TASK-BASED LEARNING AND CURRICULUM INNOVATION IN A THAI EFL CONTEXT

by

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Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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DECLARATION

I declare that this dissertation does not contain material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma of any university; nor does it contain material previously published or written by any other person, except where due reference is made in the text of the dissertation.

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ABSTRACT

‘Professional development is one of the most promising and powerful routes to growth on the job, to combating boredom and alienation, to school improvement and to satisfaction’ (Fullan, 1982: 274).

The aim of this study was to develop, implement and evaluate a professional development programme for teachers of English as a Foreign Language in Thailand to assist them to make a major change in their pedagogy, a change mandated by the National Education Act of 1999. More specifically, what was required of them was to change from being a teacher who delivers instruction in the classroom to a teacher who acts as a facilitator in a learner-centred classroom.

The professional development programme (PDP) drew for its design on programmes recommended for their success in other contexts, but was unique for its innovatory combination of specific forms of content (‘task-based learning’) and process (a ‘coaching approach’), and for its adaptation to the needs of EFL primary school teachers in Thailand. Task-based learning (TBL) was recommended in the literature for its success in helping teachers to focus on student learning, and providing explicit practices to implement the principles of communicative language teaching (CLT) as required by the new curriculum. A coaching approach was claimed to assist teachers by clearly explaining theoretical concepts and their practical implementation at the classroom level, simplifying the steps for implementation in the classroom context and supporting teachers through the process of change.

The study was conducted in a non-metropolitan region in Thailand, and involved nine primary EFL teachers and their classes in three cities. Data were gathered by quantitative (questionnaire, classroom observation checklist) and qualitative (interview) methods before and after the PDP to record changes in the teachers’ perceptions and classroom practices over eight months. The data showed that all the teachers were rated higher by their supervisors on the six major criteria chosen to characterise CLT, and the teachers and their students provided corroborating evidence of a major shift in pedagogy towards the model preferred by the Thai Ministry of Education.

The study showed that a professional development programme of this kind, closely adapted to a specific context, involving preparatory workshop training followed by a semester of guided, strongly supported classroom implementation practice, can make a significant change in Thai primary EFL teachers’ understanding and use of CLT as an innovatory pedagogy. It indicates that this model of professional development is capable of providing a means by which the desired change to a learner-centred, communicative English language curriculum might be achieved system-wide in Thailand, one that has up to this point proved very difficult to implement.

This study represents a contribution to several fields, including curriculum change, teaching English as a Foreign Language, and professional development. It makes a major contribution to the area of foreign language teaching and learning, particularly professional development in the teaching of English as a foreign language in a country such as Thailand.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The demand for the reform of education in Thailand

The need for educational reform in Thailand was sharpened by the country's severe economic downturn in 1997. Thailand's 'relatively weak human resource base' was identified as one of the major underlying factors in the economic crisis (Office of the National Education Commission, 2001a: 1-3), and this in turn led the government to re-examine urgently the quality of the country's educational system.

Education in Thailand has developed from traditional forms conducted in Buddhist temples, the palace and within the family. The impact of King Chulalongkorn's modernisation of the country from 1868 and the introduction of Western concepts of schooling by missionaries in the later Nineteenth Century led eventually to a state education system, one which was also based upon resisting colonial imperialism. The monarchy (and after 1932, the constitutional government) sought to achieve a balance between traditional ways of learning and foreign approaches. This intermixing and adapting of different traditions and cultural forms gave Thai education a continuing role in addressing social change and the modernisation of the country. This history of reform in education linked to national development was taken to a further stage with the establishment of the National Scheme of Education in 1960, which promulgated the First National Education Development Plan. The seventh of these plans, issued in 1992, emphasised that 'the education system should facilitate the country's development process towards self-reliance, sustainability and enhance global competitiveness' (Office of the National Education Commission, 1999). It was the failure to obtain these outcomes, in part due to the impact of influences outside government control, like the Asian
economic crisis of 1997, but also due to a perceived failure of Thai social institutions 'to adapt themselves to cope with the formidable changes' facing them (Office of National Education Commission, 1999: 7), that created the environment for a still faster rate of reform.

In response to this most recent of demands for reform, the Thai government, acting through the Office of the National Education Commission (ONEC) under the Prime Minister's Office, formulated radical new policies to bring about necessary changes within the education system at all levels. ONEC carried out initial research into the provision of quality education in developed countries such as the United Kingdom, the United States, Japan, Canada and Australia, with a view to their application in the Thai education system. Foremost in ONEC's interest was these systems' capacity to develop students' analytic and independent thinking. On the basis of this enquiry ONEC prepared recommendations for consideration by the Thailand's Constitution Drafting Council, with the result that the 1997 Thai Constitution contained extensive recommendations concerning major educational changes. These included the provision of a twelve-year basic quality education free of charge throughout the country, the promotion of local wisdom and national arts and culture, and the development of the teaching profession through extended pre-service education, in-service programmes, certification and registration.

ONEC's recommendations also led to the National Education Act which passed through parliament in August 1999. The Act represented 'an unprecedented and long over-due break' (Office of National Education Commission, 2001a: 2) from traditional Thai educational policy in that it focused on reform of learning for a more creative and constructivist approach to knowledge acquisition. As well, it urged administrative reform towards greater decentralisation, financial reforms in schools, which would allow educational institutions to manage their own budgets, reform of educational resources emphasising the use of information technology to support learning, and encouraging schools and communities to work closely together.
1.2 Planned changes to teaching and learning

The reform of learning envisaged by ONEC required rethinking adherence to the long-standing tradition of formal instruction in teacher-directed classrooms. In a report by ONEC's Sub-Committee on Learning Reform, *Learning reform: A Learner-centred approach*, the specialist committee under the chairmanship of Professor Dr Prawase Wasi argued that there was a number of key 'indicators of the urgent need of teaching-learning reform in the school system': learners of all ages learn only subject matter and written texts, lack training in analytical thinking, self-expression and the acquisition of knowledge for themselves, do not 'learn to learn' but are recipients of transferred knowledge through routine and repetitious methods of instruction in teacher-directed classrooms, and are unhappy and bored (2001: 3-4). This resulted, it was argued, in schools not creating an environment conducive to learning linked with community life (2001: 4).

Responding to this concern about the teaching-learning process long established in Thai schools, the National Education Act of 1999 devoted a full chapter to learning reform, providing guidelines for a participatory approach to creating a new teaching-learning vision. The proposed learning reform was essentially a shift from focusing on content to focusing on human beings as learners and their needs: a learner-centred approach has become mandatory in all Thai schools. More specifically, the proposed reforms stipulate learning processes that provide content and activities in response to learners' interests and aptitudes. The proposed curriculum bears in mind individual differences and expects teachers to train students in thinking processes, in independent learning, and how to apply knowledge for obviating and solving problems. In so doing, it requires teachers to organise activities for learners, which draw from authentic experiences to drill in practical work for complete mastery. Both learners and teachers are expected to learn together from different types
of teaching-learning media and various sources of knowledge (National Education Act, 1999: Section 24: 10-11).

1.3 English language curriculum reform

Foreign languages have long held an important place in the Thai education system’s efforts to support the modernisation movement. Initially French and English were the more significant of the European languages fostered, reflecting the colonial spheres of influence of those two powers on countries bordering Thailand to the east and west/south. With the rise of English as a global language, it became the core of the school foreign language programme, and from 1961 it became a prestigious elective subject from Grade 5 for those intending to proceed to university. In 1996 it became compulsory for all students from Grade 1 primary through to Grade 12 to study English, and a pass in the subject is essential for entry to tertiary education.

Though the teaching of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) has been long established in Thailand, it has not had a particularly successful history in the school sector, its presence being more a result of government insistence than popular appeal. Since the 1960s the Ministry of Education’s Department of National Standard Assessment has regularly reviewed the performance of schools, and has reported consistently over the years on the low standards of achievement in English. In a report on curriculum assessment in 1995 it noted specifically the difficulties teachers were facing in interpreting the very broad and generalised curriculum requirements in English, their over-reliance on a limited number of textbooks, their lack of confidence in the mastery of subject content and cultural background, and the ineffectiveness of their use of resources (which were neither up-to-date nor particularly appropriate), and placed English and mathematics as the subjects with the lowest student achievement (Department of National Standard Assessment, 1995b: 45-46).
In the current situation, in which English has become mandated for all Thai students from lower primary schooling, the need for curriculum and teaching-learning reform that applied across all subjects took on particular urgency in English. Recognising that the long-accepted 'vocabulary and grammar'-based syllabus had not proved successful, despite its compatibility with traditional Thai educational principles, the Ministry of Education turned close attention to both the content of the subject and the methodology employed in teaching it. Of greatest concern was the failure of learners to develop their English language skills for communication, and it was this that became the focus for the proposed changes. There were associated issues to that of developing communicative competence, however, and the new syllabus issued in 1998 was based upon six 'learning principles' (in fact, learning goals), revolutionary in their intended impact on EFL teaching throughout Thailand. They were:

- to be able to use English properly for communicative purposes;
- to develop English language skills for further study and careers;
- to be able to apply English language skills in the class to real situations;
- to understand English-speaking cultures and their backgrounds,
- to be able to use resources in English language for self-study,
- to have a positive attitude toward English and realise the benefits of learning English. (Department of National Curriculum, Ministry of Education, 2000: 2-3)

The theme that dominates this set of principles is a desire to create life-long learners that can enjoy the study of English and see its relevance to their lives. The emphasis here upon independent learning, career orientation, international awareness and real-life experience anticipate and correspond closely to the beliefs underpinning the ONEC sub-committee report on learning reform that came out in 2001. The spirit of change manifested in the new English curriculum reflects the current thinking in the Ministry of Education generally.
It was also recognised within the Ministry that to achieve the six principles for the new EFL syllabus it would be vital for teachers to change their teaching behaviours extensively. Guidance for this was set out as five ‘implications for teaching’:

- Communication is paramount. Speaking and listening skills are emphasised at the beginning, then reading and writing skills follow;
- Learners are the centre of the learning process. Teachers take the role of learning supporters;
- Learning activities should encourage learners to enjoy their learning so that the learners will have a positive attitude to English as a subject;
- Communicative tasks are focused. Task-based learning is suggested for developing English for communication; and
- Learners are encouraged to become confident and independent in learning development. (Department of National Curriculum, Ministry of Education, 2000: 17)

The generality with which these ‘implications’ were expressed left a great deal for teachers still to do to enact the new ‘principles’. The good intentions for reform held by the Ministry, even when they might be shared by educators at every level, still needed to be translated into radically different classroom practice. Experience of curriculum innovation internationally would indicate that it is in this process of interpretation and application that change can either succeed, be deferred or founder (Department of National Curriculum, 2000).

The attempts to evolve more effective teaching-learning processes in EFL in Thailand, to judge by the Thai Department of Education Assessment reports, had not been particularly successful up to 1999. A crucial issue in the success of the reform proposed in the 1999 National Education Act was certain to be whether the desire for system-wide innovation could be fulfilled at classroom level in this most pressing of national circumstances, and whether it could be fulfilled specifically in subjects such as English where change had previously proved difficult to implement.
1.4 The significance of the study

This present study arose from the researcher's perception of the daunting challenge faced by classroom teachers who wished to meet the requirements of the National Education Act, and particularly the predicament of primary EFL teachers who were now expected to provide effective instruction to all their pupils. Traditional methodologies were not proving very popular or effective with cognitively maturer adolescent learners; the problems posed by attempting to teach by traditional methods in the primary grades were greater still, with relevance, cultural awareness and independent learning even more difficult to establish with students at an early stage of cognitive and social maturity. That adoption of the new curriculum would be beneficial and was urgently needed were not questioned, the critical issue was implementation: how could the transition to new methodologies be brought about most effectively?

Research on curriculum innovation (Marsh, 1988; Wilson & Corcoran, 1988; Louis & Miles, 1990; Fullan, 1992; Bottomley, Dalton, Corbel & Brindley, 1994; Williamson & Cowley, 1995) has suggested that there are three major factors leading to successful implementation. One is that the teachers involved must perceive the need for change in curriculum and pedagogy and feel the need for professional development. Another is teachers' understanding of the innovation. The third is that teachers must be able to achieve the pedagogical changes expected of them; with the adoption of the new national curriculum policy, Thai teachers need to be able to adapt the preferred curriculum and pedagogy to their own situations. For these reasons, the researcher considered the devising of an appropriate professional development programme for Thai primary EFL teachers would be a key mechanism for the successful implementation of the National Education Act as it applied to this specific context. The timing was crucial too; pressure was on schools to respond to the requirements of the Act as soon as possible after
it came into effect in 1999, so the search for effective programmes to support teachers in the challenge for change needed to have begun by then also.

In the field of EFL, attempts to introduce communicative language teaching (CLT) in many non-English speaking countries in Asia in the last twenty years have proved to be particularly difficult, and with a low rate of success (Sano, Takahashi & Yoneyama, 1984; Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Ellis, 1994; Shamin, 1996; Li, 1998). These challenges have arisen from a variety of sources: teachers' deficiency in spoken English and lack of training in CLT methods, students' lack of motivation and limited English proficiency, systemic problems such as inadequate resources, contextual difficulties such as large classes and examination procedures focusing on vocabulary and grammar, and a lack of family/community understanding and support for the new pedagogy. Many of these challenges are outside the control of the classroom teacher, and some may take many years to overcome. Some, however, to do with teacher preparation and teacher/student attitudes, can be addressed in professional development, as can teachers' responses to the systemic and contextual difficulties they find in their classrooms.

The Ministry of Education's Report on Student Achievement (Department of National Standard Assessment, 1995b) has shown that the general level of student ability to use English for communicative purposes was very low before the mandating of CLT in the revised curriculum (1996). There was need for a new approach to address the difficulty of teachers not having a clear and practical method of transferring from traditional to CLT methods, and having the confidence to continue employing the new methods once they were left alone in their classrooms. A teacher development programme to suit the present context needed, in the opinion of the researcher, at least two central components: one relating to the content of the change (understanding of new teaching methodologies, knowledge of the new curriculum, new methods of assessment, for instance) and one in relation to the implementation process (building skills and confidence in using the new
methodologies, selecting and adapting from the syllabus the specific material suitable for their classroom, applying assessment procedures to enhance learning and make valid judgments about stages in mastery).

This study is significant because it suggests a new approach to teachers' professional development. This approach combines two major areas: curriculum change and task-based learning in EFL. The programme is designed to assist Thai EFL teachers to bring about pedagogical change. It introduces task-based learning as an innovation to tackle difficulties encountered by Thai teachers when attempting to implement CLT. This is combined with a coaching approach as a means for assisting the change process. The process has been well researched and evidence of its effectiveness elsewhere has been part of the research. The programme is concerned with both content and process, the fact that it is projected into a local Thai context, it could be expected to have a higher chance of success than previous programmes, especially for long-term, permanent change.

The combination of TBL with a coaching approach held out to the researcher the hope of finding a possible means to tackle a problem in the devising of TEFL professional development, one that had been shown in the experience of many education systems in Asia and elsewhere as being most intractable (Hallinger, 2000). One of the significant factors involved in the failure of efforts to implement major curriculum change would appear to be the lack of continuing support for teachers at a practical school level, leaving them feeling insecure and lacking the confidence to implement the innovation individually in their schools. It was essential to the framing of this present study that educational change and its implementation be recognised as a complex process and that teachers require continuing support during it.

The present study is intended as a contribution to several intersecting fields: curriculum change, teaching English as a Foreign Language, and professional development programming. More specifically, it makes a contribution to the
area of language education in Thailand in that it links education policy with classroom practice; there are few studies of this kind in the literature. It is also hoped that it might have potential for application to the field of teacher professional development in other non-English speaking countries with an educational tradition similar to Thailand’s.

1.5 The purpose of the study

The broad purpose of the present study was to investigate a model for bringing about a major change in teacher pedagogical behaviours in EFL primary school teachers in Thailand. Within that general intention was the aim to develop, implement and evaluate the effectiveness of a professional development programme conducted with a limited group of representative local educational administrators (‘supervisors’), Grade 6 EFL teachers and their students, with a view to establishing through this shorter-term pilot programme an effective working model that could, with adaptation and refinement under changing circumstances, be used by others. More particularly, the study examined the impact of this professional development programme (hereafter called ‘the PDP’) upon teachers who used traditional forms of direct teacher-centred instruction but who wanted to make the shift towards becoming facilitators in learner-centred classrooms. It considered also their perceptions and those of their supervisors and their students about the change in pedagogy that resulted from the teachers’ involvement in the PDP.

For a change, which is major enough to constitute a paradigm shift in pedagogical theory and practice to succeed requires more of its instigators than a mental map of the new territory. It needs an effective process of implementation, with assistance for teachers as they find their way into unfamiliar and at times hazardous terrain. A coaching approach has been claimed to be valuable in supporting teachers through the challenge of innovation (Joyce & Showers, 1980; Galton & Williamson, 1992).
Coaching can be effective for developing implementation skills in teachers by providing clear guidance on what to do and how to do it. It has also been shown to have the flexibility to assist individual teachers in dealing with the specific difficulties they encounter, to assist them to gain the management skills to cope with the complexities of change, and to provide this support directly when it is most needed (Galton & Williamson, 1992). For these reasons the researcher saw a coaching approach as an important element in enabling the content of a professional development programme to be delivered and absorbed, and then to be adapted for use in the teachers’ own classroom practice.

The content of the PDP was to be based on a TBL approach to teaching EFL, employing a coaching model in its mode of delivery. Such a specifically designed PDP had not, insofar as the researcher or those members of the Ministry of Education he contacted, been used before to introduce pedagogical innovation in Thailand. It was postulated that this approach would help teachers to manage their classrooms so as to maximise the opportunities for learners to put their limited language to authentic use and to provide a more effective learning environment. It was also postulated that educators and students would have positive attitudes to the PDP and its classroom outcomes. In the evaluative phases of the study, data were to be gathered on the PDP’s perceived effectiveness and the attitudes of the educators and students involved in the programme towards it.

In summary, the aims of this study were:

- to develop, implement and evaluate a teacher professional development programme designed to create major changes in primary English as a Foreign Language classroom practice by assisting teachers to change their teaching behaviours;
• to investigate whether a task-based learning approach, in combination with a coaching model, leads to greater use of authentic communicative language teaching methods;
• to investigate the perceptions of teachers, students and education supervisors concerning the effectiveness of the PDP.

1.6 Research questions

Main research question

Does the professional development programme designed for this study lead to changes in classroom practice to accord with the Thai National Education Act of 1999?

In order to answer the main research question, the question is broken into two sub-research questions, which are:

Research sub-question 1
Does a task-based learning approach, in combination with a coaching model, lead to a greater use of communicative language teaching by teachers involved in the professional development programme?

Research sub-question 2
What is the change in participants’ perceptions of curriculum innovation as a result of the professional development programme?

1.7 The scope of the study

The professional development programme conducted in this study, and upon which its conclusions about TBL combined with a coaching model are based,
was designed to investigate a means by which significant changes in both understanding and use of CLT in primary EFL classes might be effected. The PDP and its evaluation attempted to balance the constraints placed upon what a project conducted by a single researcher could achieve in a limited period of time with the broad aim of investigating its potential application to nationwide curriculum innovation. The strategies chosen to represent the larger context in the parameters of the specific pilot programme are outlined below:

The participants

The participants in this study were invited volunteers drawn from districts in urban and rural areas in non-metropolitan Thailand (i.e., not in Bangkok or its immediate neighbourhood). They were invited by superintendents in a Thai Education Department based in the region where the PDP was conducted. The key participants were three education supervisors and nine Grade 6 primary school teachers who indicated their enthusiasm to develop their professional careers and to participate in an innovatory EFL programme. The students in these teachers' classes were also involved in the sense that their response to the new pedagogy was sought as part of the data gathered on its effectiveness. The small size of the sample enabled the researcher to work intensively with the supervisors and the teachers in delivering new content, monitor individual change through school visits, provide professional support in after-lesson discussions and group meetings, and administer questionnaires, view videotapes of entire lessons and interview all participants separately. As explained in Chapter 3, the choice of cities and schools in which the study was conducted was designed to be as representative of the larger Thai context as the small number of participants allowed.
The timeline

The period immediately following the 1999 Education Act was a crucial one for curriculum change in Thailand. The demand for reform was urgent, but the implementation of a pilot programme needed to allow for an adequate period in which pedagogical change could take place and be evaluated. This study began soon after the Act came into force, allowing for the process by which permission was obtained to undertake the research and the choice of participants to be made. The timing also was linked to the start of a school year, and began in the vacation period before its commencement to enable professional development seminars to be conducted with the participants. The study was comprised of three phases conducted over nine months: Phase 1 (preparation, initial training of participants, and supported classroom introduction of the new pedagogy), Phase 2 (collection of data on teaching methodology and attitudes), Phase 3 (monitoring the major stages in pedagogical change).

The research methodology

The study used both quantitative methods (questionnaire, classroom observation checklists) and a qualitative method (interview) for data gathering. The combination of methods was designed to give reliable measures of changes in teacher behaviour, to validate this data through triangulation and to give a richer or more detailed account of the participants' understandings and attitudes during the process of change. The researcher acted both as the manager of the PDP (controlling input through seminars, viewing and helping to assess videotapes of teachers in their classrooms, discussing pedagogical issues with supervisors and teachers after lessons) and as researcher (devising data-gathering instruments, recording interviews, organising and analysing data, evaluating the programme from the data gathered). Bias that could be introduced through this duplication of role has been minimised wherever possible, especially in giving the key responsibility
for rating teacher behaviour to their supervisors, keeping permanent records (videotaping lessons and tape recording interviews), using independent translators to check accuracy of Thai/English translation of data, and the use of multiple of research methods and instruments for gathering data.

1.8 The structure of the thesis

Chapter 2 presents a review of literature relevant to four intersecting fields closely related to the study: teacher professional development associated with curriculum innovation, coaching approaches used to assist curriculum implementation, learner-centred curricula in EFL teaching and a task-based learning approach to communicative language teaching. Chapter 3 describes the theoretical concepts underpinning the development and the design of the PDP. Chapter 4 describes the research methodology used in this study. In Chapter 5, the findings in relation to the research sub-question 1, whether a task-based learning approach can assist teachers to make greater use of communicative language teaching, are presented. This research sub-question is broken down in order to answer the main research question as well as the research sub-question 2 in the next chapter. Chapter 6 presents the findings in relation to the research sub-question 2, which is concerned with the participants' perceptions of implementation of the new curriculum. Chapter 7 presents a discussion of the findings in the study in relation to previous research. In Chapter 8 the conclusions are presented and implications are discussed. Recommendations for further research are also presented.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

One of the most significant changes in education world-wide in recent times has been the shift in attention from what teachers do to what students do, and especially how they learn. However, how students learn is very much dependent on how teachers teach, and current studies continue to focus on the teacher as the vital link in delivering curricula – and in implementing educational change. This remains true even when the reform is towards a learner-centred curriculum of the kind on which this study concentrates.

Teacher professional development programmes are recognised as an extremely effective way of instituting thorough-going changes in teaching and learning. In the last two decades especially there has been a considerable body of research published related to teacher professional development and the implementation of change in teachers’ practices in the classroom. These studies have extended from those on the smallest scale, intensive case studies of individual teachers making changes in their classrooms, to broad national and international surveys of teachers and their experiences of professional development. In addition, there is now a large literature describing ‘best practices’ in professional development based on the successful implementation of innovative programmes.

This chapter presents research and theories relevant to how teachers manage curriculum innovation in their classrooms, with particular attention to research on learner-centred curricula in EFL teaching. The review of the literature focuses on the two main areas of research studies: educational change and its successful implementation, and communicative language.
teaching. The first section of this chapter presents a review of literature related to curriculum innovation, concentrating on a coaching approach. The second section reviews a task-based learning approach as an explicit EFL teaching method for encouraging greater use of communicative language teaching. The main issues will be addressed in the following sections:

Section 1: Managing curriculum innovation
2.1.1 Curriculum change
2.1.2 A coaching approach as an agent of change
2.1.3 Teachers as adult learners

Section 2: A learner-centred approach to EFL teaching
2.2.1 The learner-centred curriculum
2.2.2 A learner-centred approach and CLT
2.2.3 Task-based learning and CLT

Section 1  Managing curriculum innovation

2.1.1 Curriculum change

Accepting the wisdom of an international trend towards learner-centred curricula, Thailand’s recent National Education Act has mandated a shift from the country’s traditional approach to one which encourages active and cooperative learning, a greater recognition of individual student differences, and relating learning to ‘real life’, a group of features amongst others that have become associated with ‘progressive education’ (Owens, 2001). While Thai education has long espoused such beliefs as the importance of young people being active and of their cooperating with their teachers and each other, that schooling nurtures individual students, and that education should prepare students for life, especially in moral and practical senses, the form which progressive education takes in the classroom requires a
paradigm shift in Thai teachers’ thinking. What may have been an evolutionary process in American or British education over an extended period of curriculum reform, and even natural to most of the teachers involved, is much more of a challenge to Thai teachers’ established understanding of their role and that of students when the period allowed for expected change is reduced to months. And closely associated with that challenge in reconceptualizing teaching and learning is the equally demanding one of changing their teaching practice from being a knowledge transmitter to one of student learning facilitator.

Two of the researchers whose work informs much of this study consider the parameters of change in the following ways. Nunan (1988), from a language teaching background, lists the key features involved in a shift in teaching methodology as: (i) the pedagogical concept of the teaching approach; (ii) the types of learning activities; (iii) the role of teacher and learner; (iv) the role of materials; and (v) the role of assessment. Pullan (1992), whose field is curriculum innovation, considers that educational change involves three related components: (i) the possible use of new or revised materials (e.g., direct instructional resources such as curriculum materials or technologies); (ii) the possible use of new approaches (e.g. new teaching strategies or activities); and (iii) the possible alteration of beliefs (e.g. pedagogical assumptions and theories underlying particular new policies or programmes). These sets of parameters inform both the discussion here of the literature relating to EFL teaching reform, and the way data were gathered and organised in the study.

Considering the impetus for educational change, Pullan proposes two main forms: voluntary – when teachers themselves choose to participate in or even initiate change, when they find dissatisfaction in their current situation and see the need to improve their professional practice; and imposed change – which comes from a source external to the classroom, normally from national education policy devised at system level and operating top-down.
He argues that successful curriculum implementation is more likely when the change is voluntary (Fullan, 1992: 69). In such countries as the USA, the UK and Australia the revolution that has taken place in EFL teaching has been generated both from below and above; this joining of forces has impelled these countries down the path to profound change with relative agreement system-wide. In Thailand, although educators at all levels acknowledge that reform is necessary, it is the National Education Act of 1999 which is driving innovation almost alone. Fullan’s analysis of change, therefore generally would imply that it faces the more difficult task.

A range of implementation strategies and pathways from the perspective of innovation as a staged process, is reported in studies by Berman and McLaughlin (1977) and White (1988). These studies all appear to agree on there being three broad phases of the implementation process: initiation, implementation, and continuation. The initiation phase consists of that part of the process which leads up to and includes a decision to adopt or to proceed with change. The implementation phase involves the first experiences of attempting to put an idea or programme into place at a practical level, while the continuation phase refers to whether the change gets built in as an ongoing part of the system.

Fullan’s perspective on innovation recognises the significance of these phases also. In his analysis, however, implementation of a new curriculum involves two major interrelated components. The first is the content of the changes; such content involves the development of new meanings in relation to new underlying concepts, new programmes, and new sets of activities. The second involves the process of implementing and maintaining the changes (1992: 128). As described by Fullan, the successful implementation of curriculum change involves four interacting factors or characteristics: perceived need, clarity, complexity and workability (Fullan, 1991: 68-73) described in the following way:
• Perceived need
The degree to which people perceive the need for an innovation can influence the extent to which the implementation is successful. The need for the change, as described by Fullan, comes from either external or internal factors, or both. External factors are the social, political and economic situations which require change in education policy. This clearly applies to the current situation in Thailand. Internal factors relate to the need to change being perceived by the people involved because they are not satisfied with their present situation and are looking to find a better means of providing students with better quality learning (Fullan, 1991; cited in Bottomley, Dalton, Corbel & Brindley, 1994: 33). This applies to those who are actively seeking ways to introduce new language teaching methods in Thailand – a group of innovators, mostly with international links – but by no means all in the field nor throughout the country.

• Clarity
According to Fullan, successful curriculum implementation requires the participants to have a clear understanding of the issues involved in the innovation in order to assist in determining its relevance of the innovation. Such clarity applies to reconceptualising the specifics of teaching methods, including the purpose of the new pedagogical approach, types of learning activity, the role of teacher and learner, and the role of materials and assessment. Where these introduce unfamiliar procedures of the kind the new curriculum in EFL requires, such as organising group learning activities or assessing individual learning progress, the teacher’s individual beliefs underpinning her or his pedagogical practice are bound to be challenged as well, and make rethinking the change clearly a difficult but important step to take.
Complexity
As change is not a predictable process, it requires the people involved to understand that it is complicated, and to be prepared to modify their thinking and practice to suit specific, and changing, circumstances (Fullan, 1992). It is important that a flexible implementation plan is drawn up for the people involved, though this should not lose the virtue of clarity in doing so, if this is possible. Teacher participation in curriculum delivery at all stages is one way of maintaining clarity through a complex process. Studies related to the implementation of change indicate that participation in decision-making at all levels of an organisation helps develop a clearer understanding of the aims of the implementation and this in turn develops a sense of commitment to the innovation (Berman & McLaughlin, 1977; White, 1988). It can be inferred from this that the Thai curriculum reform under discussion here would benefit from close participation in decision-making by educators at all levels in the system, but especially by teachers, considering their pivotal role.

Workability
Workability is described by Fullan as an attribute of changes ‘that fit in well with the teacher’s situation that are focused and include how-to-do-it possibilities’ (1991: 72). In this sense, workability relates to planning, the mobilisation of people and resources, and the actual practices used when individuals are accommodating to change. Success in these areas determines whether the change becomes an ongoing, integral part of the system, or whether it disappears (Fullan, 1991). From this it could be argued that those implementing change need to consider carefully a range of practical issues that relate to the specific context in which it is placed. As the context of Thai primary EFL teaching is so radically different from those in the USA, the UK and other countries where learner-centred curricula have been introduced, it would seem that
workability (specifically here, adaptation to the cultural context) would be a key aspect of a successful approach to innovation in Thai schools.

The question of flexibility raised under Fullan’s treatment of complexity above, but which relates also to workability, deserves further comment here. Williamson and Cowley have argued for a model of implementation that involves matching national curriculum guidelines with localized interpretation and implementation at a pace determined by the schools and their teachers:

Teachers were able to become involved in the innovation as and when they wished, and to adopt changes at their own pace. To encourage teachers to become involved and to be open to new ideas, professional development was provided as and when necessary, and teachers worked collegially on developing new programmes and resources and learning new teaching and learning strategies, with a generally supportive environment being engendered in the school. Thus, for implementation of national curricula to be successful, it is suggested that a flexibility model is preferable to an over-prescriptive model (Williamson and Cowley, 1998: 91).

One further issue raised in Williamson and Cowley’s paper but as yet undiscussed here is the importance of a supportive environment for innovation. Fullan (1992) points out that when teachers are making a transition to new pedagogical beliefs, their individual and personal ‘network of meaning’ has to be given time to take up the new ideas and experiences. While this is happening, teachers often need support and reassurance to reduce feelings of insecurity. Because they find it difficult to carry out the change alone, isolated as they usually are with their students in the classroom, the support of a group of colleagues or an expert advisor helps them to feel more confident (Fullan, 1992: 72). Bottomley, Dalton, Corbel and Brindley (1994) note that ongoing support from administrators and skilled teachers promoting change is important to teachers’ continuing commitment to the innovation. This is especially applicable to new teachers. They also emphasise that implementation support should include the
provision of training sessions to help teachers cope with the innovation, the resources necessary to bring it about, time allocation for attending meetings and workshops, and rewards to maintain motivation (Bottomley, Dalton, Corbel & Brindley, 1994: 84). An advocate or consultant provides vital assistance in successful implementation. It is accepted that individuals find it difficult to carry out the implementation of the innovation alone, so good consultants can help the change proceed smoothly and effectively by providing concrete, practical advice either in the classroom or in professional development workshops. Fullan (1992) emphasises that strong advocacy at the administrative level is essential for change, while Bottomley, Dalton, Corbel & Brindley (1994: 27) demonstrate that teacher advocacy builds peer networks that impact positively on the capacity for change.

Summing up, the position established by Fullan and others on successful curriculum innovation suggests that the innovation must be perceived to be needed by those who are to implement it, and they should be clear about the change and how it will be accomplished. This process is recognised to be complex, so practical – and flexible – plans need to be drawn up for it which allow for input from those who will carry it out. This spirit of consultation, attention to detail, practicality, flexibility and commitment needs to be sustained through the implementation phase if the change is to become on-going, and teachers are more likely to feel confident in accomplishing the transition in a supportive school environment.

2.1.2 A coaching approach as an agent of change

Coaching has been recognized as an effective way of facilitating the change process. Coaching aims to assist in the acquisition of new concepts by reducing a complex task to simple steps; a training programme devised on coaching principles would help trainees to gain success at each step, leading eventually to achieving the goal of mastering a complex skill. In a coaching
approach to curriculum change, teachers would be assisted to develop effective ways of implementing innovation by simplifying an extremely complex task into manageable components. Joyce and Showers (1980) developed a model of professional development coaching for teachers which consists of five explicit stages, steps by which practitioners might achieve changes in methodology. They linked these to the levels of impact each stage had on the teacher undertaking such a programme in the following way:

- **Presentation of theory**: level of impact – awareness.
  Presentation of theory, according to Joyce and Showers (1980), can raise awareness and increase conceptual control of an area to some extent. However, it is for relatively few teachers that it results in skill acquisition or the transfer of skills into the classroom situation. On the other hand, when the presentation of the theory is used in combination with other training components, it appears to boost conceptual control, skill development, and transfer.

- **Modelling or demonstration**: level of impact – awareness, some knowledge. Modelling appears to have an effect on awareness and some on knowledge acquisition. Demonstration also increases the mastery of theory. Many teachers can imitate demonstrated skills fairly readily and a number will transfer them to classroom practice. However, for most teachers, modelling alone is unlikely to result in the acquisition and transfer of skills unless it is accompanied by other components.

- **Practice under simulated conditions**: level of impact – skill.
  When awareness and knowledge have been achieved, practice is a very efficient way of acquiring skills and strategies whether related to the changing of teaching style or the mastery of a new approach.

- **Structured and open-ended feedback**: level of impact – skill and transfer.
  Feedback can result in considerable awareness of one’s teaching behaviour and knowledge about alternatives. With respect to the fine-
tuning of styles, it has reasonable power for acquisition of skills and their transfer to the classroom situation. However, feedback alone does not appear to provide permanent changes, but regular and consistent feedback is necessary to maintain those changes.

- Coaching for application: level of impact – application of the new skill. When the other training components are used in combination, the levels of impact are considerable for most teachers up through the skill levels. For many others, however, direct coaching on how to apply the new skills and models appears to be necessary. Coaching can be provided by other teachers, supervisors, professors, curriculum consultants or others. Coaching for application involves helping teachers analyse the content to be taught and the approach to be taken, and making very specific plans to help the students adapt to the new teaching approach (Joyce & Showers, 1980: 379-385).

As the coaching model became established in teacher professional development, other attributes were found in its approach, and other elements in its use were stressed. Caccia, for instance, emphasised the important role of trust in the coaching process:

> Coaching exists in name only unless the coach and the person being coached share trust and a sense of purpose. The last important aspect of successful coaching is a flexibility which teachers might need some helps in specific participation such as predetermined issues or in non-specific participation such as an outsider to determine areas for improvement (1996: 18).

Twenty years after the model’s original formulation, Joyce and Showers had identified three further major functions that they believed it served:

- **Provision of companionship**
  This function of coaching provides interchange with another over the change process. The coaching relationship results in the possibility of mutual reflection, the checking of perceptions, the sharing of frustrations and successes, and the informal thinking through of mutual
problems. Companionship provides reassurance that the problems are normal. The companionship not only makes the training process technically easier, it enhances the quality of the experience. It is a lot more pleasurable to share a new thing than to do it in isolation.

- Extending executive control
  This function of coaching provides teachers with the capacity to make adjustments in their own way. They may choose how to use the new pedagogy appropriately during the transfer period, to select the right occasions to use a particular teaching strategy, to examine curriculum materials and plans and to practise the application of the new teaching method they will be using later.

- Feedback and adaptation.

  Success with a new methodology requires teachers to practise with feedback on their early attempts so that they can improve their teaching skills. It is important for teachers' confidence that feedback is positive from students, colleagues and change agents during this trial period. The coaching approach in general, it is important to remember, is to assist change, not to evaluate teachers' performance (2000: 440-442).

This model, with refinement and application to particular settings, has proved to be a powerful method of assisting teachers to change their classroom practices in a range of subject areas. Ballard (2001), for example, reported on her experiences during three years as coach assisting mathematics teachers in Michigan public schools. She found that using a coaching approach successfully helped the mathematics teachers to adopt curriculum reforms expected of them. The study also showed that the coaching approach increased the teachers' understanding of mathematics and of how students learned. In addition, coaching assisted these teachers to implement classroom management strategies that led to a more positive environment of learning and inquiry in the classroom (Ballard, 2001:160-175). Slater and Simmons (2001) conducted a study with 17 volunteer teachers at a Texas high school which involved peer coaching to enhance
the teachers' use of the new teaching strategies, and to overcome the teachers' feelings of isolation. The study showed that the programme did in fact help these teachers to enhance their teaching skills. The programme evaluation results indicated high agreement among teachers that they had learned new professional ideas, gained knowledge and ideas about practice, and brought about positive attitude and behaviour changes in students.

2.1.3 Teachers as adult learners

In developing a PDP it is critical to remember that the PDP is dealing with teachers as learners. This in fact means that the PDP must consider the differences between adults as learners and children as learners. There are significant differences between adult and children learning processes. For example, most frequently, in their learning children rely on others to decide what is important to be learned. In the case of adults, they decide for themselves what is important to be learned. This concept is critical in any educational innovation — in these circumstances, the principle of adult learning indicated above indicates that teachers will decide what it is they will take up in their on-going learning. Translated into the arena of educational reform, this means that initiatives for reform must take account of teachers as adult learners.

It further follows that any professional development programmes contributing to educational change, must take account of the principles of adult learning if they are to be effective. If these principles are not taken into account, then the professional development programme will not make a positive contribution to the implementation of the desired or proposed change.

Many researchers (Knowles, 1978; Smith, 1982; Brookfield, 1986; Burns, 1995; Tight, 1996) have described the key principles of adult learning. Among these, Brundage and Mackeracher (1980) emphasise that voluntary participation is vital to the effective engagement of adults. Voluntary
participation as an element of adult learning assists in ensuring that the learners do not feel threatened and that there is a positive learning atmosphere developed. In the case of teachers this atmosphere or climate of learning would apply to the school and the staff of the school in their approach to their professional development. The same researchers demonstrate that the provision of regular feedback enhances adult learners in developing their continued learning.

In the teaching profession, feedback can be obtained in a variety of ways. Teachers are encouraged to be reflective in their practice. Reflective practice in itself is a form of feedback. Teachers working in collegial teams, teachers conducting peer observation, teachers in study groups and other forms of professional interaction all provide feedback to each other on aspects of their learning together. Another principle of adult learning, which is relevant to the success of any professional development programme, is that adults expect that what they are learning is immediately useful to their situation (Brookfield, 1986).

Many studies such as Knowles (1978); Smith (1982); Brookfield (1986); Burns (1995); and Tight (1996) agree on essential principles of educating adult learners when implementing any professional development programme for adult learners. These involve:

1. An adult’s readiness to learn depends on the amount of previous practice and learning. The more knowledge a person has the better able they are to assimilate new information with it.
2. The variety of past experiences a group of adult possess underscores the diversity of starting points for any educational activity.
3. To maximise learning, information must be presented in an organised fashion, proceeding from simple to complex, or organised around a concept. The starting point for organising of knowledge for adults is related to their previous experiences and knowledge.
4. Meaningful material and tasks are more easily learned and longer remembered than non-meaningful material. Any task has potential meaning. The challenge is to find ways to make it significantly related to the experiences and needs of the adult learners.

5. Intrinsic motivation produces more pervasive and permanent learning. What is learned becomes part of the learner. Building an educational activity around an adult’s needs ensures more permanent learning.

6. Positive reinforcement of learning is more effective than punishment. Feeling of success and the raising of self-esteem are vital for the entry and continuation of adults in education. Positive feedback should be prompt.

7. Active, rather than passive, participation in learning activity enhances learning. Adults who are personally involved discover relationships, concepts and meaning as their own and are intrinsically rewarded. Adult educators who encourage active participation help to bring about more meaningful and permanent learning.

8. Learning, especially with regard to skill development, is enhanced by repetition spaced systematically over time.

9. Factors such as Fatigue, time pressure, criticism, context of learning, interpersonal relationships with teachers and compulsion all affect learning.

Each of these principles must be taken into account in the professional development programme supporting educational these elements into account, the reform initiative will almost certainly fail.

As learners, adults have much to contribute from their past experiences. As adult learners, teachers bring much experience to their learning. As opposed to the learning of children, adults have significant ability to serve as a knowledgeable resource and facilitators of the learning of other adults.
The concept of andragogy is an influential concept in the education and training of adults. The term andragogy was introduced by Knowles (1978). The process-based approach in andragogy, is presumed to be more appropriate to adult learners. The concept is based on the fact in their learning, adults need to be treated as self-directing individuals. The concept leads to learning which is student-centred, experience-based, problem-oriented and collaborative. The key concepts of the andragogical model is summarised by Burns (1995) as following:

1. Adult learners need to know why they are required to learn something before being motivated to learn it. When this is applied to teacher learning it means teachers must know the value of the professional development in terms of the contribution it will make to their effectiveness in achieving desired learning outcomes.

