-improvement and in the subject (Kember, 2000). Cook (2004) also found reflection-in-action and on-action support people in understanding and developing practices through self-knowledge and confidence.

Action research talks about practitioner practices and improvement in change. Sometimes this improvement is devised and proposed through individual reflection. But at the same time such improvement need support, collaboration with senior or an experienced teacher educator. Edward and Heinsien (1999) report that action research collaboration between teacher and teacher educator and teacher's regular reflection on

her own beliefs and practices played important role in the process of change. Cook (2004) reported that action research and reflective practitioner approach add value to the efforts of participants. In addition, reflecting and working together supports practitioner in thinking, learning, designing, engaging in and changing their practices according to the needs and evidence.

Methodology

Data Collection Tools

Quantitative method was used to answer the research question. To gauge the efficacy of the course offered, two data collection tools were designed and implemented. The purpose of the tools was to assess participants 'knowledge and understanding' and 'experience' of using action research in their respective contexts. The knowledge test was based on the content covered during the phase I of the course. This test is comprised of ten MCQs, covering the basic understanding of the term action research, purpose of action research, history of action research, teachers as researcher, differences between action research & other researches and phases of conducting action research. Whereas the second tool was designed to determine CPs expertise in carrying out an action research project. Respondents were requested to register their experiences on a 4-point rating scale (1 = not confident at all to 4 = highly confident), from conceptualizing a study till report writing. Tool was piloted before administration

The data collection tools were developed for this research, therefore, it was necessary to establish its validity before implementation. The tool was reviewed by teaching team and the research faculty of the institute. The aim of review activity was to know whether the scale cover the content to measure the knowledge and explore course participants skills & experience of conducting research in their context. The reviewers were provided with the course detail and teaching plan. They were asked to review by referring to 'aim of the course', 'suitability of the content' and 'design and language of the tool'. They made judgment according to their understanding (Robson, 2002). A rating format on five point scale was provided to them (5 means completely relevant to 1 means completely irrelevant). Reviewers were also requested to suggest any change required.

Researchers usually aim at reliability co-efficient greater than 0.70, though lower values are accepted as well. A well-constructed scale, however, may have reliability co-efficient of 0.80 to 0.90 (Field, 2005; Black, 1999; Mertens, 1998). Since, both the tests were developed for this research, therefore, reliability of the tools were established through Cronbach's Alpha (α). The calculated value of knowledge test was 0.61, and experience scale 0.87.

Research Sample

All course participants (n= 84) who attended the course were required to attempt the knowledge and experience tools. Participants of cohort I (n=45) and cohort II (n= 41) filled the tools as part of their course, pre-post test. The sample size is less than the minimum requires sample size (at least 120) suggested for quantitative research. Still the sample size (n=84) is appropriate as it captures the entire population of the course participants. In other words purposive sampling was done.

Data Analysis and Findings

Data was entered in a pre-defined template in SPSS. 19. The data was entered at question (knowledge test) and item level (for experience tool) for individual course participants. Data was then explored for its psychometric properties (e.g. normality and homogeneity of variances). Data were analyzed through independent and paired sample t-test, effect size was also calculated. Summary of the finding is given below (refer table 1). Analysis revealed a significant difference ($p<0.001$) between the pre-test ($M=4.2$, $SD=1.7$) and post-test ($M=5.8$, $SD=2.3$) score of knowledge test. Likewise, significant difference ($p<0.001$) was found between the confidence level of the course participants at the start of the course ($M=1.9$, $SD=0.57$) and at the end of the course ($M=3.1$, $SD=0.38$) after going through the whole process of planning and implementing action research.

Table 1

Difference between knowledge and experience of participants before and after course

| Course structure | Experience | | | | Knowledge Test | | | |
|----------------------------|------------|------------------------|----------------|--------|----------------|-----------------------|----------------|--------|
| | N | Pre/post mean (SD) | Effect size(r) | Sig. | N | Pre/post mean(SD) | Effect size(r) | Sig. |
| No field support(Cohort I) | 45 | 2.0(0.57) 3.0(0.34) | 0.86 | <0.05 | 45 | 4.2(1.6) 5.2(2.1) | 0.37 | <0.05 |
| Field support (Cohort II) | 41 | 1.9(0.58) 3.2(0.39) | 0.91 | <0.001 | 41 | 4.2(1.9) 6.3(2.4) | 0.7 | <0.001 |
| Overall | 84 | 1.9(0.57) 3.1(0.38) | 0.87 | <0.001 | 86 | 4.2(1.7) 5.7(2.36) | 0.54 | <0.001 |

The data was also analyzed to find any difference between the two variants (CPs who receive field support/ CPs who did not receive field support) of the course. Analysis showed a significant difference ($p<0.001$) between the pre-test ($M=4.2$, $SD=1.9$) and post test score ($M=6.3$, $SD=2.4$) of the knowledge and understanding test

for participants who received field support along with face to face sessions. Similarly, significant difference ($p < 0.01$) was found between the pre ($M=4.2$, $SD=1.6$) and post-test knowledge scores ($M=5.2$, $SD=2.1$) of participants who did not receive any support during field component of the course. This shows that faculty support during field component contributed significantly to enhance knowledge of the course participants while doing action. They were in better position to apply their knowledge. However, the magnitude of this difference was comparatively larger for the field support ($r=0.7$) as compared to no field support ($r=0.37$).