2. Adults need to be able to decide for themselves what is important to be learned. When applied to teachers, this means that teachers need to engage in mutual enquiry rather than transmit knowledge and evaluate their conformity to it.

3. There is a greater range of individual differences among adult learners. Consequently, emphasis must be placed on individualised learning strategies. This means that the core methodology for adult education is the analysis of experience. Applied to teachers, this translates into professional development programmes being flexible and no single approach being applied to all teachers.

4. Adult learners are problem centred. Therefore professional development programmes for teachers must be focussed on real school situations.

5. Adult readiness to learn and teachable moments peak at those points where a learning opportunity is co-ordinated with a recognition of a need to know. For teacher professional development this means that
programmes must be take account of a variety of styles, contexts and pace of change (235-236).

Various studies have examined the characteristics of the optimal learning environments for adults. Knowles (1978) and Burns (1995) suggest the following characteristics should define a learning environment for adults:

- mutuality of responsibility in defining goals, planning and conducting activities that are based on the real needs of the participants
- participation in decision-making
- self-direction
- teacher's role as resource and facilitator
- use of learners' experiences as a basis for learning
- an open, democratic environment
- a concern for the worth of the individual and their self-concept

Again this research must be applied to the professional development programme for teachers – in effect it reinforces the view that no system wide programme will succeed or make a positive contribution to education reform.

In their learning, adults need to be granted the right to decide for themselves what it is they wish to learn. Successful adult learning therefore tends to be self-directed (Brookfield, 1986; Tight, 1996).

Self-directed learning contains these essential elements:

- There is no prescribed content that teachers feel must be transmitted to students.
- The content and the way the content is learned is determined by the interested and needs of all participants including the teacher.
- What the students get out of it is measured by the extent to which they attain their own learning objectives.
All of this research points strongly to the fact that teacher professional development must take account of the essentials of adult learning. Failure to do so leads to poor use of valuable educational resources and failure to implement educational change.

Section 2  A learner-centred approach to EFL teaching

2.2.1 The learner-centred curriculum

For a century after the world-wide movement towards public education began, the view that dominated educational thought and policy-making in schools was one emphasising the primacy of subject matter, the importance of passing on an inherited body of knowledge to the young, the memorisation of facts, the authority of the teacher, and formal instructional methods. Although such a view prevailed in public education, it was under criticism from the followers of Rousseau and others from the start, and by the 1960s ascendency in the debate between those who asserted the primacy of subject matter against those who supported the primacy of the child had become much more hotly contested in Europe and America (see for example, Simons, Linden and Duffy, 2000). As the movement from a ‘traditional’ to a ‘progressive’ view advanced internationally, the focus shifted from the subject discipline to the learner, from education narrowly defined in terms of content to education more broadly defined, especially in terms of learning processes, from formal to less formal approaches to schooling, and from educational policies designed to preserve each nation’s cultural heritage to those designed to transform it (Owens, 2001).

The change in perspective from a traditional to a progressive educational paradigm fundamentally influenced teachers’ concepts of learning and teaching everywhere. Simons, Linden and Duffy (2000) explain that there have been at least three significant ways in which classroom teachers have
been influenced by the growth in attention to new ways of learning and new learning outcomes:

- There has much more attention given to the role of active, independent, and self-directed learning than before. This change has grown from the increased recognition of the importance of the need for life-long learning and what are now called “learning organizations” as a result of rapidly changing societies and economies.

- There has been a much greater emphasis on the combination of active learning, so-called 'learning to learn', and collaborative learning, than ever before.

- There has been a growth of research on constructivist learning and empirical studies on active learning which provide a clear foundation for instruction, and which teachers need to understand if they are to change their practice effectively (Simons, Linden & Duffy, 2000: vii).

The impact of this change means that teaching in every subject area is now aimed at fostering student learning processes which are characterised by active knowledge construction. The need for students to focus on this process of personal meaning-making and to be self-directed has demanded teaching theories and instructional design models which are specifically aimed at promoting learning-to-learn processes in students. The shift from the traditional view of the teacher as a transmitter of knowledge to a facilitator of learning puts a great demand on teachers. They have to know the content of their subject discipline as before, but the way it is to be organised and delivered to students can no longer be taken for granted or dictated by a narrow syllabus; they must have a clear understanding of the new pedagogy to develop what is effectively their own curriculum. They have to become comfortable with an instructional model in which learners are taught to employ suitable learning and thinking activities to construct and utilize their own knowledge.
The new learning and teaching approach, which aims at encouraging and developing students' learning skills, is also known as 'process-oriented teaching'. The main principle of process-oriented teaching is to focus on the process of learning and thinking activities and to take into account students' individual learning orientations (Simons, et al., 2000). Pratt and Associates (1998) explain that learners use what they already know to filter and interpret new information rather than reproduce their teachers' understanding. Chute, Thomson and Hancock (1999) describe the five significant characteristics of this teaching-learning approach as learning facilitation, team learning, student as collaborator, instructor as guide and dynamic content (p.206). In the shift towards this new concept of learning, the teacher becomes a facilitator of student knowledge construction and utilisation rather than as someone who transfers pre-determined knowledge directly to the students. As a direct consequence, teachers need to change their teaching approach from teacher-directed instruction to student-centred learning facilitation. In the latter approach, students are typically engaged in discussion, reflection and problem-solving – active learning rather than passive reception of information (Williamson, 1996). The main tasks of the teachers in this approach are to initiate and support the thinking activities that students employ in their learning. The key element in such teaching-learning is a collaborative effort between teachers and students which allows students to become involved in decision-making both about the content of the curriculum and about how it is taught.

2.2.2 A learner-centred approach and CLT

The view that knowledge is individual, and in the classroom is socially constructed rather than merely transmitted from a teacher to students as traditional pedagogy had assumed, has had as significant an influence on language teaching as it has on other areas of the curriculum. The beliefs and attitudes of the learner-centred curriculum movement have had a particularly strong impact on English teaching and learning, first in ESL
programmes based in English-speaking countries, then on EFL throughout the world. Nunan (1989) suggested that a language programme based on this new approach should have twin goals: one is the development of language skills and the other is the development of learning skills, the skills in learning how to learn (p.187). Similarly, Richards (1984) has suggested that this new kind of teaching model should consist of three dimensions:

- a linguistic dimension which justifies what language aspects will be taught,
- a psycholinguistic dimension which includes an account of the processes underlying learning, and
- a teaching dimension which relates to learning experience activities and tasks, and to the role of teachers, learners and materials in the learning system (p.7-23).

There are a number of aspects of the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach which reflect a learner-centred view of language teaching. CLT starts with a theory of language as communication, and sets itself the goal to develop learners' communicative competence to carry out real-world tasks (Quinn, 1984; Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Nunan, 1988; Savingnon, 1991). The link between the CLT approach and learner-centredness is emphasised by Nunan (1988) in the following way:

A major impetus to the development of learner-centred language teaching came with the advent of communicative language teaching...The strong version of communicative language teaching sees language ability as being developed through activities which actually simulate target performance. In other words, class time should be spent not on language drills or controlled practice, but in activities which require learners to do in class what they will have to do outside (Nunan, 1988: 24-26).

The purpose of CLT is to develop learners' communication skills, rather than their knowledge of the structure of the language. Much of this change in emphasis came from first-language acquisition studies in which infants' learning was traced to personal and internal construction of grammar as
opposed to adult teaching of these extremely abstract ‘rules’ (see for example, Krashen, 1982; Ellis, 1988; Lighbown and Spada, 1993). In the CLT approach, as in the teaching-learning of a first language, the focus is on the development of language fluency, meaningfulness and appropriateness of utterance. According to Nunan (1988), a basic principle underlying the CLT approach is that learners must learn eventually not only to make grammatically correct utterances, but must also develop the ability to use language to get things done (p.25). Richards and Rogers (1986) explain that the primary function of CLT is to promote language for interaction and interpersonal communication (p.71).

Previous research studies (such as those of Krashen, 1982; Ellis, 1988; Lighbown and Spada, 1993) have indicated that comprehensible input takes a major role in language acquisition. Learners need meaningful and comprehensible exposure to master their new language skills. In this sense, classrooms should provide the learners with situations that expose them to sources of comprehensible input. In the classroom, teachers should provide freer, more open-ended activities (with more than one possible solution) that allow students to experiment with language to develop their communicative language skills. Learners need opportunities to practise language with one another. Classroom activities should allow students to use natural and meaningful language with their classmates. As students engage in such exchanges, they receive additional comprehensible input which further assists their language acquisition (Long & Porter, 1985; Doughty & Pica, 1986; Ellis, 1990).

In the CLT approach, learning activities require a high degree of learner participation in order for them to practise and develop their learning skills through meaningful activities. The extensive range of classroom activities compatible with communicative language learning is designed to provide learners with opportunities to attain communicative objectives, engage learners in communication, and require the use of such communicative
processes as information sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction. Classroom activities are often designed to focus on completing tasks that are mediated through language or involve negotiation of information and information sharing (Richards & Rodgers, 1986: 76). Richards and Rodgers also explain that communicative activities in groups will provide learners with opportunities to practise strategies for opening, developing, and terminating conversational encounters, develop meanings collaboratively and practise use of conversational routines and expressions. These communicative activities also involve learners in different kinds of roles, necessitating use of different styles of speaking to complete tasks (Richards, 1985, cited in Nunan, 1988: 87).

The role of the teacher in the CLT approach requires a view of the teacher as a learning facilitator, rather than as a person who controls students. The teacher’s task includes providing comprehensible input and information and a limited number of controlled exercises, so that students gain the confidence to interact with each other by using language for natural communicative functions. The role of the teacher is also to provide meaningful feedback to students on how they have performed the communicative activities and to provide suggestions for improvement. It is suggested to CLT teachers that feedback should first focus on how well the students did on the communicative aspects of the task and only later on the form used by the students (Brumfit, 1984; Nunan, 1991; Savignon, 1991).

The teacher is also expected to be a needs analyst, counsellor and group process manager. As a needs analyst, the teacher is expected to determine learners’ needs based in their individual learning styles, learning assets and learning goals. On the basis of such needs assessments, teachers are expected to plan group and individual instruction that responds to these needs. As a counsellor, the teacher is expected to exemplify an effective communicator in seeking to maximise the meshing of speaker intention and hearer interpretation through the use of paraphrase, confirmation, and feedback. As a group process manager, the teacher is expected to organise
a classroom as a setting for communicative activities (Richards & Rodgers, 1986: 78).

Breen and Candlin (1980) describe the roles of a teacher in CLT as including communicative facilitator, independent participant, organiser of resources, researcher and learner:

The teacher has two main roles: the first role is to facilitate the communication process between all participations in the classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group. The latter role is closely related to the objectives of the first role and arises from it. These roles imply a set of secondary roles for the teacher; first, as an organiser of resources and as a resource himself, second as a guide within the classroom procedures and activities ... a third role for the teacher is that of researcher and learner, with much to contribute in terms of appropriate knowledge and abilities, actual and observed experience of the nature of learning and organisational capacities (Breen & Candlin, 1980, cited in Richards & Rodgers 1986: 77).

The complementary role of the learner is to participate actively in communication processes, and to do so cooperatively under the guidance and stimulus of the teacher. In the CLT approach, students are expected to take the opportunities that classroom activities provide to develop their language skills – and their learning skills. Students need to learn what uses of language are effective and culturally appropriate in natural discourse. As a result, errors become a natural part of learning. They serve as a valuable indication to the teacher of the personally-constructed theories about the target language that learners have. They can be detected and corrected early before students move into the practice of new language constructions. Supervised by their teachers, students can practise with one another and detect and correct each other’s errors. It is important that in CLT learners are expected to interact primarily with each other rather than with the teacher. The emphasis in CLT is on promoting processes of communication, and these in turn lead to different roles for learners in the
classroom. The role of learners in CLT can also be described as one of 'negotiator', where each student tentatively, through inner debate and external discussion with peers, finds personal meaning in the new language information that is provided by participating in classroom activities. The negotiation – between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning – emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures which the group undertakes. The implication for learners is that they should contribute as much as they gain, and thereby learn in an interdependent way (Breen & Candlin, 1980).

The purpose of using materials in CLT is to support student learning. The role of materials is also to foster the development of independent learning. Richards and Rodgers (1986) described the materials used for supporting student learning in the CLT as falling into three categories: text-based, task-based and realia (taken from everyday life). The text-based materials are textbooks and other published resources designed specifically to direct and support CLT; the examples they give include Marrow and Johnson's *Communicative Activities* (1979), Watcyn-Jones's *Pair Work* (1981), and the Malaysian English Language Syllabus support materials (1975). The task-based materials are a variety of games, role-plays, simulations and task-based communication activities which invite student participation through communication. And the realia represent the use of 'authentic' materials in the classroom, written texts like current English-language newspapers and magazines, and spoken and visual texts such as advertisements or current affairs programmes recorded from American television. Nunan (1988) also emphasises that the role of materials which support CLT should assist learners to make a link between what they learn in the classroom and what they will do outside the classroom. In addition, these resources should foster independent learning by raising the interest of the learners and making them more aware of the learning process. The materials should also have a degree of authenticity, and should be composed
of a range of materials which can be used in a variety of ways at different proficiency levels, rather than be a comprehensive published package which programmes learning in only one way (Nunan, 1988: 99).

The aim of assessment in CLT is to foster learning, rather than merely measure achievement. The focus is on language proficiency broadly, rather than just on accuracy in grammar or number of vocabulary items correctly memorised. The discussion about what constitutes ‘proficiency’ is continuing, however Nunan’s definition refers to the ability to perform an increasing range of communicative tasks with a growing degree of skill. Degree of skill will be determined by mastery of a complex set of enabling skills which will include syntax and morphology, fluency, socio-cultural knowledge, phonology, and discourse (Nunan, 1988: 127). In CLT, it is claimed that learners’ self-assessment is an important supplement to teacher assessment and that self-assessment provides one of the most effective means of developing both critical self-awareness of what it is to be a learner, and skills in leaning how to learn (Nunan, 1988: 116).

Table 2.1 below compares a traditional teaching approach and CLT adapted from Quinn (1984).

Table 2.1: A comparison between traditional teaching approach and CLT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Traditional approach</th>
<th>Communicative Language Teaching approach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Objective</td>
<td>Focus is on the language as a structured system of grammatical patterns</td>
<td>Focus is on communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Content selection</td>
<td>Based on linguistic criteria alone</td>
<td>Based on the basis of what the learner needs to know to get things done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Content sequence</td>
<td>Determined on</td>
<td>Determined on other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.1 below compares a traditional teaching approach and CLT adapted from Quinn (1984).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4. Degree of coverage</th>
<th>The aim is to cover the ‘whole picture’ of language structure by systematic linear progression</th>
<th>The aim is to cover, in any particular phase, only what the learner needs and sees as important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. View of language</td>
<td>A language is seen as a unified entity with fixed grammatical patterns and a core of basic words</td>
<td>The variety of language is accepted, and seen as determined by the character of particular communicative contexts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Types of language used</td>
<td>Tends to be formal and bookish</td>
<td>Genuine everyday language is emphasised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Criteria of success</td>
<td>Aim to have students produce formally correct sentences</td>
<td>Aim is to have students communicate effectively and in a manner appropriate to the context they are working on.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Language skills emphasis</td>
<td>Reading and writing</td>
<td>Spoken interaction are regarded as at least as important as reading and writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Teacher/student role</td>
<td>Tends to be teacher-centred</td>
<td>Is student-centred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Attitude to errors</td>
<td>Incorrect utterances are seen as deviations from the norms of standard grammar</td>
<td>Partially correct and incomplete utterances are seen as such rather than just ‘wrong’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Similarity/Dissimilarity to natural language learning</td>
<td>Reverses the natural language learning process by concentrating on the form of utterances rather than on the content</td>
<td>Resembles the natural learning process in that the content of the utterance is emphasised rather than the form</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Quinn (1984: 61-64).
2.2.3 Task-based learning and CLT

Definitions of task-based learning have been debated and discussed widely. For example, Long (1985), Richards (1985), Breen (1984), Prabhu (1987), Candlin & Murphy (1987), and Willis (1996) have debated the issue. Despite the differences in their definitions of 'task', there were a few common characteristics: those tasks are concerned with communicative language, and that they consist of some input data and one or more related activities or procedures. Nunan (1989: 59) argued that tasks are undertakings in which learners comprehend, produce and interact in the target language in contexts which are focused on meaning rather than form. The definition of task provided by Willis emphasised not meaning, context or form, but process and result: 'By a task I mean an activity which involves the use of language but in which the focus is on the outcome of the activity rather than on the language used to achieve that outcome' (Willis, 1996:23).

A task-based learning (TBL) methodology in language teaching has been recognised by a number of researchers in recent years as useful in facilitating a CLT classroom approach (Prabhu, 1987; Nunan, 1989; Long and Crookes, 1992; Gass and Crookes, 1993; Willis, 1996). This methodology provides explicit means of introducing a language teaching approach which develops a learner's communicative competence. TBL is based on employing naturalistic language in the classroom from which learners, through use, develop a personal system of working language 'rules'. Each student, through engagement in tasks that are new to him or her, tries to 'fill the gap' that the set activity requires. To do this the student has to take detailed notice of the material and task provided, then make judgments about what is required, then make hypotheses about the language which is needed to complete the task, and finally pay attention to the feedback on whether the task has been successfully completed. Often these tasks will allow for discussion and debate about different ideas raised within a group. Inevitably, however, even though students are involved in
collaborative work and joint tasks, learners will develop along individual pathways, since it is their personal language systems that are being developed. Language learning is a developmental process that follows its own internal agenda. Errors are not necessarily the result of bad learning, but are part of a natural process of acquiring 'interlanguage' forms, staging points in gradually gaining proficiency in a new language (Ellis, 1994). The development of TBL aims to respond to this revised view of errors in language learning by giving learners tasks to transact, rather than items to learn. In this way, it provides an environment which best promotes the natural language learning process that is most clearly seen in the child's mastery of its mother tongue. By engaging in meaningful activities such as problem-solving, the learner's interlanguage system can be moved stepwise towards that of the target language.

Unlike traditional methods of instruction employed within a predetermined content-based syllabus, the TBL approach is considered to fit a 'Type B' syllabus (Long & Crookes, 1993). It focuses on how language is to be learned, and it allows objectives to be determined through a process of negotiation between teacher and learners as joint decision-makers. It emphasises the process of learning rather than the subject matter, and it assesses accomplishment in relationship to the learners' criteria for success.

A basic principle underlying CLT is that the learner develops the ability to use language for communicative purposes. This language teaching approach views language ability as being developed through activities which actually simulate target performance (Nunan, 1988). For this reason, teachers need to find ways to create classroom interaction so as to maximise opportunities for learners to use and practise their language skills. This requires teachers to become facilitators of learning by providing opportunities for learners' interaction. TBL helps to remove teachers from a situation where they dominate the classroom by providing the learners themselves with the chance to open and close conversations, for example, or
collaborative work and joint tasks, learners will develop along individual pathways, since it is their personal language systems that are being developed. Language learning is a developmental process that follows its own internal agenda. Errors are not necessarily the result of bad learning, but are part of a natural process of acquiring ‘interlanguage’ forms, staging points in gradually gaining proficiency in a new language (Ellis, 1994). The development of TBL aims to respond to this revised view of errors in language learning by giving learners tasks to transact, rather than items to learn. In this way, it provides an environment which best promotes the natural language learning process that is most clearly seen in the child’s mastery of its mother tongue. By engaging in meaningful activities such as problem-solving, the learner’s interlanguage system can be moved stepwise towards that of the target language.

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to ask their friends to do things to complete tasks. TBL also helps teachers to maximise opportunities for learners to put their limited language to authentic use and to create more effective learning situations. In addition, TBL provides an environment which best promotes the natural language learning process by engaging in meaningful activities such as problem-solving, information-gap activities or discussions; learners are focused more closely on the comprehensibility of the language that they and their conversational partners are using. The outcome of these interactions leads to the learners developing their communication skills (Willis, 1996).

Candlin and Murphy (1987) analysed tasks based on an essentially data-free account of task properties, the different patterns of language activity they give rise to. Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) analysed tasks in terms of interactional patterns and requirements (i.e. how involved each participant needs to be). Some researchers, however, have been more specific in their analysis of tasks, such as Prabhu (1987) who used reasoning-gap tasks, Duff (1986) who analysed tasks as divergent and convergent tasks, and Berwick (1993) who identified tasks as having two dimensions; experiential-expository, and didactive-collaborative. Nunan (1993) described the task as the data that learners have to work on. They may be linguistic (e.g. a radio broadcast), non-linguistic (e.g., a set of photographs), or a 'hybrid' (e.g. a road map). In addition, Nunan described the task as incorporating three further components: the goals (of the task), the roles of the teacher and learner, and the setting (Nunan, 1993: 55).

All tasks have a specified objective that must be achieved; they require what is called 'goal-oriented learning'. This encourages learners to use language in a meaningful way in order to complete the task. Language, then, is the means for attaining task goals, but the emphasis is on meaning and communication, not on producing language forms correctly. The important role of the teachers in TBL is to select topics and design tasks that will motivate learners, engage their attention, present a suitable degree of
linguistic challenge and promote their language development as efficiently as possible (Willis, 1996). In general, tasks are often identified as being of two main types: closed and open. Closed tasks are ones that are highly structured and have very specific goals. There is only one possible outcome, and one way of achieving it (e.g. a task comparing two pictures to determine their differences). On the other hand, open tasks are ones that are more loosely structured, with less specific goals. Closed tasks are recognised as providing good ways of encouraging students to interact in the target language. The more specific the goals, the easier it is for students to perform the task and the more likely they are to get involved with the task and to work independently. It is often the outcome that provides the motivation to engage in the task, which becomes seen by the students as a learning opportunity.

With regard to distinguishing task types not necessarily based on their being open or closed, Willis (1996) proposed six different types of tasks which show different outcomes in terms of language use:

- **Listing**: These tasks emphasise fact-finding, in which learners find things out by asking each other or other persons. The outcome would be a completed list, or possibly a draft mind map.

- **Ordering and sorting**: These tasks involve four main processes: (i) sequencing items, actions or events in a logical or chronological order (ii) ranking items according to personal values or specified criteria (iii) categorising items in given groups or grouping them under given heading, and (iv) classifying items in different ways, where the categories themselves are not given.

- **Comparing**: These tasks involve comparing pieces of information of a similar nature but from different sources or versions in order to identify common points and/or differences. The process involves matching to identify specific points and relating them to each other, finding similarities and things in common, and finding differences.
Problem solving: Problem-solving tasks make demands upon people's intellectual and reasoning powers, and, though challenging, they are engaging and often satisfying to solve. The process and time scale will vary depending on the type and complexity of the problem. Problem solving can involve real-life problems, expressing hypotheses, describing experiences, comparing alternatives and evaluating and agreeing on a solution. Completion tasks are often based on short extracts from texts, where the learners predict the ending or piece together clues to guess it. The classification ends with case studies, which are more complex, entail an in-depth consideration of many criteria, and often involve additional fact-finding and investigating.

Sharing personal experiences: These tasks encourage learners to talk more freely about themselves and share their experiences with others. The resulting interaction is closer to casual social conversation in that it is not so directly goal-oriented as other tasks.

Creative tasks: These are often called projects and involved pairs or groups of learners in some kind of freer creative work which involve combinations of task types: listing, ordering and sorting, comparing and problem solving.

All six of Willis' tasks can be open-ended in that they allow for individual solutions to the task to be different and still acceptable, but the first three are towards the closed end of the continuum. The last two are usually employed for much freer discussion and writing based on individual perceptions, beliefs and experiences.

The results of task-based learning in promoting communicative language teaching has been examined in a number of studies (Breen & Candlin, 1980; Long, 1985; Prabhu, 1987; Beretta, 1990; Long and Crookes, 1993). In these studies, it is concluded that there are three different types of task-based approach or syllabus. The first is exemplified by the Bangalore Project which was conducted from 1979 to 1984. The Bangalore Project considered the tasks as forming a 'procedural syllabus' which was based on
the concept that language form can be learnt in the classroom entirely through a focus on meaning, and that grammar construction by the learner is an unconscious process (Beretta, 1990). This type of task syllabus is founded on a belief that students need opportunities to develop their comprehension abilities through the operation of some internal system when the learner's attention is focused on meaning (i.e. task-completion), not language (Prabhu, 1987: 70). According to Prabhu, the definition of task refers to 'an activity which requires learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allows teachers to control and regulate that process' (Prabhu, 1987: 24).

A second type of task-based approach is called a 'process syllabus' and focuses on the preferences of the learner and learning process, not on the language and language learning process (Breen & Candlin, 1980). Both Breen and Candlin claim that learning should be the product of negotiation, and that it is the negotiation process that drives the learning of language. The process syllabus, as described by Breen (1984), involves specifying sets of options at four levels: (i) making general decisions about classroom language learning (ii) alternative procedures for making those decisions (iii) alternative activities, and (iv) alternative tasks. Breen defines task as:

any structured language learning endeavour which has particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task. 'Task' is therefore assumed to refer to a range of workplans which have the overall purpose of facilitating language learning – from the simple and brief exercise type, to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem-solving or simulations and decision making (Breen, 1987: 23).

The third type of TBL teaching follows the concept of how formal instruction may help students to learn the target language. This type of syllabus is based on how instructed learners can come to outperform naturalistic learners. In this approach systematic use is made of pedagogical tasks which draw students' attention to certain aspects of the target language code. Based on the belief of the advantage of such a strategy,
Long and Crookes (1993) adopted task as the unit of analysis in an attempt to provide ‘an integrated, internally coherent approach’. The definition of task used by Long and Crookes emphasised aspects of task completion that are part of every-day life:

- a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form, buying a pair of shoes, making an airline reservation, borrowing a library book, taking a driving test, typing a letter, weighing a patient, sorting letters, taking a hotel reservation, writing a check, finding a street destination, and helping someone across the road. In other words, by task is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between. Tasks are the things people will tell you to do if you ask them and they are not applied linguists (Long and Crookes, 1993:39).

The variety in approaches taken by Beretta and Prabhu, Breen and Candlin, Long and Crookes, and many others, all under the general description of TBL, show how remarkably diverse and flexible the general approach can be. As support for diverse types of teaching – and within the ambit of CLT in the language-learning field – it holds great promise.

Attempting to implement the CLT approach in EFL contexts in many non-English speaking countries in Asia has been shown by many studies to be difficult and have a low rate of success (Sano et al., 1984; Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Ellis, 1994; Shamin, 1996; Li, 1998). In China, for example, Burnaby and Sun (1989) listed various constraints in implementing CLT reported by teachers. These difficulties included the context of the wider curriculum, traditional teaching methods, class sizes and schedules, resources and equipment and availability of qualified teachers. The study also claimed that the sociolinguistic and strategic competence of teachers limited the use of this approach effectively. In South Korea, Li (1998) studied a group of South Korean secondary school teachers’ perceived difficulties in adopting CLT. This study showed that teachers encountered
four major difficulties (involving the teachers' perceptions and skills, the students, the educational system and the communicative approach itself) in implementing this approach in their classroom. The teachers' difficulties concerned their limitations in command of spoken English, their deficiency in strategic and sociolinguistic competence, their lack of training in CLT, their misconceptions about CLT, and the time limitations for preparing materials for communicative classes. The students' difficulties concerned their low English proficiency, their lack of motivation, and their resistance to class participation. The educational system difficulties included large classes, grammar-based examinations and lack of funding support. The CLT difficulties included the inadequacy of its adaptation to EFL teaching in Korea as yet, and the lack of effective and efficient assessment instruments.

Studies of difficulties in adopting CLT have been conducted in a number of other Asian countries over the last twenty years, and these show a similar set of problems to the two mentioned above. Sano, Takahashi and Yoneyama (1984) found that Japanese students felt that communicative competence seemed too distant to them and they did not feel a need to use English in their everyday life. In Vietnam, Ellis (1994) identified that the main difficulties in implementing CLT were class sizes, grammar-based examinations and lack of opportunities to use English communicatively. A study conducted by Shamin (1996) in Pakistan showed learner resistance, among other problems, being a barrier to her attempt to introduce innovative CLT in her EFL classroom.

Although the difficulty of employing a communicative approach is manifest in many contexts, and seems particularly challenging in cultures where traditional, teacher-centred instructional approaches are most firmly established, CLT is still considered currently within the international educational community to be the best way to develop learners' language competence. In terms of the theory of pedagogy the advantage of changing
to CLT seems clear. The central problem appears to be to find ways to adapt CLT to teaching contexts that have resisted its adoption.

Evidence of the positive impact on language teaching that TBL has had in developing students' communicative language skills has been reported in a number of studies conducted in Asian countries. For example, in 1994 TBL was introduced into English teaching in primary schools in Hong Kong. It was reported that the students participated more actively and enthusiastically in their own learning when TBL was introduced (Morris, 1994). Teachers in the Morris study reported changes in their teaching through employing TBL such as the increased use of incidental, whole-class discussions and other forms of interaction, rather than using formal, set-piece listening and speaking activities provided in the textbook resources. The study showed that the teacher-pupil relationship improved as a result of this increased interaction. The teachers in the study reported that pupils were being encouraged to think rather than be passive.

Another study concerning the implementation of TBL was conducted in Malaysia in 1989 and 1990 with twenty teachers working in secondary schools in both rural and urban areas. This study aimed to evaluate language learning tasks introduced to those teachers in their classes by examining task aims, content, materials, management and classroom atmosphere. The study also investigated the teachers' responses to implementation difficulties (Murphy, 1993). Its findings indicate that students' receptivity to tasks, their openness rather than defensiveness to teacher innovation, was the most significant element in the success of TBL. If tasks were matched to students and classroom context in terms of difficulty, stimulation, perceived relevance and helpfulness to learning, they were thought to be valuable. Murphy noted some resistance from students to innovation (especially to their teachers seeking to negotiate components of the curriculum), and suggested that earlier and extended briefing of teachers and students alike in undertaking innovation would help to
overcome this problem. The general perception of the potential of TBL was very positive (1993: 145-158).

The application of TBL methods to language teaching internationally has shown that this approach can significantly increase learner awareness of the target language and improve fluency in its use, as well as providing opportunities for meaning-focused comprehension and production of the target language (Prabhu, 1987; Long & Crookes, 1993). It can serve as the basis for a tight and more focused practical syllabus (Willis, 1996). Additionally, TBL can be employed to teach a restricted range of communication skills in a way that is suitable for young students at an early stage in their second-language learning education (Morris, 1994). The Thai Ministry of Education has indicated its interest in TBL to improve students' English language communication skills (MoE, 1997: 17), although the evidence for its likely success within the country had not yet been gathered. Unlike Hong Kong or Malaysia that have had long-standing British influence on their education systems and pedagogical traditions, and where the conditions for introducing task-based methods could be expected to be favourable, Thailand's English-language teaching traditions have grown out of a non-colonial context of diplomatic and economic exchange. However, with the National Education Act's reform agenda driving change towards learner-centred curricula, there is a climate of interest and anticipation that such an approach to EFL could prove effective. From the literature it would appear that a proposal to trial this new approach to implementing CLT would be particularly opportune.

**Summary**

This chapter has described the theoretical concepts related to managing a significant curriculum change of the kind EFL teachers confront in attempting to change their thinking and teaching behaviours currently in Thailand. It has considered research studies concerned primarily with the
process of change and the major factors affecting the success of efforts to implement change. More specifically, this literature review provides theoretical frameworks related to changes in the curriculum and how the curriculum mandated by the Thai National Education Act of 1999 might be implemented successfully in classrooms.

The proposed systemic reform requires teachers to change their role from being one of dominating the classroom to becoming a facilitator in a learner-centred classroom. Top-down innovation has previously proven difficult in many educational contexts, and Thai teachers would appear to be no different in this respect from their colleagues internationally. However, a coaching approach has elsewhere been found to be an effective means of assisting a smooth and successful implementation of new curricula. The chapter provides a detailed account of the coaching approach and how it can be used in teacher professional development.

The final section of the chapter reviews the trend towards progressive education, focusing on active learning and learner-centred curricula. This section of the chapter describes the link between these new learning trends and communicative language teaching in EFL. It reviews the advantage of using TBL methods as a means of promoting a greater use of CLT. In doing so it examines several research studies related to this specific language teaching approach, and considers their significance in the light of Thailand's need for a new approach to introduce CLT in EFL classrooms.
CHAPTER 3

THE DEVELOPMENT AND DESIGN OF THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

Introduction

Few of the numerous studies of innovation in the field of education report on innovations that have been successful. After an extensive study of educational change programmes, Parish and Arrends (1983) conclude that educational innovations had approximately a twenty per cent success rate. This is not surprising when we consider the complex nature of innovation. Not only do we need to consider the forces operating both outside and within the organisation implementing change, but also the situations of those who are most affected by the change. More recently, the management of change has become the focus for researchers interested in curriculum implementation. There is now an increasing body of knowledge and expertise about the change process itself (Bottomley, Dalton, Corbel and Brindley, 1994: 1).

There are many studies which show that professional development programmes often fail to assist teachers to bring about changes in their practice which will create innovative classrooms. Simons, Linden and Duffy (2000) demonstrate in their study that many teachers fail to adopt innovation because of mismatches between the proposed changes and their beliefs, understandings and commitment to established routines.

Teachers usually believe they are doing a good job in the current context and that only proposed changes will threaten their professionalism and the quality of their work. Other factors which contribute to low rates of success are often reported in a range of cultural contexts where teachers feel insecure and lack the confidence to change, due to a lack of practical support in the classroom (Marris, 1975; Berman & McLaughlin, 1977; Parish & Arrends, 1983; Fullan, 1992; Galton & Williamson, 1992; Williamson, 1996).

As described by Fullan (1992), the implementation of curriculum change is about translating an idea into practice in the classroom. Significant changes are those that address current needs and trends, these must fit well with the
teacher's situation, they will be focussed and include practical procedures which will contribute to the successful implementation of change. The principles advocated here include clarity and need. Workability is an important element of implementation that assists in determining the innovation's relevance for individuals. The importance of an implementation plan is seen by White (1988) as one that allows for careful monitoring of the process and is one which is flexible enough to respond quickly to issues as they arise. Fullan (1992) proposes a plan which is not only flexible and adaptable, but which encourages people to take risks and learn by their actions.

The Thai National Education Act of 1999 provided impetus for schools throughout the nation to become involved in a raft of educational innovations. Among these innovations were such far-reaching and fundamental changes as school-based management, parental involvement in school decision making, a change in the pedagogical approach from teacher-centred to student-centred learning, and the introduction of information technology for learning support.

Thai teachers were expected to carry out government policies as directed. The changes flowing from these policies posed immediate demands on teachers. They were required to change their traditional concept of their role, to perform in new ways, and to acquire a new range of skills in their workplace. The long-established climate of centralised and hierarchical decision-making in the Thai education system has created a culture of dependency in schools (Hallinger, 2000). A basic element here is that teachers do not believe for the most part that they can initiate change. This may explain why significant school-based change has not taken place to date, as Hallinger (2000) argues in his paper on 'The Changing context of Thai Education: New Challenges for School Leaders' (p.1-13).

Thailand, like countries elsewhere, has adopted a professional development programme model as the main means of preparing schools and teachers to introduce educational change. The typical and traditional Thai means of
providing teacher professional development is through in-service training programmes or workshops. However, this traditional PDP approach has been questioned recently regarding its practical outcomes, as teachers usually fail to apply the new skills in their classrooms.

Section 1 of this chapter summarises the relevant research (see Chapter 2) which identifies the factors crucial to the successful implementation of professional development programmes. Section 2 describes the conceptual framework underpinning the development of the PDP designed for this study.

Section 1: Theoretical background to the development of the PDP

Curriculum change and the implementation of such change is always a great challenge to teachers, especially to an experienced teacher workforce which is usually doing a very good job under the current curriculum organisation. Any curriculum change must be accompanied by relevant professional development programmes. This section will argue that such programmes have certain well-researched features which contribute to their success in the implementation of curriculum change.

3.1 Key features for successful professional development

The success of an innovation and its implementation requires the application of a number of key features as indicated in the previous chapter. The literature review refers to these imperatives (Marsh, 1988; Wilson & Corcoran, 1988; Louis & Miles, 1990; Fullan, 1992; Markee, 1997; Williamson & Cowley, 1995). Research on successful professional development programmes has indicated three key elements which contribute to the success of the programmes. These include a clearly stated educational rationale for the change, a process of coaching of teachers involved in the change and a direct link to the particular curriculum change. In this case the curriculum change is the introduction of communicative language teaching (CLT).
3.1.1 Educational change

Fullan (1992) has revealed six features of effective professional development. These features should be incorporated into the design of an effective Professional Development Program. The six features are:

1. Perceived Need
2. Clarity
3. Complexity
4. Workability
5. Implementation Support
6. Advocacy

In detail, each of these features contributes to the effectiveness of the Professional Development Plan as indicated below:

1. **Perceived Need**

Perception of a particular need for innovation is an influential factor in the success of any innovation. Fullan describes the need for change as being either internal or external, or a combination of both of these factors. External need for change can come from such influences as economic, social and political change. In applying this principle to Thailand for example, the consequences of the far-reaching changes in the economy following the 1997 economic downturn created imperatives for change to the education system. Many of the causes of the economic problems which beset the nation were external. At the same time it is possible to state that internal factors are also pushing educational change in the nation. People are not satisfied with the current situation in regard to the school curriculum (Fullan, 1992: 69). In Thailand educators are seeking new ways to introduce innovative language teaching methods into the school system. The introduction of a radical change in the language teaching provides an example of an internal need for change.

**Implications for PDP**
Many official government documents and policies provide the motivation for the concept to be built into the PDP. In the case of Thailand, the Office of the National Education Commission provides the impetus for curriculum change with its ‘big picture’ view of educational reform in the nation. The Office of the National Education Commission represents the official government policy on reform. Other influences come from senior educators and media reports on the nation’s education system. In Thailand, these factors created a climate of acceptance of the need for curriculum change and were reinforced by the widespread belief in the community that change is needed in the education system.

2. Clarity

Successful curriculum implementation requires the participants to have a clear understanding of the issues involved in the innovation in order to assist in determining its relevance of the innovation, according to Fullan (1992).

The second of Fullan’s principles, clarity, relates to changes in pedagogy. It also relates to the relationship between teacher and learner, as well as the practical role played by materials used in teaching and of the assessment processes used to determine learning outcomes. Teachers must therefore be well aware of the reasons for the curriculum change – without this they are unable to authentically satisfy the requirements of this principle. If, for example, the curriculum change requires student centred learning activities such as group work, or individual exhibitions, and the teacher has no fundamental belief or knowledge of such pedagogies or assessment methods, these teaching and learning processes will be challenged by teachers. Where these challenges occur without the clarity suggested by Fullan, they have the potential to inhibit curriculum change.
Implications for PDP

The thoughtful introduction of curriculum change will provide a number of strategies which will enable the clarity concept to be built into the Professional Development Plan. Some of these strategies could include:

- The provision of the reasons for change provided through seminars for leaders and middle managers
- Intensive training workshops for teachers, particularly those who will be most directly affected by the change – such workshops should be well planned and as well as providing direction for change they must acknowledge the work of teachers as they work in the current paradigm.
- Practical exercises such as:
  - videotaping various teachers’ lessons in order to evaluate their present classroom practice and to provide a foundation for discussion of changes in pedagogy,
  - using a classroom observation checklist for feedback,
  - professional discussions among collegial groups of supervisors and teachers,
  - demonstration and modelling the new teaching methods under simulated conditions.

3. Complexity

As change is not a predictable process, it requires the people involved to understand that it is complicated, and to be prepared to modify their thinking and practice to suit specific, and changing, circumstances (Fullan, 1992).

The involvement of teachers in the development of flexible plans for implementation of the change is crucial to the success of these plans. The work of Berman & McLaughlin (1976) and White (1988) emphasise the critical importance of involving teachers in decision making at all stages of the implementation of curriculum change. Such involvement develops commitment to change as well as ownership of the new directions that are being sought.
Implications for PDP

The complexity principle emphasises the importance of ensuring that teachers are involved in every stage of the development of the PDP with the knowledge that a wide range of processes is included in the plan. The PDP takes account of Fullan’s principle of complexity in a variety of ways. For example:

- The plan is adaptable and flexible so that it takes account of the particular capabilities of the individual teacher. The plan is open for each teacher to make their own decision as to what they would like to do in response to their students’ needs and how they would like to do it.

- The use of coaching in aspects of the new curriculum requirements is deemed appropriate as it provides a monitoring and support role to supervisors.

4. Workability

The fourth principle described by Fullan is “workability”. He regards this as an attribute of changes ‘that fit in well with the teacher’s situation, that are focused and include how-to-do-it possibilities’ (1992: 72). Fullan’s concept of workability is about the management aspects of change which are concerned with such things as planning, the human and physical resources, and practices used when individuals are involved in change. The success of the innovation is related directly to these elements. It is therefore extremely important that these practical considerations are taken into account in the context of the proposed change.

Implications for PDP

A variety of approaches can be used to develop and implement this concept in the PDP. It is well acknowledged that teacher talk is critical in the implementation of change – in this case, the consideration of the specific needs and expectations of teachers in a school can be developed through
professional discussions and meeting time should be made available to allow for this discussion.

Another useful approach is to provide the opportunity to draw on the professional skills of teachers in providing their experience as input into practical suggestions for change in the various aspects of curriculum change canvassed above.

The senior staff of the school can encourage openness in a range of group processes including peer appraisal and collegial reflection on various aspects of practice.

In specific contexts – such as the Thai situation – the school can take account of the constraints which may arise due to the context, especially those which may arise due to the radical nature of the CLT in traditional classrooms.

5. Implementation support

Any change in professional practice brings with it certain inherent emotional responses which can be anticipated in any change process. Among these are grief, anger, insecurity and relief. Teachers who are doing a good job in the teaching and learning process and who are regarded as being successful in their profession may react with anger or grief in their interpretation of curriculum change. They need time to assimilate the rationale for change, they need support in the period of change and they need to know that the changes are not due to any deficiencies real or perceived on their part. The role of the teacher in a time of great change can be isolating. This fifth principle enunciated by Fullan relates directly to the need to provide support to teachers during the implementation phase. Ongoing support from administrators and skilled teachers promoting change is important to teachers' continuing commitment to the change.
Implications for PDP

The concept of support during the implementation phase can be built into a PDP in a variety of ways. One way is to develop a network of stakeholders in the change process—such a network could include people at a range of levels from superintendent, to supervisors, principals and teachers. As well as such networks various approaches can be taken towards building collaboration and mutual support between teachers, and between teachers and the different levels of supervisors.

School leaders can help develop a climate of experimentation and enquiry rather than one of judgement or blame. In such a climate, teachers will be prepared to take professional risks and be open to sharing the results of such risks and experimentation.

6. Advocacy

An advocate or consultant provides vital assistance in successful implementation. It is accepted that individuals find it difficult to carry out the implementation of the innovation alone, so good consultants can help the change proceed smoothly and effectively by providing concrete, practical advice either in the classroom or in professional development workshops. Fullan (1992) emphasises that strong advocacy at the administrative level is essential for change, while Bottomley, Dalto, Corbel & Brindley (1994: 27) demonstrate that teacher advocacy builds peer networks that impact positively on the capacity for change.

Implications for PDP

A range of different approaches can be used to ensure that advocacy or consultancy is applied to a PDP. One approach would be to provide a mentoring role to supervisors. Such a role requires adequate resourcing for mentor and mentee as well as recognition of the value of such work. Failure to provide adequate resources in will lead to the failure of such a programme. Research circles of groups of professionals, regardless of their rank, can be
very supportive of the advocacy principle and provide opportunities for professionals to work together in promoting the change in practice.

3.1.2 A coaching approach

Any major curriculum change involves complex and difficult elements. The concept of coaching is regarded as one which has much to offer the facilitation of the change process. Professional coaching is a process which aims to assist in the acquisition of new concepts by reducing a complex task to simple steps. A training programme devised on coaching principles would help trainees to gain success at each step, leading eventually to achieving the goal of mastering a complex skill.

As one of many different methods to implement curriculum change, coaching can assist teachers in a variety of ways. One way is assist them in developing processes to implement change by providing ways to reduce complex tasks into more manageable components. Research conducted by Joyce and Showers (1980) contributed to the development of a professional development model which involves coaching.

This model has five explicit stages, each stage contributing to assisting teachers' practice in implementing and bringing about curriculum change. In their research, Joyce and Showers (1980) linked the stages to the relative impact each would have on bringing about changes in teacher practice. These stages are outlined below:

1. Presentation of theory: level of impact – awareness

Presenting teachers with the theory behind the curriculum change has the possibility of raising awareness and providing the teachers with some conceptual control of the curriculum changes (Joyce and Weil, 1980). The presentation of theory does not have a great impact on the acquisition of skills, nor does it appear to provide the transfer of skills into the teachers'
work in the classroom. However, the presentation of theory appears to lift conceptual control, skill development and transfer of skills into teachers' classroom practice when it is used in combination with other training components.

Implications for PDP

This could be done in a variety of ways. An intensive training workshop presented by curriculum developers could be used to explain the why, when and how of the change. Similarly, a seminar or workshop for supervisors can provide this theoretical background for those charged with the introduction of the curriculum changes to schools and systems. The distribution of background documents and implementation plans can also be used to provide some basis for the presentation of the theoretical basis for the change.

2. Modelling or demonstration: level of impact – awareness, some knowledge

The modelling or demonstration stage proposed by Joyce and Showers appears to have an effect on both awareness and knowledge acquisition. The mastery of theory appears to be increased by the use of demonstration and modelling. Because of the nature of their work, many teachers have the ability and capacity to imitate demonstrated skills fairly readily. These demonstrated skills will be transferred to the classroom situation by a number of teachers.

Again, it is emphasised here that, for most teachers, the use of one technique only, in this case modelling, is unlikely to result in the acquisition and transfer of skills. As with the other stages, it is important that the technique be accompanied by numerous components.

Implications for PDP

Modelling occurs when teachers have the opportunity to observe each other’s practice. Such observations could be developed through the videotaping of
teachers in action. A classroom observation checklist could be used in conjunction with the videotape to evaluate each of the videotaped lessons or series of lessons. Direct observation can also be used – with follow-up discussion among the teachers involved.

3. Practice under simulated conditions: level of impact – skill

Once theoretical awareness and knowledge of the change have been achieved it is time to move on to skill development. An efficient way of acquiring skills is to practice them under simulated conditions.

Implications for PDP

Various curriculum-related simulations can be developed, with teachers collaborating on the development of these simulations. The teachers then practice the skills they want to develop by using the skills in the simulations. The application of the new skills can be incorporated into their lesson plans.

4. Structured and open-ended feedback: level of impact – skill and transfer

Teachers can become more aware of their performance through the provision of feedback. This can result in considerable awareness of one’s teaching behaviour and knowledge about alternatives. With respect to the fine-tuning of styles, it has reasonable power for the acquisition of skills and their transfer to the classroom situation. It is apparent that feedback alone does not appear to provide permanent changes in pedagogy, but regular, structured feedback is necessary to maintain these changes.

Implications for PDP

There are many feedback instruments which can be used to provide information to the teacher being observed. Various protocols need to be
developed so that participants are aware of how the feedback will be given. The feedback needs to be not only structured; it should be focussed on various aspects of the desired skills to be developed. Observations can take place at agreed times and included in lesson plans.

5. Coaching for application: level of impact – application of the new skill

A range of training components, used in combination, will provide a considerable impact on skill development for most teachers. For many others, however, direct coaching on how to apply the new skills appears to be necessary. Coaching for application involves helping teachers analyse the content to be taught and the approach to be taken, and making very specific plans to help the students adapt to the new teaching approach (Joyce & Showers, 1980: 379-385).

A teaching coach could be an expert teacher, a supervisor, professor, curriculum consultant or other. The coach will usually need to have some training in coaching. A coach does not usually provide solutions but rather asks questions and listens so that the practitioner comes to some conclusions on his/her own.

Implications for PDP

A teacher who has a teaching skills coach can use the coach in variety of ways. The coach does not necessarily need to be present in the school or classroom but it is important that there is a good working relationship between practitioner and coach and they both understand the concept of coaching. The coach may assist the teacher focus on the acquisition of new skills and assist with problem solving. The coach can provide moral support for the teacher, be a confidante for the teacher and contribute to the teacher seeking to improve performance.
3.1.3 Communicative Language Teaching approach in EFL

It has been suggested by Nunan (1989) that a language programme based on this new approach should have twin goals: one is the development of language skills and the other is the development of learning skills, that is, the skills in learning how to learn (p. 187). Similarly, it has been suggested by Richards (1984) that this new kind of teaching model should consist of three dimensions: Firstly, a linguistic dimension which justifies what language aspects will be taught. Secondly, there should be a psycholinguistic dimension which includes an account of the processes underlying learning, and thirdly, a teaching dimension which relates to learning experience, activities, tasks, and to the role of teachers, learners and materials in the learning system (p. 7-23).

**Implication for PDP**

One way of incorporating the elements is to adopt a task-based learning (TBL) approach. TBL provides a specific and narrow teaching method for EFL teachers to follow and this explicit teaching method is generally based on naturalistic language use from which learners can develop their communicative language skills. TBL also provides an environment, through tasks, which best promotes the natural learning process by engaging in meaningful activities such as problem solving, as a result of which the learner’s interlanguage system is developed (Prabhu, 1987; Nunan, 1989; Long & Crookes, 1992; Gass & Crookes, 1993; Willis, 1996).

1. The pedagogical purpose of CLT

Nunan postulates that a basic principle underlying the CLT approach is that learners must learn eventually not only to make grammatically correct utterances, but must also develop the ability to use language to get things done (1988: 25). Richards and Rogers (1986) explain that the primary function of CLT is to promote language for interaction and interpersonal communication (p. 71).
The purpose of TBL is to develop in learners their language skills for communication in order to achieve an outcome of tasks. Focusing on completing tasks it allows learners to communicate among groups and to find a way of getting round words or forms of language in order to fulfil the task goals. Language, then, is a means for attaining task goals, but the emphasis of a use of the language is on meaning and communication, not on producing language forms correctly (Willis, 1996).

2. Learning activities

In using the CLT approach, the learning activities used by teachers require a high degree of learner participation in order for them to practise and develop their learning skills through activities which are meaningful to the learner. An extensive range of classroom activities compatible with communicative language learning is available to teachers. These activities are designed to provide learners with opportunities to attain communicative objectives, engage in communication, and require the use of such communicative processes as information sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction.

Many classroom activities are designed to focus on completing tasks that are mediated through language or involve negotiation of information and information sharing (Richards & Rodgers, 1986: 76). Communicative activities in groups will provide learners with the opportunities to practice strategies for opening, developing, and terminating conversational encounters, develop meaning collaboratively and practice use of conversational routines and expressions. These activities also involve learners in different kinds of roles, necessitating use of different styles of speaking to complete tasks (Richards, 1985, cited in Nunan, 1988: 87)

Implication for PDP

Communicative tasks provide opportunities for learners to practise their target language through different types of tasks such as listing, ordering and sorting,
comparing, problem solving, sharing personal experiences and creative tasks. A teacher will take a role as a supporter in students’ learning and to encourage the students to experiment with language on their own, and to take risks.

Teachers would be informed during the intensive training workshop about what and how communicative tasks designed and used to support their students’ learning. A demonstration of the application of communicative tasks would help the teachers to gain confidence to use the TBL in their classrooms.

3. A teacher’s role

The teacher as facilitator of learning rather than controller of learning is the central feature of the CLT approach. In taking the student centred role, the teacher’s task is limited more to providing relevant input and information and a limited number of controlled exercises. Using such a pedagogical approach enables students to gain confidence in interacting with each other, using language for natural communicative functions. Feedback to the students is provided by the teacher – providing them with information on how they have performed in using the communicative activities. Such feedback will also provide suggestions for improvement. The feedback should first focus on how well the students did on the communicative aspects of the task and only later on the form used by the students (Brumfit, 1984; Nunan, 1991; Savignon, 1991).

Implication for PDP

It is important for teachers to understand fully the role of teacher as facilitator and to understand the different skills used in this role as opposed to teacher as controller of knowledge. Adopting TBL requires teachers to adopt different planning techniques, different questioning techniques and different assessment techniques.
TBL enables teachers to assist students become active, collaborative learners. The teacher can achieve this by planning activities which engage students in their learning and which require them to work collaboratively.

Teachers can be trained in the use of cooperative learning and the development of an integrated curriculum. Teachers also need to be well versed in constructivism and other student centred learning theories. Many of these are developed through intensive training workshops, reading documents provided during the PDP, observation and practice. Many of these approaches are obtained by teachers working collaboratively, in both planning and practice and observing each other's teaching.

4. A learner’s role

The CLT approach requires students to adopt a different role in the classroom. In this approach, it is important that they become engaged in the classroom activities in order to develop their language skills and their learning skills. In adopting the CLT approach, students need to learn effective and culturally appropriate uses of language in their interactions with each other. In such discourse, students soon learn that errors are a part of the learning process. Errors provide the teacher with information about the personally-constructed theories of the target language that learners have. These errors can be detected and corrected early before students move into the practice of new language constructions. With the teacher as facilitator, students can practise with one another and detect and correct each other's errors. The CLT approach emphasises that learners are expected to interact primarily with each other rather than with the teacher. CLT promotes communication processes. These processes eventually bring about different roles for learners. The role of the learner in CLT can also become one of ‘negotiator’. In this role, each student works towards attaining personal meaning in the new language information that is provided by their participation in the learning activities provided and promoted by the teacher. The actual negotiation takes place between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning and
eventually emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within
the group and within the classroom activities which the group undertakes.
This process carries with it the implication that learners need to interact in a
way so that they contribute as much as they receive. This leads to the students
becoming interdependent learners (Breen & Candlin, 1980, cited in Richards

Implication for PDP
From a learner's position, TBL advantages the learner in a number of ways:

- It gives learners confidence to try whatever language they know,
  through a pair or group activity.
- It provides learners with experience of spontaneous interaction.
  It provides learners opportunities to practice negotiating turns to
  communicate and interact to others.
  It engages learners in using language purposefully and co-operatively
  in meaningful learning activities.
- It encourages learners to gain confidence to use the target language in
  order to achieve the goals of the tasks.

In a classroom, students will spend most of their time doing activities in pairs,
groups or whole class. In such a situation, the students will be allowed to have
more involvement in a learning process.

5. The role of instructional materials

Independent learning can be assisted by the use of instructional materials
appropriate to CLT in supporting student learning. Instructional materials can
be used to encourage the development of independent learning. Materials
used for supporting student learning in the CLT have been described by
Richards and Rogers (1986) as falling into three categories. These are text-
based materials, task-based materials and those materials taken from real life
known as realia. Text-based materials consist of textbooks and
published resources designed specifically to direct and support CLT. Richards and Rogers give as examples Morrow and Johnson’s *Communicative Activities* (1979), Watcyn-Jones’ *Pair Work* (1981), and the Malaysian English Language Syllabus support materials (1975). Task-based materials are those materials which include games, role plays, simulations and task-based communication activities. Such materials engage students in participation through communication. Realia consists of the use of what can be called ‘authentic’ materials in the classroom. Examples of realia include written texts such as English-language newspapers and magazines, as well as spoken and visual texts including advertisements and current affairs programmes recorded from television.

It is emphasised by Nunan that the role of CLT support materials must enable learners to make the links between what they learn in the classroom and their lives beyond the classroom. Such resources will only be of value if they foster the elements of changing the learners so they become independent. An additional element is that the resources need to contribute to the development of independent learning by increasing the learners’ interest and engagement and enhancing their understanding of the learning process. It is important that the materials are authentic and that they consist of a variety of materials which can be used in many different ways and at different proficiency levels. Such authentic materials are often superior to the published curriculum packages which are sometimes made available to support curriculum initiatives. These packages are often limited in that they only look at learning in one way (Nunan, 1988: 99).

**Implication for PDP**

TBL encourages teachers to use a variety of materials which support students to do their tasks. In their planning, teachers need to ensure that they use a variety of sources of instructional materials. These materials should respond to the basic principles that they are meaningful, authentic and that their primary purpose is to support the students’ learning rather than the teacher’s teaching. In selecting instructional materials it is important that the teachers
6. Role of assessment

In keeping with the principles of student-centred learning promoted by CLT, it is important to reinforce the view that the role of assessment in CLT is to foster engagement of the students in their own learning. Assessment should be seen as being more than just a measure of achievement. In CLT, the focus is on language proficiency broadly, rather than just on accuracy in grammar or number of vocabulary items correctly memorised. This raises the question about what constitutes ‘proficiency’. Nunan provides a definition which refers to student’s capacity to perform an increasing range of communicative tasks with a developing confidence. Such confidence is determined by mastery of a complex set of enabling language skills which include syntax, morphology, fluency, socio-cultural knowledge, phonology, and discourse (Nunan, 1988: 127).

Self-assessment and peer assessment provide an important supplement to the assessments conducted by the teacher. Assessment such as self and peer assessment adds to the authenticity of the assessment. Self-assessment provides a very effective means of developing both critical self-awareness of what it is to be a learner, and skills in learning how to learn (Nunan, 1988: 116).

Implication for PDP

The authentic assessment processes discussed here have as their basis a focus on students’ development rather than on student achievement. It is therefore important that teachers receive training in authentic assessment methods. This could involve a range of professional development activities which emphasise authentic assessment.

Among these techniques would be learning techniques for involving students
in the assessment process and also the use of a variety of approaches to assessment such as the exhibition, conferencing and the use of ICTs in presentations.

Section II: The design of the PDP

Many scholars, including Fullan (1992) and Simons, Linden and Duffy (2000), have emphasised that successful change will come about where there are high quality in-service training programmes. The change process has three major stages - initiation, implementation, and continuation. The last two of these stages are identified by Fullan as those where practical support is most essential.

There are many challenges posed by moving to CLT methods and moving away from traditional approaches in EFL. Bringing about these changes can be very difficult to achieve, but this is not a reason for not setting out to implement such changes. Several studies have indicated that attempting to do this in many Asian countries has proved difficult (Sano et al., 1984; Li, 1998; Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Ellis, 1994; Shamin, 1996). These studies highlight many of the major problems faced when introducing a curriculum innovation such as CLT. Such problems include, for example, large classes, teachers' lack of proficiency in the target language, and difficulty in accessing suitable materials and equipment. Even when systems, schools and teachers are committed to this language teaching method, making the transition to CLT methods remains a challenge. The challenge centres on the difficulty of making major changes in practice, and also moving the paradigm from traditionally accepted educational practices to new ways of educational thinking (Smith, 2001).

The programme proposed here is related to successful models of curriculum change elsewhere in the world, although in this case it has been applied to the unique circumstances of EFL in Thailand. The recommended PDP plan is expressed in a way that will generate confidence among participants in terms
of their role in the PDP. The programme remains flexible at the classroom level in order to enable teachers and supervisors to participate in making decisions concerning their own situations. In order to bring about a major change in pedagogical practices in an education system and to ensure the success of any paradigm shift in pedagogical theory and practice, much more is required of its instigators than a mental map of the new territory.

Such a change requires an effective process of implementation, with assistance for teachers as they find their way into unfamiliar and at times hazardous terrain. A coaching approach has been proven to be valuable in supporting teachers through the challenge of innovation (Joyce & Showers, 1980; Galton & Williamson, 1992). Coaching can be effective for developing implementation skills in teachers by providing clear guidance on what to do and how to do it. It has also been shown to have the flexibility to assist individual teachers in dealing with the specific difficulties they encounter, to assist them gain the management skills to cope with the complexities of change, and to provide this support directly when it is most needed (Galton & Williamson, 1992).

Bearing in mind the lack of success of the traditional Thai programmes and responding to these recommendations, the PDP for this study included the following components:

- **The use of the coaching approach**

  The coaching used in the PDP allowed the supervisors and the teachers participating in the PDP to discuss the development of the teachers’ performance. The discussion was conducted in a private room (free from distraction) immediately after the lesson. The supervisor initiated the discussion with the teacher by giving feedback from the classroom observation checklist which focused on positive teaching performance. The supervisor initially, points out the development of the teacher in areas of constructive change since the last/previous visit. At the meeting, the teacher raised issues and difficulties she had encountered both in the observed lesson
and previous lessons she recorded in her diary. The researcher took the role of observer, taking notes, tape-recording the conversation and mentoring for both the supervisor and the teacher on technical issues such as TBL, CLT.

- Giving a monitoring and support role to supervisors

A supervisor is regarded highly as the person with a key role in supporting curriculum implementation. A support role to supervisors in the PDP started from a process of selecting teachers to participate the PDP. The supervisors carefully selected the teachers whom they expected to become key teachers to assist colleagues in schools with curriculum implementation. By considering the teachers' capacities, attitudes and motivation, the supervisors expected these teachers to develop their capacity as teaching professionals which was a direct benefit from participation in the PDP.

In terms of a monitoring role in the PDP, the supervisor took this role from the beginning, when watching the teachers' lesson videotapes and gave advice and set goals for teachers to achieve. The monitoring role to the supervisors occurred during regular classroom visits to provide comments drawn from the classroom observation checklist used in the post-lesson discussion.

- Consideration of the specific needs and expectations of the teachers involved

A consideration of the specific needs and expectations of the teachers involved in the PDP began when the supervisors and teachers viewed the videotapes of individual lessons together during the intensive teacher training workshop. The viewing of the lesson videotapes allowed the supervisors and teachers to identify for each teacher the strengths and weaknesses of their teaching performance. The teachers themselves identified their need to develop their teaching towards CLT. Teachers' expectations varied from a consideration of their teaching skill, knowledge and experience. For example, Teacher 2 was far more likely to develop teaching skills towards CLT from the beginning stage, while Teacher 4 needed to develop more collaborative and open-feedback on her teaching skills.
technician for videotaping teachers' lessons both before and after the PDP.

- **Encouraging openness in group appraisal and reflection**

The PDP encouraged openness in group appraisal and reflection through different kinds of activities such as:

- At the workshop, teachers were asked to self-evaluate their teaching performance from their lesson videotapes taken. During discussion after the lesson, teachers opened up with the supervisors and the researcher to raise their issues concerning both positive and negative experiences about the new teaching method.
- A monthly meeting, sharing experiences about the use of the new teaching method, both negative and positive among supervisors and teachers.

This openness came because of the PDP focus on each of teachers' development and pointed out their benefit from the PDP.

- **Establishing a climate of experimentation and enquiry rather than judgment or blame**

A challenge of the PDP was to establish a climate of experimentation by encouraging teachers to change their teaching behaviours. These included:

- being independent from using only textbooks as the main teaching/learning resources,
- experimentation of a new role of teacher as a learning facilitator,
- experimentation with a new way of assessment which focus on the development of students' learning, rather than achievement, and
- experimentation with students' involvement in a learning process.

- **Responding to the constraints of specific contexts, especially those arising from the radical nature of the CLT in traditional classrooms**

The adoption of CLT was challenging teachers when they applied this teaching method in their classrooms. The PDP concerned and responded to
• **Drawing on the professional skills of teachers as input to the programme**

The PDP respected teachers' knowledge and their teaching experience in relation to classroom organisation, students' learning style and assessment. The teachers were encouraged to explore their own situation, e.g., students' need and ability, and left it open for them to design their own lesson which suited their own teaching style. The PDP respected the teachers' role as skilful practitioners of a complex art and encouraged them to become more independent as classroom curriculum developers.

• **Building collaboration and mutual support between teachers, and between teachers and supervisors**

The PDP encouraged collaboration and mutual support between teachers, and teachers and supervisors, through a variety of activities such as a regular school visit (fortnightly) for each teacher, a monthly meeting among teachers and supervisors to share experiences in their using the new teaching method, both positive and negative, as well as sharing materials and lesson plans. In fact, the teachers' and supervisors' collaboration began from the beginning of the programme when the supervisors selected teachers who they expected to be key teachers to work in their schools.

• **Liaising closely with personnel at different levels – including superintendent, supervisor, principal and teacher – in order to develop a network of stakeholders**

The PDP worked closely with local educational authorities at different levels in order to develop a network of stakeholders. The liaising activities involved a process of selection schools/sites, supervisors and teachers for the PDP which was decided by superintendents. The superintendents also nominated supervisors to work in the programme as they considered those supervisors to be well qualified and experienced enough to take this role. The superintendent, principals and the supervisors together, then, nominated the teachers to participate in the PDP. The superintendents also provided a meeting room for the seminar and intensive training workshop, and a
technician for videotaping teachers' lessons both before and after the PDP.

- **Encouraging openness in group appraisal and reflection**

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  - At the workshop, teachers were asked to self-evaluate their teaching performance from their lesson videotapes taken. During discussion after the lesson, teachers opened up with the supervisors and the researcher to raise their issues concerning both positive and negative experiences about the new teaching method.
  
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  - experimentation with a new way of assessment which focus on the development of students’ learning, rather than achievement, and
  
  - experimentation with students’ involvement in a learning process.

- **Responding to the constraints of specific contexts, especially those arising from the radical nature of the CLT in traditional classrooms**

  The adoption of CLT was challenging teachers when they applied this teaching method in their classrooms. The PDP concerned and responded to
the constraints of using the CLT in traditional classrooms, especially those arising in specific contexts. For example, one teacher found difficulty in using a whole class activity in a large class because of a noise problem affecting other classes. To avoid this problem, it was suggested that pair or small group activities be used instead. In contrast, a teacher from a small class had a problem that activities finished too quickly because of the small number of students. It was recommended in this case that whole class activities would be more appropriate.

The particular aspects of this professional development programme emanate from these components. The components give this programme its specific character, locating it in the context of change in the Thai education system.

For these reasons, the researcher saw a coaching approach as an important element in enabling the content of a professional development programme to be delivered and absorbed, and then to be adapted for use in the teachers' own classroom practice.

The combination of TBL with a coaching approach held out to the researcher the hope of finding a possible means to tackle a problem in the devising of TEFL professional development, one that had been shown in the experience of many education systems in Asia and elsewhere as being most intractable (Hallinger, 2000). One of the significant factors involved in the failure of efforts to implement major curriculum change would appear to be the lack of continuing support for teachers at a practical school level, leaving them feeling insecure and lacking the confidence to implement the innovation individually in their schools. It was essential to the framing of this present study that educational change and its implementation be recognised as a complex process and that teachers require continuing support during it.

Table 3.1 below indicates the relationships between the theoretical background to the development and the design of the PDP as described in this chapter. The left hand side of the table links the theory with the right hand
side which contains the practical suggestions for the PDP developed in this chapter.

Table 3.1: The relationships between the theoretical background to the development of the PDP and the design of the PDP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theoretical background to the development of the PDP</th>
<th>Design of the PDP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Three major components/areas of research:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Educational change (Based on Fullan’s framework)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Perceived need for change</td>
<td>1.1 - Education Act 1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Discussion with senior education authorities such as superintendents and supervisors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Government official documents from the Office of the National Education Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Media reports</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.2 Clarity of change</td>
<td>1.2 - Provision of a teacher’s intensive training workshop and a supervisor’s seminar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Videotaping a teacher’s lesson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- A classroom observation checklist feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- A group discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Complexity of change</td>
<td>1.3 - A clear plan for implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- A use of coaching approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 Workability</td>
<td>1.4 - Considering the specific needs and expectations of the teachers involved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Drawing on the professional skills of teachers as input to the programme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 1.5 Implementation support | 1.5 | Encouraging openness in group appraisal and reflection  
|  |  | Responding to the constraints of specific contexts, especially those arising the radical nature of the CLT in traditional classrooms  
|  |  | Liasing closely with personnel at different levels — those of superintendent, supervisor, principal and teacher — to develop a network of stakeholder  
|  |  | Building collaboration and mutual support between teachers and between teachers and supervisors  
|  |  | Establishing a climate of experimentation and enquiry rather than judgement or blame  
| 1.6 Advocate or consultant | 1.6 | Giving a monitoring and support role to supervisors  
|  |  | School follow-up regularly after workshop  
| 2. Coaching approach (Based on Joyce and Showers' framework) | 2. | A teacher’s intensive training workshop  
|  |  | A supervisor’s seminar  
|  |  | Videotaped each of the teachers’ lessons  
| 2.1 Presentation of theory: level of impact-awareness | 2.1 | A group discussion  
|  |  | Providing materials relevant to the new concept  
| 2.2 Modelling or demonstrating: level of impact — awareness, some knowledge | 2.2 | Presenting each of the teachers’ videotaped lessons  
|  |  | Using a classroom observation checklist to evaluate each of teachers videotaping to provide feedback |
2.3 Practice under simulated conditions: level of impact - skill

2.4 Structured and open-ended feedback: level of impact - skill and transfer

2.5 Coaching for application: level of impact - application of the new skill

2.3 - One of the teachers demonstrating her teaching
- A group discussion among teachers and supervisors

2.4 - School follow-up for coaching by the supervisors and the researcher
- Monitoring for improvement

2.5 - Providing feedback to maintain the new skills
- Feedback a progress of their development
- Moral support
- Building networking among group of teachers and supervisors

3. Communicative Language Teaching Approach (Based on Nunan's framework)

3.1 A pedagogical purpose
3.2 Learning activities
3.3 A teacher's role
3.4 A learner's role
3.5 A role of instructional materials
3.6 A role of assessment

3. Task-based Learning Approach

3.1 Communication is paramount
3.2 Communicative tasks are emphasised
3.3 A teacher as a learning facilitator
3.4 A learner as a collaborative learner
Using a variety of meaningful/authentic materials/resources to support students' learning
3.6 Focusing on students' development rather than achievement

Summary

This chapter has examined the different approaches to developing a professional development programme. The chapter has focussed on the a range of recommendations for the use of a PDP in curriculum innovation and,
in particular, the development of the communicative language teaching as one of the educational available to teachers to use in the transition to new curriculum directions.

Out of the discussion of the Chapter it is evident that certain key features are important in developing a PDP for teachers involved in curriculum change. Among these key features are that no one element as applied to a PDP will lead to satisfactory involvement in curriculum change – any plan must contain a range of elements as proposed in this chapter. Another element is the critical importance of assuring teachers that curriculum change does not necessarily mean that they are not doing a good job under the current circumstances and that the curriculum change need not be a deficit model of their current work.
CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The research methodology adopted in this study, the rationale for its choice and its advantages and limitations are addressed in this chapter. In addition, the chapter considers the issues of internal and external validity and reliability of the study. The main sections to be presented are: the overview of the research design (3.1), the development phase of the research (3.2), the data gathering phase of the research (3.3), and the data analysis phase of the research (3.4).

4.1 Overview of the study

4.1.1 Aims of the study

The aims of the research were to design, implement and evaluate the effectiveness of a teacher professional development programme (PDP) designed to assist Thai primary teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) to change their classroom practices. The need for change has arisen from a requirement to meet the Thai national curriculum goals as established by the Education Act introduced in 1999. In line with the Act, a learner-centred curriculum needs to be implemented in Thai schools, so it has become vital for Thai teachers to change their teaching role from being a knowledge transmitter to that of a learning opportunity facilitator in the classroom. Thai teachers appear to be generally aware of the implications of the Act and endorse the need to change their roles.

4.1.2 The design of the PDP

The research design used in the study combined qualitative and quantitative research methods (Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Burns, 2000). A quasi-
experimental method was selected as the main research approach; it entailed studying the implementation of the new curriculum following the PDP and examined changes in classroom practices used by the teachers in relation to the new teaching-learning method required by the Thai national curriculum for EFL. The effectiveness of the PDP was evaluated to ascertain (1) to what extent the programme made an impact on teaching performance, and (2) in what ways teachers changed their classroom pedagogy. Perceptions of the three major stakeholders (supervisors, teachers and students) about these changes in the teaching and learning paradigm were also investigated to find out whether or not the new approach advantaged students in developing their English learning skills when compared to the previous approach. In addition, the effectiveness of the PDP was evaluated qualitatively through interviews with all three participant groups before and after the programme.

The research design chosen used multiple sites, a combination of research methods and a variety of participants as advocated by Burns (1994) and Isaac and Michael (1995). In terms of the multi-site aspect of the research design, the study was conducted in nine schools of different kinds. They ranged in terms of school setting (metropolitan, rural city, geographically isolated) and school size (large, medium, small). This also entailed a difference in class sizes, as large classes were chosen to represent large schools, medium-sized classes in medium-sized schools, and small classes in small schools; such a relationship between class size and school is the norm in this region of Thailand. The study was multi-method in that the programme was conducted by using a combination of qualitative techniques (interview) and quantitative techniques (questionnaire and observation). The study was multi-person in that three groups of participants (supervisors, teachers and students) were selected. The supervisors were selected because they take a major role as facilitators and supporters of teachers and schools in successful curriculum implementation. Teachers were selected as they take a major role at the practical level by implementing the new curriculum in the classroom. Students were selected
because they are the direct recipients of the changes and for whose benefit the changes are being made.

Data collection was conducted through different research instruments suited to different purposes: questionnaires were used to evaluate the effectiveness of the programme and to investigate participants’ perceptions about the change; observations were used to investigate how teachers managed their classrooms and to provide on-site feedback about their classroom practices to the teachers when visiting their classrooms; interviews were used to obtain in-depth information from the participants about the issues raised in questionnaires. The interviews were also used in combination with the observations to complement data from the participants’ self reports. The multi-method approach used in this study provided consistent triangulation and enhanced the study’s internal validity (Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Isaac & Michael, 1995; Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Burns, 2000).

4.1.3 Phases in conducting the study

This study was conducted in three phases: Phase 1, the preparation phase, dealt with the negotiations with Thai authorities to access the research sites, schools and participants, the development of research instruments for gathering data and the preparation of materials for the workshops.

Phase 2 was the in-service training phase, with separate programmes for supervisors and teachers. In-service training for the three supervisors was organised every fortnight during the Thai summer break between school years. The purpose of the meetings with supervisors was to build a clear understanding about the new curriculum and its implementation, especially in the area of teaching EFL in primary schools. The three-day teachers’ workshop for the nine teachers involved was held in the week before the first school term. The aim of the workshop was to explain the new curriculum and to provide guidelines for teachers to implement it in their classrooms. Demonstrations were presented during workshops to provide the teachers with
guidelines to the new curriculum and how to implement its innovative approach at the practical level of classroom pedagogy.

Phase 3 was the school follow-up. The aim of this phase was to monitor the progress of each of the teachers individually and assess the extent to which they had changed their language-teaching approach in the classroom. This phase also provided opportunities for teachers to discuss with supervisors and the researcher the difficulties they had encountered during the implementation process.

All communications with the participants in this study, in speech and writing, were conducted in Thai. Where these are reported or quoted in this thesis they are translated into English. Where the communications became data in the study, the translations were verified by a native speaker of English and further confirmed by back translation into Thai by a native speaker whose second language is English.

The evaluation of the effectiveness of the programme was conducted by using both quantitative and qualitative measures. The Likert-style items in the questionnaire allowed the researcher to investigate the relative understandings of the supervisors and the teachers of the new teaching-learning concepts both before and after the implementation of the PDP (see Appendix A). A student questionnaire was also used to investigate whether or not the new learning approach had, in their opinion, helped them to improve their learning skills (see Appendix B). Further information was collected through observation of classrooms; this was rendered quantitative in nature through the use of checklists of teacher and student behaviour (see Appendix C). Qualitative data were collected from supervisors, teachers and students by semi-structured interviews (see Appendices D - G). All instruments were developed by the researcher for the purposes of this study.

Audiotape and videotape and records were made during the study. Audiotape records were made when conducting the interviews before, during and after
the programme's implementation. The videotape records were obtained both at the beginning and at the end of the programme to monitor the changes in each teacher's classroom practice, and were analysed through the observation checklists mentioned above.

Sample responses from all the instruments used are provided in the appendices (see Appendices H – N).

4.1.4 Limitations of the study

There were two main factors that should be noted as limitations in relation to the research methodology. Because the study was conducted with a limited group of teachers and students in a limited number of schools in one area of Thailand, results could not, with a high degree of confidence, be generalized to a wider range of schools in other areas. Furthermore, it was the researcher who both conducted the PDP and gathered data on its implementation and on its success or otherwise. However, within these limitations of size and process, it should be noted that sites for study were chosen to encompass and represent the main range of school and class settings for EFL teaching in Thailand (outside Bangkok), and triangulation of data collection was employed to minimise the impact of researcher bias upon results (Burns, 2000). In this case, alongside the researcher's observations there were questionnaire and interview data drawn from supervisors, teachers and students, each compared with the others to check their validity. The reliability of the questionnaire data was enhanced by conducting follow-up interviews that confirmed, as well as added detail to, the quantitative data that the questionnaires produced. Videotaping classes and audio-taping interviews ensured that multiple perceptions of raw data could be compared. It is regarded as a strength of the methodology employed in the study that it used a variety of instruments, self-developed from authoritative research models, to fit the specific context, and applied these instruments to different groups of key stakeholders in curriculum change in Thailand.
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4.1.5 The timeline of data gathering

The research timeline used for data collection in this study consisted of the three major phases outlined in 3.1.3 above. These activities were all completed over a 12 period.

A chronology of the development of the research tasks associated with the study is presented in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1: A chronology of the development of the research tasks associated with the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Activities</th>
<th>1999</th>
<th>2000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phase 1: Preparation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Permission to conduct research</td>
<td>December</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Selection of the site of the study</td>
<td>December</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Design of the PDP</td>
<td>December</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Development of the research instruments</td>
<td>July-December</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Phase 2: Initiation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Conducting pre-tests: videotaping, interview, observational checklist and questionnaire</td>
<td>January</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Seminars for supervisors</td>
<td>February-May</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Intensive training workshop for teachers</td>
<td>May</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase 3: Implementation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Implementation support by coaching, supervisors’ giving feedback</td>
<td>May-September</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase 4: Evaluation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Conducting post-tests</td>
<td>September</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Data analysis</td>
<td>October-December</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2 Development phase of the PDP

4.2.1 Permission to conduct the PDP

Permission was needed from both central and local education authorities in Thailand to conduct the research in schools within the National Department of Primary Education. This required some negotiation with relevant authorities and personnel. The researcher contacted senior education authorities within the Department of Primary Education at the Ministry of Education in Bangkok to negotiate access to schools within the region selected as the research site. Formal contact was also made with the local education authorities in the province concerned. This negotiation was completed in December 1999 while the researcher was in Australia.

The sites selected were in a provincial area because the researcher wished to investigate to what extent education reform could be implemented in a provincial area where there were limited resources and less administrative and academic support available than in the capital. Although the sites chosen were in zones located some distance from Bangkok, they were in a province where education reform has been piloted by the Thai government and sufficiently close to the researcher's university to gain access to research facilities during the study.

The schools selected in the study were from three cities in different zones. One was a large city (with a population of approximately 120,000), another a medium-sized city (approximately 60,000) and the third a small city (approximately 40,000). The schools were large (over 2000 students), medium-sized (about 500 students) and small (fewer than 200). The class sizes varied from large (40 - 55 students in the large schools), through medium (20 - 25 in medium-sized schools) to small (10 - 15 in the small schools).
4.2.2 Participants in the study

The selection of participants in the study was overseen by superintendents in the province where the PDP was implemented. A procedure of nomination rather than random selection is the standard and accepted practice in the Thai education system. Three groups of participants were involved: the supervisors, the teachers and the students. All participants took part voluntarily and were made aware that the data obtained would be anonymous and treated confidentially.

The supervisors

The supervisors were nominated by zone superintendents, and the supervisors in turn nominated the teachers for their suitability for the study based on the size of the class they were teaching and their enthusiasm for professional development. Two of the supervisors were female (based in the medium-sized and small cities) and one male (in the large city). The role of supervisor is vital (and well accepted) in the Thai education system for assisting schools and teachers to implement national curricula. They also provide materials related to pedagogy and curriculum innovation. The three supervisors in this study played a major part in its conduct and outcomes.

The teachers

The nine teachers involved in this study were female Grade 6 Primary EFL teachers (typically, at primary level, Thai EFL teachers are female). In introducing CLT as the method of instruction, these teachers were strongly challenged at a practical classroom level by the difficulties entailed in the shift to this new teaching approach. These teachers were known locally to be keen to develop their teaching and were nominated to work with the supervisors because they were key teachers who would assist their colleagues in the future to implement the new curriculum in their educational district.
The nine teachers varied in age from 42 – 57 years. Although all were experienced, the period for which they had taught EFL varied from 3-34 years. In relation to their educational background, all held Bachelor degrees in Education; two had also obtained a degree specifically in EFL teaching.

The students

The students participating in the study were the regular students in the selected teachers’ classes of mixed gender. All students from the nine classes participating in the programme completed the questionnaires (N = 231). Three students (an above average, an average and a below average student) were nominated by their teachers for interview from each of the nine classes as representative of the class (N=27).

4.2.3 Development of the research instruments

Three research instruments were developed to collect data in this study. These were in the form of questionnaire, interviews and observational checklist. Each research instrument was chosen to serve the specific purpose of gathering data related to the two sub-research questions, which were broken down in order to answer the main research question. The process of development of each of the research instruments involved four key stages. Stage 1 was a first draft of the instruments based on the conceptual framework generated from the research and theoretical literature. The draft was refined with feedback from the Education Department supervisors not involved in the study. Stage 2 was the translation of each of the research instruments into the Thai language and then a back translation by a native Thai (who was completing a university degree at the University of Tasmania) for an independent check of the translation. The third stage was a pilot application of the instruments using participants from the researcher’s faculty’s Demonstration School who were not included later in the sample. The final stage of the research instrument development was the production of the final design and layout of the instruments based on the feedback from the pilot study.
Each research instrument, a questionnaire, an interview and an observation checklist, developed and chosen for data gathering in this study, had a different and complementary research purpose (Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Isaac & Michael, 1995; Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Burns, 2000). The questionnaire was selected for gathering data because of its benefits in terms of low-cost, wide-ranging use, self-administration and preservation of anonymity. The main advantage of the interview was that it allowed the researcher to make an in-depth examination of information drawn from all participants. Observation was selected as an instrument for the study because it enabled individuals to be placed in a dimension indicating degree of favourableness towards the curriculum change in question. Details of each research instruments used in this study are as follows:

**Questionnaires**

The questionnaires designed for use in this study aimed (i) to evaluate the impact of the professional programme on the new teaching and learning approach and (ii) to investigate the supervisors’, teachers’ and the students’ perceptions about the change in learning and teaching pedagogy.