Data was also analyzed to see effect on participants' expertise of conducting action research, across the two variants. The pre ($M=2.0$, $SD=0.57$) and post-test ($M=3.0$, $SD=0.34$) results was found to be significant when there was no filed support ($p < 0.001$). Similarly, the pre ($M=1.9$, $SD=0.58$) and post-test ($M=3.2$, $SD=0.40$) results was found to be significant when a field support was given ($p < 0.001$). However, the magnitude of this difference was comparatively bigger for field support component ($r=0.91$) as compared to no field support ($r=0.86$). This shows that faculty provided support during implementation phase helped CPs to reflect, re-plan and act more confidently as compared to the situation where they were working on their own. In other words faculty guidance during field work gave a better understanding of the process while action and reflection was in progress.

Discussion

This study aimed to study the efficacy of a short course offered to teacher educators ($n=86$) from different teacher education institutes of Sindh, Balochistan and Gilgit-Baltistan. The course was offered under STEP project at AKU-IED. The course was offered to two cohorts of teachers, group one teacher who attended only f2f session at IED and implemented their research in their own institutes. The design was modified in light of the reflection and was offered to the next group of teacher. In the second cohort, participant attended the f2f, implemented their research with close group support from AKU faculty while they were doing research in the field. Overall, the result shows significant increase ($p < 0.01$) in test scores and well as higher degree of confidence in implementing action research across two variants. The magnitude of difference was comparatively bigger (test $r = 0.70$; and experience $r = 0.91$) for cohort who receive face to face sessions and field support as compared to cohort who attended f2f sessions (test $r = 0.37$; experience $r = 0.86$) only.

It could be concluded that faculty support during the process of implementing research have facilitated participants to apply and improve knowledge of action research and skills of implementing research in the field. In light of the research finding it is recommended that field support is essential for naïve researchers. As, it is discussed above, only face to face sessions on building understanding of the research and developing research plan was not a guarantee to implement research in the field successfully. On the other hand adding field support component in the design brought

significant change in knowledge and confidence of implementing research. It is also anticipated that the teacher educators from teacher education institute will incorporate action research as part of research course as a ‘tool for improvement’. Whereas, student teachers will improve their teaching during practicum and may take it further in their own classrooms once they enter into professional teacher as class room teachers.

Conclusion

Action researchers throughout the world have advocated including action research in pre-service and in-service teacher education programmes. In addition, they also encourage prospective and experienced teachers to undertake action research to develop an understanding of practitioner research and to bring improvement in the teaching and learning environment of the classroom. Putting it in Pakistani context, teachers can do action research if offered with proper guidance and support. This raises a critical question, how will pre-service and in-service teachers enrolled in BEd and MEd programmes may undertake action research if support and guidance of this domain is absent from the institutes. Khan (2009) has raised this issue. As he explains, the teacher educators in teacher education institutes, colleges and university departments require training and understanding in research methods including action research. This directs towards many question related to the future of research culture at school level. If teacher educators do not know these ways of research, how will they be able to teach the teachers? In the absence of this knowledge, how these teachers will improve their teaching? This is connected to a major question, who will teach action research to the faculty members of these education institutes and department, so that they can teach to teachers?

Pragmatically speaking, professional development required to prepare faculty for action research is different from the short sessions on professional development workshop currently in use. Large financial resources are required to place technical support system available. We have highly centralized system of higher education in Pakistan. HEC has provided broad guideline to all universities and higher education institutes. In 2010, HEC has revised the B.Ed curriculum, which includes action research as part of the course to inculcate culture of inquiry and research among teachers (HEC, 2010). If HEC enforces faculty development through a well-planned effort to implement this curriculum, then substantial change will occur.

The results of the current study indicate that experiential learning of implementing action research combined with Knowledge of action research might provide fruitful combination for learning (Grossman & McDonald, 2008). Action research as methodology has provided teachers with opportunity to develop research skills and practitioner disposition that creates reflective practice as well. That said it is imperative for these teachers to continue using action research as a tool for

improvement. Attached to this is the motivation to work in group to bring improvement at institute level collectively.