Two separate questionnaires, though with the same purpose, were designed for the three groups of participants: the supervisors, the teachers and the students. The questionnaire for the teachers and the supervisors sought their perceptions about the issues related to curriculum change and its implementation. The students’ questionnaire was designed to elicit their perceptions of the change in learning and teaching activities. The supervisor and teacher questionnaire was designed with items to be responded to on a 5 point Likert scale from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The student questionnaire used a semantic differential scale to distinguish between positive and negative responses to the activities introduced under the new curriculum.
The supervisor and teacher questionnaire was adapted from Fullan’s work on educational change and a successful implementation framework (Fullan, 1992). The supervisor and teacher questionnaire also adapted items from the Adult Migrant English Program in Australia (Brindley, 1994) that undertook educational change by implementing major curriculum innovations using a collaborative approach and by introducing a competency-based curriculum as the basis of its program (Brindley’s work is also based partly on Fullan’s). The questionnaire investigated supervisors’ and teachers’ understanding of nine major issues about curriculum innovation and its implementation. The major issues were: perception of need, implementation plan, implementation issues, participation, decision-making, implementation support, implementation advocates, teaching / learning behaviour, and implementation timeline.

The student questionnaire was designed to investigate their perceptions of changes towards the CLT approach introduced into their English classrooms. It was adapted from Nunan’s framework (Nunan, 1988) which provides a fundamental concept of the CLT approach in EFL. The student questionnaire examined the students’ responses on five major issues: teaching methodology, learning activities, the teacher’s role, students’ involvement and the role of assessment.

Interviews

The purpose of interviews in the study was to elicit in-depth data from the personal experiences of the supervisors, teachers and students participating in the programme. The results of the interviews were triangulated with those of the questionnaires and the observations for the purposes of validity and reliability. Details of each set of supervisor, teacher and student interviews are given below:
The supervisor interviews

Interviews were conducted with the three supervisors responsible for the schools in the programme. The items in the interview investigated the supervisors' perceptions of changes in Thai educational policy and their implementation. The supervisor interviews were conducted pre- and post-PDP implementation as a means of identifying changes in the supervisors' perception of the new curriculum as a result of the programme.

The teacher interviews

The teacher interviews sought information on parallel issues raised in the observation checklist and to obtain more detailed personal accounts from the teachers participating in the programme. The teachers were asked about the teaching-learning methodology and the classroom activities they used before and after participating in the PDP. The interview comprised seven major questions with further probe questions.

The teacher interviews also specifically sought information on issues raised in response to the teacher questionnaire. Their purpose in this regard was to investigate in greater detail these participants' pre- and post-PDP perceptions of the curriculum innovation required of them, as well as their view of the impact the new teaching method had in their own classrooms.

The student interviews

These interviews sought information from the students participating in the programme about their perceptions of changes in the EFL learning and teaching in their classroom. The interviews also elicited students' opinions about their learning outcomes as a result of the new teaching methodology. In conducting the students' interviews, three students from each of the nine classes participating in the programme were selected by their teacher to be representative of the student abilities in their class: an above average, an average and a below average student as identified confidentially by the class teacher. The interview was conducted at the beginning of the programme and
at the end of the programme in order to compare the results between the previous learning method and the new one.

Observation

An observation checklist was designed for use in this study to serve two purposes:

(i) to monitor the teachers' performances in their classrooms during the PDP implementation (these observations were made by supervisors every fortnight during school visits), and (ii) to examine whether or not a task-based learning approach, in combination with a coaching model, led to a greater use of the CLT approach than previously. (For this latter purpose, one lesson by each teacher was videotaped before the PDP, and one at the end of the PDP. Details of this procedure are given below in Section 3.1.1.)

The observation checklist comprised six domains which indicated major aspects of the CLT approach in EFL teaching, namely: the objective of the pedagogy, types of learning and teaching activities, teacher's role, learner's role, materials used, and assessment.

The observation checklist used during the PDP implementation aimed to monitor the teachers' performance on classroom management in order to assist them to become more confident and secure during their implementation of the CLT approach. The observations allowed the supervisors when they visited schools to provide feedback to each of the teachers, as well as to assist in coaching the teachers on the use of the new teaching methodology in their classroom.

The observation checklist used at the end of the PDP implementation also aimed to assess to what extent each of the teachers participating in the programme had moved their teaching performance closer to the CLT approach when compared with their teaching before the PDP.
4.2.4 Development of materials for the PDP

The development of materials used in the PDP was prepared in Australia before the researcher left for Thailand to conduct the programme in Thai schools in February 2000. The preparation of materials was based on four areas of study:

(i) the curriculum reform, specifically in the area of curriculum change in English teaching,
(ii) the new policy on teaching and learning which focused on a learner-centred classroom,
(iii) the CLT approach, and
(iv) Task-based Learning teaching methods as a means of fostering the greater use of CLT.

The materials used in the workshops were classified into two groups: materials in the Thai language, and those in the English language. The materials in the Thai language, relevant to the curriculum and education reform in accordance with the Thai Education Act, were mainly official government documents supplemented by the Office of National Education Commission, Bangkok. These included the New Education Act, 1999, and the new educational policy on teaching and learning, which focuses on a learner-centred classroom.

The materials in English, concerned with the TBL and CLT, were prepared in and brought from Australia. These materials provided the supervisors and teachers with a concept of CLT and a framework of TBL (Appendix P), sample types of tasks (Appendix Q), sample lesson plans (Appendix R), and sample communicative activities (Appendix S). The researcher realised there would be a language barrier with the English materials among the supervisors and teachers in the study, so they provided them with clear explanations in Thai during the workshop.
4.3 Initial phase of the PDP

The initial phase of the PDP involved the data gathering for pre-test results, the conducting of the intensive training workshop for teachers and the seminar for supervisors. The pre-test data gathering was conducted through the three research instruments; a classroom observation checklist, a questionnaire and an interview during the teachers' workshop and the supervisor seminar. Both the teacher intensive training workshop and the supervisor seminar aimed to provide the supervisors and teachers who volunteered to participate in the programme with: (i) a better understanding of the revised national statements, curriculum profiles and the new policy on teaching and learning, (ii) a guide for the teachers to implement the new curriculum successfully at the classroom level, and (iii) further on-site coaching in order to develop the teachers' confidence and their level of CLT performance.

4.3.1 Videotaping each of the teachers' lesson before the programme

The purpose of the videotaped classroom observations used in the study was to assess teachers' classroom practice before and after the PDP in order to investigate whether or not the teaching innovation had any apparent impact. The observation checklist comprised six major aspects, which reflected the new way of teaching and learning within the CLT approach. These were types of learning and teaching activities, including the learners' role, the teacher's role and the role of instructional materials and assessment.

With the permission of the participants, arrangements to conduct videotaping were negotiated between the teachers and the supervisors. The purpose was to describe the teachers' present teaching method, how students acted and how they were involved in classroom activities before the implementation. The first videotapes were taken during the second school term before the summer break. Each of the nine key teachers was videotaped for about one hour during a standard EFL lesson. The provincial education department provided and supported the technician and equipment for the videotaping. Before the
classroom visits to videotape lessons, the teachers, the supervisors, the principals and the technician were all informed about the purpose of the videotapes. Permission was gained from the educational authorities, the principal and the teachers before videotaping took place. The videotaping was conducted again at the end of the PDP. All participants were again informed and a time arranged for this second session, which was undertaken in the same class as the first session.

4.3.2 Pre-PDP supervisors' seminar and teachers' workshop

The supervisor in-service training programme was organized every fortnight for eight sessions during the summer break (4 months). These regular, full-day fortnightly meetings aimed to provide the three supervisors with a better understanding of the new curriculum and its implementation, specifically in the area of EFL teaching. They also provided the researcher and the supervisors with opportunities to discuss the implementation plan in schools in the next school term.

The supervisor seminar involved: (i) an explanation of the new curriculum reform, specifically in the area of curriculum change in EFL teaching, (ii) an explanation of the new policy on teaching and learning which focused on a learner-centred classroom, (iii) discussion of the CLT approach, and (iv) demonstrating Task-Based Learning teaching methods as a means of fostering the greater use of CLT.

The three-day teacher workshop was held in the week before the first school term began. It covered both theoretical and practical knowledge in relation to the new curriculum and its implementation in accordance with the new educational policy. During the workshop, feedback was given by the supervisors on the teaching as it related to CLT and based on the observation checklist. One teacher then volunteered to give a demonstration for teaching
colleagues and supervisors in the teacher workshop. The schedule for the teachers’ intensive training workshop is provided in Appendix O.

During the in-service training session, both the supervisor and teacher were asked to comment independently on the teacher’s classroom teaching from the video and using the observation checklist. The videotapes allowed each teacher to have feedback on the extent that her teaching gave evidence of using the CLT approach and of moving towards a learner-centred classroom. The videotapes were accepted as a valuable tool to enable the supervisors and the teachers to discuss such practical issues as the teacher’s role, learning activities, student involvement and learning materials. It also provided examples of teaching experiences to share during the PDP.

To address issues of internal and external validity (Burns, 2000), an outside specialist (i.e., an education supervisor from another province, which was not the project site), was invited to view one teacher’s classroom videotape taken both before and after the programme implementation using the same observation checklist. This was because of the researcher’s concerns about the reliability of the instrument and the researcher’s possible bias about the results of the study (Burns, 2000).

4.3.3 The conducting of the pre-test

Interview

The interviews were conducted with different groups of participants, supervisors, teachers and students. The supervisor, teacher and student interviews were conducted before and after the programme. The aim of the interviews conducted before the programme was to investigate the participants’ perceived understanding about the curriculum innovation implementation before the introduction of the new teaching method in their classes. The interviews conducted at the end of the programme aimed to evaluate the impact of the programme on the new teaching methods introduced.
All interviews were conducted in a private room and ranged from 30 to 60 minutes. With permission from each of the subjects, the interviews were audiotape recorded for subsequent transcription. At the conclusion of the interviews, both before and after the programme implementation, the interviewee was issued with a copy of the questionnaire and asked to complete it and return to the researcher.

The data gathered from the interviews was transcribed and translated initially by the researcher from Thai to English. The transcriptions were then checked by a native Thai-speaking student studying at The University of Tasmania.

**Questionnaires**

Questionnaires used in this study aimed to gather data from supervisors, teachers and students for two main purposes: first, to evaluate the effectiveness of the PDP when implemented and, second, to investigate perceptions of the curriculum innovation implementation among the participants.

The questionnaires were conducted with the three groups of participants (supervisors, teachers and students) both before and after the programme implementation. The questionnaires were completed by each of the groups of participants at the conclusion of their interviews with the researcher.

**4.4 Implementation phase of the PDP**

The implementation phase of the PDP involved a school follow-up for coaching each teacher participating in the PDP. The aim of the school visits was to assist the teachers to implement the new teaching and learning methodology in their classrooms. The visits also reduced the difficulties of the change by providing opportunities for teachers to clarify on-site and immediately with the supervisors and the researcher any CLT implementation issues they faced in the classroom. The school visits were organized with each of the key teachers who participated in the programme every two weeks for five months during the first
school semester. Each teacher therefore received a total of 10 visits from a
supervisor and the researcher together. Each teacher was given notice at least
one week in advance about the date and time for school visits.

The purpose of the direct classroom observations was to monitor the teachers'
teaching during school visits by the supervisors. The observations were a key
component in the on-site coaching and assistance provided to teachers as part
of the PDP. The same observation checklist as was used to analyse the
videotapes was employed for direct classroom observations in order to provide
detailed and comprehensive feedback to the teachers. Post-lesson discussion
between teacher, supervisor and researcher allowed opportunities to focus on
the problems and difficulties encountered by the teachers during their
implementation of the new teaching method. In this way the PDP became
tailored to the needs of each teacher and assisted them to find greater
independence and a successful personal teaching style. They gained confidence
in developing an individual best practice, and avoided making comparisons
with colleagues or others involved in the PDP. The observation checklist
feedback was the basis for post-lesson discussions and contributed to the
qualitative data gathered through interviews.

Four monthly meetings were also organised for each group of teachers who
worked in the same city. The purpose of these meetings was to provide peer
group support for sharing ideas and resources, and to discuss implementation
issues. The group support also helped the teachers to exchange accounts of
their experiences of the new teaching method.

4.5 The Evaluation phase of the PDP

The evaluation phase of the PDP involved the analysis of data gathered which
consisted of information collected using different methods:

(i) videotapes of teachers' classroom teaching taken both before
    and after the implementation of the programme,
(ii) audio-tape recorded and transcribed interviews with the teachers, supervisors and students conducted before, during and at the end of the programme,

(iii) completed questionnaires from the teachers, supervisors and students taken before and the end of the programme, and

(iv) classroom observation.

The quantitative data from the questionnaire used in the study were analysed manually to provide basic descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) (Burns, 2000).

The qualitative data from the interviews were analysed by a modified form of grounded theory, described by Strauss and Corbin (1998). The process of open coding was undertaken and the results were presented as descriptions of the themes and issues identified in the study’s framework. The transcript data were analysed manually, rather than with the assistance of a computerised qualitative tool.

The sub-research questions were addressed by the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data in the following way. For the first sub-research question, “Does a task-based learning approach, in combination with a coaching model, lead to a greater use of the Communicative Language Teaching approach?” the quantitative data were drawn from the observation checklists applied to the pre- and post-PDP videotapes, while the qualitative data were obtained from the interviews, again both pre- and post-PDP. For the second sub-research question, “What are the perceptions of teachers, students and supervisors about the implementation of the innovation?” the quantitative data were obtained from the questionnaire rating scales and the qualitative data came from interviews. Both forms of data gathering were conducted before and after the PDP. Table 4.2 below overviews of the data analysis methods employed.
**Table 4.2:** Overview of research questions detailing the data gathering approaches employed, participants involved and timeline

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research questions</th>
<th>Data gathering approach</th>
<th>Participants involved</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Main research question</strong></td>
<td><em>Questionnaire</em></td>
<td><em>Teachers</em></td>
<td>Before &amp; after programme implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does the professional development programme designed for this study lead to changes in classroom practice to accord with the Thai National Education Act 1999?</td>
<td><em>Classroom observation</em></td>
<td><em>Students</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Interview</em></td>
<td><em>Supervisors</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Research sub-question 1</strong></td>
<td><em>Classroom observation</em></td>
<td><em>Teachers</em></td>
<td>Before &amp; after programme implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does a task-based learning approach, in combination with a coaching model, lead to a greater use of communicative language teaching by teachers involved in the professional development programme?</td>
<td><em>checklist</em></td>
<td><em>Students</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Interview</em></td>
<td><em>Supervisors</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Research sub-question 2</strong></td>
<td><em>Questionnaire</em></td>
<td><em>Teachers</em></td>
<td>Before &amp; after programme implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is the change in participants' perceptions of curriculum innovation as a result of the professional development programme?</td>
<td><em>Interview</em></td>
<td><em>Students</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Supervisors</em></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Summary**

This chapter presents details of the research design and approach adopted in the study. It justifies the research methods adopted in the study, and discusses issues of internal and external validity and reliability.

The design of the study was multi-method, a combination of quantitative (quasi-experimental) and qualitative research methods. The study also used multiple sites, employing urban and rural areas. The school/class sizes varied from large through medium to small. The study was conducted with three groups of participants: the supervisors as facilitators and supporters of curriculum implementation, teachers as key implementers at the classroom level, and students as recipients of the direct impact of the change in pedagogy.

The study was conducted in three stages. Phase 1 dealt with the negotiation to access the research sites, schools and participants. Phase 2 covered the two separate in-service training workshops for supervisors and teachers. Phase 3
was the school follow-up which aimed to monitor the progress of each key teacher as she implemented the new curriculum in her classroom.

It was intended that the design of the research methods adopted in this study would provide consistent triangulation and would also enhance the study's internal and external validity (Burns, 1994; Isaac & Michael, 1995). Table 4.3 below overviews the research design which has multiple phases, sites, participant roles, activities and instruments.

Table 4.3: Overview of the research design: persons involved, activities, data gathering approach and timeline

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Persons involved</th>
<th>Data gathering approach</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phase 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Permission to conduct research</td>
<td>Liaise with Education Authorities</td>
<td>Superintendent Ed. Supervisors Principals Teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td>1999. December</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Selection of the research site</td>
<td>- mail</td>
<td>- telephone</td>
<td>- facsimile</td>
<td>- personal contact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Development of the research instruments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2000. February</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Conducting pre-tests</td>
<td>In-service workshops</td>
<td>Ed. Supervisors Teachers</td>
<td>Questionnaire Interview Classroom observation checklist Videotape</td>
<td>February March April May</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. In-service workshops for the supervisors and the teachers as a part of the professional development programme</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. School follow-up: teacher classroom implementation under supervision and coaching</td>
<td>School visits Classroom observation Discussion</td>
<td>Ed. Supervisors Teachers</td>
<td>Classroom observation checklist Interview individual group questionnaire</td>
<td>June July August September</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Conducting post-tests</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Data analysis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3 continues...
CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS RELATED TO RESEARCH

SUB-QUESTION 1

Introduction

This chapter addresses findings related to the first research sub-question: Does task-based learning in combination with a coaching approach lead to a greater use of communicative language teaching? In fact, this research sub-question is broken down from the main research question, Does the professional development programme designed for this study lead to changes in classroom practice to accord with the Thai National Education Act of 1999? But this research sub-question examines a specific issue on how task-based learning assisted the Thai EFL teachers to make greater use of CLT in their English classrooms. The study's broad answer to this question is in the affirmative. In this chapter, the findings are based on the perceptions of the participants in the professional development programme (PDP), in particular the judgments that the supervisors formed about teachers' use and understanding of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach, and the self-perceptions of the teachers themselves.

The study showed that task-based learning, in combination with a coaching approach, assisted the selected Thai EFL teachers to understand and implement a CLT approach. This better understanding and capacity for change were demonstrated in six key aspects of teaching method which are taken by Nunan (1988) to indicate the use of CLT. This chapter, in presenting the findings in relation to sub-question 1, deals with the following significant indicators of a CLT approach:
5.1 awareness of the general objective,
5.2 learning and teaching activities,
5.3 learners' role,
5.4 teachers' role,
5.5 instructional materials, and
5.6 the role of assessment and evaluation.

The research data were obtained from two main instruments: (i) the classroom observation checklists which generated quantitative data and were completed by the supervisors, and (ii) the interviews conducted with the teachers and their supervisors which yielded qualitative data. The data indicate the extent to which each teacher who participated in the PDP made greater use of the CLT approach as a result of the programme.

In each of the following sections observational data are presented using tables, while the interview data are represented as selected quotation from supervisors' and teachers' responses, and give more detailed information about participants' understanding of CLT issues.

5.1 The general objective of CLT

In this section, the teachers' awareness of the main goals of CLT is examined. The results obtained from supervisors' ratings in classroom observation checklists are presented first. Second, the data from interviews of the supervisors and teachers are presented. A summary of the findings is given at the end of the section.

A fundamental purpose of the CLT approach is to develop learners' language skills for communication, rather than to focus on learning the structures or grammar of the language. This new teaching approach requires the classroom teacher to provide learning situations that give learners opportunities to acquire
English through communicative language activities. It is, therefore, the development of fluency of the language that is in the crucial focus of this new teaching method (Littlewood, 1981; Johnson, 1982; Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Nunan, 1988).

Data collected in relation to the teachers' understanding of a concept central to the CLT approach are presented in Table 5.1. The supervisors were asked in the observation checklist to rate, in their views, to what extent the teachers' approaches showed awareness of the belief that 'Development of fluency is more important than formal accuracy'. The rating was based on the frequency with which the teacher showed this awareness in their classroom practice – never, occasionally, sometimes, often, always.

Table 5.1: Supervisors' rating of the frequency with which teachers' classroom practice indicates awareness of the purpose of the CLT approach, pre- & post-PDP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City, Schools, Supervisors &amp; Teachers</th>
<th>Supervisors' ratings of teacher awareness of the purpose of the CLT approach</th>
<th>Questionnaire Item 1 on teachers' practice indicating their awareness that development of fluency is more important than formal accuracy.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>City A (Supervisor 1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 1 (large school)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 2 (medium-sized school)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 3 (small school)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City B (Supervisor 2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 4 (large school)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 5 (medium-sized school)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 6 (small school)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City C (Supervisor 3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 7 (large school)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 8 (medium-sized school)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 9 (small school)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.1 shows that after implementing the PDP all teachers participating in the programme were rated higher by the supervisors on their awareness of the purpose of the CLT approach in terms of developing fluency rather than formal accuracy. For eight of the nine teachers the supervisors indicated that they thought the teaching approaches prior to the PDP showed no evidence of applying a CLT approach; five of these were rated as going from never showing awareness of the CLT approach’s focus on fluency to always doing so, a very marked shift in teaching practice. The one teacher who showed evidence of sometimes applying CLT in her class before the PDP being implemented was rated as making a significant change by, afterwards, using it always. It is to be noted that it was with large classes that the teachers were rated as coming to use CLT always, while the least change in teaching approach was observed with small classes (which differs from teachers’ own perceptions of the difficulty of using CLT with large classes; see below).

The interview data show a similarly striking change in teaching practices and the understandings which underpin them. Before the PDP, only one teacher (of a large class from a medium-sized city) was reported by her supervisor to be using CLT methods, and then it was only sometimes. All other teachers participating in the programme were perceived instead to follow traditional approaches that emphasise the form of the language; the teaching methods these teachers used were not viewed as helping students to develop their English language skills for communication. The supervisors’ interview data confirms the judgment that, before the PDP, most classrooms were very far from being CLT-based. What students did in the class was largely memorization of vocabulary and language patterns. This can be represented by a comment about the pre-PDP teaching methods typically being employed by these teachers, made by one of the supervisors (translated from the original Thai, as are all the following interview data):
This teacher tried very hard to move her class towards communicative language learning in her classroom, but the activities she has introduced didn’t help students much. The activities are very controlled and heavily based on grammar. The classroom is very far from communicative. What students learn from this class is memorizing vocabularies and language patterns. (Supervisor 2)

The supervisors also commented on students’ lack of involvement in the classroom prior to the PDP. They commented that the classroom was very passive and very much dominated by the teacher. The supervisors commented that students had little opportunity to be involved in learning activities:

This classroom is very boring. It is very far from a learner-centred classroom. Students don’t have any chance for classroom participation. (Supervisor 3)

The teacher is very controlling of the class and students don’t have any chance to get involved in classroom activities. Students don’t enjoy learning and the teacher is very exhausted because she speaks all the time. (Supervisor 1)

The supervisors noted, too, that the teachers relied heavily on textbooks and did not promote classroom communication much:

This teacher relied heavily on the textbooks. I don’t think that her students could learn and use the English language she taught for communication. Students learnt by memorizing what she taught from the textbook which is not related to real life. (Supervisor 3)

Before participation in the PDP, the teachers were asked to describe the teaching method they used to promote their students’ learning. Most teachers reported that they tried very hard to implement the CLT approach in their classes. The teachers also reported, however, that it was difficult to use this approach in Thai classrooms and usually it was not successful. They noted, for example, that it was difficult to use the CLT approach with large classes where the students lacked English language proficiency for communication or when there was a lack of ‘real’ situations in which to use English:
The Communicative Language Teaching approach is my desired teaching method and I have tried to implement it in my English class. It doesn’t work well with 50 students in one class like my class. I can’t help every student to practise their English. (Teacher 1)

My students have a problem with their vocabularies. They want to use English for communication, but they don’t know how to say it. (Teacher 6)

Students don’t have any chances to speak English outside their class when they go home. (Teacher 7)

A very different picture emerges from the post-PDP interviews. Here, when the supervisors were asked about their perceptions of teachers’ understanding of the purpose of the CLT approach, they reported that the teachers were able to express more clearly their understanding of the new teaching method and how to implement it in their English language classrooms. The supervisors also commented that most classrooms became more active and that learning activities introduced by the teachers encouraged the students to practise English for communicative purposes. A representative sample of the supervisors’ comments (translated from the original Thai) was:

Learning activities designed by the teacher are very much communicative activities. Her students get opportunities to practise their English through these activities. The students are enthusiastic about doing activities to complete their tasks. (Supervisor 1)

Her classroom is changing a lot. She feels more confident using a new teaching method. Her class is active. Activities are meaningful. It is a great move. (Supervisor 3)

The teachers’ interview data indicated that after the implementation of the PDP, they were also very satisfied with their English classes. The teachers commented that their classrooms became more active as a result of the use of the new teaching method. The teachers reported that communicative activities encouraged the students to practise their English for communication and to
become more involved in their learning. The teachers also indicated that their classrooms became more learner-centred.

Before participating in this programme, I taught with ‘chalk and talk’. The new teaching method encourages me to create learning situations for students. (Teacher 2)

I like the new teaching method. It moves a teacher from a person who always controls the class and it allows students more participation in the class. (Teacher 5)

Students are very happy learning this way. They have more involvement in learning activities and activities which relate to their real life are meaningful. (Teacher 4)

These comments accord with the data from the supervisors in showing that it was possible for these Thai teachers to adopt the CLT approach successfully into their classrooms. They reported positive perceptions on the CLT approach as this teaching method encouraged their students to develop their English for communication. However, this change in attitude and practice did not happen immediately; during the implementation of the PDP most teachers reported difficulties with the new approach. These included difficulties in changing their own beliefs and perceptions, time management of classroom activities, and a lack of skills in designing communicative tasks and activities.

The problem in this case is that the teacher is worried that students won’t learn vocabulary and language patterns so she spends too much time on pattern drills until there is little time left for students for practising communication. (Supervisor 1 talking about Teacher 2)

I think she understands the concept of the new teaching method, but she needs more time for skill development. She needs more coaching on how to design communicative activities and how to apply them in the class. It is hard for her to change, specifically to change activities in her class. (Supervisor 1 talking about Teacher 3)

She needs more time to practise her [new teaching] skills. She controlled her students less, but sometimes she can’t wait to allow her students to
complete the tasks and she tells them the answers. (Supervisor 3 talking about Teacher 9)

Overall, taking both quantitative and qualitative data into account, this part of the study showed that after the implementation of the PDP the participating teachers demonstrated increased understanding of the purpose of the CLT approach alongside their introduction of it into their classes. Most significantly, the data indicated task-based learning approach (TBL) providing by the teachers encouraged the students to develop their English language skills for communication through focussing more on students’ development of English language fluency. It was reported by both supervisors and teachers that the students became more active learners in the class and were encouraged to become involved in learning activities. Furthermore, the study showed that learning activities provided by the teachers were meaningful and assisted the students to practise their English language skills for communication. By contrast, the pre-test observation data showed that most classes were very teacher-centred and the teaching method used by the teachers at this stage did not assist their students to develop communicative English language skills. It was reported that what the students had been learning in the classroom was memorisation of language patterns and engaging in learning activities that were based heavily on the grammar of the language.

5.2 Learning and teaching activities

In this section, the findings related to the use of learning and teaching activities appropriate to the CLT approach by the teachers participating in the PDP are presented. First, the findings from the classroom observation checklist data are given. These are followed by the data from the interviews. A summary of the findings is presented at the end of the section.

In the CLT approach, learning activities require a high degree of learners’ participation. This occurs when learners practise meaningful, collaborative tasks
such as sharing information and in information gap activities. Teachers need to have a clear understanding of the purpose of these tasks in order to support their students' learning and to provide the classroom situations in which the students can develop their comprehension skills in the target language (Breen, 1984; Candlin & Murphy, 1987; Prabhu, 1987; Nunan, 1988; Long & Crookes, 1992, 1993; Skehan, 1992; Gass & Crookes, 1993; Willis, 1996).

The data gained from supervisors' checklists rating teachers' awareness of appropriate learning activities in CLT before and after the implementation of the PDP are presented in Table 5.2 overleaf.

The data indicate that a majority of teachers were rated highly by the supervisor after the PDP for showing evidence of designing and conducting communicative tasks and learning activities which assisted the students to develop their communicative learning skills (items 1 – 9). Six of the nine teachers were reported as providing their students with learning activities which allow a high degree of learner participation (item 1), focus on meaningful activities (items 2, 8), involve information sharing (items 3, 6), enhance negotiation (item 4), and involve learners in different roles and routines (items 5, 7, 9). Three of the teachers (two from a large city with medium-sized and small classes, and one from a small city with a small class), however, were not rated as using any of the indicators of communicative activities in their classrooms above 'sometimes', despite participating in the PDP. On some of the indicators, especially allowing for conversation practice, two of these three teachers still 'never' or only 'occasionally' adopted CLT activities. On the more positive side, it should be noted that only Teachers 4 and 5 were rated as showing any evidence of using learning activities that reflect the CLT approach prior to the PDP, but that after it six of the teachers used the whole range of communicative activities 'often' or 'always'.

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In the interviews conducted before the PDP was implemented, the supervisors reported that the learning activities used by the teachers were very controlled and relied heavily on grammar-based instruction. The supervisors reported that these learning activities did not help to develop the students' English language skills for communication and did not allow student involvement in the learning process.

Activities are very controlled and heavily based on the grammar of the language. Students don't have any chance to get involved in classroom activities. The class is very passive. *(Supervisor 1)*

Activities are not related to the real world. Students learn by memorizing what their teacher taught them. *(Supervisor 3)*

Classroom activities commonly in use were based on the language pattern drills, which emphasised the form of the language. The teachers themselves reported that they attempted to implement communicative activities in their classrooms, but that these did not appear to be much use in assisting their students to develop communicative language skills:

The class is too large so I can't help every student to practise. *(Teacher 1)*

I use a variety of activities to help students to learn. The problem is that they can't use English for communication. *(Teacher 4)*

I prefer group activities but students make a loud noise and it disturbs the next class. *(Teacher 7)*
Table 5.2  Supervisors' rating of the frequency with which teachers use communicative learning activities, pre- & post-PDP

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</table>

Rating scale: 0 = Never 1 = Occasionally 2 = Sometimes 3 = Often 4 = Always
One of the major differences between supervisors' and teachers' perceptions of classroom activities prior to the PDP was the supervisors' belief that the teachers did not expect their students to learn by themselves by participating in communicative activities. They reported that the teachers interrupted while the students were working because the teachers could not wait for the students to get the answers by themselves.

Activities can lead to communication, but the teacher is still worried that students can’t find answers so she tells them those answers. She doesn’t trust her students. (Supervisor 2)

The teachers don’t explain to students what to do before telling them to get on with activities so they can’t do them and the lesson is not smooth. In the end, the teachers are back to their [usual] role, controlling students to get them to do what they want. (Supervisor 3)

The post-PDP interviews reveal a very different picture. Supervisors reported being generally satisfied with the learning tasks designed by the teachers and that these allowed students to have more participation in the learning process. The communicative tasks teachers used after participating in the programme assisted the students to practise and develop their English language skills for communication and enabled classrooms to become more learner-centred. The supervisors’ comments included:

The classroom activities have changed to communicative activities which allow students more chances to get involved. The classroom is more active and the teacher is less concerned with controlling the students in comparison to the past. (Supervisor 1)

I can see that activities allow students to have more participation. The classroom has become more learner-centred. (Supervisor 3)

It was reported by the supervisors that for implementation of the new curriculum to succeed it was essential for participants to have a clear understanding of CLT-based learning activities. This applied not only to teachers, but also to the supervisors who were facilitating and supporting schools and teachers:
I had a wrong concept about meaningful activities and that became clear to me when I joined this programme. Now I have a clear concept of how a meaningful activity can help students to make a link between what they learn in class and real life. (Supervisor 2)

The teachers were also asked before and after the implementation of the PDP to report their understanding of communicative activities in CLT, and they indicated that it was much clearer afterwards. Like the supervisors, the teachers reported that the learning tasks they designed encouraged their students to participate more in classroom learning; they were more meaningful and linked to real life outside the class.

Learning activities allow students to get more involvement in classroom activities. Students try to use their English for communication. The classroom is more active. (Teacher 6)

Students are happy to learn English and they are confident to speak English for communication. The new teaching method allows students to be involved in activities, to work in groups and help each other. (Teacher 7)

Although the study showed that, after the implementation of the PDP, the teachers’ understanding of communicative activities in CLT had developed, some teachers reported that they found difficulty in implementing communicative activities in their classes, especially at first. The difficulties they mentioned included the challenge of designing suitable activities, their own deficiencies in English and the students’ limited vocabularies:

It is hard to design tasks which help students to meet their learning objectives. I didn’t do well at the beginning. It was new to me. (Teacher 7)

I sometimes don’t know words and pronunciations when students ask me. (Teacher 8)

It is not smooth when students do activities. Students have limited vocabularies, but they need to communicate to other students when they are doing activities. (Teacher 3)
The study showed that after the PDP implementation, teachers participating in the programme demonstrated greater understanding of almost all aspects of the communicative learning activities used in the CLT approach. Communicative tasks introduced by the teachers allowed for greater student participation and encouraged their students to develop language skills for communication. It was reported by supervisors that the learning tasks designed by these teachers for their students created opportunities for meaningful collaboration among the students and that learning activities were linked to the students' real life outside the classroom. However, the interview data show that the teachers also faced difficulties, including designing appropriate communicative tasks and activities and applying these communicative activities in their classrooms.

5.3 The learners' role

This section presents data on the supervisors' perceptions of teachers' understanding of the role of learners in a CLT approach. The ratings made by supervisors in checklists after viewing videotapes of classroom teaching before and after the PDP are presented first; the qualitative data drawn from interviews of supervisors and teachers follow. A summary of the findings related to this topic is presented at the end of the section.

In the CLT approach, learners are expected to negotiate meaning in interactive learning and to convey information through undertaking communicative tasks designed by the teacher. The implication is that individual learners in the CLT classroom should contribute as much as they gain, and thereby learn interdependently. Questions on these two issues yielded the quantitative data that indicate to what degree the teachers participating in the PDP were able to assist students to become negotiators in the learning process and contributors of information during group work (Candlin, 1980; Richards & Rogers, 1986; Nunan, 1988; Willis, 1996).
Table 5.3 shows how the PDP led to a greatly increased focus on meaning-making in classroom activities, and that these communicative tasks enabled students to convey factual information. The data indicate that the students in the classes of a majority of teachers (six of the nine) were rated as always being encouraged to negotiate meaning and convey factual information in class activities. Once again Teachers 2, 3 and 9 are profiled as making less change to their classrooms after the PDP, but they 'occasionally' or 'sometimes' used strategies to prompt students to use language to make meaning, where they had not done so at all before. Only Teachers 4 and 5 were rated by their supervisors as showing evidence of using meaning-focused classroom activities.

**Table 5.3:** Supervisors’ rating of teachers’ perceptions of the learners’ role, pre- & post-PDP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City, Supervisor, Class size &amp; Teacher</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor’s rating of teachers’ perceptions of the learners’ role, pre- &amp; post-PDP</td>
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<tr>
<td>City A (Supervisor 1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher 1 (large school)</td>
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<td>Teacher 2 (medium school)</td>
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<td>Teacher 3 (small school)</td>
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<tr>
<td>City B (Supervisor 2)</td>
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<td>Teacher 4 (large school)</td>
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<td>Teacher 5 (medium school)</td>
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<td>Teacher 6 (small school)</td>
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<td>City C (Supervisor 3)</td>
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<td>Teacher 7 (large school)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher 8 (medium school)</td>
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<td>Teacher 9 (small school)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Ratingscale: 0 = Never, 1 = Occasionally, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Often, 4 = Always
Only Teachers 4 and 5 were rated by their supervisors as showing evidence of using meaning-focused classroom activities before participating in the PDP, and they, like Teachers 1, 6, 7 and 8 shifted to ‘always’ using such activities.

Before the PDP implementation, the supervisor interview data indicated that most classes were very teacher-controlled. The supervisors indicated that the students had little chance of getting involved in classroom activities because they were highly teacher-directed. Supervisor’s comments included:

The activities don’t help students to learn much. The teachers don’t trust students that they can learn and the teachers don’t allow them to learn by themselves. (Supervisor 2)

The activities are very controlled by the teacher and heavily based on grammar. Students don’t have any chances to participate in the activities. The classroom is very passive. (Supervisor 1)

The teachers’ perspective was slightly different. They reported that before participating in the programme they did use a variety of activities such as games, songs, role plays to help their students to learn English, but that the activities did not seem to help their students much to develop their communication skills. In addition, they believed that students’ attitudes to the subject inhibited their approach to communicating in their second language:

I try to get students involved in activities as much as I can. But it depends on the content of the textbook. (Teacher 9)

Students don’t enjoy learning English. They took little chance to use English in the class. (Teacher 6)

When the supervisors were asked about student involvement in learning activities after the implementation of the PDP, they reported that the students were allowed by their teachers to become more involved. There was more classroom interaction among students and between students and the teacher, and the students
became more independent and more confident in learning. Furthermore, the task-based learning approach reduced a gap between able students and weak students in terms of encouraging them to learn together in groups in the class.

The new teaching method encourages students to have more participation in the class and also reduces the gap between the bright and weak students. (Supervisor 3)

I have no doubt that students enjoy learning in this way. (Supervisor 2)

Students are more confident, more independent. The new teaching method reduces the gap between students. Group work creates cooperation among students and the teacher. (Supervisor 1)

The new teaching method serves individual differences among students. All students can learn because they don’t worry so much about comparing their results with each other. The assessment is focused on their study development, rather than achievement. (Supervisor 2)

The teacher interview data showed that they believed students had become more involved in learning activities after the implementation of the PDP. Most teachers commented that a task-based learning approach assisted them to design learning situations to encourage students to negotiate meaningful activities in the class. In addition, the teachers indicated that their students became more confident, independent and more disciplined in the classroom. Teachers’ comments included:

Students speak English more in class. They learn through learning activities, not just from the teacher. Working in groups helps students become more independent, more disciplined and responsible. (Teacher 6)

The students prefer the new way of learning. They are happy to learn English and have become more confident to speak English in the class. (Teacher 7)
The teachers also reported that the change in student role encouraged the students to become more active learners in the classroom and allowed them to learn better. The teachers reported that students’ attitudes towards learning English became more positive with the new method:

Students enjoy learning. Their attitude towards the subject of English is positive. They are not shy about speaking English in the class. *(Teacher 1)*

However, it should be noted that both supervisors and teachers commented on students finding difficulties at the beginning of the implementation of the programme, especially in making the shift from a passive to an active role. Their comments showed that the students were not confident that they could learn through activities by themselves. The students were worried about making mistakes and they lacked belief that they could become more independent learners:

Students are not confident in using English for communication in the class. They are worried that their English is incorrect when speaking and the teacher will always correct their grammar. *(Supervisor 1)*

At the beginning, students were not familiar with the new way of learning and our lessons moved very slowly. *(Teacher 3)*

The study showed that the students participating in the programme came to have increasing involvement in classroom learning activities. Students were encouraged to negotiate meaningful learning activities and become more active learners in order to complete different types of activities such as pair or group work. Initially students found it challenging to take a more responsible role in learning. The degree of student involvement in learning varied between the nine classrooms even after implementation of the programme, however, and three teachers still did not appear to be wholly committed to CLT meaning-making activities.
5.4 The teacher's role

This section addresses the findings related to changes in the teacher's role when the CLT approach is adopted. First the data obtained from supervisors' ratings in the classroom observation checklists both before and after the implementation of the PDP, and then the interview data from supervisors and teachers participating in the programme are presented.

The role of the teacher in the CLT approach requires a view of the teacher as a learning facilitator rather than a knowledge controller. This new approach to teaching encourages learners to employ suitable learning and thinking activities by which they construct and utilize their own knowledge (Quinn, 1984; Nunan, 1988; Willis, 1996). The teacher's role is to provide comprehensible input and information to students so they can gain the confidence to interact with each other by using language for natural communicative functions. It is essential that teachers provide feedback to students on how they perform communicative activities and provide suggestions for improvement (Brumfit, 1984; Nunan, 1991; Savignon, 1991). The role of the teacher in CLT actually includes three roles: that of needs analyst, counsellor and group manager of student learning (Richards & Rogers, 1986: 78).

With the adoption of the CLT approach, the teachers need to change their role from the traditional view of the teacher as a transmitter of knowledge toward a view of the teacher as a facilitator of learning. This requires teachers' greater understanding of this significant change in what is basically a paradigm shift in EFL pedagogy.

Data from the supervisors' rating of teachers in relation to their use of CLT strategies are given in Table 5.4 overleaf which compares their classroom practices before and after the implementation of the PDP. Following Quinn (1984), Nunan (1988) and Willis (1996) the three aspects of awareness of the
CLT approach chosen for the observation checklist were encouraging student-to-
student interaction, problem solving under guidance, and applying foreign
language skills in new settings.

It is clear from the table that teachers participating in the programme changed
their behaviour, some quite markedly, to become facilitators and supporters of
student learning. The data showed that five of the teachers were rated much
higher (at least three points on a four-point scale) by supervisors on their use of
CLT methods after the implementation of the PDP, and the other four, including
one who was already using such strategies 'sometimes', increased their rating by
one or two points. It was notable once again that Teachers 2 and 3, with a
medium and a small class in a large city, were rated as making a slight change in
their teaching strategies, and were acting as learning facilitators in their classes
only 'occasionally'.

Table 5.4: Supervisors' perceptions of teachers' understanding of the teacher's role in
the CLT approach, pre- and post-PDP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City, Supervisor, Classsize &amp; Teacher</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher 1 (large school)</td>
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<td>Teacher 6 (small school)</td>
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</table>
CLT approach chosen for the observation checklist were encouraging student-to-student interaction, problem solving under guidance, and applying foreign language skills in new settings.

It is clear from the table that teachers participating in the programme changed their behaviour, some quite markedly, to become facilitators and supporters of student learning. The data showed that five of the teachers were rated much higher (at least three points on a four-point scale) by supervisors on their use of CLT methods after the implementation of the PDP, and the other four, including one who was already using such strategies 'sometimes', increased their rating by one or two points. It was notable once again that Teachers 2 and 3, with a medium and a small class in a large city, were rated as making a slight change in their teaching strategies, and were acting as learning facilitators in their classes only 'occasionally'.

Table 5.4: Supervisors' perceptions of teachers' understanding of the teacher's role in the CLT approach, pre- and post-PDP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City, Supervisor, Class size &amp; Teacher</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
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<th>Post-PDP</th>
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<tbody>
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</table>

**Rating scale**
- 0 = Never
- 1 = Occasionally
- 2 = Sometimes
- 3 = Often
- 4 = Always

Interview data obtained before the implementation of the PDP show that the supervisors considered the teachers were heavily reliant on textbooks and that the content which the teacher taught from the textbook was unrelated to real life. The supervisors commented that what the teachers taught did not help the students much in developing communicative skills:

> The teacher is heavily reliant on the textbook. I don’t think that her students could use the English she taught for communicative purposes. Students speak English by memorizing from the teacher and it is not linked to the real world. *(Supervisor 2)*

In addition, the supervisors commented that before the programme, most classes were very teacher-directed and the learning activities were controlled activities:

> The classroom is very boring, very passive. It is very far from a learner-centred classroom. Students don’t have any chance for participating in learning activities. *(Supervisor 1)*

In the post-PDP interview data, the supervisors indicated that the teachers had made changes in their behaviour, and particularly in becoming more student-oriented in the classroom. The supervisors reported that the teachers had encouraged more participation among the students in their classes and had changed their role to that of a supporter of learning in order to help students develop their language skills. The supervisors commented:

> The teacher is less controlling of the class. Learning activities allow students to be more involved. The classroom becomes more active because the tasks introduced by the teacher allow students to participate. The activities are meaningful and linked to real life. *(Supervisor 3)*
The class is more open to students, and activities encourage them to learn by themselves through meaningful activities. The teacher is less controlling of the class. (Supervisor 2)

The teacher interview data indicate that after the implementation of the PDP, most teachers were satisfied with their role to become more learning facilitators in the classrooms. The teachers commented that their new role as learning facilitators assisted their students by improving the students’ English language communicative skills.

I preferred the new teaching method once I became familiar with its procedure. It changed my role to facilitator when the students were doing activities in the class. (Teacher 1)

The teachers also reported that their understanding of their role in the CLT approach became clearer after the implementation of the PDP, and they considered that a task-based learning approach helped students to participate more in learning activities in the classroom. The teachers reported that their classrooms were more open, and facilitated students getting involved in learning activities:

I have become a supporter of learning, not a person who teaches students everything. It was hard to change to this role, especially at the beginning. (Teacher 5)

I have become more confident speaking English in the class and control the class less. With the new teaching method, I spend more time preparing the lessons. But in the class, students spend most of the time doing activities. I am less controlling of the class and students participate more in the classroom. (Teacher 3)

The teachers reported that they felt more relaxed with their role in the new teaching method compared to the traditional one. They commented that with the previous teaching method the class was very teacher-directed; they seemed to talk all the time and the students forgot what they had been taught.
With the old teaching method, I was exhausted because I talked all the time in the class and students forgot what I taught them by the next morning. *(Teacher 7)*

However, the teachers reported encountering some difficulties in moving to the new role. These difficulties included designing appropriate tasks and activities for students:

The new teaching method requires teachers to have skills in designing tasks for students. It is hard for the teachers who are not familiar with it, especially designing tasks which link to real life outside the class. *(Teacher 8)*

Some teachers reported that becoming confident in students’ ability to learn independently was vital to the concept they had of their new role. The teachers described how, at the beginning, they did not trust their students to learn through self-directed activities so they ‘interfered’ in their learning:

I didn’t trust my students and I was worried that they wouldn’t learn as much as I wanted. I couldn’t wait to let them find answers by themselves so I told them the answers. *(Teacher 9)*

It was hard to control myself and not interfere in the students’ work, to let them learn through learning activities. Sometimes I didn’t trust them to learn by themselves. *(Teacher 7)*

The difficulty in using the new teaching method was that I just couldn’t wait for the students to get their work done. I was worried that they couldn’t do it so I told them the answers. *(Teacher 6)*

In general, both quantitative and qualitative data indicate that teachers following the implementation of the PDP showed increased awareness of their role as one of facilitating students’ learning. The teachers of most classes encouraged their students to have significantly more interaction with each other and involvement in the learning process. In addition, the study showed that the teachers changed their role to become more learning supporters in their classrooms, for example by
setting problems and communicative tasks which they helped the students to work through to completion. It was also noted that the teachers encouraged their students to apply their existing limited English skills in new situations in order to practise and develop their communicative abilities.

5.5  Instructional materials

This section addresses teachers' understanding of the role of instructional materials in using the CLT approach. The data obtained from supervisors' ratings on classroom observation checklists are presented first, then the interview data obtained from the supervisors and teachers are presented. A summary is included at the end of this section.

In the CLT approach, the role of instructional materials is to support students' learning so that students can develop their language skills to achieve learning goals. Their purpose is also to foster the learning process and lead to greater independence as a learner. It is vital that the materials be authentic and create a link between what students learn in the classroom and the wider world (Allwright, 1981; Nunan, 1988; Clarke, 1989; McDonough and Shaw, 1993; Willis, 1996).

The questionnaire items used for gathering data for this section focus on variety, authenticity, fostering independence, learning processes and learners' needs. The results are shown in Table 5.5 below.
Table 5.5: Supervisors' perceptions of teachers' understandings of the role of instructional materials in the CLT approach, pre- and post-PDP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City, Supervisor, Classsize &amp; Teacher</th>
<th>Pre- PDP</th>
<th>Post- PDP</th>
<th>Pre- PDP</th>
<th>Post- PDP</th>
<th>Pre- PDP</th>
<th>Post- PDP</th>
<th>Pre- PDP</th>
<th>Post- PDP</th>
<th>Pre- PDP</th>
<th>Post- PDP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 2 (medium school)</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher 3 (small school)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher 4 (large school)</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 5 (medium school)</td>
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<td>Teacher 7 (large school)</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher 8 (medium school)</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 9 (small school)</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rating scale: 0 = Never 1 = Occasionally 2 = Sometimes 3 = Often 4 = Always

From the table it can be seen that after the implementation of the PDP all teachers were rated higher by the supervisors on demonstrating greater understanding of the role of instructional materials to support their students' learning in the CLT approach. The supervisors indicated that six of the nine teachers showed strong evidence of using materials consistently to support students' learning of communicative skills in different ways. The materials used by these teachers were authentic, linked to real life, fostered independence and met learners' needs. However, the data also showed that a few teachers (especially the teachers of a
medium-sized and a small class from a large city) found difficulties in using instructional materials to support the CLT approach.

In the interviews conducted before implementation of the PDP, the supervisors commented that the teachers were heavily reliant on using textbooks as the main source of student learning. They indicated that the teachers used materials to support their teaching, not students’ learning. One supervisor commented:

The teacher heavily relied on the textbook. I don’t think that her students could use English for communicative purposes. Students could speak English by memorizing from the teacher and the English they learnt was not related to their real life. (Supervisor 3)

The teacher interview data support the supervisor’s comment above; before the implementation of the PDP all the teachers explained that they used only the textbook as the major instructional material to support their teaching in the class. They reported that they relied heavily on teaching page by page from the textbook:

In the past, I felt guilty when I couldn’t finish all of the contents in the textbook. I wanted my students to learn everything in the textbook. (Teacher 4)

With the previous teaching method, I taught by following the textbook page by page and I found that it was very boring. (Teacher 7)

The post-PDP interview data showed that most teachers had a clear understanding of the role of instructional materials in support of a CLT approach. The supervisors were asked to report on the changes in teachers’ use of instructional materials to support the CLT approach. They commented:

The role of instructional materials has changed. Before the programme the teachers used the materials to support their teaching and they were held by the teachers. But in the new teaching method the materials are used for supporting students’ learning and students themselves use them, not the teacher. (Supervisor 1)
In addition, the supervisors reported that the teachers became less dependent on using the textbooks as their major source of materials as had happened in the past.

The new teaching method encourages teachers to use a variety of instructional materials to help students to learn and to do tasks. (Supervisor 2)

The teachers themselves indicated that after the implementation of the PDP they believed they had a clearer understanding of how to use instructional materials to support their students’ learning in the CLT approach. They reported that the CLT approach encouraged them to become more independent of the textbook and that the task-based learning approach encouraged them to use a variety of materials in order to support their students’ learning:

Before joining this programme, I used only chalk and talk and the blackboard. The new teaching method encourages me to use a variety of materials and sources to support students’ learning. (Teacher 8)

I don’t rely on the textbooks much now. It depends on the tasks I design for my students; I will select instructional materials which support that task. (Teacher 1)

However, as is to be expected, they encountered some difficulties in using the materials. The teachers reported that the new types of materials required the teachers to become more fluent in spoken English.

I can’t tell my students sometimes when they want to explain something in English because I don’t know it either. (Teacher 9)

The teachers also commented that they had problems in obtaining appropriate instructional materials for the CLT approach. Most teachers reported that they needed more support materials from their school and from the education authorities.
I need to find materials myself for my students. It costs me money and consumes time to prepare materials for students. I want this support from the school or district. (Teacher 2)

Overall, the study showed that most teachers participating in the programme were rated highly by supervisors on using instructional materials to support students’ learning in their classes after the implementation of the PDP. Most teachers used different sources for meaningful learning materials geared to their students’ needs, and materials intended to foster independence in learning. The study showed that instructional materials were used by the teachers to support their students’ learning, and to link it to the real world outside the classroom. The instructional materials were also chosen to encourage students to learn actively. However, the study showed that the teachers participating in the programme initially encountered a lack of suitable instructional materials to support the CLT approach in their classrooms, and some lacked confidence in their own English communicative skills to use the materials effectively.

5.6 The role of assessment

This section addresses the issue of how teachers’ understanding of the role of assessment changed as they moved towards the CLT approach. The data obtained from supervisors’ rating of teachers’ classroom practice in regard to this issue are presented, followed by the data obtained from the supervisors and the teachers in interviews. A summary concludes the section.

The role of assessment and evaluation in the CLT approach is to foster the development of students’ learning rather than serve a judgement of their learning achievement. This new concept of assessment allows students to get involved in the learning process and the assessment is determined jointly by the teacher and students. The assessment requires a range of approaches to provide students with a comprehensive record of their progress (Brumfit, 1979; Littlewood, 1981; Nunan, 1989; Alderson and Beretta, 1992; Willis, 1996).
The perspective taken by these writers on CLT emphasises (i) partnership in evaluation between teacher and students, (ii) a range of assessment methods, (iii) continuous feedback, and (iv) guiding student learning rather than ranking student achievement. These were the key aspects of the teachers’ practice that the supervisors rated in their observation checklists. These ratings in relation to the changes in the role of assessment and evaluation in the CLT approach are presented in Table 5.6 below.

**Table 5.6:** Supervisors’ perceptions of teachers’ understandings of the role of assessment in the CLT approach, pre- and post-PDP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City, supervisor, class size &amp; teacher</th>
<th>1. Evaluation is jointly determined by teacher/student</th>
<th>2. The teacher uses a range of assessment approaches</th>
<th>3. The teacher provides students with a record of their progress</th>
<th>4. Assessments for improving student progress, not teacher’s judgement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>City A (Supervisor 1)</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Teacher 1 (large school)</td>
<td>0 4</td>
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<td>0 4</td>
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<td>Teacher 2 (medium school)</td>
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<td>0 1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher 3 (small school)</td>
<td>0 1 0 1</td>
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<td>0 1</td>
<td>0 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City B (Supervisor 2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher 4 (large school)</td>
<td>2 4 2 4</td>
<td>0 4</td>
<td>1 4</td>
<td>1 4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher 5 (medium school)</td>
<td>2 4 1 4</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>1 3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher 6 (small school)</td>
<td>0 3 0 4</td>
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<td>0 4</td>
<td>0 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City C (Supervisor 3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 7 (large school)</td>
<td>0 4 0 4</td>
<td>0 4</td>
<td>0 4</td>
<td>0 4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher 8 (medium school)</td>
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<td>0 3</td>
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<td>0 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 9 (small school)</td>
<td>0 2 0 2</td>
<td>0 2</td>
<td>0 2</td>
<td>0 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rating scale: 0 = Never, 1 = Occasionally, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Often, 4 = Always

It is clear from the table that after the implementation of the PDP all teachers participating in the programme were rated higher by supervisors on their
understandings of the role of assessment in the CLT approach. The data showed that the students in most classes became more involved in the assessment learning process (Item 1). In Item 2, the data showed that most teachers had used different approaches to assess students' learning. The result for Item 3 showed that most teachers participating in the programme provided feedback to the students on their learning progress. Finally, the results for Item 4 showed that most teachers conducted the students' assessment for improvement the students' learning, not the judgement. However, the data also showed that some teachers (e.g., a teacher in a medium and a small class from a large city and a teacher in a small class from a small city) found difficulties in making a change in the role of assessment in the CLT approach.

Before the PDP the teachers indicated that they used testing mainly to assess their students' achievement rather than learning development. Most teachers used testing as a means of summative evaluation at the middle and at the end of the school semester. In addition, it was reported that the students had little opportunity to be involved in the assessment process in the class.

Testing is mainly used to assess my students' achievement. An interview and observations are sometimes used in the class when students are doing activities, but not very often. (Teacher 4)

In the post-PDP interviews the supervisors reported that all teachers had a clear understanding of the role of assessment in the CLT approach. The supervisors reported that the teachers became more aware of the role of assessment in fostering students' learning development rather than to judge their learning achievement. The supervisors were satisfied that the teachers used a wide range of approaches for on-going assessment, not just testing as they had done in the past.

It is a good sign to see that the teachers use students' records to assess their students' progress. So they can have evidence on which they can also provide feedback to their students about their learning progress. (Supervisor 2)
The supervisors also reported that the students were allowed to become more involved in the assessment process and that they felt more relaxed about their learning in the class. Because the purpose of the assessment was to develop their own learning the students no longer worried about comparing their results with others.

The new way of assessment helps students to reduce stress and anxiety. Its goal is to develop their learning skills, not to judge their performances. So students are not concerned about comparing themselves with others. (Supervisor 1)

The teacher interview data indicated that after the implementation of the PDP they had a clear understanding of the new concept of assessment as focusing on students’ learning development:

I am not worried now about how much my students can learn. I don’t expect them to learn everything I teach them. It doesn’t matter. (Teacher 2)

The new concept of assessment is to help students to improve their learning performance, not to judge their learning performance. This helps students to reduce the sense of competition and comparison between them. (Teacher 7)

In addition, the teachers reported that, with the new teaching method, assessment was conducted regularly and more often. The teachers commented that they used different types of assessment to evaluate their students’ learning, such as students’ reports, diaries, worksheets, interviews and observation, as well as testing.

The new concept of assessment needs a variety of methods to evaluate students’ learning and I am using them more often. (Teacher 1)

I use different methods to assess my students’ progress. The new assessment helps me to provide students with systematic and useful feedback. (Teacher 5)
The teachers commented that they were satisfied with student involvement in the assessment process. The teachers reported that the students became more responsible and honest when they were asked to undertake self-assessment in the class.

Students are involved in the assessment process and they are happy to do that. The new concept of assessment encourages more interaction between teacher and student. (*Teacher 4*)

I am very surprised to find that students are very honest when I ask them to do self-assessment. I thought they might cheat to get higher scores, but they don’t. (*Teacher 1*)

On the other hand, the teachers were concerned about preparing students for the standard content-based examination from the Education Department, and this concern continued to be expressed in the post-PDP interviews:

What I am still very worried about is that the standard examination from the provincial board won’t change to go along with the new assessment. (*Teacher 9*)

This section of the study showed that the teachers had a better understanding of the concept of assessment in the CLT approach after the implementation of the PDP. The teachers used a variety of approaches to assess their students’ learning progress. The students were allowed to become more involved in the assessment procedures, such as through self-assessment, diaries and reports. In addition, the teachers provided their students with a record of their learning progress so that the assessment would assist the students to foster their own learning development. The study indicated that the new assessment benefited the students because it fostered the development of student learning and enabled them to become more relaxed about their learning. Although the teachers and the supervisors were satisfied with the new approach to assessment, most teachers were worried about the standard examination from the provincial education board, which is focused on content.
Summary

This chapter describes the findings related to the research sub-question 1 which inquired into whether the Professional Development Programme, which employed a task-based learning approach in combination with a coaching model, assisted the Thai teachers to make greater use of the Communicative Language Teaching approach in their English language classrooms.

The study showed that a task-based learning approach did assist the teachers to a greater use of the CLT approach. By focusing on communication tasks, the students were given chances to interact through meaningful activities in their classrooms. As a result of the interaction, the students developed communicative English language skills. At the same time, the tasks removed the teachers' domination in the learning process and the students had opportunities to be more involved in learning activities.

In the first section of the chapter (5.1), teachers' awareness of the general objective of the CLT approach was examined. Before the PDP, most supervisors reported that the teaching method used by these teachers did not promote students' development of English language skills for communication. Most English classes had emphasised grammar-based learning. By comparison after the implementation of the PDP, teachers reported that they had a clear understanding of the CLT approach and demonstrated it by their classroom practices.

The results from the classroom observations by the supervisors showed that the PDP assisted the teachers to implement this new English teaching method into their classes. However, most teachers reported initial difficulties when attempting to make the change towards using communicative activities.
The second section (5.2) presented findings related to the teachers' use of learning activities in the CLT approach that were introduced in the PDP. CLT requires learning activities which encourage students to participate. In this way, students can develop their English language skills through joint activities which are meaningful. After participation in the programme teachers could implement most aspects of communicative activities in their English teaching classrooms. The teachers commented positively that these activities assisted their students to develop English for communication. However, the teachers found difficulties when attempting to introduce communicative activities into their English classes, especially initially.

The third section (5.3) dealt with the teachers' awareness of the changes in the students' role brought about by introducing the CLT approach. The data showed that after the implementation of the PDP, students were allowed greater participation in learning activities in most classes. It was reported that students became more active learners in the classrooms as the result of engaging in communicative activities which encouraged them to negotiate meaning and convey factual information. The shift in the students' role that allowed them to be involved in learning activities also encouraged them to become more independent learners in the class. However, the students understandably found some difficulties at the beginning of the change to the new role of active learner. This section presented data in relation to the teacher's role in the CLT approach. In this approach teachers are expected to facilitate students' learning rather than to dictate the specific content of what students are to learn in the class. The results of the study indicated that most teachers participating in the programme became more facilitating and supportive of their students in most classes. It also showed that there were more interactions between the teacher and the students, and between students and students, in their classes after the PDP. Again the teachers reported that they found some difficulties in changing their role during the implementing of the CLT approach, especially in allowing students the time and freedom to find their own answers to communicative problems.
The following section (5.5) presented the results relating to changes in the role of instructional materials in order to support the CLT approach. The study showed that the teachers participating in the programme became more independent of the textbook as the single main instructional resource to support student learning. The teachers came to use a variety of materials from different sources to support their students' development of independent learning skills. The study showed that instructional materials used by the teachers became more authentic, in that they linked language skills to life outside the classroom. However, it was noted that the teachers encountered some difficulties with using materials. These included a lack of suitable materials to support the CLT approach, the teachers' deficiency in spoken English language skills and the limited English vocabulary of students.

The final section (5.6) presented the findings in relation to a change in assessment in accordance with CLT. The study showed that most teachers participating in the programme perceived an increased understanding of the role of assessment in the CLT approach. The study showed that the teachers had used a range of approaches to assess their students' learning, compared to the past where summative testing was usually the only assessment used. The study indicated that the students became involved in their own learning assessment in the class and it benefited them by enabling them to become more relaxed about their learning. However, most teachers were still worried about the standard examination from the provincial education board.
CHAPTER 6

FINDINGS RELATED TO RESEARCH SUB-QUESTION 2

Introduction

This chapter addresses the research sub-question 2: What is the change in participants' perceptions of curriculum innovation as a result of the professional development programme? This research sub-question is broken down from the main research question which is; Does the professional development programme designed for this study lead to changes in classroom practice to accord with the Thai National Education Act of 1999? However, this sub-question investigates participants' perceptions of curriculum innovation as a result of the PDP. It presents findings in relation to the supervisors' and teachers' understanding of the new curriculum and its implementation, and students' responses to the new way of learning introduced into their EFL classrooms. The key theoretical issues influencing the degree of success in implementing curriculum change at the classroom level are described by Fullan (1992) as: participants' perception of the need for change, participants' understanding of the changes required and the process by which they will be implemented, participation in the change process by those affected by it, and the support provided for the participants to assist them to make the change (including funding, materials, advocacy from key personnel and adequate time to gain skills in new teaching methods). These parameters are used to organise the findings presented in this chapter in the following way:

6.1 Supervisors' and teachers' perceptions of the new curriculum:
   6.1.1 the need for change,
   6.1.2 understanding of the issues relevant to the new curriculum, and
   6.1.3 beliefs about teaching methodology.

6.2 Supervisors' and teachers' perceptions of the process of curriculum implementation:
6.2.1 understanding the process of implementation,
6.2.2 participation and decision making in the process of implementation, and
6.2.3 implementation support.

6.3 Students' perceptions of the new teaching and learning method.

The data related to this sub-question were obtained through both quantitative and qualitative instruments. The quantitative data were obtained from supervisor questionnaires (N=3), teacher questionnaires (N=9) and student questionnaires (N=231). The questionnaires sought the participants' perceptions about the new curriculum and its implementation in the classroom. The questionnaires were administered both before and after the implementation of the PDP.

The qualitative data were obtained from supervisor, teacher and student interviews. The interviews were also conducted both before and after PDP implementation, and obtained information from all the supervisors (N=3) and teachers (N=9), but were restricted to three representative students selected by their teachers from each of the nine classes as an able, an average, and a weak student in that class (N=27).

In each section of this chapter the questionnaire results are presented first, using tables to focus on the change in perceptions as a result of the PDP, while the interview data are presented second, using selected quotations from the participants' responses in order to provide more detailed information about each issue.

6.1 Supervisors' and teachers' perceptions of the new curriculum
6.1.1 The need for change

Fullan (1992) argued that the degree to which curriculum innovation can be implemented successfully depends upon people perceiving a need for it. This need he described in terms of external and internal factors, both of which are considered to have an effect on implementation. External factors relate to national education policy and to a change in the social, political and economic environment. Internal factors relate to educators seeking alternative ways to provide students with a better quality of learning.

Table 6.1 below shows the survey respondents’ ratings of the need for change, grouping the questions according to whether they refer to an internal or an external factor, and facilitating the comparison of pre- and post-PDP perceptions.
Table 6.1: Supervisors' and teachers' pre- and post-PDP perceptions of the need for change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
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<th>Post-PDP</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
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</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher 7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher 8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 9</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teaching responses (averages):

| Teachers' responses (averages) | 3.8 | 4.1 | 3.9 | 4.3 | 4.1 | 4.2 | 4.1 | 4.4 |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire items with participant responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. The change in political and economic climate has meant Thailand needs a learner-centered curriculum.
2. The change in national education policy has meant Thailand needs a learner-centered curriculum.
3. The need for change is because I would like to provide students with quality programmes.
4. The need for change is because of the need for sequential courses and pathways for students.

Rating scale: 1 = Strongly disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Not sure 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly agree
The data indicate that all supervisors agreed before the PDP on the need for a learner-centred curriculum according to the four identified external and internal factors, and strongly agreed after the PDP (with the exception of responses on two issues which remained at 4). The PDP appears to have convinced the supervisors still more strongly of the need for implementing a learner-centred curriculum.

Although the influence of the PDP was not so marked upon the teachers' perceptions of the need for change, it still made a difference on average to their ratings. On external factors, the average rating before the PDP was 3.85 (approaching the position that they agreed the need for change arose from the effect of the political and economic climate and from the influence of education policy), and this increased to 4.2 on average after the PDP. On the issue of a learner-centred curriculum being in the best interests of students because it improved the quality of their language education and its relevance, the teachers agreed that this was the case before the PDP, and after it they expressed slightly more agreement that the new curriculum would be beneficial. The one teacher who did not agree that external factors necessitated adopting a new curriculum (T1) changed her mind after the PDP, and another (T3) who was unsure about the need for innovation came to agree strongly that internal factors and, to a lesser extent, external ones also were operating in favour of change. Paradoxically, four teachers rated the need for a learner-centred curriculum as lower on some factors after the PDP; their interview responses, however, indicated their strong commitment to the new curriculum.

In general, the interview data gathered before the PDP indicated that all the teachers believed the introduction of the new Education Act by the Government urgently pushed the need for a learner-centred curriculum. These interviews also confirmed their view that it fulfilled students' need for a better way of learning. They were not satisfied with the previous curriculum which they described as not assisting their students to learn. The teachers reported that the new curriculum would assist students to become more confident and more independent in their learning:
“I was not happy when students couldn’t remember what I taught them. They could answer in the class, but forgot by the next day.” (Teacher 5)

“The world is changing and it affects schools and education. We have to prepare for that change. I have taught English for ten years, but my students can’t use English for communication. I want to solve this problem.” (Teacher 6)

The supervisor interview data indicated that the supervisors were very positive about the implementation of a learner-centred curriculum right from the start. They commented on the social factors bringing about changes in schools and educational policy, and identified the necessity for schools to prepare students for the future:

“Thai society is changing a lot; especially there is a change in technology. It affects educational policy and schools. The learner-centred curriculum is considered a suitable way to prepare students for the change.” (Supervisor 1)

“The present curriculum doesn’t fit Thai society which is changing a lot now, specifically the change in technology which affects schools and students.” (Supervisor 3)

The interview data, both pre- and post-PDP, showed that both the supervisors and teachers perceived positively the implementation of a learner-centred curriculum as a means to provide students with a better way to develop their learning skills. Both supervisors and teachers noted that the previous curriculum emphasized memorizing content rather than developing learners’ skills. They commented that it was more important now for students to acquire skills so they could apply them for life-long learning.

“In the current curriculum, students have very little space in the classroom. The classroom is very passive and very controlled by the teacher. Students learn what their teacher wants them to learn. It shows that the curriculum doesn’t help students to develop their learning skills. The new curriculum can help students to develop their learning skills to acquire knowledge by themselves in the future.” (Supervisor 3)
“The new curriculum promotes learners. Students get benefits from the curriculum. The new curriculum allows students more involvement in the learning process. The present curriculum promotes students memorizing and what students learn in the class is very far from their real life.”

(Teacher 1)

In addition, the interview data confirmed that both the supervisors and teachers were aware that the new education act required learners to be made the centre of the learning process.

“According to the Thai education reforms, learners are recognized as the centre of the learning process. We want to see schools provide friendly learning environments for students and we expect teachers to take a role supporting students to learn. This is the aim of the new education reform.”

(Supervisor 2)

Both questionnaire and interview data showed that the supervisors and the teachers participating in the PDP had positive perceptions of the decision to implement a learner-centred curriculum. They held this view both before and after the implementation of the PDP. Both the supervisors and the teachers agreed that the need for a learner-centred curriculum arose from both external and internal factors. They agreed that the need for the new learner-centred curriculum resulted from changes in the Thai social, political and economic situation and in national education policy, and considered that it would provide the students with a better pathway to develop their learning skills.

6.1.2 Understanding of the issues relevant to the new curriculum

According to Fullan (1992), successful curriculum implementation requires a clear understanding of the elements of the innovation by the persons involved. He argued that the key elements concerned with curriculum change and its implementation relate to the objectives of the new curriculum, the types of teaching and learning activities, the role of teacher and learner in the new curriculum, and the procedures used for assessment.
Supervisors’ and teachers’ ratings of their understanding of issues related to the learner-centred curriculum, as given in questionnaire responses both before and after the implementation of the PDP, are presented in Table 6.2.

The data showed that, after the implementation of the PDP, most supervisors and teachers rated themselves higher than before on their understanding of the five selected issues related to the learner-centred curriculum. The supervisors reported they had a clear concept of all these aspects of the learner-centred curriculum before the implementation of the PDP and that they believed this understanding increased after participating in the PDP. The teachers, on the other hand, rated themselves before the implementation of the PDP as being ‘not sure’ of their understanding of at least one of the issues related to the learner-centred curriculum, while five of the teachers rated themselves as ‘not sure’ (or lower) on all of the issues. The post-PDP data showed a very different picture; all but two of the teachers agreed or strongly agreed with statements affirming a clear understanding of the issues, and these two seemed confident in relation to all but two of the issues. The average increase in rating by teachers in the post-PDP questionnaire is more than one point on the scale, indicating that their perception of their development in understanding was larger than that for the supervisors. As the coaching model focuses on developing confidence in the teaching role, most satisfying was the indication that the response to the post-PDP ‘role of the teacher’ question got the highest rating (4.6) and increased most (1.4 points). The item on assessment was the only question which led to an average rating below 3 (‘not sure’) in the pre-PDP questionnaire, and it was still below 4 after the PDP.
Table 6.2: Supervisors' and teachers' pre- and post-PDP perceptions of their understanding of issues relevant to the new curriculum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire item</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I have a clear understanding about the objective of the curriculum in CLT</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I have a clear understanding of types of teaching and learning activities in CLT</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I have a clear understanding of the role of the teacher in CLT</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I have a clear understanding of the role of learners in CLT</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I have a clear understanding of the procedure of assessment in CLT</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Supervisors’ responses (averages) | 4 | 4.3 | 4 | 4.3 | 4 | 4.7 | 4 | 4.7 |

Teachers’ responses (averages) | 3.2 | 3.1 | 2.9 | 3.1 | 2.9 | 3.1 | 2.9 | 3.1 |

Rating scale: 1 = Strongly disagree  2 = Disagree  3 = Not sure  4 = Agree  5 = Strongly agree

The interviews with the supervisors present a somewhat different picture, however. In their pre-PDP questionnaire responses, the supervisors rated themselves as
agreeing' that they had a clear understanding about the learner-centred curriculum, yet in interviews they reported that before the programme implementation they had been offered only a few training programmes relevant to the concept of the new curriculum. In particular they reported that they were not confident in assisting teachers to implement the new curriculum at the practical classroom level:

“A few training programmes about the new curriculum have been offered for supervisors, but I am not clear at the moment how to apply the new curriculum at a practical level.” (Supervisor 1)

“At this stage, we study from documents distributed by the Board of the National Education Commission. But they don’t explain how to apply the new curriculum to a practical level. I am uncertain how to do that.” (Supervisor 3)

As will be pursued further in Chapter 6, this discrepancy between questionnaire and interview data raises the issue of the context in which the data were collected. There is a strong expectation placed on supervisors, when asked directly as in the questionnaire, to show confidence in their understanding of the new curriculum at all stages (including before the PDP), as it is their professional responsibility to lead others in its implementation. In the interviews, especially after the PDP when all participants had come to know and trust the researcher, a franker self-perception could be expressed.

The supervisors reported in their pre-PDP interviews that most schools and teachers did not have a clear concept of the new curriculum and how to implement the curriculum in their schools.

“Teachers accept the change and they know that the learner-centred curriculum will be introduced in the near future. They don’t oppose it. The problem is that they have no idea what a learner-centre curriculum is and how they are to apply it in their classrooms.” (Supervisor 3)

Confirming the supervisors’ comments, the teacher interview data indicated that the majority of teachers had little information about the learner-centred curriculum before the programme was implemented:
"Many teachers don’t have a clear concept about the learner-centred curriculum and none of them implement the new curriculum into their classes at the moment." (Teacher 4)

"I have been informed about some issues concerning the new curriculum, but am still not clear what it is and how I can implement it into my classroom. I try to apply it in my classroom, but it doesn’t work. I’ve got difficulties using it. I think teachers’ understanding about the new curriculum is very important. We have to clarify it before implementing it in the classroom.” (Teacher 9)

Overall the post-PDP interview data, reinforcing the general picture given in the questionnaire responses, indicated that both the supervisors and the teachers perceived an increase in their understanding of the new curriculum. The supervisors, for instance, commented that the programme provided both themselves and the teachers with relevant information and resources.

The teachers also reported that the programme assisted them to have a clear understanding of the learner-centred curriculum in terms of its concepts and procedures. Some teachers, however, commented further that they needed more time to develop the appropriate skills to implement the new curriculum in their classrooms.

“My understanding about the new curriculum is clear now. Before I participated in this programme I didn’t have a clear concept of what the new curriculum was like and how I could apply it in my classroom. I want my colleagues to have this chance to develop themselves.” (Teacher 6)

“My understanding about the new curriculum is about ninety percent. I need more time to practise my skills, specifically, designing learning activities and assessments.” (Teacher 5)

Both qualitative and quantitative data indicate that the participants in the PDP considered that the programme had considerable impact on them, and that in time this development in understanding may be increased.
6.1.3 Beliefs about teaching methodology

As indicated in the previous section, the supervisors and teachers considered that they had grasped the important issues involved in the content of the new curriculum. However, as Fullan (1987) pointed out, there are critical elements of teaching behaviour, materials and beliefs that indicate whether a successful change in teaching actually takes place. Before and after the PDP the supervisors and teachers were asked about their beliefs concerning key aspects of teaching methodology relevant to the learner-centred curriculum: types of learning and teaching activities, use of instructional materials, the teacher's role, an active learning classroom and the role of assessment. These questions were designed to supplement information on the supervisors' and teachers' self-perceptions of their understanding of the new curriculum with data concerning their beliefs about features characteristic of learner-centred classrooms, and thus to probe these self-perceptions. The questionnaire data are given in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3: Supervisors' and teachers' pre- and post-PDP perceptions of teaching methodology for the new curriculum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supervisor/Teacher</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor 1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supervisor 2</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supervisor 3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supervisors'</td>
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<td>4.7</td>
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<td>responses (averages)</td>
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<td>Teacher 1</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher 2</td>
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</table>
The data show that before the PDP supervisors and teachers in general agreed with all five of the statements relating to the change towards a learner-centred curriculum, and that this view continued to prevail after the PDP. The participants in the programme indicated by their responses that they had been informed of the main methodological requirements of the new curriculum in advance. There was a couple of unexpected responses, however, especially that of Teacher 2 who appeared to become unsure after the PDP whether the new curriculum would require her to change the learning activities she used (and Teacher 7 who seemed to agree less strongly on this same issue after participating in the programme). Three of the teachers and one of the supervisors also became less strong in their agreement with the statement that assessment will need to be conducted differently after the implementation of the new curriculum, another puzzling result.

The interview data bring out more clearly the change in attitudes and understanding brought about by the PDP. For instance, the supervisors considered that the teachers had become clearer on all issues related to the learner-centred curriculum.

The supervisors reported that the classrooms had changed in many ways from before the implementation of the programme and, in particular, had become more learner-centred. They reported that the teachers were less directly in control of the students' learning in the class, that the resource materials were used to support
students' learning and that the assessment focused on the students' learning development.

"After the programme, I can see changes in both the teachers and the students. Students are allowed to do activities by themselves without direct control by their teachers. And the teachers changed their roles to support and encourage students to learn." (Supervisor 1)

"The role of instructional materials in the new curriculum is changed from the past when they were used by the teachers to support the teachers' teaching. In the new curriculum, materials are used by students to assist them to learn by themselves." (Supervisor 2)

"The new way of assessment helps students to reduce stress and anxiety. Its goal is to help students to develop learning skills, not to judge their learning performances. Students do not worry about comparing their results with others." (Supervisor 2)

The teachers' interview data showed that the teachers believed they had a clearer concept of the issues related to teaching behaviours in the learner-centred curriculum after the programme. They commented that the new curriculum encouraged them to become more independent, to rely less on using textbooks and to use a wide range of materials to support students' learning. The teachers also identified that after the PDP they perceived clearly the role of assessment in a learner-centred curriculum as focusing on students' learning development; as well, the students became involved in the assessment process.

"I spent more time preparing my lessons, but talk less in class time. The class is less teacher-controlled." (Teacher 8)

"The new curriculum encourages me to use a variety of materials to help students learn, compared to the previous one when I used only textbooks." (Teacher 2)

My concept of assessment has changed. I don't expect that students have to memorize everything I teach in the class. It doesn't matter now." (Teacher 3)

Overall, the data in this section showed that after the implementation of the PDP both the supervisors and the teachers had a clearer perception of learning and
teaching activities, the use of materials and the forms of assessment associated with a successful transition to a learner-centred curriculum.

6.2 Participants' perceptions of the process of curriculum implementation

6.2.1 Understanding the process of implementation

According to Berman & McLaughlin (1977), White (1988) and Fullan (1992), participants in curriculum innovation need to have a clear understanding of the envisaged process if the changes are to be implemented successfully. Fullan describes the process as having three major stages: initiation, implementation and continuation. The initiation stage concerns the plan made to prepare people for the change, as well as the mobilisation of people and resources. The implementation stage concerns the actual procedures of the change. The continuation stage relates to whether the change becomes an ongoing, integral part of the system, or whether it withers away. Quantitative and qualitative data were gathered on the supervisors and the teachers' perceptions of their own understanding of the new curriculum implementation process both before and after the PDP. This information is presented in Table 6.4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire items with participant responses</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participants</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supervisor/Teacher</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supervisor 1</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supervisor 2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supervisor 3</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisors' responses (average)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.3</td>
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<td>4</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.4: Supervisors' and teachers' pre- and post-PDP perceptions of their understanding of the implementation process
The data show a striking and uniform shift in self-rated understanding occurring between the pre- and post-PDP surveys. Before the programme, for instance, the supervisors rather surprisingly rated themselves as being “not sure” of their understanding of the preparation (initiation) and implementation stages of the change to the new curriculum, although they agreed that they understood how it would be maintained once it was introduced (the continuation stage, the long-term outcome of the innovation). After the PDP they indicated that they now were confident in their understanding of all three stages. A similar pattern was followed by the teachers; they indicated before the PDP, with their self-ratings averaging below 3 on all three stages, that they felt ill-informed about the changes that were occurring or about to occur. The lowest rating applied to the first stage of preparation and planning, suggesting initial confusion with hopes for a successful outcome. Only one teacher agreed that she had an understanding of the implementation process before the PDP. Of the other eight disagreeing, one (Teacher 7) still felt uncertain about all three stages even after the PDP. All the others agreed at the completion of the programme that they understood the implementation process from plan to integration within the continuing curriculum.
Overall it appeared that the PDP assisted both the supervisors and the teachers to increase their understanding of all stages of the curriculum implementation process, with the greater change in perception happening for the teachers.

The supervisors' and teachers' interview data indicated that, before the programme, both the supervisors and the teachers knew very little about the implementation of the new curriculum. The supervisors, for instance, reported that there had not been any training programme to inform them about the procedures by which the changes were to be made, nor had the teachers. The supervisors noted particularly that they were waiting for a master implementation plan from the central education authority:

"We know very little about the new curriculum. In the past three years, there has not been any training for supervisors concerning the new curriculum implementation. This is why many supervisors have no idea what we are going to do or how we can help schools and teachers to implement the new curriculum." (Supervisor 2)

"We haven't got any plan yet concerning the new curriculum implementation and we don't have any idea how to do it either. We are waiting for a master plan from the central authorities." (Supervisor 3)

The teachers' interview data indicated that before the programme all teachers lacked a clear concept of the plan for implementing the new curriculum. Some teachers reported that they had attended seminars and training programmes concerned with the new curriculum before participating in the PDP, but they noted that they were still not confident about their role in what had to be done. The teachers as a whole commented that they needed support during the implementation process:

"I don't have a clear picture of the new curriculum and I don't know how to implement it into my classroom either, but I am very keen to learn." (Teacher 9)
“I need someone to guide me and help me to implement the new curriculum. I am not confident about having to use the new curriculum.” (Teacher 1)

After the programme, however, both the supervisors and the teachers became clearer about the procedures for implementing the new curriculum.

“I am clear about the procedure for curriculum implementation and I am confident about how to do it; but for the teachers, I think they need longer time to practise their skills.” (Supervisor 1)

The teachers commented that the PDP provided them with a more clearly defined procedure of implementation at a practical classroom level. All teachers reported that the coaching session assisted them to clarify the difficulties they encountered in their classrooms during the process:

“I am confident that I can implement the new curriculum in my classroom. The programme provided a clear procedure for classroom practice. The coaching sessions helped me to clarify what I was not clear about.” (Teacher 1)

However, the teachers’ interview data also showed that they still needed continuing support from the supervisors to provide feedback when they encountered difficulties:

“I think that I can do it now, but I still need a supervisor to be my consultant and guide me. I need feedback from my supervisor.” (Teacher 3)

From the data as a whole it can be seen that before participating in the programme both the supervisors and the teachers considered they had little understanding of the process by which the new curriculum was to be implemented. Although some supervisors and teachers had attended training programmes concerned with the new curriculum before they joined the PDP, they were still struggling with their professional roles with regard to the specifics of implementation. After the PDP, both the supervisors and the teachers perceived an increase in their understanding of the implementation process, and the supervisors noted the increase in confidence
on the part of the teachers with approval. The teachers became more secure at the practical classroom level, nominating the coaching process in particular as assisting them to overcome difficulties; they considered they needed continuing mentor support and materials, with the supervisors identified as the key providers of feedback.

6.2.2 Participation and decision making in the implementation process

Participation in all stages of innovation is necessary if the people involved are to develop their own meaning of the change, Fullan (1992) argued, and they need to be included in the decision making if they are to develop a sense of commitment to it. Details of the participants' questionnaire responses on their involvement in the curriculum implementation process are presented in Table 6.5 overleaf.