References

- Badley, G. (2003). Improving the scholarship of teaching and learning. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 40(3), 303-309.
- Barlett, S., & Burton, D. (2006). Practitioner research or descriptions of classroom practice? A discussion of teachers investigating their classrooms. *Educational Action Research*, 14(3), 395-405.
- Black, T. (1999). *Doing quantitative research in the social sciences: an integrated approach to research design, measurement and statistics*. London: Sage Publications.
- Carr, W., & Kemmis, S. (1986). *Becoming critical: education, knowledge and action research*. London: Routledge-Falmer.
- Cohin, L.M., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research method in education*. London & New York: Routledge Falmer.
- Cook, T. (2004). Reflecting and learning together: action research as a vital element of developing understanding and practice. *Educational Action Research*, 12(1), 77-97.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (1998). Teacher learning that supports students learning. *Educational Leadership*, February, 6-11.
- Edward, T. G., & Hensein, S. M. (1999). Changing instructional practice through action research. *Journal of Mathematics Teacher Education*, 2, 187-206.
- Elliot, J., & Sarland, C. (1995). A study of 'teacher as researchers' in the context of award-bearing courses and research degree. *British Educational Research Journal* 21(3), 371-386.
- Elliot, J. (1991). *Action research for educational change*. Philadelphia: Open University Press.
- Field, A. (2005). *Discovering statistics using SPSS for Windows (2nd ed)*. London: Sage Publications.
- Grossman, P., & McDonald, M. (2008). Back to the future: Directions for research in teaching and teacher education. *American Educational Research Journal*, 45(1), 184-205.
- Higher Education Commission. 2010. *Curriculum of Education: B.Ed. (Hons.) 4 year degree program*. Islamabad, Pakistan: Curriculum division, HEC. <http://www.>

hec.gov.pk/Inside-HEC/Divisions/AECA/ Curriculum Revision/Pages/Approved Curriculam.aspx

- Hopkin, D. (2002). *A teacher's guide to classroom research*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Kang, N. H. (2007). Elementary teachers' teaching for conceptual understanding: learning from action research. *Journal of Science Teacher Education* 18, 469-495.
- Kember, D. (2000). *Action learning and action research*. London: Kogan Page.
- Kemmis, S., & McTaggart, R. (2004). Participatory action research. In N. K. Denizen & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.). *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Khan, H.K. (2009). Becoming a teacher educator in public sector institutions in Pakistan: Stories from personal and professional lives. (Unpublished Doctoral Thesis).The Aga Khan University Institute for Educational Development, Pakistan.
- Koshy, V. (2005). *Action research for improving practice: A practical guide*. California: Paul Chapman Publishing
- McNiff, J. (1993). *Teaching as learning an action research approach*. London: Routledge Publications.
- McNiff, J., Lomax, P., & Whitehead, J. (1996). *You and your action research project*. London: Routledge Publications.
- Mertens, D. (1998). *Research methods in education and psychology: integrating diversity with quantitative and qualitative approaches*. London: Sage Publications.
- Peters, J. (2004). Teachers engaging in Action Research: challenging some assumptions. *Educational Action Research*, 12(4), 535-555.
- Robson, C. (2002). *Real world research*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.
- Schon, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioners. How professionals think in action*. Cambridge: Basic Books.
- Shulman, L. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundation of a new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57(1), 1-22.
- Warrican, S. J. (2006). Action research: a viable option for effecting change. *Journal Curriculum Studies*, 38(1), 1-14.

TO THE READER

The Educational Research Journal is an HEC recognized Journal. It is published twice a year in June and December. The primary aim of the journal is to encourage and coordinate research in all the areas of education. Authors are desired to send two copies of their paper, not previously published along with computer disc according to the following guidelines.

1. Reports of original educational research, reviews of recent research in all educational areas or discussion articles on research topics will be preferred.
2. The article should be in English.
3. The article should begin with a brief summary, and should not normally exceed 5000 words.
4. The intrinsic interest of the article, conciseness and clarity are important considerations.
5. Technical jargon should be avoided, and where possible statistical data should be summarized in the text, although tables may be included if clearly presented.
6. Authors are encouraged to describe their findings in terms intelligible to the non-expert reader.
7. Reference should be in the following pattern: -
 - [i] Author's name (Surname, Initials)
 - [ii] Edition No. (if any)
 - [iii] Publishing Year
 - [iv] Book's name
 - [v] publishing place (e.g. country)
 - [vi] Publishing company
 - [vii] Page No. (if any)

Authors receive one complimentary copy of the journal. Inquiries comments and suggestions are welcome and should be addressed to:

The Chairman
Editorial Board,
Department of Education,
The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, Pakistan.
(jeriub1994@gmail.com)

JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Vol. 19 No.2

2016

ISSN 1027-9776

Published By:
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
The Islamia University of Bahawalpur
PAKISTAN
2016
All Rights Reserved



Inquiries, comments and suggestions are welcomed and should be addressed to:

The Chairman
Editorial Board
Department of Education,
The Islamia University of Bahawalpur
(jeriub1994@gmail.com)