The data in the table show that both the supervisors and the teachers participating in the programme responded by rating themselves higher on their involvement in the curriculum implementation process after the PDP. All three supervisors responded that they were involved in introducing the new curriculum at the initiation stage and at the implementation stage, and that this involvement was maintained or strengthened after the PDP. The data also show that before the programme the teachers on average rated themselves as being 'not sure' (or lower) on the scale of participation in the implementation process, and that this rating increased to the point where they agreed that they were participants in the preparation and implementation stages, although they were less certain of their prospective role in the continuation stage. As neither supervisors nor teachers could yet have been involved in the continuation stage, the third question was somewhat hypothetical and their responses to it were harder to interpret. The supervisors said they are 'not sure', while the teachers varied from strongly disagreeing to agreeing that they were, or would be, involved. It would appear that both supervisors and teachers after the PDP had a better understanding of what their role might be in regard to
maintaining the new curriculum, and expected to participate in this final stage of implementation.
Table 6.5: Supervisors' and teachers' pre- and post-PDP perceptions of their participation in implementation of the new curriculum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire items with participant responses</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participants: Supervisor 1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor 2</td>
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<td>Supervisor 3</td>
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Rating scale: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Not sure, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree.

With regard to the fourth item in the questionnaire, the data show that after the PDP both the supervisors and the teachers had a stronger belief that they would be involved in decision making in the curriculum implementation process. The supervisors moved from all being 'not sure' in the pre-PDP questionnaire to responding with 'agree' or 'strongly agree'
afterwards. The teachers did not show the same change in confidence, but all sustained their belief in involvement or increased it by one point on the rating scale.

The supervisors' interview data indicated that the supervisors had been involved in implementing the curriculum both before and after the programme. They reported that they had helped to implement two programmes concerning the new curriculum in pilot schools before they joined this PDP. The supervisors reported that their role had involved supporting schools and teachers towards successful implementation, however their lack of knowledge at a practical level had hampered their efforts.

"I have implemented a few projects concerning the new curriculum in two pilot schools. We haven't got any plan to implement the new curriculum in every school in the region. I am waiting for a master plan from the provincial board." (Supervisor 3)

"We work as a team. The supervisor's role is to support schools and teachers towards successful implementation in their school, specifically in the area of teaching and learning improvement. There is a little chance of success if the teachers are not clear about what they are going to do and nobody helps them." (Supervisor 1)

"My concept of the new curriculum is not clear and I think other supervisors are not either. We haven't got enough information concerning the new curriculum from the province. At this stage, we have studied documents distributed by the Board of the National Education Commission. But they don't tell us how to apply it at a practical level." (Supervisor 3)

The teacher interview data showed that before the PDP they perceived they had a relatively restricted role in implementing the new curriculum. They reported that they had not been well informed about the new curriculum so they were not clear about the implementation process. The teachers' pre-PDP comments included:

"From my understanding, in the new curriculum students are at the centre of the learning process. The teacher's role is to support and facilitate students' learning. The new curriculum requires more participation by teacher and students. Many teachers don't have a clear concept about the new
curriculum and none of them implement the new curriculum in their classrooms at the moment.” (Teacher 4)

“I have been informed about some issues concerning the new curriculum, but I am still not clear what and how I can implement it in my class. I tried it, but it didn’t work well and I find it is difficult for me. I think that the teacher’s understanding is really important before implementation in the classroom.” (Teacher 9)

After the programme, the interview data showed that the supervisors considered the teachers’ better understanding of their roles in implementing the new curriculum would enable them to carry out the task in their classrooms successfully and to lead others in the change:

“We need this kind of professional development programme to assist the teachers to develop their teaching careers. As supervisors, we support schools and teachers to implement the national curriculum in their schools. The new curriculum requires teachers to be a classroom researcher. We expect the teachers to be classroom planners and to design their own curriculum to suit their situations.” (Supervisor 2)

“These teachers can help the supervisors by being key teachers. They can work with the supervisors to implement this kind of professional development programme in other schools.” (Supervisor 1)

The teachers also felt more satisfied about their role in the implementation process. They reported that they had a clearer concept of their involvement in innovation and, though it had been a difficult transition, they had become more confident in it.

“It is hard at the beginning to use the new curriculum, but that is what education reform requires teachers to develop for themselves. The coaching process helps teachers to become more and more confident to implement the new curriculum in the classroom.” (Teacher 4)

“The teacher’s role is still very important in the new curriculum as a support for student learning. It is very hard particularly for the old teachers if they don’t know how to do it.” (Teacher 7)

None of the teachers or supervisors reported in their interviews on their likely role in the continuation stage of the curriculum implementation.
Concerning involvement in decision-making, the interview data indicated that before the PDP the supervisors were unclear about their role. They reported that the provincial education board would take the lead in providing training programmes for both the supervisors and the teachers, but that they were still waiting for this master plan regarding implementation of the new curriculum.

"We know very little about the new curriculum. There is not a programme to train supervisors to prepare them to implement the new curriculum. Many supervisors don’t know what they are going to do or how to help schools and teachers." (Supervisor 2)

"We haven’t got any plan to implement the new curriculum in the whole region and we don’t know how to do it either. We are waiting for a master plan from the province.” (Supervisor 3)

The teachers’ interview data also showed that before the PDP, most teachers perceived that though they were informed about the new curriculum from different sources, mainly attending seminars, their understanding of their role in decision-making in its implementation was limited, and they did not feel confident:

"I am not confident if I have to implement the new curriculum in my classroom. I need someone to guide me and give me feedback.” (Teacher 1)

"I have attended seminars concerning the new curriculum, but I can’t do it when I try to use it at my school.” (Teacher 8)

After the programme, the interview data showed that both the supervisors and the teachers had a clearer understanding of their roles in decision-making during the implementation of the new curriculum. The supervisors reported that the programme assisted them to become clearer about their role as supporters of curriculum innovation at the local school level. Their comments included:

"I am confident that I understand the procedure of curriculum implementation. This is a good model of a professional development programme to develop schools and teachers. As supervisors we work as curriculum supporters to assist schools and teachers to implement the new curriculum in their schools.” (Supervisor 1)
The supervisors also reported that they were very satisfied with the teachers' involvement in decision-making about curriculum implementation; teachers were encouraged to design their own classroom curriculum to suit their own situation. The supervisors commented that it was a suitable way to develop teachers professionally:

“This is the right way to help teachers to develop themselves in the long term. The programme allowed more space for the teachers to think what they should do in their own classrooms.” (Supervisor 2)

The teacher interview data concerning decision-making showed that after the programme they perceived they had a stronger understanding of their innovatory role.

“I am confident that I can implement the new curriculum in my classroom. In the new curriculum, teachers are still to take an important role in creating learning situations for their students. The coaching process is very useful to help me to clarify mistaken concepts about the new curriculum.” (Teacher 2)

The teachers reported that it was difficult at the beginning to become a classroom planner, but when they became familiar with the role, and more skilful, they found that they preferred it:

“The programme provides a different way which encourages teachers to design their own details to suit their situations. I didn’t like it at the beginning because it was difficult, but when I became familiar with it, I liked it.” (Teacher 5)

6.2.3 Implementation support

Successful curriculum implementation depends upon ongoing administrative support (Brindley, Bottomley, Dalton & Corbel, 1994), and on commitment from skilled teachers to continue the process of change. Implementation support includes providing training sessions to inform participants about the innovation, time to attend seminars and meetings to build collaborative networks between
innovators, a specific budget for resources necessary to carry out the innovation, and encouragement and recognition of innovatory teachers by superintendents, supervisors and school principals. This last issue receives closer attention at the end of this section, particularly the question of who played important roles in curriculum implementation in the view of participants in this study.

Details of the participants’ pre- and post-PDP responses to questionnaire items on implementation support are presented in Table 6.6 overleaf.

The data in the table show that generally the supervisors and the teachers alike, both before and after the programme, strongly agreed that it was important to provide different kinds of support to help implement the new curriculum. Supervisors agreed on training, materials and time being important before the PDP, but they were unsure about financial support being necessary. (This is an understandable reaction when they are conscious of their inability to provide money to assist, yet wish to support change by those means that are available to them.) Their responses to these questions after the PDP are much more wholehearted in their agreement that all four forms of support mentioned were necessary. On the issue of training, most of the teachers strongly agreed that it was helpful, even before the PDP, with Teachers 3 and 5 being unsure. (In subsequent discussion it was revealed that they had had earlier experience of attending in-service training they could not apply in the classroom). After the PDP, the majority again strongly agree that training is helpful, except for Teachers 1 and 8, both of whom in subsequent interview indicated that they felt
Table 6.6: Supervisors' and teachers' pre- and post-PDP perceptions of implementation support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire item with participant responses</th>
<th>Supervisor/Teacher</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
<th>Post-PDP</th>
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Rating scale: 1 = Strongly disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Not sure 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly agree

the initial training period in the PDP was too short, and found the coaching process that followed in school was much more useful. Financial support was agreed to be necessary for successful curriculum implementation, however the rating fell from the pre-PDP average of 4.8 (all but one ‘strongly agreed’) to a post-PDP average of 4.4, indicating a lessening of the importance attached to funding. This pattern was repeated for materials, and to a lesser extent, time allocation. The only item which
rated higher after the PDP was the helpfulness of in-service training, a very positive response to the programme itself, as well as an endorsement of the one area where teachers could themselves constructively participate in the conditions for implementation support. Three of the teachers rated the significance of support materials lower after the PDP. Discussion of this issue with these teachers revealed that the use of texts in English during the PDP had created difficulties for them; they would have been more confident in working from Thai texts.

The supervisors’ and teachers’ interview data showed that both the supervisors and the teachers were agreed that support through in-service training assisted them to have a much clearer concept of the new curriculum and its implementation at both the theoretical and practical levels.

“I think the support from the programme is enough for the teachers to have a clear understanding about the new curriculum. As a supervisor, this programme also guided me with a clear practical procedure about how to implement the new curriculum in schools.” (Supervisor 2)

“I think that the programme covers every stage and aspect of the training process. It is a well-designed programme which helps the teachers to develop their professional careers to meet the goals of the new curriculum. The programme provides a clear understanding about the new curriculum in every aspect and the teachers can apply it in their classrooms.” (Supervisor 1)

The supervisors reported that the teachers became more confident in implementing the new curriculum in their classrooms after the PDP. Both the supervisors and the teachers reported that the coaching sessions and school visits were very helpful for the teachers during the implementation process as they provided opportunities to discuss specific difficulties they encountered day to day. They reported that these consultations also helped the teachers to reduce their feelings of uncertainty and anxiety.

“The coaching process was very helpful. It helps me a lot to provide feedback on my classroom practice and reduces my feeling of insecurity.” (Teacher 5)
The supervisors' and teachers' interview data showed that the teachers needed extended time to adapt to the new curriculum and needed continuing support through coaching from their supervisors. The supervisors, however, commented that they had difficulty providing this, with only limited time for school visits and follow-up:

“I have never followed-up at schools every fortnight for supervision as this programme expected. Actually, it is important to do so, but we don't have much time. There is a lot of routine work, paper work, at the office.” (Supervisor 1)

“What I really need is feedback. I understand that supervisors are busy, but coaching and school visits are necessary and important.” (Teacher 6)

The teachers also reported that they needed a longer time to develop the appropriate skills to implement the new curriculum, and more support from relevant resources:

“The training session is a bit short for teachers, but the school follow-up helped us to become clear and provides feedback for us to make sure we are on the right track.” (Teacher 1)

“I need more support with materials and I think the programme is too short to conduct in one school term.” (Teacher 7)

The issue of the timeline for the PDP is complicated by competing forces: the desire to meet teachers' needs for extended time to adapt to change, and the equally practical difficulties of funding manageable programmes and making expert staff available for support. The preferred outcome is the setting of realistic deadlines for observable change. The supervisors' interview data show that after the programme the supervisors were satisfied with the timeline adopted for its task of implementing the new curriculum. They reported that although the PDP took about nine months, a generous allocation in this situation in their view, the programme was dealing with several phases and different groups of participants. The supervisors' comments included:
"At the beginning, I thought that the programme took a long time to conduct, nearly nine months. But actually it is not a long time." (Supervisor 1)

"Yes, I think the timeline is enough for the teachers to have a clear concept and understanding about the new curriculum and its application into their classrooms. But the teachers need a longer time for skills to use the new curriculum." (Supervisor 2)

The teachers' interview data showed the teachers were generally satisfied that the timeline was long enough for them to have a clear concept of the implementation process, but the time for the initial workshop was too short to acquire skills in the new teaching method. Although the fortnightly school visits by the supervisors assisted them to overcome the implementation difficulties they faced, time remained a problem:

"I have a clear concept of the new curriculum and how to apply it in my classroom, but I need a longer time to practise my skills. I think only one school term is too short." (Teacher 7)

"The time for the teacher workshop is too short. We need more time practising our skills in using the new curriculum. But the coaching process at schools helps to clarify the difficulties. School visits are really helpful." (Teacher 1)

In summary, both the supervisors and the teachers considered that support, in terms of initial in-service training, coaching sessions and follow-up visits, relevant resource materials, proper time allocation and adequate budget, was vital for the success of curriculum implementation, and the experience of the PDP confirmed for them the importance especially of coaching and follow-up visits to deal with everyday problems arising from change and that time was needed to develop new skills.

The question of implementation advocacy has been left to last in this section. As Brindley, Bottomley, Dalton and Corbel (1994) point out, change is facilitated by advocates or consultants whose assistance can be crucial in successful curriculum implementation. It is generally accepted that individuals find it difficult to
implement innovations alone. Good consultants can help change to be smooth and effective by providing concrete, practical advice either in the classroom or in workshops for the key personnel involved in the change process. This study considered five such groups (the teachers themselves, school principals, supervisors, academic researchers and regional education authorities), and sought to determine through questionnaires and interviews those amongst these who were perceived by the participants in the study to be the key implementation advocates.

Data from questionnaire responses is set out overleaf in Table 6.7

The questionnaire responses showed that the supervisor was the person considered most central to curriculum implementation by both the supervisors and the teachers, but beyond that there was little agreement, either before the PDP or after, on who the key personnel were. The supervisors before the PDP agreed that teachers, school principals and regional education authorities were key people to support the implementation of the curriculum, as well as themselves, and they kept to this opinion after the PDP. Two of them added the researcher as important after the programme. The teachers differed with each other and with the supervisors in their ratings of every group that could occupy the advocacy role (except the supervisors). The range in the ratings on every group, their own included, was at least four
Table 6.7: Supervisors’ and teachers’ pre- and post-PDP perceptions of the key supporters of curriculum implementation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire items with participant responses</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Supervisors’ responses (average)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The teacher is a key supporter of the curriculum implementation</td>
<td>Supervisor 1</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. The school principal is a key supporter of the curriculum implementation</td>
<td>Supervisor 2</td>
<td>4 4 4 4 4 5 3 4</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. The supervisor is a key supporter of the curriculum implementation</td>
<td>Supervisor 3</td>
<td>4 5 4 4 4 5 3 3</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. The researcher/academic is a key supporter of the curriculum implementation</td>
<td>The regional education authority is a key supporter of the curriculum implementation</td>
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<tr>
<th>Supervisor / Teacher</th>
<th>Pre-PDP</th>
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<td>Teachers’ responses (average)</td>
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Rating scale: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Not sure, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

(from ‘agree’ to ‘strongly disagree’, for instance), and on some occasions individual teachers changed their rating from 1 to 5, or 5 to 1, for a particular group from the pre-PDP to the post-PDP survey. At the risk of negating these obvious differences of opinion, the averages for each group being in the region of 3, it could be argued that the teachers as a whole were not sure about the importance of the
roles of principals, colleagues, academics and education authorities in supporting curriculum innovation.

The interview data confirmed the supervisor to be the key person to support curriculum implementation, but did not elucidate the mixed opinions about the other participants in any clearly patterned way. The supervisors' interview data showed that they identified their role as being essential in the implementation process because it linked the teachers to education reform at the local level. They considered that the teachers also identified them as being the key person to assist with the curriculum implementation.

"Our role is a link between schools and the central educational authorities. All policies and educational innovations are passed to our office before being implemented in schools." (Supervisor 1)

"Yes, teachers come to meet supervisors when they need help concerning teaching and learning. Sometimes they ask their colleagues if they are confident that their colleagues can help." (Supervisor 2)

The teachers' interview data indicated that they also considered the supervisor as the key supporter to assist them to implement the new curriculum. They commented that the supervisors helped them to solve problems at the classroom level and to clarify procedures. The teachers reported that they considered their colleagues as key figures too:

"I will ask supervisors if I don't understand anything concerning the curriculum implementation. The supervisors have information, documents and materials which I can study." (Teacher 6)

"I ask my colleagues if they know that they can help me. At my school, there is a curriculum support board to assist teachers with teaching and curriculum issues." (Teacher 1)

Overall, the picture is clear enough about the role of supervisors as key supporters of change. Although other roles obviously were important, with some supervisors and teachers strongly agreeing with statements nominating either principals or
education authorities or academics or other teachers as key supporters in the implementation process, there were sufficient numbers of supervisors and teachers disagreeing with these same statements that the opinion of the participants in the study overall could only be described as 'not sure'.

6.3 Students' perceptions of the new curriculum and methodology

This section presents the findings that relate to students' perceptions of the new approach to teaching and learning that they experienced as members of the classes taught by the teachers participating in the PDP. Unlike the data presented in the previous two sections of this chapter, the students' perceptions were not surveyed before and after the PDP, but only after their teachers had completed the programme. At this stage the students could give their attitudes concerning the new approach based on a semester's experience. Once again, both quantitative (questionnaire) and qualitative (interview) data were collected. A ten-item questionnaire was administered to all students (N=231). The follow-up interviews were conducted in groups of three from each of the nine classes taught by the participating teachers. The students interviewed (N=27) were chosen by their class teachers to represent the range of abilities in the class: an able, an average and a weak student from each.

The items in the questionnaire concentrated on eliciting students' attitudes to the new teaching method and the effect they perceived it having on their learning. The questions were framed in the first person to make them easier to understand and make no mention of technical terms like CLT or TBL, the principal characteristics of the new approach. They required only a 'yes' or 'no' answer about such feelings as being happy or not that classroom activities allowed them to get involved more. In this sense the data are different from those presented previously when surveying adult professionals, but they fill out the range of responses to the innovation in teaching to cover all participants in the study.
The interviews with the selected students sought in-depth information about the issues raised in the questionnaire administered to all students, and were conducted immediately after they filled out their questionnaires. Translating the recorded responses of these young (Grade 6) students has meant that their main intention has been given in English rather than a literal translation of the child-like speech they employed in Thai.

In Table 6.8 overleaf the data obtained from all ten items in the questionnaire are presented for students in the nine classes (numbered Class 1 to Class 9 to correspond with their teachers identified as Teacher 1 – 9 in previous tables). The findings from the interviews with selected students are presented here by linking examples of student comments to the questionnaire item to which they most closely relate.

Concerning the questionnaire items 1 & 2, there was general enthusiasm for the new teaching method. Nearly all students considered that it was effective in improving their English for communication (which is the stated reason for the government’s desire to change to CLT from traditional methods). Only 2.5% were not happy with the change and 3.5% doubted that it helped with communication skills. Of those students not happy with the new way of learning, five of the six were from large classes, while none of the eight students who did not feel they were learning communication skills better came from a small class, suggesting a better response to the innovation from those in small classes.

In the interviews, students confirmed their questionnaire responses with comments about enjoying learning English in the new way and how it improved their speaking skills. They thought their English classes were more active than before:

"I like learning English this year. The class is active and I don’t fall asleep in the class." (Class 1 student)

"I enjoy learning English this year. My English is improving." (Class 8 student)
Table 6.8: Students’ responses on their perceptions of the new teaching method

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>City 1 (N=43)</th>
<th>City 2 (N=42)</th>
<th>City 3 (N=40)</th>
<th>Total N=231</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I am happy with the new teaching method.</td>
<td>Yes 43 No 24</td>
<td>Yes 21 No 12</td>
<td>Yes 32 No 9</td>
<td>97% 2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The new teaching method helps me to improve my English language</td>
<td>Yes 40 No 3</td>
<td>Yes 20 No 2</td>
<td>Yes 21 No 9</td>
<td>96% 3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skills for communication.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I am happy when the teacher asks us what we want to learn at the</td>
<td>Yes 35 No 8</td>
<td>Yes 10 No 2</td>
<td>Yes 32 No 9</td>
<td>86% 14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beginning of the course.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I am happy that learning activities allow us to be more involved.</td>
<td>Yes 41 No 2</td>
<td>Yes 12 No 8</td>
<td>Yes 38 No 3</td>
<td>98% 2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I am happy that learning activities help us to develop our learning</td>
<td>Yes 41 No 2</td>
<td>Yes 12 No 3</td>
<td>Yes 38 No 8</td>
<td>96% 4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skills.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I am happy that the teacher facilitates and encourages us to</td>
<td>Yes 39 No 4</td>
<td>Yes 11 No 1</td>
<td>Yes 23 No 1</td>
<td>96% 4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learn by ourselves.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I am happy that access to our results helps us to follow the</td>
<td>Yes 38 No 5</td>
<td>Yes 15 No 2</td>
<td>Yes 40 No 9</td>
<td>94% 6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>progress of our study.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I am happy that we are allowed to become more involved in our</td>
<td>Yes 37 No 6</td>
<td>Yes 11 No 1</td>
<td>Yes 35 No 9</td>
<td>94% 6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>own assessment.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I am happy that the teacher accepts students’ individual</td>
<td>Yes 42 No 1</td>
<td>Yes 11 No 3</td>
<td>Yes 33 No 8</td>
<td>92% 8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>differences.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. The new teaching method helps us to become more confident and</td>
<td>Yes 28 No 15</td>
<td>Yes 11 No 3</td>
<td>Yes 37 No 9</td>
<td>85% 15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>independent learners.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Responses to item 3 in the questionnaire indicated that students were less enthusiastic about negotiated learning as an aspect of the new approach. A strong majority (86% overall) liked to be asked what they wanted to learn, but there were distinct variations from class to class. Teachers 5, 8 & 9 gained all their students' interest in participating in decision-making, while nearly half the students in Class 3 were not so sure that they wish to take on this unfamiliar responsibility so soon after moving to a new way of working in the classroom. The students' interview data largely concentrated on the positives of negotiation:

“The teacher asked us what we wanted to learn at the beginning of the course. Last year, she came to the class and told us to do what she wanted.” (Class 7 student)

“In the past, she taught, taught and taught and never asked us whether we liked it or not.” (Class 5 student)

One of the aspects of the communicative teaching methods that young students might be expected to be aware of is the way the new learning activities are designed to encourage interactive involvement; item 4 of the questionnaire asked for their attitude to this innovation. It gained the highest approval of all the aspects of the new methodology: 98%. The interview data identified such favoured aspects as different types of learning activities and the greater opportunities to practise English language skills for communication:

“There are more activities for us to practise English in the lesson.” (Class 4 student)

“The teacher gives us learning tasks to do in the class. They are helpful to practise English.” (Class 7 student)

Items 5 and 6 are directed at finding out if students enjoyed developing learning skills – that is, learning how to learn, or developing tools for learning) – as well as working independently. Again, the approval ratings at 96% overall were consistently very high across the nine classes for both questions. The students reported that learning activities allowed them to be involved and that they learned
well when they found the answers by themselves. They commented that the group activities they liked were those in which they helped each other:

“I prefer learning activities which allow us find answers by ourselves. I don’t like learning by memorizing.” (Class 3 Student)

“I prefer learning in groups because we can help each other, and I feel more relaxed when I’m learning in a group. Learning in groups, the poor students can ask their friends for help if they can’t do the task.” (Class 6 Student)

Assessment and recording issues were the basis for questionnaire items 7 and 8, dealing with students gaining access to their records and participating in assessment of their work. The responses showed that students generally (94%) liked to know how they were progressing in their learning, which did not necessarily indicate how they were achieving compared with other students. There were very similar responses to do with the question of involvement in assessment (again 94% overall ‘being happy’ with the new approach). The forms of assessment were very different from those they were used to, and included personal diaries, group work presented to the rest of the class, checking answers with friends, and worksheets that are marked individually or in groups from which they got immediate feedback in class about their learning. It was notable that the lowest approval ratings for both items came from Classes 1, 2 & 7, large or medium-sized classes in a large city; these are in or near the centre of the city and are where the academic achievers wanting to get access to prestigious high schools and university are placed by their parents. These students already seem conscious of the way the traditional competitive examination system helps them to gain their goal, something the new system might not.

In the interviews the students stated that the new assessment approach reduced a sense of competition among students in the class, a positive approach to the same issue. The qualitative data also indicated that the students were highly satisfied with having access to records of their results, and hence their study progress. They reported that the teacher assessed their learning progress more often and regularly.
In addition, the students identified that they were allowed to assess their own learning in the class.

“This year, the teacher does assessment very often and asks us to keep our work records, so we can evaluate our study progress.” (Class 1 student)

“We can do self-assessment and sometimes the assessment is done by our friends.” (Class 2 student)

Item 9 tried to find out if students enjoyed being treated differently from each other, including not being compared to one another. The data indicated that 92% liked this aspect of the new approach, which suggested that most wanted the teacher to consider their individual progress as learners. Class 7 (and, to a lesser extent, Class 6) stood out as the least happy with this differentiation, although over 80% still approved. In their interviews the students explained the new role of the teacher as less strict, and more supportive:

“My teacher did not get angry this year when we couldn’t answer questions in the class.” (Class 9 student)

“This year the teacher didn’t have many rules in the class. She was very kind this year.” (Class 1 student)

Item 10 investigated the issue of attitudes towards gaining confidence and becoming independent learners. The students indicated they liked the focus on achieving independence, but in the interviews expressed the opinion that they were still not confident in operating on their own. The proportion of those who felt the new teaching method had positive outcomes in helping them to become confident and independent learners (85% across the nine classes) correlated very closely with the responses to item 3 on negotiated learning. These two items gave the lowest ratings of the ten in the questionnaire, pointing to students still wanting the teacher’s guidance, and lacking assurance as yet that they could make decisions about the best ways to learn. It was clear, for instance, that many in Class 1, with over a third of its members replying ‘no’ to the statement about becoming more confident and independent learners of English, had not achieved this intended result.
of the new teaching method. Despite these reservations, the interviews as a whole revealed that the students felt they were less shy about practising English with their friends under the changed classroom conditions, and not scared to learn English. Both outcomes could be regarded as wins for the teachers using CLT, and endorsement for the Ministry’s support for the new approach:

“I was scared to learn English in the past, but I am not now. I am more confident to read English. I enjoy learning it. The teacher teaches what we want to learn.” (Class 5 student)

Taken overall, the students’ response to CLT as offered to them under this pilot programme would seem very positive. They liked the new learning activities particularly, believed that they improved their English communication skills (and their learning skills), approved the change towards self and peer assessment, immediate feedback and access to results, and were happy with the teacher treating them as individual learners, but were less enthusiastic about the shift towards taking more responsibility for their own learning. There were some classes which consistently showed stronger approval than others over all items, most notably Classes 3, 6 & 9 which had 15 or fewer students. (There was one striking departure from this pattern, Class 3 was evenly divided over whether they liked being asked what they wanted to learn.) However Classes 4 & 5, a large and a medium class in a medium-sized city, also showed almost total support for the full range of features of the new methodology, suggesting that factors other than class size and location of the school may have been significant. These variations in response to innovation are certainly of interest in a more fine-grained analysis, but they should not obscure the major pattern, overwhelming student support.

Summary

This chapter presents findings relating to research sub-question 2: ‘What is the change in participants’ perceptions of curriculum innovation as a result of the professional development programme?’ The study investigated the perceptions of
the supervisors, the teachers and the students participating in the PDP about the new curriculum and its implementation.

It was postulated from the literature that successful curriculum implementation requires the people involved to have a clear understanding about what it is and how it is to be carried out. The study indicated that both the supervisors and the teachers, on whose working lives the 1999 National Education Act’s provisions will have a marked impact, considered that they had increased their understanding of the recently instituted learner-centred curriculum after participating in the PDP. Before the programme both supervisors and teachers stated that they had some understanding of the new curriculum, but were unsure how it was to be implemented; after the PDP they perceived they had increased their understanding of the issues important to the learner-centred curriculum on which they were surveyed (its objective, types of learning activities, the role of the teacher, the role of the learner and the procedures of assessment). They also showed increased understanding of the process by which the new curriculum was being implemented and increased confidence in being able to fulfil their roles in the process. Most significantly, the supervisors were highly satisfied that the teachers participating in the programme had a clear understanding of the implementation process at a practical level.

The PDP had an impact on the participants’ attitudes as well. The supervisors and teachers indicated after the PDP that they had a stronger commitment to a learner-centred curriculum and to the belief that it would benefit students by helping them to become more active learners, provide a greater range of activities and diverse materials and assessment methods, and develop lifelong learning skills. The teachers became more confident about their role in implementing the new curriculum. They reported that the coaching process in particular assisted them to clarify the difficulties they encountered with the new curriculum and provided them with appropriate feedback during the implementation process in their own classrooms.
Before the PDP, both the supervisors and the teachers reported that they did not have a clearly defined plan for curriculum implementation and the teachers also reported that they needed support from expert advisors ('change advocates') and materials to assist them to implement the new curriculum. The supervisors were identified as the key personnel to support curriculum innovation, build networks among schools and help teachers in coming to terms with the working process of implementation.

The PDP assisted the teachers to become more independent in their responsibility as classroom designers. They reported that the PDP helped them to develop lessons which suited their specific classroom situation. However, some teachers found difficulties at the beginning in this, and other, roles and appreciated guidance and assistance from their supervisor in overcoming these.

In terms of components of the PDP, the study indicated that the initial in-service training provided clear explanations of the new curriculum and its implementation procedure and covered the topics necessary for this. Most teachers reported that the coaching sessions and school visits were very helpful in assisting them to solve the difficulties they encountered during the implementation process in their classrooms. The teachers further commented that school visits reduced their feelings of insecurity and anxiety. However, most teachers commented that they needed a longer time to develop the appropriate skills to implement the new curriculum, and they needed more support with materials relevant to the new curriculum.

Correspondingly, the supervisors reported that they needed more budgetary support from the Provincial Board to implement all that was expected of them. The supervisors also commented that the teachers needed more support and further on-site coaching during the implementation process.

In relation to students' perceptions, the study showed that almost all the students enjoyed the new teaching and learning method introduced into their English classes.
as a result of the PDP. Most reported that the new approach assisted them to improve their English language skills for communication, and that they liked such aspects as varied learning activities which prompted greater interaction, feedback on learning assessment and access to results. They were less certain about negotiated learning and becoming independent learners, but even in these aspects the majority were very positive in their response.
CHAPTER 7
DISCUSSION

Introduction

In this chapter, the results of the study are synthesised to provide an overview of the findings in relation to both research sub-questions. The findings are interpreted with reference to previous research on professional development programmes and their implementation, particularly as it relates to the teaching English as a Foreign Language. The first section presents the discussion related to the changes in thinking and classroom practice that took place as the teachers and students participating in the study moved towards task-based learning methods in a communicative language teaching approach (Section 7.1). The second section (7.2) deals with participants’ perceptions of the process by which the impact of the PDP supported curriculum innovation; it concentrates on the way a coaching approach assisted in successful implementation.

7.1 Changes towards adopting a CLT approach

7.1.1 Changes in pedagogical concepts

The pedagogical rationale for the CLT approach is that learners’ language skills need to be developed by and for communication, rather than by focusing on learning the formal structures of the language, especially the grammar in isolation. This new teaching approach requires the classroom teacher to provide learning situations that give learners opportunities to acquire English through communicative language activities (Littlewood, 1981; Johnson, 1982; Richards & Rogers, 1986; Nunan, 1988).

According to Nunan, a basic principle underlying the CLT approach is that learners must learn not only to make grammatically correct utterances, but must also develop the ability to use language to get things
done; fluency is the crucial focus of this new teaching method (Nunan, 1988: 25). The CLT classroom therefore should provide learning situations for learners to practise their English language skills for functional and communicative purposes. To do this, the classroom should encourage more interaction and communication among learners through a variety of learning activities. This results in the classroom becoming an active learning context (Richards & Rogers, 1986: 71).

A major change in beliefs and concepts is required of teachers to make the transition to CLT methods from traditional approaches in EFL, and it is one of the most difficult to accomplish if they are to be successful in implementing a CLT approach. Previous studies have indicated that attempting to do this in many Asian countries has proved difficult (Sano, Takahashi & Yoneyama, 1984; Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Ellis, 1994; Shamin, 1996; Li, 1998). They have highlighted many of the major problems faced when introducing a curriculum innovation such as CLT (for instance large classes, teachers' lack of proficiency in the target language, and difficulty in accessing suitable materials and equipment). However, even when the education systems and teachers are committed to this language teaching method, making the transition is still a challenge because it involves not only major changes in practice, but also a paradigm shift in thinking (Smith, 2001). This was expressed succinctly by a teacher in the programme in this way:

It is hard to move away from the starting point. Teachers' beliefs and understanding of the new teaching method is important. Then a clear procedure for the implementation has to be followed up. (Teacher 3)

The PDP was aimed at developing teachers' awareness of the pedagogical concepts associated with CLT and the new curriculum (along with providing them with a practical task-based learning methodology to deliver it, and at supporting their classroom practice during a term-long period of implementation of the new approach to EFL teaching). The study examined evidence of changes in teachers' thinking in three ways:
the supervisors’ frequency ratings of teaching behaviours which indicated changes toward a greater focus on learning English for communicative language purposes, in questionnaire items in which teachers rated their own understanding of aspects of CLT and learner-centred classrooms, and in interviews that explored the main issues in greater detail.

The study showed that the teachers, to varying degrees, had initial difficulty in making the conceptual shift to a CLT approach. The pre-PDP questionnaire and interview data collected on these teachers’ understanding of CLT indicated a self-acknowledged uncertainty about this approach. When asked to rate to what extent they had a clear understanding of a range of key aspects of CLT before the PDP, the averaged teacher response on the Likert scale from 1 (‘strongly disagree’) to 5 (‘strongly agree’) was 3.05, extremely close to 3 (‘not sure’) on the scale. In an interview before the programme began Teacher 9 remarked. ‘I don’t have a clear picture of the new curriculum and I don’t know how to implement it in my classroom either.’ This uncertainty was expressed in a different form in practice as well. From the perspective of the supervisors, the EFL teaching methods which the teachers used prior to the PDP were focused on grammar and associated learning activities which did not assist the students to develop English for communicative purposes. One supervisor commented:

The teachers heavily relied on the textbook [before the PDP]. I don’t think that the students can learn to use the English language for communication. Students learn by memorizing what their teachers taught from the textbooks and this is not related to their real life. (Supervisor 3)

On the other hand the teachers, before they had undertaken the PDP, claimed that they were attempting to use CLT to promote their students’ communicative English language skills:

I use the Communicative Language Teaching approach in my English class. Students are the centre of the learning process. The teaching method I use helps the students to develop their English
language skills. The students are involved with learning activities in the class and the teacher is a supporter. *(Teacher 1)*

What the teachers perceived they were doing and what they actually did in their teaching performance were significantly different. The evidence from the supervisors’ rating of the videotaped lessons made before the PDP, and even the teachers’ own evaluation during the initial PDP workshop when they reviewed the videotapes, indicated that only one of the teachers was applying a CLT approach according to the criteria they now accepted as characterising it.

The study showed that after the implementation of the PDP the teachers clearly demonstrated an increased understanding of the purpose of the CLT approach in the three sets of data collected, both by their introduction of CLT methodology in their classes and their self-assessments of increased understanding. Most significantly, the data indicated that the task-based learning methods introduced by the teachers encouraged their students to practise their English language skills for communication and to develop their English language fluency. It was reported by both supervisors and teachers, for example, that the students became more active learners in the classroom and were encouraged also to become more involved in task-based learning activities. In addition, the study showed that the learning activities provided by the teachers were more meaningful to the students. These changes in teaching behaviours, especially in terms of developing fluency rather than formal accuracy, were perceived by supervisors and teachers alike as associated with increased understanding of the conceptual framework for CLT. The difference in perception of what constituted CLT that had once existed between the teachers and the supervisors were now changed. Teacher understanding were general, but not uniform. All the teachers were rated more highly by the supervisors after the PDP for their understanding and use of the CLT approach, but some were rated as still only using CLT activities, for instance, ‘occasionally’ or ‘sometimes’, while the majority were rated as using them ‘always’. The
supervisors indicated that a majority of the teachers (eight of the nine) for example, showed no evidence of applying a CLT approach prior to the PDP. Remarkably, five of these were rated as going from 'never' showing any evidence of the CLT approach to 'always' doing so, a very marked shift in teaching practice over the space of one school term. The remaining teacher had shown evidence of 'sometimes' applying CLT in her classroom before the PDP (in fact she had received specialist training in CLT and had acted as a demonstration teacher in the new methodology in her district); after the PDP, she was rated as using it 'always'. It is interesting to note that all three teachers with large classes were rated as later using CLT 'always', while the least change in teaching approach was observed with small classes – an unexpected result, as most studies point to the greater difficulty of introducing CLT with large classes (see, for example, Sano et. al., 1984; Burnaby & Sun. 1989; Ellis, 1994; Shamin, 1996; Li, 1998). The main reason would appear to lie in the teachers' and students' backgrounds rather than in class size. The large classes were in prestigious city-central schools where the students were generally successful and highly motivated; more significantly, the teachers of these large classes had long and successful experience in EFL pedagogy. These three had the specialised pedagogical knowledge and teaching proficiency that appeared to sustain their transition to a thoroughly learner-centred and communication-focused language classroom. Conversely, two of the teachers of small classes, and one of a medium-sized class were rated by their supervisors as moving very little towards adopting TBL. Two of these teachers lacked specialised training and had only two to three years teaching experience in EFL, and the personal circumstances of the third distracted her from her teaching during the implementation of the programme (although not sufficiently to cause her to withdraw from the PDP). It would seem in this instance that class size was not the most important factor in determining the adoption of the CLT approach in practice.
As projected in research sub-question 1, the part of TBL in the transition to the CLT approach was an important issue, which the study explored. TBL was intended to provide the teachers with explicit strategies about how to manage their lessons and how they could use communicative tasks to support students’ learning in the classroom. In addition, the tasks were supposed to create a real purpose for language use and opportunities for students to build on their existing language skills to complete tasks. The advantage of using this language learning approach was claimed to be that it promotes communicative language teaching and emphasises communication and interaction, which in turn lead to increased fluency (Long, 1985; Richards, Platt & Weber, 1985; Breen, 1987; Candlin, 1987; Prabhu, 1987 and Willis 1996).

The findings of the study supported previous studies on TBL use. In interview especially the teachers and supervisors pointed to the value in the TBL of specific guidance for teachers on kinds of activities that put the focus on the student as learner, and take attention from the teacher and textbook as the sole sources of instruction and expertise. A comment from a teacher made the point in this way:

I am very happy that the task-based learning provides me with a clear procedure of teaching method. It helps the students to develop their English for communication. (Teacher 1)

The security that working through clearly-modelled TBL activities gave to the teachers contributed to their growing confidence in how to employ a CLT approach. In the circumstance of the PDP, in which CLT was introduced through coaching in TBL methods, the teachers’ understanding of the nature of CLT was made concrete and specific in terms of tasks focused on learning and centred on the learner. The highest post-PDP ratings the teachers gave were in their agreement with questionnaire statements detailing features of the learner-centred curriculum (ranging from 4.3 to 4.9 on the Likert scale, Table 5.3). It was in the vital area of understanding the necessary elements of the required
teaching methodology for the new curriculum that the teachers felt most confident.

7.1.2 Changes in teaching and learning activities

The change in teaching and learning activities to those associated with the CLT approach was investigated in the study to indicate the extent to which the learning activities designed and used by the teachers promoted students' communicative English learning skills. The learning activities were examined to ascertain whether or not the communicative tasks introduced allowed the students to have more involvement in the learning process and whether they assisted the students to become independent learners. In addition, the study investigated the changes in learning activities, towards more collaborative and meaningful activities that provide opportunities to practise strategies for communicative English.

Learning activities which promote communicative language learning have been described by Littlewood (1981) and Johnson (1982). They are concerned with three elements: the communicative principle – activities that involved real communication; the task principle – activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks; and the meaningfulness principle – language that is meaningful to the learners.

In the CLT approach, learning activities require a high degree of learner participation in order to practise and develop their learning skills through meaningful activities. The range of learning activities compatible with communicative language learning provides learners with opportunities to attain the communicative objectives, engages learners in communication, and requires the use of such communicative processes as information sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction. Classroom
activities are often designed to focus on completing tasks that are mediated through language, or involve negotiation of information and information sharing language (Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Breen, 1987; Candlin, 1987; Prabhu, 1987; Nunan, 1988; Long & Crookes, 1992, 1993; Skehan, 1992; Gass & Crookes, 1993; Willis, 1996).

The teachers showed evidence of the change by designing and conducting communicative tasks and learning activities, which assisted the students to develop their communicative learning skills. Supervisors reported that most of the teachers (six of the nine) provided their students with learning activities which allowed a high degree of learner participation (questionnaire item1, Table 5.3), focus on meaningful activities (items 2, 8), involved information sharing (items 3, 6), enhanced negotiation (item 4), and involved learners in different roles and routines (items 5, 7, 9). This change was not made easily or consistently by all of the teachers, however. Most reported encountering difficulties in introducing communicative tasks to the students, and these difficulties appeared to arise mainly from initial misconceptions about the purpose of the tasks, their deficiencies in spoken English and the lack of suitable learning materials for supporting the tasks. Similar responses were also found in previous research such as that conducted by Sano et al. (1984), Burnaby and Sun (1989), Ellis (1994), Shamin (1996) and Li (1998). The comments from teachers involved in the PDP support this evidence:

Designing tasks which support students’ learning is very hard. I didn’t do well at the beginning. It’s new to me. (Teacher 3)

I sometimes don’t know some vocabulary items and correct pronunciation when the students ask me. (Teacher 8)

By the end of the PDP, the data showed that communicative tasks introduced by the teachers allowed for greater student participation and encouraged their students to develop language skills for communication. It was reported by supervisors that the learning tasks designed by these teachers created opportunities for meaningful collaboration among the
students and that the learning activities were linked to the students’ real life outside the classroom. The students also reported that the new learning tasks assisted them to improve their English language skills for communication, as well as assisting them to become more confident in their use of English for communicative purposes. In addition the activities allowed them to be more involved in the learning process and encouraged them to learn by themselves, under the guidance of the teacher. The types of learning tasks reported by the supervisors and the teachers encouraged the students to practise their English through meaningful activities linked to their real lives.

The movement from a passive to an active classroom role requires students to acquire new learning skills (Simons, Linden & Duffy, 2000). At the end of the PDP supervisors and teachers reported that the students had developed a style of learning which showed greater involvement in a range of learning activities, participated in collaborative group work, and (with less control from the teacher) were learning by themselves:

Tasks allow the students to be more involved in learning activities. It becomes more active learning. The learning activities are meaningful and encourage the student to learn. (Supervisor 3)

Task-based learning encourages the teachers to create learning situations for students. The students have more involvement in the classroom activities and they enjoy learning. (Teacher 2)

I prefer task-based learning. It encourages the students working in groups and they help each other. It also serves individual differences among the students. (Teacher 5)

In the CLT approach, it is considered important to give learners opportunities to use language to meet authentic communicative needs in meaningful learning situations. The aim is for learners to develop their language skills for the communicative purposes they need to carry out real-world tasks. In doing so, class time should be spent not on language drills or controlled practice (which is normal in traditional teaching
approaches), but in activities, which require learners to practise the new skills that they will need outside the classroom (Nunan, 1988). The data from this study supported the premise that the task-based learning approach encourages students to have more opportunities to practise their language skills in the class. By focusing on completing the designed tasks rather than producing a perfect form of the language, the students used their limited English freely for communication to get their tasks done, even if they did make errors. Research conducted by Long & Porter (1985), Doughty & Pica (1986) and Ellis (1990) supports the view that learners need meaningful and comprehensible exposure to practice their target language. Richards and Rogers (1986) also support this concept. They explain that learners need to be provided with opportunities to practice various pedagogical strategies related to meaningful communicative activities.

7.1.3 Changes in the learner's role

The changes in the learner's role as a result of the adoption of the task-based learning approach after the PDP were examined. The study also investigated the extent to which a task-based learning approach would encourage the students to become more independent active learners and take more responsibility in the learning process.

Active learning, where students become active participants in the learning process, is an important means of developing learning skills. In the CLT approach, learners are required to negotiate meaningful activities and to convey information through different types of activities, in order to allow learners to practise and extend their English language communication skills. By asking questions on these two issues the quantitative data indicated to what degree the teachers participating in the PDP were able to assist students to become more active in the learning process (Candlin, 1980; Richards & Rogers, 1986; Nunan, 1988; Willis, 1996).
The task-based learning approach led to a greatly increased focus on meaning-making in classroom activities, and these communicative tasks enabled the students to practise their English by sharing factual information. The data indicated that the students in the classes of a majority of the teachers (six of the nine, Table 4.3) were rated as always being encouraged to convey factual information in class activities. Emphasis on the students' role of active learner also entails a change towards learning to learn and a greater focus on the skills of collaborating in group work and on thinking (Simons et al., 2000). In order to develop these learning skills, it is suggested that learners need to develop a focus on knowledge construction, so the main task of the teacher is to initiate and support the thinking activities that students employ in this learning (Williamson, 1996; Pratt, 1998; Thomson & Hancock, 1999; Simons et al., 2000).

The study showed that the students responded positively to the new way of learning which allowed them to become more involved in the learning process. As one of the students said:

I was scared to learn English in the past, but I am not now. I am more confident to learn English. I enjoy learning it. The teacher teaches what we want to learn. (Class 5 student)

The students reported that they were satisfied with learning activities which encouraged more independent learning under the guidance of the teacher. The TBL approach encouraged more teacher-student, and student-student interaction. The teachers reported that the students became more confident in using English for communication. Further, the teachers reported that the students enjoyed their involvement in collaborative group work, and became more confident, more independent and more responsible in their learning.

The students prefer the new way of learning. They are happy to learn English and they become more confident to speak English in the class. (Teacher 7)
It is important in TBL that learners interact primarily with each other rather than mostly with the teacher. The emphasis in CLT on the processes of communication leads to different task-based roles for learners in the classroom. Breen and Candlin (1986) described the role of the learner in TBL as being one of 'negotiator' – between the self and the learning process, and between the self and others. The object of learning emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learners is that they should contribute as much as they gain, and thereby learn in an interdependent way (Breen & Candlin, 1980).

The study confirmed that this negotiation was taking place, and that it was successful. All three supervisors rated students in the classes they visited at the end of the PDP as being able to negotiate meaning, and in six of the classes they were doing so 'always' (Table 4.3). They ascribed this change in part to the way students were collaborating in group activities:

The students speak English more in the class. They learn through learning activities, not just from the teacher. Group working enhances the collaboration among the students. (Supervisor 3)

Although it was clear from the post-PDP questionnaire and interviews with students that taking on roles as independent learners and negotiators of the curriculum was challenging – and unwanted by some (around 15%) – their teachers and visiting supervisors were convinced that they had made important progress towards the learning styles required by the new curriculum. The research in CLT such as that conducted by Breen and Candlin (1980), Richards and Rogers (1986), Nunan (1991) and Savignon (1991) supports the findings that using these processes, students become more involved in the negotiation of their learning and as a consequence, they develop as independent learners.

7.1.4 Changes in the teacher's role
As a result of their introduction to TBL in the PDP, it was postulated by previous researchers such as Long (1985), Richards, Platt & Weber (1985), Breen (1987), Candlin (1987), Prabhu (1987), and Willis (1996) that the teachers would become more supportive and facilitating of the students' learning. In other words, it was expected that the teachers would encourage more student-student interaction, would set tasks to be worked out under their guidance and encourage students to apply their existing skills to new settings.

The role of the teacher in the CLT approach is that of learning facilitator rather than a controller of information flow to students. The teachers' main role in CLT is not to control and dominate the classroom, but to provide comprehensible input. They can also use exercises so that students gain the confidence to interact with each other as a lead-in to using language for natural communicative purposes. The role of the teacher is also to provide meaningful feedback to students on how they performed the communicative activities and to provide them with suggestions for improvement (Brumfit, 1984; Nunan, 1991; Savignon, 1991).

Both the supervisors and the teachers participating in the PDP indicated that the classrooms had become more active and less controlled by the teacher as a result of the TBL approach. The use of TBL changed the role of the teacher to one of support for students in completing the communicative tasks designed for them. The supervisors also reported that the teachers, after the PDP, encouraged the students to get more involved in classroom activities. Additionally, the supervisors reported that the teachers were more accepting of the students' individual differences. Nunan (1988) and Willis (1996) supported the view that TBL encourages teachers to change their role from dominating the classroom to one where they become facilitators of students' learning.
The role of the teacher in CLT is also expected to be that of needs analyst, counsellor and group process manager of student learning. As a needs analyst, the teacher is expected to determine learners' needs in terms of learning style, learning assets and learning goals. On the basis of such analysis, teachers are expected to plan group and individual instruction that respond to learners' needs. As a counsellor, the teacher is expected to be an effective communicator who seeks to maximise the meshing of the speaker's intention and the hearer's interpretation through the use of paraphrase, confirmation, and feedback. As a group process manager, the teacher is expected to organise the classroom as a setting for communication and communicative activities (Richards & Rogers, 1986: 78). Breen & Candlin (1986) described how teachers play different roles in CLT: the first role is to facilitate the communication process between all participations in the classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group (Breen & Candlin, 1980).

In this study, the task-based learning approach changed the role of the teacher from a person who dominated the classroom to someone who designed and organised learning situations for the students to learn. By focusing on tasks, the teachers spent less time teaching during each lesson, as most of the class time was dominated by the students doing activities and getting the tasks done. The supervisors reported that the teachers worked hard preparing lessons and designing tasks for the students. The teachers reported that during the lessons their thorough preparation enabled them to become more supportive of the students' learning and gave them time to guide students engaged in activities.

With the previous teaching method I used, I was exhausted when I finished the lesson because I talked all the time in the class. The new teaching method needs cooperation between teacher and students so the teacher doesn't talk much in the class due to the students spending most of the time doing activities. (Teacher 8)

The students' responses to the change in their teacher's role were positive too:
I prefer learning activities which allow us to find answers by ourselves. I don’t like learning by memorising. *(Class 3 student)*

This shift in role cost the teachers time and effort to make. They reported generally on the difficulties in changing from a directive to a facilitative teaching style, although all but the three who experienced major difficulties in moving to the new approach were able to adopt appropriate CLT strategies ‘often’ or ‘always’, according to their supervisors. Before the PDP the teachers worried that the students would not learn as much under CLT as they expected them to with traditional ways of teaching:

I didn’t trust my students to learn as much as I expected. It was hard to let students get answers by themselves. I just couldn’t wait for them to have their work done, so I told them the answers. *(Teacher 9)*

Both the supervisors and the teachers later reported that this was because the teachers were not familiar with the new learning concepts. The supervisors and the teachers reported that it was not so difficult to make the change once they had a clear understanding of the new learning concepts and they knew how to apply them in their classrooms. The research of Fullan (1992); Galton and Williamson (1992); Bottomley, Dalton, Corbel and Brindley (1994) and Cowley and Williamson (1998) support the view that teachers’ understanding is important when implementing new teaching methods.

In general, the data indicated that, following the implementation of the PDP, the teachers showed increased awareness of their role as one of facilitating students’ learning. The teachers of most classes encouraged their students to have significantly more interaction with each other and involvement in the learning process. In addition, the study showed that the teachers changed their role to become more supporters of learning in their classrooms, for example by setting problems and communicative tasks which they then helped the students to work through to completion.
It was also noted that the teachers encouraged their students to apply their existing limited English skills in new situations, in order to practise and develop their communicative abilities. The teachers reported that they became less controlling and interfered less with the students when they were undertaking activities in the class. In addition, the teachers became more accepting of individual differences among students and assisted them to improve their learning skills, by encouraging them to apply their existing skills to a new setting. The work of Nunan (1988) and Willis (1996) supports the findings that TBL brings about change in the teachers’ role so that they are less controllers of content and knowledge and more supporters of students’ learning.

7.1.5 Changes in the role of instructional materials

The change in the use of instructional materials as a result of adopting a TBL approach was examined to find out whether this approach encouraged the teachers to become less reliant on using textbooks alone as the main resources and used a variety of resources to promote independent student learning.

In the CLT approach, the role of instructional materials is to support students’ development of language skills, to foster the learning process and lead students to greater independence as learners. The materials should be authentic and create a link between what students learn in the classroom and the wider world (Allwright, 1981; Clarke, 1989; McDonough and Shaw, 1993; Willis, 1996). Nunan specifies five aspects of the role of materials; they should assist learners to make a link with what they learn in the class and what they will do outside the class, foster independent learning by raising the consciousness of the learners and making them more aware of the learning process, have a degree of authenticity, be a range of materials rather than a comprehensive package, and be used in a variety of ways and also at different proficiency levels (Nunan, 1988: 99).
After the PDP all the teachers were rated higher by the supervisors on demonstrating greater understanding of the role of instructional materials to support their students' learning in the CLT approach. The supervisors indicated that most teachers (six of the nine) showed strong evidence of using materials consistently to support students' learning of communicative skills in different ways.

I don't rely on using the textbooks as the only main resources now. It depends on the tasks I design for my students. I select the materials to support the task. (Teacher 1)

The materials used by these teachers were authentic, linked to real life, fostered independence and met learners' needs. Three teachers experiencing problems overall with the new methodology found difficulties in using instructional materials to support the CLT approach. The findings of the study support previous research and studies such as those conducted by Prabhu (1987), Gass and Crookes (1991), Long and Crookes (1991) (and Willis (1996) in the light of TBL encouraging teachers to use different learning resources to support students to learn.

In the study, the TBL approach was shown to encourage the teachers to use a variety of authentic materials such as stories from newspapers and magazines in order to support their students' learning. The teachers reported that they relied less on the textbook, because the TBL approach focused on tasks designed specifically for the students. They reported also that the role of instructional materials had changed from supporting teacher's teaching to supporting students' learning. The students confirmed that they preferred learning through communicative tasks which allowed them to learn by themselves, under the guidance of their teacher. The students also reported that they preferred tasks which were designed to encourage them to work in groups and where the teacher used a variety of materials, not just the textbook as in the past, to promote English language learning in the classroom. This data supports what Willis (1996) emphasises; that is, TBL encourages teachers to use
different resources in order to support students to complete the tasks designed for them. In this study, one of the supervisors summed up the question of the change in use of teaching materials in this way:

The teachers use the materials to support the students' learning, not the teacher's teaching like in the past. The task-based learning encourages the teachers to use a variety of materials and resources to support the students to do the tasks. (Supervisor 1)

A lack of materials to support CLT teaching was reported by both the supervisors and the teachers in this study, and these materials were considered crucial for a successful implementation. In CLT, a wide range of materials to support the students' classroom learning is required. Both supervisors and teachers commented that support from the school and the provincial education authority for CLT instructional materials should be provided for teachers and students. The teachers in the study reported that there were differences between the resources provided in rural and urban areas. The schools in the city could afford to provide their students with learning support (not only in instructional materials but in IT and teacher training), but schools in the rural areas could not and were disadvantaged especially by the lack of new resources for the CLT approach.

Overall, the study showed that most teachers participating in the PDP were rated highly by supervisors on using instructional materials to support students' learning in their classes after the implementation of the PDP. Most teachers used different sources of meaningful learning materials geared to their students' needs and intended to foster independent learning. The study showed that instructional materials were used by the teachers to link learning to the world outside the classroom. The instructional materials were also chosen to encourage students to learn actively. However, the study showed that the teachers initially encountered the problem of finding suitable materials to support the CLT approach in their classrooms, and some lacked confidence in their English communicative skills to use non-textbook materials effectively.
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7.1.6 Changes in assessment

The role of assessment in the CLT approach is to foster the development of students' learning, rather than to judge their learning achievement compared to other students or to correct errors. This new concept of assessment allows students to get involved in the learning process which is jointly determined by the teacher and students. The assessment also requires a range of approaches to provide students with a comprehensive record of their progress (Brumfit, 1979; Littlewood, 1981; Quinn, 1984; Richard & Rogers, 1986; Nunan, 1988; Alderson & Beretta, 1992; Willis, 1996). The perspective taken by these writers on CLT emphasises (i) partnership in evaluation between teacher and students, (ii) a range of assessment methods, (iii) continuous feedback, and (iv) guiding student learning rather than ranking student achievement. These were also the key aspects of the teachers' practice that the supervisors rated in their observation checklists.

Both the supervisors and the teachers reported that there was a significant change in approaches to assessment as a result of the introduction of a TBL approach. Assessment became focused on students' learning development and the students were allowed to become involved in the assessment process. According to the supervisors, following the PDP the teachers used a much wider range of methods to assess learning and provided their students with a regular record of their learning progress with the aim of fostering learning:

- It is a good sign to see that the teachers keep the students' record so they have evidence to provide feedback to their students about their learning progress. (Supervisor 2)

The teachers reported that this new way of assessing reduced stress and anxiety among the students as they did not compare their own learning achievements with those of other students in the class, a view that the student interviews confirmed.
The teachers commented that this new form of assessment encouraged greater interaction between the teacher and the students, and between students and their peers, on matters of language performance. It generated reflection, too, by encouraging self-assessment and the keeping of learning diaries and reports. Students were very conscious of this as an innovation of the new approach:

This year, the teacher conducts assessment very often and we are allowed to do self-assessment so we can evaluate our study progress. (Class I student)

Nunan sees learner self-assessment as an important supplement to teacher assessment, arguing that self-assessment provides one of the most effective means of developing both critical self-awareness of what it is to be a learner, as well as skills in learning how to learn (Nunan, 1988: 116). Supervisor and teacher questionnaire data showed that they believed such a development in learning how to learn had occurred with students participating in the study, and 96% of the students concurred (Table 5.8). Although the data did not allow self-assessment to be isolated as a specific contributing factor to this effect, it is to be presumed that it played its part, as Nunan has asserted, alongside other aspects of TBL in bringing about a general shift in learning style. These findings confirm the effects of self-assessment on learning styles mentioned by Candlin (1987) and Willis (1996).

Although the teachers and the supervisors were satisfied that the new approach to assessment was effective in supporting learning, they had concerns about the effect that the implementation of the CLT approach might have on the students' examination results. District Education Boards test all students at the end of Grades 2, 4 and 6, and the standard tests put pressure on schools and teachers because annual reports of student outcomes compare each school with others in the same region. It is of concern to students and their families also, as Grade 6 results affect the outcome of competition for entry into preferred secondary schools. The standard tests focus on content, while the purpose of the CLT
approach is to develop students' English communication skills, especially fluency, with less concentration on grammatical accuracy. There was something of a 'leap of faith' by the participants in the PDP that students' examination results would not be adversely affected. On the other hand, commitment to the new curriculum's value to the students helped to allay these fears:

I am not worried now about how much my students can learn. I don't expect them to learn everything I teach them. It doesn't matter. (Teacher 2)

Confident that students were learning well, supervisors and teachers generally embraced the new approach to assessment.

In summary, the pre- and post-PDP data show that on the basis of all six significant indicators of adoption of CLT methodology (Nunan, 1980) (pedagogical conceptualisation, teaching and learning activities, the learner's role, the teacher's role, use of instructional materials and the role of assessment) the teachers participating in the programme had changed their thinking and practice to employ the CLT approach recommended in the National Education Act. The findings support previous research studies such as those conducted by Long (1985); Breen (1987); Prabhu (1987); Nunan (1989) Gass & Crookes (1993) and Willis (1996) on the grounds that TBL enhances teachers' readiness to apply greater use of CLT in their classroom. In this study, one teacher was perceived by her supervisor as sometimes using CLT methods before she entered the programme, the other eight in the programme were perceived as not using them; at the conclusion of the programme all teachers – to varying degrees – were employing CLT. There was a continuum of change in teaching behaviour and teacher understanding on the six different criteria used to gauge the adoption of CLT. Most of the teachers could be said by the end of the PDP to have reached the goal expected by the supervisors to carry through curriculum innovation. It
might be inferred that the others would take longer to make the 'paradigm shift' asked of them.

7.2 Changes in perception of the new curriculum and its implementation as the impact of the PDP

7.2.1 Changes in understanding of the new curriculum

As argued in the literature review chapter, professional development programmes are considered to be an effective way of assisting teachers to adjust to curriculum change and its implementation (Marsh, 1988; Wilson & Corcoran, 1988; Louis & Miles, 1990; Fullan, 1992; Markee, 1997; Williamson & Cowley, 1998). These studies also indicated that the level of teachers' understanding of the purpose of curriculum change and the process of implementation is a key factor in its success. Simon et al. (2000) demonstrated that many teachers fail to adopt innovation because of mismatches between the proposed changes and their beliefs, understandings and commitment to established routines. Low rates of success are often reported in a range of cultural contexts where teachers feel insecure and lack the confidence to change, due to a lack of practical support in the classroom (Parish & Arrends, 1983; Blacker & Shimmin, 1984; Maris, 1986; Berman & McLaughlin, 1977; Fullan, 1992; Galton & Williamson, 1992; Williamson, 1995).

Understanding of a specific curriculum innovation, according to Fullan (1992), is a key element for its successful implementation by those involved. However, as Fullan (1987) points out, there are also critical elements of teaching behaviours, materials and beliefs that are important for success, and these can be monitored to indicate whether a successful change in teaching has actually taken place. With regard to the introduction of a learner-centred curriculum, the important indicators of changes in teaching behaviour are, according to Nunan (1988), the types
of learning activities used, the instructional materials, the teacher’s role, the role of learners and the role of assessment.

The study concentrated on supervisors’, teachers’ and students’ perceptions of what was happening before, during and at the conclusion of the PDP, and the participants’ attitudes to the process they were involved in. It is entirely possible, of course, that what any one person perceived (and/or reported) was not what another participant or observer had. This was notably the case when the teachers at first said in their questionnaire responses that they used the CLT approach before the PDP; the supervisors did not give that picture at all in their classroom observation checklist responses and interviews, and the teachers – once they saw themselves in action in the classroom on videotape – agreed. The reasons for these mismatches are manifold, including different conceptual frameworks (which can change in time, as the study documents for this group), self-interest, varying roles, personalities, states of mind and access to information. Accepting these uncertainties, and employing comparisons or combinations of perceptions to establish dominant patterns where possible, the following discussion attempts to report on the findings about perceptions given in Chapter 5 in the light of the research mentioned above and in the literature review.

To begin with the issue of pre-PDP perceptions of CLT use: evidence from this study can be taken to confirm previous studies by Fullan (1992), Williamson (1996) and others that curriculum innovation requires those involved to have a clear understanding, at the level of theory and practice, of the innovation. The first step in supporting the teachers’ change to working with the new curriculum was to help them gain a more accurate picture of their current practice and of the principles of CLT. At the initial PDP workshop, the teachers jointly viewed videotapes of lessons they had taught in the previous term and discussed these in the light of central aspects of CLT. This was crucial because the teachers accepted that their teaching on the videotapes was far from a learner-
centred approach as stipulated in the new Education Act, and this feedback led to a positive perception of a need for a change in their classroom practice. Teacher 5 remarked:

When I watched my teaching from the first videotape, I was disappointed about it. The students had little chance to be involved in (learning) activities. The activities were very controlled. I wanted to change it. (Teacher 5)

Acknowledging the need for change was a significant stage in the progress towards re-conceptualisation that all of the teachers were willing to take. Interestingly, the supervisors also acknowledged that they had rethought their ideas:

I had a wrong concept about communicative activities, and it became clear to me when I participated in this programme. Now I understand a link between meaningful activities in the class and outside the class. (Supervisor 2).

Taken together, these remarks convey the collaborative nature of the approach the supervisors and teachers took to their different roles in the PDP, and the spirit of open and genuine commitment they brought to the process of renewal.

After the initial in-service training the teachers were provided with support through a coaching approach to implement the new curriculum in their classrooms. The supervisors reported on the effectiveness of coaching as a follow-up in their school because in combination with the training session, they informed the teachers in detail about the innovation as well as assisting them to adopt it by demonstrating, for instance, types of communicative tasks, the role of the teacher and procedures for assessment. Similarly, the teachers reported that the in-service workshop and the school visits, a central part of the coaching approach, provided them with a clear concept about the new curriculum, gave them valuable feedback on their classroom practice, gave them increased confidence,
and helped them to solve specific methodological problems through consultations with supervisors and meetings with their colleagues in the programme. Both groups commented on the practicality, good design and clarity of a programme based on initial training and detailed, individualised, supportive, follow-up coaching and feedback. Research and study on coaching mentions that teachers often need support during the change process because they find it difficult to carry out the change alone (Blacker & Shimmin, 1984; Fullan, 1992; Bottomley, Dalton, Corbel, & Brindley, 1994 and Williamson, 1996). Supervisors’ and teachers’ commented:

The programme is useful. It helps me to improve my teaching skill as I expected. The programme provides me with a very clear concept of the new curriculum implementation. I think the design of the programme is the best way to develop teachers in the long term to become more independent in professional development. (Teacher 9)

As a supervisor, this PDP provides me with a clear practical procedure to implement the new curriculum. It is a very good programme and it helps teachers to change their teaching behaviours. (Supervisor 1)

It is a very good and well-designed PDP. It works well and helps teachers to make changes in their classroom practice. The new teaching method introduced also helps students improve their communicative English skills. (Supervisor 3)

In summary, the PDP with its employment of both initial training and a coaching approach was a powerful means to assist both the teachers and supervisors to have a fuller and more accurate understanding of the issues relevant to the new curriculum. The data on understanding of CLT in Table 5.2 indicates by how much both groups perceived themselves to be better informed after the PDP about the crucial features of the new approach identified by Nunan (1988): types of learning activities, the role of the teacher and the learners, and the assessment procedures. Having also a clearer understanding of the purpose to be served by the new curriculum, the participants in the PDP perceived themselves to be much more adequately prepared to implement innovation successfully.
7.2.2 Perceptions of the process of curriculum implementation

As described by Fullan (1992), the implementation of curriculum change is the experience of putting an idea into practice in the classroom. Significant changes are those that address the most salient needs, that fit in well with the teacher's situation, that are focused and that include practical procedures to make it possible. Along with clarity and need, workability is an important element in implementation that assists in determining the innovation's relevance for individuals. White (1988) sees the importance of an implementation plan that allows for careful monitoring of the process and is able to respond quickly to issues as they arise. Fullan (1992) advocates a plan, which is flexible and adaptable, so that people are encouraged to take risks and learn by doing.

The introduction of the National Education Act of 1999 impelled Thai schools to undertake a variety of educational innovations. Among these were school-based management, parental involvement, student-centred learning, and information technology for learning support. As government officials, Thai teachers were of course expected to carry out government policies as directed, so the initiatives in educational policy made immediate demands on them to change their traditional conception of their role, to perform in new ways, and to acquire a new range of skills in their workplace (Simons, Linden & Duffy, 2000). However, a long-established climate of centralised and hierarchical decision-making in the Thai education system has created dependency in schools. In particular, local schools and teachers do not believe for the most part that they can initiate change. This may explain why significant school-based change has not taken place to date, as Hallinger argued in his paper on 'The Changing context of Thai Education: New Challenges for School Leaders' (2000: 1-13).
Thailand, like countries elsewhere, has adopted a professional development programme model as the main means of preparing schools and teachers to introduce educational change. The typical and traditional Thai means of providing teacher professional development is through in-service training programmes or workshops. However, this traditional PDP approach has been questioned regarding its practical outcomes, as teachers usually fail to apply the new skills in their classrooms. This doubt as to efficacy was confirmed by the supervisors and teachers participating in the present study, a number of whom had experience of previous programmes. These contained the typical features of:

(i) a single seminar or workshop for a limited period of time;
(ii) 'out of situ' delivery in which teachers needed to leave their classrooms/schools to attend the PDP in a teachers' centre, college or university; and
(iii) little or no school follow-up to assist teachers to implement the new ideas.

The weaknesses of Thai traditional in-service programs have been pointed out in the work of Hallinger (2000) and the Office of the National Education Commission, Thailand (2001a; 2001b). They had found these earlier programmes had generally not been effective in helping them to implement changes in teaching practice. The one teacher in the group who was perceived as sometimes adopting the CLT approach had had a somewhat different experience, having attended a British Council course in EFL, and subsequently developed her skills through demonstration teaching.

Before joining the programme, most of the participating teachers expected the PDP would provide them with a prepared set of teaching instructions and materials, and an implementation plan, which they could follow step by step. This expectation was based not only on their own experience of professional development but also reflected longstanding Thai learning tradition in educational organisations such as schools, where innovation is a top-down process. Many teacher professional
Development programmes in the past were designed and delivered by the central educational authorities and the teachers were not usually consulted about their individual needs, nor were they involved in making decisions about specific content or processes of delivery. In her post-PDP interview, one teacher remarked:

Before I joined this programme, I expected that the programme would provide me a ready-made package which I can follow step by step. It was not. (Teacher 3)

The supervisor and teacher pre-PDP interview data also gave evidence that most of the teachers who had experienced this type of programme in EFL teaching still lacked the confidence to implement the new CLT curriculum. This evidence is supported by the report of the Office of the National Education Commission, Thailand (2001a; 2001b).

The researcher surmised that this was most likely to be because in the past the national curricula were designed and delivered directly from the central education authority to schools and teachers, whose role was to follow prescriptions for their implementation. The new curriculum, however, expected much more from teachers by way of interpretation and application; in effect it expected them to create a personal curriculum to suit their own situations.

The participating teachers also reported that, in their experience, these teacher in-service training programmes ended at the workshop stage, serving mostly to inform them of the content of the innovation, but lacking a follow-up process to assist them to apply the innovation in their classrooms. The teachers therefore found many difficulties in applying what they had learned, and the innovation did not take hold in the classroom (Fullan, 1992; Bottomley, Dalton, Corbel & Brindley, 1994). The teachers were generally disappointed with the training programmes they had attended. However, from the perspective of the supervisors before the PDP this was likely to be a teacher problem, not an administrative one:
We have introduced many training programmes for teachers concerned with the Communicative Language Teaching approach, but the teachers can’t apply it into their English classes. *(Supervisor 1)*

The teachers’ pre-PDP interviews gave an alternative perspective, indicating the effect that insecurity, lack of support and uncertainty have on classroom practitioners, despite their desire for change:

> I have attended many seminars and workshops concerning communicative language teaching because I want my English teaching class to become more communicative. But when I tried to apply new skills which I have been trained from the workshops, it was not successful so I gave up using it. *(Teacher 1)*

Considering the widespread nature of the problem of professional development and curriculum innovation, and particularly the seriousness of the issue in Asian countries, the search for creative solutions to the classroom implementation phase is clearly most important *(Beijaard, Verloop, Wubbels & Feiman-Nemser, 2000; Hallinger, 2000).*

Fullan (1992) and Simon et al. (2000) emphasised that in-service training programmes, which provide practical support for the change process, have been most effective. Of the three major stages in the change process, initiation, implementation, and continuation, Fullan identifies the last two as those where this practical support is most needed. Responding to this recommendation, and bearing in mind the lack of success of the traditional Thai programmes, the PDP for this study included the following components:

- the use of the coaching approach;
- giving a monitoring and support role to supervisors;
- considering the specific needs and expectations of the teachers involved;
- drawing on the professional skills of teachers as input to the programme;
• building collaboration and mutual support between teachers, and between teachers and supervisors;
• liaising closely with personnel at different levels – those of superintendent, supervisor, principal and teacher – to develop a network of stakeholders;
• encouraging openness in group appraisal and reflection;
• establishing a climate of experimentation and enquiry rather than judgment or blame; and
• responding to the constraints of specific contexts, especially those arising the radical nature of the CLT in traditional classrooms.

These components give this professional development programme its specific character, locating it in its particular context, as well as relating it to successful models of curriculum change elsewhere in the world (see, for example, Joyce & Showers, 1980; Fullan, 1992; and Cowley & Williamson, 1995) though unique to EFL in Thailand.

The PDP followed a plan for implementation that was clear so that participants could be confident about their role in it, and yet flexible at the classroom level so that the teachers and supervisors could participate in making decisions concerning their specific situations. This attention to clarity and flexibility came from the literature (Marsh, 1988; Wilson & Corcoran, 1988; Louis & Miles, 1990; Fullan, 1992; Bottomley, Dalton, Corbel & Brindley, 1994). It was clarity that the teachers and supervisors in their PDP questionnaire responses and interviews commented upon in terms of the certainty and security they felt because they are provided with concrete, practical and effective ways of carrying change forward. This view accords with the research of Joyce and Showers (1980). Its flexibility was approved by the teachers who commented appreciatively on the extended period of support and feedback they received from their supervisors directed specifically at them in fortnightly school visits (or when supervisors were at times too
busy to visit their classrooms, they noted its absence with regret). One teacher expressed the generally-held view in this way:

I think school visits are very useful. A coaching process is very helpful to help us to become clear how to apply the new teaching method at a classroom level. (Teacher)

For the programme to be flexible it required the participants to understand the nature of CLT and to know where the implementation process was leading, so that they could modify what they were doing to fit changing circumstances (Fullan, 1992; Cowley & Williamson, 1995). The strong conceptual base for innovation proved valuable in this regard as well. From the data it was these two features of the PDP, clarity and flexibility, which were the most significant in distinguishing the impact of this programme in leading to successful curriculum change from others the teachers and supervisors had experienced.

Fullan (1992) argued that participation and decision-making among participants in the implementation process helps to develop a clear understanding of the innovation and its implementation and this, in turn, influences the development of a sense of a commitment to the innovation and its implementation. People need to be involved in the different stages of implementation, he claimed, if they are to develop their own meanings for the change. Before the PDP, the teachers saw very little opportunity to take a role in implementing the new curriculum. This probably reflected the 'top-down management' style of the Thai educational system where education policies are determined centrally and teachers do not usually have their voices heard in the curriculum change process. The role of the teachers was to be receivers and deliverers of the 'ready-made package' set out in the syllabus. A change in the teachers' role to assume more responsibility in the process of curriculum management required courage and acceptance of the challenge. However, for many teachers, this proved difficult:

I am not confident at the beginning because the programme encourages us to think about what we want to do to suit our own
situation. I was afraid that I couldn’t do it. But this encourages us to become classroom researchers. (Teacher 8)

This quote confirms the view that teachers need implementation support when confronting a change in teaching and learning methods (Blacker & Shimmin, 1984; Fullan, 1992; and Bottomley, Dalton, Corbel & Brindley, 1994)

There is a certain pride in this post-PDP comment which indicated that the programme had helped her meet the challenge of becoming an individual curriculum developer. The study indicated more broadly that the coaching provided in the PDP encouraged the teachers to become more confident and more responsible for their planning (Joyce & Showers, 1980). Two other teachers commented on the issue in this way:

The programme was designed to allow teachers to design and select the best way that applied to their own situation. It was very hard at the beginning, but this is the way that the education reform aims to develop teachers to become more confident to do their classroom research. (Teacher 4)

At the beginning, I felt uncomfortable with the programme that it did not provide a ‘ready-made’ package as I expected. But later I found that I liked the way that the programme allowed me to design my own lessons which worked with my own classroom. It is like I can flavour my food with the taste I like. (Teacher 3)

The supervisors reported on their complementary role in implementing the new curriculum by taking a major part as curriculum supporters at the local level, giving advice to the schools and the teachers to help them understand how the new curriculum worked in the classroom. The supervisors provided moral and professional support by encouraging the teachers to continue with the implementation process. Their role was also to build networks between schools and teachers to assist them in coming to terms with how the implementation of the new curriculum could be made successful (Bottomley, Dalton, Corbel & Brindley, 1994). The supervisor’s comment confirms this:
As the educational supervisor, the (PD) programme guided me with a clear practical procedure to assist the schools and teachers to implement the new curriculum. For the teachers, the programme was flexible and allowed the teachers to be involved and to make their own decision about their teaching. This is what we want to develop (them) in long term. (Supervisor 3)

The investigation in the study indicated that both the supervisors and the teachers participating in the PDP strongly agreed that it was important and necessary to provide a range of supports to implement the new curriculum. Before the PDP, the supervisors agreed on the necessity of in-service training, materials and resources and time allocation, but they were 'not sure' about whether or not the financial support was necessary. This reaction is understandable in the light of their inability to influence the funding available for curriculum innovation. The teachers' response, on the other hand, strongly agreed that financial support was necessary. A majority of teachers also strongly agreed on the importance of implementation support with in-service training, and resources needing to be provided as well as time allocation for attending the workshops, seminars or group meetings. However, two teachers (Teachers 3 and 5) had had earlier experience of attending in-service training and found that they could not apply the new skill when they returned to their classrooms. They had developed a defeatist attitude to previous teacher development programmes. These teachers found that the PDP used in this study was more effective because it followed up the teaching progress in the classroom. The findings from this study confirm previous research and studies (Fullan, 1992; Galton & Williamson, 1992; Bottomley, Dalton, Corbel & Brindley, 1994; Cowley & Williamson, 1995). Successful curriculum implementation requires a flexible plan and continuing support for teachers when they confront the change in teaching methodology.

In summary, the success of the coaching approach as a means to achieve successful curriculum implementation was reported by both supervisors
and teachers. At the conclusion of the PDP the supervisors reported that the programme was well designed, and covered both theoretical and practical components. The teachers reported that they liked the PDP, as it gave them considerable assistance in adjusting to the task of curriculum innovation in their classrooms through clear procedures. The coaching provided by supervisors during their school visits gave the teachers direct feedback about their classroom practices, which they reported as bringing them greater security and confidence as mentioned by Joyce and Showers (1980). The overall view of participants in both roles was that it was an effective programme of high quality, and that its impact carried through to student learning:

The programme guided the teachers with a clear practical procedure to implement the new curriculum. It was a very good programme. It helped the teachers to change their teaching behaviours. (Supervisor 1)

The programme helped me to develop teaching skills which support a learner-centred curriculum, and the teaching method introduced assisted the students to develop their English skills for communication. (Teacher 8)

All the participants had the satisfaction, to varying degrees, of seeing the new National Education Act’s provisions coming into practical effect, and knowing that they had overcome considerable challenges to play a part in this successful outcome.
CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter summarises the conclusions reached from the study. It reviews the findings and their significance in the context of the study and draws implications for the wider context of education in Thailand and elsewhere. It considers the limitations of the study and how it tried to minimise these, and makes suggestions for further research related to the professional development of EFL teachers in Thailand.

8.1 Overview of the findings

The study showed that the professional development programme (PDP) designed and implemented by the researcher with a group of primary EFL teachers led to changes in their classroom practice to meet the requirements of the curriculum mandated by the Thai National Education Act of 1999. The PDP was devised and carried out in accordance with principles established in other professional development settings, and modified to fit the specific context in which it was conducted. From the success of the programme, as perceived by the teachers, their supervisors and their students, the conclusion can be drawn that its main features of a task-based learning methodology, combined with a coaching model supporting implementation, can lead to teachers changing to the communicative language teaching approach. A further conclusion is that the principles followed in devising and conducting the PDP, that were drawn from the literature on professional development in other settings, can be applied to the specific context of this study, most notably with primary EFL teachers in Thailand.
8.1.1 Task-based learning and communicative language teaching

The supervisors and teachers participating in the PDP reported that task-based learning (TBL) assisted them to make greater use of the mandated communicative language teaching (CLT) approach. The main feature of TBL in the EFL classroom is the engagement of students, usually in groups, in activities where the focus is on the outcome rather than on the language used to achieve it (Willis, 1996: 23). In this situation, teachers are facilitators of student activities rather than instructors. They set tasks such as problem-solving, information-gap or reasoning-gap activities, recording and reporting; students performing these tasks gain fluency in communication (rather than concentrating on accuracy), and take an active role in learning through practising in naturalistic settings. While CLT describes general principles and a broad approach to language teaching, especially that it should employ a learner-centred curriculum, TBL applies to teaching routines and specific methods of organising the classroom. As shown in the literature review, TBL has proved successful in encouraging a change towards student-centred learning (especially in the English-speaking countries where it was first introduced). This present study affirms that it is also successful in enabling such a change in EFL settings in Thailand.

More specifically, the study indicated that the TBL approach removed the teachers' domination of the learning process and the students had opportunities to be more involved in learning activities that related to life outside the classroom and developed their communication skills. TBL was identified as creating opportunities for meaningful collaboration among students, and more interaction generally between students and between the teacher and students. Teachers reported initial difficulties in allowing students the time and freedom to find their own answers, but once this was established, students developed confidence and independent learning skills, according to their teachers, the supervisors and the students themselves. On the issue of resources to support TBL methods, the lessons moved away from reliance on a single textbook and teachers employed a variety of authentic
materials (i.e., linked to ‘real life’). The scarcity of materials suitable for the stage of language proficiency of students – and which the teachers could use comfortably on their own basis of English language skills – continued to be a problem throughout the PDP. The question of assessment was contentious. The data pointed to assessment serving learning goals by the end of the programme: centring on communication skills, encouraging students to become more involved in their own assessment, and teachers giving individualised and regular feedback on student progress. The findings of the study confirm previous research and studies reviewed in the literature, such as Long (1985), Richards, Platt & Weber (1985), Breen (1987), Candlin (1987), Prabhu (1987), and Willis (1996). These studies emphasise that TBL provides an explicit and narrow language teaching method for promoting the CLT.

However, the study found that there was no change in the examination system which produced standardised results by which the school and each student were judged outside the school, and teachers were concerned that their students and the school might be disadvantaged in a competitive system that did not take the new curriculum into account. Despite these misgivings, the data showed that students were more relaxed about learning under a scheme that did not compare students within the class. Overall the account given by supervisors, teachers and students alike across the nine classes in the study was one of busy, satisfied classroom practitioners and learners very pleased with their achievements and the change they had accomplished over a school semester.

8.1.2 Coaching as an agent in the change process

The study showed that the coaching model employed in the PDP was an effective means to assist this group of teachers to implement the new curriculum successfully. Both the supervisors and the teachers reported that coaching helped them to clarify the way in which the new curriculum could be implemented in the classroom. It reduced the uncertainty and complexity of curriculum innovation, rendering it more manageable; both groups were more confident in their roles as a result, and better able to solve difficulties when
they arose. This finding of the study supports what Joyce and Showers (1980) and Galton and Williamson (1992) propose in their studies. That is, the coaching approach can assist teachers to develop effective ways of implementation innovation by simplifying a complex task into a manageable component.

The model of coaching adopted in the PDP had a number of features that were concluded to be important to its success. These features consist of five main components proposed by Joyce and Showers (1980): presenting a theory, demonstration, practicing, providing feedback and coaching for application. In the PDP, it began with a workshop for supervisors and teachers in the holidays just prior to the school semester; in this three-day training session the central elements of the new curriculum were presented, the specific process of implementing it during the PDP constructed and agreed upon by the group, and videotapes of an EFL lesson by each of the teachers viewed and discussed – leading to a general agreement that there was a need for change in methodology by the members of the group. The follow-up to the training session extended throughout the school semester and consisted mainly of fortnightly visits by supervisors to the three schools/teachers involved in the programme in their district. In these visits, typically, the supervisor would view lessons by individual teachers, give supportive expert feedback, and discuss difficulties and issues raised by the teacher. These visits also involved meetings with key figures such as principals, and were accompanied by the researcher who was involved in discussions, but the supervisor and the teacher were the main participants. The three teachers in each of the districts met outside school hours with their supervisor and the researcher from time-to-time to discuss common issues and strategies, and to strengthen their mutually supportive ‘innovation network’.

In affirming its success the supervisors and teachers involved pointed particularly to the greater clarity of understanding they had of the process of implementation of the new curriculum, the confidence they gained through the regular feedback they received from supervisors, the expert advice they
received which helped to solve day-to-day problems, the lessening of their feelings of anxiety and the general spirit of support, encouragement and collaboration in the PDP. The teachers pointed also to unresolved difficulties, especially: too short a space of time to develop the necessary skills to implement the new curriculum, and the need for more support in the form of relevant materials. The supervisors reported that they needed more budget support from the Provincial Education Board, and that they had insufficient time to make school visits as expected. They commented also that they thought the teachers needed more on-site coaching to sustain the changes they were making, and that peer coaching might be a long-term alternative to the form initiated in the study. As mentioned in the literature, individuals find it difficult to carry out the change alone. Teachers need ongoing support from both administrators and skilled consultants to their continuing commitment to the innovation (Blackler & Shimmin, 1984; Fullan, 1992; Bottomley, Dalton, Corbel & Brindley, 1994; Cowley & Williamson, 1995).

These outcomes link this study to other studies on professional development and curriculum innovation in quite different situations, as reported in the literature review (see for example, Berman & McLaughlin, 1976; White, 1988; Fullan, 1992). However, there were of course specific characteristics in the way the training sessions were conducted, the liaison with schools, the supportive networking, and the giving of feedback and advice that linked this PDP to its local setting within a Thai cultural context. These aspects of the PDP, while not documented here, would have had a crucial effect on the outcome; without these adaptations to the situation, the PDP would not have succeeded as it did. The researcher's close working knowledge of the Thai education system and familiarity with the location of his study ensured, too, that the PDP was sensitive to context. There was another feature that may have contributed to the success of the programme but which was only tangentially mentioned by participants: the particular role and authority of the supervisors. Teachers agreed that supervisors have the key role to play in curriculum innovation; this stems from their responsibility for curriculum implementation at the district level. This view of PDP was pointed out by
Cowley and Williamson (1995), that a model of implementation should be flexible and open for localised interpretation and implementation at a pace determined by the schools and their teachers. Beyond this, however, the Thai education system – with its firmly hierarchical structure – gives a special status to external experts such as the supervisors (and to academics/researchers). When people in such roles become advocates for change, working as colleagues and supporters for classroom teachers, serving their needs and collaborating with them closely in a way that does not traditionally happen, then a culturally-specific effect could work to the advantage of the programme. Together with the halo effect that normally contributes to the success of pilot studies and experimental groups, this PDP had a strong impetus towards success from the specific conditions under which it was conducted.

8.2 Implications of the study

The findings of this study have significant implications at three levels: theoretical, practical and for educational policy.

8.2.1 Theoretical implications

The study makes an original contribution to EFL research by combining two areas, communicative language teaching and curriculum implementation, in a particular cultural context, that of Thailand. More specifically, the study investigated employing a task-based learning approach as a type of language teaching method, which would assist EFL teachers to make greater use of communicative language teaching in their classrooms. Further, the TBL methodology was combined with a coaching model to assist successful curriculum implementation.

TBL for EFL instruction has received considerable attention from many researchers, syllabus designers and educational innovators who have promoted the aims of communicative language teaching (Long, 1985;
Crookes, 1986; Candlin & Murphy, 1987; Prabhu, 1987; Breen, 1989; Nunan, 1989; Willis, 1996). They have shown that this approach can increase significantly learner awareness of the target language, and improve accuracy in its use, as well as providing opportunities for meaning-focused comprehension and production of the target language. Furthermore, a task-based learning approach concentrates on a limited range of types of communication that can be introduced into the classroom, where language teaching methodology is geared towards establishing a tight focus on a practical syllabus.

Recently, in the area of an educational change and curriculum implementation, the coaching approach has been recognized as an alternative and effective way of facilitating the change process. This approach aims to help teachers develop effective ways of acquiring a new concept, on the principle that if a complex task is reduced to simple steps and a training programme devised that guarantees success at each step, then teachers will be more likely to be successful in adopting the change (Galton & Williamson, 1992). More particularly, this form of coaching provides support and constant reassurance to reduce the feeling of insecurity when teachers bring about changes. As the teachers find it difficult to carry out the change alone, the support of a group helps them to feel more secure (Blacker & Shimmin, 1984). Moreover, as a coaching approach focuses on improving rather than evaluating teaching performance, it allows for communication with others about the change process. The coaching relationship results in the possibility of mutual reflection, the checking of perceptions, the sharing of frustrations and successes, and the informal thinking through of mutual problems. Companionship provides reassurance that the problems are normal. The companionship not only makes the training process technically easier, it enhances the quality of the experience. For the reasons described, coaching has become widely recognised as an agent of successful innovation implementation (Joyce & Showers, 1980; Galton & Williamson, 1992).
Successful pedagogical change, especially one where the change is major enough to constitute a paradigm shift, will clearly be more difficult if teachers lack an understanding of either the content of the innovation or the process of its implementation, or if they feel insecure, isolated or unsupported, or if they are under judgment on their performance rather than gaining constructive feedback (Fullan, 1992; Bottomley, Dalton, Corbel & Brindley, 1994; Cowley & Willaimson, 1995). The participants in this study all expressed their concerns about these issues, and had experienced such feelings in their earlier attempts to employ CLT. The context of primary EFL teaching in Thailand, where the need for change was great but seeming so hard to attain, was ideal for trialling new approaches to both the content and the process of innovation. This study then, makes a contribution to theoretical models of effective EFL curriculum change by combining two important components, TBL and the coaching approach, and demonstrating that they are compatible and mutually supportive innovatory strategies.

8.2.2 Practical implications

At the level of practice, the study establishes a clear and comprehensive curriculum implementation procedure, which draws together a concern to update the content of the new EFL curriculum in Thailand with a concern for an effective process by which to implement it. The resulting model of professional development programming differs from those already existing in TEFL in Thailand, and offers a very promising alternative. Previous studies, as discussed in the literature review, indicate that many teacher professional development programmes in the past have failed, and do so primarily because they do not fit the context in which they were conducted and the specific needs of participants (see for examples, Parish & Arrends, 1983; Maris, 1986; Berman & McLaughlin, 1977). Most significantly, they have commonly lacked adequate continuing support for practice at the school level, leaving teachers feeling insecure and isolated in their classrooms. This has been an obstacle for educational change in general, and in the field of EFL in Asian countries in particular.
As was evident in other studies from the literature (e.g., Blacker & Shimmin, 1984; Fullan, 1992; Galton & Williamson, 1992; Bottomley, Dalton, Coebel & Brindley, 1994), the teachers in this study indicated how important they thought it was to feel knowledgeable, secure and confident about both what they were to teach in the new national curriculum and how they were to teach it effectively. To do this in a pedagogical approach as general in principle as CLT, and so radically different from traditional approaches, Thai EFL teachers needed to adapt the preferred curricula and pedagogy to their own situations. In response to previous research, many studies have suggested the consideration of a professional development programme which is flexible and open to adopt changes at the pace chosen by the teachers (Cowley & Williamson, 1995). The PDP on which this study is based focused on this issue, and the programme was shaped to fit its cultural and local context. Traditional Thai educational values and procedures, beliefs about learning and forms of government administration as they impacted on the practices of teachers were considered in the organization of the programme, and in conducting the training sessions and the coaching component. The regional superintendent, the supervisors, principals and teachers were consulted in the process of establishing the programme and choosing who was to be involved. Their opinions were respected in a continuing, collaborative endeavour whose purpose it was to see everyone succeed.

The main practical implication of this study is that it establishes a workable model for professional development to implement the new curriculum with supervisors and teachers such as those participating in this programme. In particular it demonstrates how important it is for such a programme to include continuing support to assist teachers to cope with the implementation phase of innovation. There is nothing, however, in this model that limits its application to this level of schooling or to this region of Thailand. It is possible, with appropriate adaptation for context, to apply equally well at the secondary level, and to elsewhere in Thailand or internationally. Nor, after modification to cope with a different curriculum field, need it apply only to EFL. The vital
reason for choosing TBL was that it was a methodology employing clear and
dactical procedures that led to desired outcomes, in this case a learner-
centred curriculum and performance skills relevant to life outside the
classroom. Almost all modern curricula have such requirements; this model
may well deserve consideration in a range of subject areas.

8.2.3 Policy implications

In terms of policy, the study contributes to an understanding of teacher
learning and professional development by providing a model professional
development programme which has been shown to assist teachers to become
more confident and to ‘feel more at home’ and comfortable with confronting
workplace changes. With the adoption in Thailand of a national curriculum
policy, teachers cannot avoid introducing educational innovations into their
classrooms. Teachers, however, must still be able to make the necessary
changes at their own pace and to adapt any curricula or pedagogy to their own
situations. For the change to be successful, teachers must perceive the need
for change and recognise the need for professional development (Fullan,
1992; Bottomley, Dalton, Corbel & Brindley, 1994). In this study, a
professional development programme was designed by considering the local
Thai context and introducing on-going support for teachers during the
curriculum implementation phase. This was shown to produce a high chance
of successful and smooth implementation of the changes.

This study also promoted teachers’ learning and professional development
through peer coaching and networking. This is considered an effective and
sustainable way of providing teachers with professional development. Other
research studies (see for example, Fullan, 1992; Galton & Williamson, 1992)
have indicated that teachers feel insecure and lack confidence when
implementing innovations without support. With group support, teachers feel
more secure in taking risks. Studies have also suggested that a collegial
network is a powerful way for teachers to learn and help each other when they
encounter change. Peer coaching and school and teacher networking offer
practical opportunities for effective innovation implementation at the classroom level. As colleagues, teachers can establish goals that are important to them collectively and can introduce knowledge and range of experience from their own different practices. The natural resistance to change and innovation, particularly by experienced teachers, can be reduced by this method of horizontal learning (Joyce & Showers, 1980; Joyce & Weil, 1986; Caccia, 1996;).

Reflecting on their experience of this PDP, the supervisors had a number of recommendations, some of which are mentioned above. Another was the need for adequate funding. A policy implication arising from this recommendation would be that successful implementation of innovation needs strong government financial support as well as strong directives for change. The need for more time in which to provide guidance and support for classroom practitioners has financial implications. So does the heavy workload of already stretched key personnel, supervisors especially; more would be needed, and would require training. To give the individual attention they gave to just three teachers in this coaching model could not be sustained system-wide, so the funding to establish programmes to train staff already in schools to act as key curriculum support personnel would need to be found.

The programme for this study grew out of the interest and enthusiasm of the researcher, requiring significant investment in overseas travel and study, a very extended period of time devoted to planning, liaison with educators at various levels of the system, and management and conduct of the programme. Some of this preparation and absorption in the detail of carrying out the study would not need to be repeated if the model was adopted elsewhere, but almost certainly some educators acting as ‘change agents’ at the regional level would be required, and they would need curriculum expertise to sustain the role effectively. The findings on implementation support raised in the study agree with previous literature such as Fullan (1992), Galton and Williamson (1992) and Bottomley, Dalton, Corbel and Brindley (1994). These studies emphasise the necessity and the importance of support for teachers when bringing about change.
8.3 Limitations of the study

The programme on which this study was based was constrained by a number of circumstances relating to time, availability of suitable participants and the number that could be accommodated, availability of support staff, resources and funding. The gathering of data for the study was constrained largely by the time that could be devoted to it by the full-time researcher. The researcher was concerned about the issues related to these limitations when conducting the study. However, within these limitations, the reports from the study indicated the success of the PDP. Discussion of the most significant limitations of the study is gathered under three headings: the PDP, sampling and research methodology.

8.3.1 Limitations in relation to the PDP

A significant limitation in relation to the PDP was the limited time available to conduct vital stages of it. The participating supervisors and teachers commented that the time allocation was too constrained for both the in-service training session and the school visits. For the teachers, as the programme was dealing with nine teachers from different schools and locations, it was difficult to arrange suitable times for the teachers to attend the workshops and the group meetings. This was because the school schedule for the semester had been arranged, and the school could not find relief teachers to replace the participating teachers when they left their school to attend the workshops or group meetings. In addition, the supervisors found it difficult to allocate their time for school visits every week as planned, and even found the fortnightly visits difficult to sustain. More limited training and support components had to be accepted in the programme than was wished, and its effectiveness may have been diminished somewhat as a result. Although teachers clearly need more than one semester to transform themselves into practitioners in control of new curriculum, that length of time was realistic for the PDP in the light of constraints on further programmes that might be modelled on it.
Another limitation in relation to the PDP was the lack of Thai language materials relating to the innovation, both in task-based support materials for the teachers and the supervisors and also with the new curriculum implementation documents. This PDP was the first pilot programme to be delivered after the Thai government introduced the New Education Act in 1999; the development of support materials (and staff) had yet to be undertaken although their need has since been acknowledged.

8.3.2 Sample limitations

There was a strict limit to the number of participants in the study, the main factor being the size of the group from whom the researcher could reasonably gather such detailed data. Questionnaire preparation, distribution and collection for the twelve educators in different districts and schools before and after the PDP, and administration of the questionnaire to 231 students at the conclusion of the study, were reasonably manageable; the conduct of recorded interviews with individual supervisors and teachers and the students in groups of three, followed by transcription and translation, placed a considerable constraint on enlarging the group. In addition, nine lessons had to be videotaped, and then viewed and discussed in a three-day workshop, and fortnightly follow-up visits to be made to all participants in the three cities; the sample size needed to be strictly limited. The benefits of reducing the number of subjects in the study were that a very rich range of data could be collected, the situations, thinking and professional practice of each came to be known intimately by the researcher, and essential liaison and problem-solving support could be given by the researcher to all participants. The disadvantage of the small size was that it reduced the ability to generalise the results to a wider context.

The participants were volunteers, not a random sample of supervisors and teachers in the region in which the study was conducted. Most of the participants were recognised by the local educational authorities as being
people who were keen to develop their professional careers, especially the teachers. All had a close interest in the implementation of the new curriculum, although two of the teachers were encouraged to enter the programme because their principals believed that the professional development they would receive would improve their classroom performance in a field that was fairly new to them. That this group's perceptions about the need for change were so positive at the beginning of the PDP could have contributed significantly to its successful implementation (Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Burns, 1994; Isaac & Michael, 1995). How representative the attitudes and skills of such a group can be taken to be of all primary EFL Thai teachers, or even of Grade 6 teachers, is certainly questionable. It would be reasonable to say that the results of the study indicate what can be achieved in fairly favourable circumstances, not what will be achieved if the model were to be adopted widely throughout Thailand, especially if such matters as adaptation for differing local contexts and personal situations were not given importance.

8.3.3 Limitations in the research method

The main research method limitation concerns the generalisability of the research results. Because the study was conducted with a limited sample of teachers in specific circumstances, caution needs to be exercised in claiming the study’s application to other contexts (Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Burns, 1994; Isaac & Michael, 1995). In addition, the halo effect from setting up an experimental and closely monitored group would certainly have affected the generalisability of results.

Another methodological constraint was that it was the researcher who devised and conducted the PDP from which the same researcher gathered his data. To offset the inherent bias in such circumstances, triangulation was used to validate data where possible (Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Burns, 1994). Considerable effort was made to gather data in different forms (questionnaire, observation checklists, interview) and from all participants (supervisors,
teachers, students) at different stages (pre- and post-PDP, as well as less formally during the implementation of the programme). It was intended that this would provide consistent triangulation and internal and external validity of the study (Burns, 1994; Isaac & Michael, 1995).

Another limitation merits mention as well. The data gathered on the impact of the PDP upon attitudes and teaching practice considered the combination of a number of innovatory elements in professional development, most notably the combination of TBL methods with a coaching approach. There was little attempt to identify the impact of specific factors on the whole change. The data were not collected in a way that pinpointed whether it was the adoption of TBL that had the greatest contribution to make to successful change, or particular aspects of coaching such as regular visits, or the way feedback was given, or networking, that made the significant difference between this PDP and earlier programmes. The study established that all the elements of the PDP collectively were effectual, not that any one could be said to be crucial. The interview data gave some detail on participants’ views about some factors, but the questionnaires and checklists were not primarily designed to yield quantitative data on which regression analysis could be conducted.

8.4 Recommendations for further research

This study developed, implemented and evaluated a small-scale, pilot professional development programme to assist primary EFL teachers to implement the changes mandated by the Thai government’s National Education Act of 1999. In fact, this study was a quasi-experimental study. Its outcome was certainly encouraging in indicating ways in which future programmes in this field might be conducted, and it contributes to the body of literature on curriculum development and in-service education generally. Its success also points to further research which could usefully deepen the understandings it generates and extend the practical application of its approach to professional development. Some suggestions follow.
8.4.1 Would it work with other groups?

Because the study was conducted as a pilot project with an invited volunteer group of participants as well as a limited group of schools and areas, it is suggested that further studies should be conducted by repeating the same process with other groups of participants in different circumstances. This would extend the generalisability of the results. In addition, a replication of the research without the researcher should be conducted to investigate whether or not the results would be the same when compared with this study. As mentioned by Fullan (1992), perception of a particular need is an influential factor in the success of any innovation. It is very challenging for further investigation whether or not the findings would be positive with other groups of teachers and schools.

8.4.2 Further research on peer coaching/networking to develop teachers as professionals in the long term

It was obvious from the findings of this study that a coaching approach is a powerful way of assisting teachers to cope with curriculum change, as well as assisting teachers to develop their professional teaching career. Traditionally in Thailand, people who provide coaching are experts from 'outside', such as education supervisors or university academics who are expert in those areas. Research studies (e.g., Beijaard, Verloop, Wubbels & Feiman-Nemser, 2000; Joyce & Weil, 2000) have suggested that teachers themselves can provide useful coaching to, or rather with, their peers. In this way, teachers can share their own experiences about teaching and classroom practice, especially those with more experience collaborating with those who have less. Further studies of peer coaching and teacher networking could be conducted to assess their future role in professional development of the kind recommended here. Beijaard, Verloop, Wubbels and Feiman-Nemser (2000) emphasised the important of research on peer coaching, that it contributes not only to the professional development of a colleague but to the teachers' professional growth as well.
8.4.3 Teachers adapting to change

Teacher professional development has become increasingly important in many countries, including Thailand (Hallinger, 2000; Simons, Linden & Duffy, 2000). This is because teachers are affected by changes from both outside and inside schools and those changes affect their working lives. Many teachers feel insecure when confronting changes to be introduced into their classrooms required by government policy changes. Previous research and studies described in the literature, such as Berman and McLaughlin (1977), Parish and Arrends (1983), Blackler and Shimmin (1984), Maris (1986), Fullan (1992) and Galton and Williamson (1992) reported in a range of cultural contexts that teachers felt insecure and lacked confidence to change. It is recommended that further investigation of the impact of changes which affect the quality of teaching and teachers' work in Thailand would be most useful.

Understanding of local characteristics in adaptation to change could contribute significantly to the ways innovation is introduced in this country. Studies of Thai teachers' perceptions about their professional competencies, work lives and professional identities would also be suitable for further investigation.

8.4.4 Fields other than EFL

It has been shown in this study that attempting to implement curriculum innovation through a teacher development programme requires the consideration of local context and local culture. In addition, a professional development programme should provide for focus on both the content of the innovation and also the process of implementation, in order to maximise its chances of success (Fullan, 1992; Bottomley, Dalton, Corbel & Brindley, 1994). More importantly, it needs a means of assisting teachers to maintain the goals of the innovation and to support them through the process of implementation (Joyce & Showers, 1980; Galton & Williamson, 1992). The programme introduced in this study was designed to serve all of the
above purposes, specifically in the area of TEFL. However, further investigation is suggested to ascertain whether this framework can be applied to other fields or areas of education in Thailand (or elsewhere), such as science, mathematics or social science. This is because not only do EFL teachers confront the changes in their teaching methods, but also teachers in other curriculum areas require a professional development programme, which will assist them to cope with reforms which will bring change to their professional practice.
REFERENCES


---Kumaravadivelu, B. (1993). The name of the task and the task of naming:


APPENDICES
APPENDICES A – G

DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

A: Teacher & Supervisor Questionnaire
B: Student Questionnaire
C: Classroom Observation Schedule
D: Supervisor Interview Schedule
E: Teacher Interview Schedule
F: Teacher & Supervisor Interview Schedule
G: Student Interview Schedule
Data Collection Instruments

Three research instruments, a classroom observation checklist, a questionnaire, and an interview schedule, were used to gather data in this study.

The classroom observation checklist was used for two purposes: (i) to rate, before and after the PDP, individual teachers' use of specific features of CLT, and (ii) to monitor teachers' classroom performance fortnightly during the PDP. Feedback sessions were conducted between supervisor, researcher and teacher after lessons using the supervisor's ratings on the checklist as the basis for constructive discussion. Items on the checklist enabled the supervisor to focus on TBL methods that teachers were developing in their pedagogy through the coaching approach.

Interviews were conducted in tandem with the classroom observation checklist and the questionnaires, and were aimed at eliciting in-depth information about the perceptions and personal experiences of the supervisors, teachers and students participating in the PDP. Three different interview schedules were developed to fit each of the groups of participants. All nine teachers and three supervisors were interviewed before and after the PDP, but a representative sample of three students from each class only were included in the student interviews.

Two questionnaires were used in this study. One was administered to teachers and supervisors before and after the PDP to gather data on changes in participants' perceptions and understanding of issues associated with the new curriculum and its introduction through the PDP. The other was used to investigate students' perceptions of the new methods of teaching and learning they had experienced as a result of their teachers' involvement in the PDP.

In the following observation checklist, interview and questionnaire forms, English translations of items in the original Thai versions are given. These translations have been checked with an English-speaking Thai colleague, and the back-translations confirmed by a fellow Thai postgraduate student at the University of Tasmania.
APPENDIX A

TEACHER & SUPERVISOR QUESTIONNAIRE
Appendix A: Teacher & Supervisor Questionnaire

Direction

Please give your perceptions about the issues involved in implementing the new curriculum below by using the following scale:

SA  Strongly Agree
A   Agree
U   Not Sure
D   Disagree
SD  Strongly Disagree

1. Perception of need

External factors

1.1. The change in political and economic climate has meant Thailand needs a learner-centred curriculum.

1.2. The change in national education policy has meant Thailand needs a learner-centred curriculum.

Internal factors

1.3. The need for change is because I would like to provide students with quality programmes.

1.4. The need for change is because of the need for sequential courses and pathways for students.

2. Understanding of issues relevant to the new curriculum

2.1. I have a clear understanding of the objective of the curriculum.

2.2. I have a clear understanding of types of learning & teaching activities

2.3. I have a clear understanding of the role of the teacher.

2.4. I have a clear understanding of
the role of learners.

2.5. I have a clear understanding of the procedure of assessment.

3. **Beliefs about teaching methodology**

3.1. A learner-centred curriculum needs different learning and teaching activities.

3.2. A learner-centred curriculum needs a wide range of instructional materials.

3.3. A learner-centred curriculum requires a change in the teacher’s role from dominating the classroom to facilitating learning opportunities.

3.4. A learner-centred curriculum is more active than a teacher-centred curriculum.

3.5. A learner-centred curriculum requires the teacher to change the way learning is assessed.

4. **Understanding the process of implementation**

4.1. I understand the plan for the introduction of the new curriculum.

4.2. I understand how the new curriculum will be implemented.

4.3. I understand how the new curriculum will be maintained.

5. **Participation and decision making in the implementation process**

5.1. I participated in the planning stage of curriculum implementation (in my region/classroom).

5.2. I participated in the implementation of the curriculum (in my region/classroom).

5.3. I participate/expect to participate in the continuation stage of curriculum implementation.
5.4. I have a role in decision-making during the various stages of implementation of the new curriculum.

6. **Implementation support**

6.1. I think that initial intensive training is helpful for implementing the new curriculum.

6.2. I think that financial support is necessary for implementing the new curriculum.

6.3. I think that support materials are necessary for implementing the new curriculum.

6.4. I think that adequate time allocation is very important for implementing the new curriculum.

7. **Key supporters of curriculum implementation**

7.1. The teacher is a key supporter of curriculum implementation.

7.2. The school principal is a key supporter of curriculum implementation.

7.3. The supervisor is a key supporter of curriculum implementation.

7.4. The researcher/academic is a key supporter of curriculum implementation.

7.5. The regional education authority is a key supporter of curriculum implementation.
APPENDIX B

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE
Appendix B: Student Questionnaire

**Direction**

We would like you to say what you think about the new way of learning English in your class by ticking yes or no to the following statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I am happy with the new teaching method.</td>
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<td>2. The new teaching method helps me to improve my English language skills.</td>
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<td>3. I am happy when the teacher asks us what we want to learn at the beginning of the course.</td>
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<td>4. I am happy that learning activities allow us to have more involvement.</td>
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<td>5. I am happy that learning activities help us to develop our learning skills.</td>
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<td>6. I am happy that the teacher facilitates and encourages us to learn by ourselves.</td>
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<td>7. I am happy that access to student record helps us to know the progress of our study.</td>
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<td>8. I am happy that we are allowed to become more involved in our own assessment.</td>
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<td>9. I am happy that the teacher accepts students' individual differences.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. The new teaching method helps us to become more confident and independent learners.</td>
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</table>
Appendix C: Classroom Observation Checklist

Direction:
During or after the class you have observed or taken part in, rate the following statements according to what went on.

5 - Always.
4 - Often
3 - Sometimes
2 - Occasionally / intermittently
1 - Never

a. The general / specific objectives

1. The development of fluency is more important than formal accuracy.

b. Types of learning and teaching activities

1. The activities allow a high degree of learner participation.
2. The activities focus on comprehensible and meaningful input/output.
3. The activities involve information sharing.
4. The activities require negotiated completion of tasks.
5. The activities involve learners in different kinds of roles, necessitating use of different types of speaking.
6. The activities allow learners to practise use of conversational routines and expressions.
7. The activities encourage learners to use turn-taking roles.
8. The activities allow learners to develop meaningful collaboration.
9. The activities provide learners opportunities to practice strategies for opening, developing and terminating conversational encounters.
c. Learner roles

1. The learners are able to negotiate meaning.
2. The learners are able to convey factual information.

d. Teacher roles

1. The teacher encourages student-student interaction / participation.
2. The teacher defines a problem to be worked by learners, guided by a teacher.
3. The teacher asks students to apply existing skills to a new setting.

e. The role of instructional material

1. The teacher offers different resources for the tasks.
2. Tasks involve learners with authentic materials.
3. The materials make clear the link between the classroom and the wider world.
4. The materials foster independent learning.
5. The materials focus the learners on the learning process.
6. The materials accord with the learners' expressed needs.

f. Assessment / Evaluation

1. Evaluation is jointly determined by teacher & students.
2. The teacher uses a range of assessment approaches.
3. The teacher provides students with a record of their progress.
4. Assessment is used to improve students' progress, not just for teachers' marks.
APPENDIX D

SUPERVISOR INTERVIEW SCHEDULE
Appendix D: Supervisor Interview Schedule

a. The general / specific objective

1. Can you describe the present English teaching method(s) teachers use to promote student learning?

In particular, can you highlight the strengths and weaknesses of the English teaching method(s) that those teachers use?

2. How would you describe these teaching method compared to those they used in the past?

b. Types of learning and teaching activities

1. What activities do teachers use in their classrooms to promote English language communication skills?

2. How would you describe these in learning activities compared to those used in the past?

3. What difficulties do you find the teachers encounter when using these activities?

c. The learner’s role

1. What are students doing in their classrooms currently to improve their English communication skills?

2. How would you describe the learner’s role compared to the past?

3. What difficulties are there for students in getting involved in learning activities? Please describe what they are.

d. Teacher’s role

1. How would you describe the teacher’s role in promoting learning opportunities in the classroom currently?

2. How would you describe the teacher’s role compared to the past?

3. What difficulties do you think teachers are facing in fulfilling their role currently? Please describe them.
e. The role of instructional materials

1. What sort of instructional materials are teachers using to promote learning English for communicative purposes?

2. How would you describe their use of instructional materials compared to the past?

3. What difficulties do you think teachers have in using these materials?

4. How are teachers using these materials to make a link between their classroom and the wider world?

f. Assessment / Evaluation

1. What assessment methods are teachers using to evaluate their students' learning progress?

2. In what way do teachers monitor their students?

3. How would you describe these learning assessment methods compared to the past?

4. Has the change in assessment procedure created any difficulties for teachers? If yes, please describe them.
APPENDIX E

TEACHER INTERVIEW SCHEDULE
Appendix E: Teacher Interview Schedule

a. The general / specific objective

1. Can you describe the present English teaching method(s) that you use? In particular, can you highlight the strengths and weaknesses of the English teaching syllabus(es) that you follow?

2. How would you describe the differences between your present English teaching method and the ones you have used in the past?

b. Types of learning and teaching activities

1. What activities do you use in your classroom to promote English language communication skills?

2. How would you describe the learning activities you use compared to the ones you used in the past?

3. What difficulties do you find in using these activities?

c. The learner’s role

1. What role do your students get involved in while engaged in learning activities to improve their communicative language skills?

2. How would you describe the learner’s role in your classroom now compared to the past?

3. What difficulties are there for students in getting involved in those activities? If yes, please describe what they are.

d. Teacher’s role

1. Can you describe your role while promoting learning opportunities?

2. How would you describe your present role as a teacher compared to the past?

3. Do you find any difficulties in this role? If yes, please describe them.

e. The role of instructional materials

1. What sort of instructional materials do you use to promote English language communication for your students?

2. How would you describe the instructional materials you use compared to the past?
3. Do you find any problems in using those materials?

4. How do you use those materials to make a link between your classroom and the wider world?

**f. Assessment / Evaluation**

1. What assessment methods do you use to evaluate your students' progress?

2. In what way do you monitor your students?

3. How would you describe your current learning assessment methods compared to the past?

4. Has the change in assessment procedure created any difficulties for you? If yes, please describe them.
APPENDIX F

TEACHER & SUPERVISOR INTERVIEW SCHEDULE
Appendix F: Teacher & Supervisor Interview Schedule

This interview was used in tandem with the questionnaire which aimed to elicit in-depth data from the personal experiences of the supervisors, teachers and students participating in the PDP. The results of the interviews were triangulated with those of the questionnaires and the observations for the purpose of the validity and reliability.

Supervisors and teachers participating in the PDP were interviewed by the researcher both before and after the programme.

1. Perception of need

Why do you think a learner-centred curriculum is needed?

2. Implementation issues

What is your understanding of the learner-centred curriculum?

3. Implementation plan

Is there a clearly defined plan for implementation of the learner-centred curriculum?

4. Participation

What is your involvement in implementing the learner-centred curriculum?

5. Decision making

To what extent were you involved in the decision to implement the learner-centred curriculum?

6. Implementation support

What support have you had in implementing the learner-centred curriculum?

7. Implementation advocates

Is there any person(s) who you see as central to the implementation?

8. Teaching behaviours

How has your teaching behaviour changed as the result of the innovation?
APPENDIX G

STUDENT INTERVIEW SCHEDULE
Appendix G: Student Interview Schedule

1. Perception of need

1.1 Why do you think it is important to learn the English language?

1.2 Does the present teaching of English you have learned in the class meet your needs?

2. Perception of participation in learning (types of activities)

2.1 What does the teacher do in the class to help you to learn/improve your English language skills?

2.2 What activities do you find useful to learn English?

2.3 What learning activities have you preferred?

3. Perceptions of the learners' role

3.1 Can you explain how you get involved in learning activities in your classroom?

4. Perceptions of the teacher's role

4.1 In the classroom, how does your teacher encourage you to learn?

4.2 What do you like your teacher to do to improve your learning?

4.3 When learning, do you want to be corrected by your teacher if you make mistakes?

5. Perceptions of the role of instructional materials

5.1 What sort of instructional resources does the teacher provide to assist your English learning in the class?

5.2 What sources or materials do you like learning from?

6. Perceptions of learning assessment methods

6.1 How do you find out how much your English is improving?

6.2 How do you get involved in the assessment of your study progress?
APPENDICES H - N

SAMPLE DATA COLLECTION RESPONSES

H: Sample response – Teacher & Supervisor Q’re
I: Sample response – Student Questionnaire
J: Sample response – Classroom Observation Checklist
K: Sample responses – Teacher Interview Schedule
L: Sample responses – Supervisor Interview Schedule
M: Sample responses – Teacher & Supervisor Interview
N: Sample responses – Student Interview Schedule
Appendix H: Sample response – Teacher & Supervisor Questionnaire

Direction

Please give your perceptions about the issues involved in implementing the new curriculum below by using the following scale:

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>U</td>
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</table>

1. **Perception of need**

   **External factors**

   1.1. The change in political and economic climate has meant Thailand needs a learner-centred curriculum. ___ ✔ ___ ___ ___ ___

   1.2. The change in national education policy has meant Thailand needs a learner-centred curriculum. ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

   **Internal factors**

   1.3. The need for change is because I would like to provide students with quality programmes. ___ ✔ ___ ___ ___ ___

   1.4. The need for change is because of the need for sequential courses and pathways for students. ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

2. **Understanding of issues relevant to the new curriculum**

   2.1. I have a clear understanding of the objective of the curriculum. ___ ✔ ___ ___ ___ ___

   2.2. I have a clear understanding of types of learning & teaching activities ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

   2.3. I have a clear understanding of the role of the teacher. ___ ✔ ___ ___ ___ ___
2.4. I have a clear understanding of the role of learners

2.5. I have a clear understanding of the procedure of assessment

3. Beliefs about teaching methodology
   3.1. A learner-centred curriculum needs different learning and teaching activities.
   3.2. A learner-centred curriculum needs a wide range of instructional materials.
   3.3. A learner-centred curriculum requires a change in the teacher's role from dominating the classroom to facilitating learning opportunities.
   3.4. A learner-centred curriculum is more active than a teacher-centred curriculum.
   3.5. A learner-centred curriculum requires the teacher to change the way learning is assessed.

4. Understanding the process of implementation
   4.1. I understand the plan for the introduction of the new curriculum.
   4.2. I understand how the new curriculum will be implemented.
   4.3. I understand how the new curriculum will be maintained.

5. Participation and decision making in the implementation process
   5.1. I participated in the planning stage of curriculum implementation (in my region/classroom).
   5.2. I participated in the implementation of the curriculum (in my region/classroom).
   5.3. I participate/expect to participate in the continuation stage of curriculum implementation.
5.4. I have a role in decision-making during the various stages of implementation of the new curriculum.

6. Implementation support

6.1. I think that initial intensive training is helpful for implementing the new curriculum.

6.2. I think that financial support is necessary for implementing the new curriculum.

6.3. I think that support materials are necessary for implementing the new curriculum.

6.4. I think that adequate time allocation is very important for implementing the new curriculum.

7. Key supporters of curriculum implementation

7.1. The teacher is a key supporter of curriculum implementation.

7.2. The school principal is a key supporter of curriculum implementation.

7.3. The supervisor is a key supporter of curriculum implementation.

7.4. The researcher/academic is a key supporter of curriculum implementation.

7.5. The regional education authority is a key supporter of curriculum implementation.

(Teacher 1)
Appendix I: Sample response – Student Questionnaire

(Class 1 student)

Direction

We would like you to say what you think about the new way of learning English in your class by ticking yes or no to the following statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I am happy with the new teaching method.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. The new teaching method helps me to improve my English language skills.</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<td>3. I am happy when the teacher asks us what we want to learn at the beginning of the course.</td>
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<td>4. I am happy that learning activities allow us to have more involvement.</td>
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<td>7. I am happy that access to student record helps us to know the progress of our study.</td>
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<td>8. I am happy that we are allowed to become more involved in our own assessment.</td>
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<td>9. I am happy that the teacher accepts students’ individual differences.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. The new teaching method helps us to become more confident and independent learners.</td>
<td>✓</td>
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Appendix J: Sample response – Classroom Observation Checklist

(Teacher 1 rated by Supervisor 1)

Direction:

During or after the class you have observed or taken part in, rate the following statements according to what went on.

5 - Always.
4 - Often
3 - Sometimes
2 - Occasionally / intermittently
1 - Never

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a. The general / specific objectives

1. The development of fluency is more important than formal accuracy. ______________________

b. Types of learning and teaching activities

1. The activities allow a high degree of learner participation. ______________________

2. The activities focus on comprehensible and meaningful input / output. ______________________

3. The activities involve information sharing. ______________________

4. The activities require negotiated completion of tasks. ______________________

5. The activities involve learners in different kinds of roles, necessitating use of different types of speaking. ______________________

6. The activities allow learners to practise use of conversational routines and expressions. ______________________

7. The activities encourage learners to use turn-taking roles. ______________________

8. The activities allow learners to develop meaningful collaboration. ______________________

9. The activities provide learners opportunities to practice strategies for opening, developing and terminating conversational encounters. ______________________
c. **Learner roles**

1. The learners are able to negotiate meaning.  
2. The learners are able to convey factual information.

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**d. Teacher roles**

1. The teacher encourages student-student interaction/participation.
2. The teacher defines a problem to be worked by learners, guided by a teacher.
3. The teacher asks students to apply existing skills to a new setting.

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e. **The role of instructional material**

1. The teacher offers different resources for the tasks.
2. Tasks involve learners with authentic materials.
3. The materials make clear the link between the classroom and the wider world.
4. The materials foster independent learning.
5. The materials focus the learners on the learning process.
6. The materials accord with the learners' expressed needs.

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f. **Assessment / Evaluation**

1. Evaluation is jointly determined by teacher & students.
2. The teacher uses a range of assessment approaches.
3. The teacher provides students with a record of their progress.
4. Assessment is used to improve students' progress, not just for teachers' marks.

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c. Learner roles

1. The learners are able to negotiate meaning.
2. The learners are able to convey factual information.

d. Teacher roles

1. The teacher encourages student-student interaction / participation.
2. The teacher defines a problem to be worked by learners, guided by a teacher.
3. The teacher asks students to apply existing skills to a new setting.

e. The role of instructional material

1. The teacher offers different resources for the tasks.
2. Tasks involve learners with authentic materials.
3. The materials make clear the link between the classroom and the wider world.
4. The materials foster independent learning.
5. The materials focus the learners on the learning process.
6. The materials accord with the learners' expressed needs.

f. Assessment / Evaluation

1. Evaluation is jointly determined by teacher & students.
2. The teacher uses a range of assessment approaches.
3. The teacher provides students with a record of their progress.
4. Assessment is used to improve students' progress, not just for teachers' marks.
Appendix K: Sample responses – Teacher Interview Schedule

a. The general / specific objective

1. Can you describe the present English teaching method(s) that you use? In particular, can you highlight the strengths and weaknesses of the English teaching syllabus(es) that you follow?

The Communicative Language Teaching approach is my desired teaching method and I have tried to implement it in my English class. It doesn't work well with 50 students in one class like my class. I can't help every student to practice their English. (Teacher 1)

My students have a problem with their vocabularies. They want to use English for communication, but they don't know how to say it. (Teacher 6)

Students don't have any chances to speak English outside their class when they go home. (Teacher 7)

With the old teaching method, I was exhausted because I talked all the time in the class and students forgot what I taught them by the next morning. (Teacher 7)

2. How would you describe the differences between your present English teaching method and the ones you have used in the past?

Before participating in this programme, I taught with 'chalk and talk'. The new teaching method encourages me to create learning situations for students. (Teacher 2)

I like the new teaching method. It moves a teacher from a person who always controls the class and it allows students more participation in the class. (Teacher 5)

Students are very happy learning this way. They have more involvement in learning activities and activities are meaningful which relate to their real life. (Teacher 4)

b. Types of learning and teaching activities

1. What activities do you use in your classroom to promote English language communication skills?

I try to organise learning activities which encourage students' collaboration, rather than competition. (Teacher 1)

I use different activities, depending on contents. But I prefer group work and let students find answers by themselves. (Teacher 8)
Games, songs, external reading, story writing etc. The problem is that students didn’t have basic English skills when they pass to my class. (Teacher 6)

2. How would you describe the learning activities you use compared to the ones you used in the past?

Learning activities allow students to get more involvement in classroom activities. Students try to use their English for communication. The classroom is more active. (Teacher 6)

Students are happy to learn English and they are confident to speak English for communication. The new teaching method allows students to be involved in activities, to work in groups and help each other. (Teacher 7)

3. What difficulties do you find in using these activities?

The class is too large so I can’t help every student to practise. (Teacher 1)

I use a variety of activities to help students to learn. The problem is that they can’t use English for communication. (Teacher 4)

I prefer group activities but students make a loud noise and it disturbs the next class. (Teacher 7)

It is hard to design tasks which help students to meet their learning objectives. I didn’t do well at the beginning. It was new to me. (Teacher 7)

I sometimes don’t know words and pronunciations when students ask me. (Teacher 8)

It is not smooth when students do activities. Students have limited vocabularies, but they need to communicate to other students when they are doing activities. (Teacher 3)

c. The learner’s role

1. What role do your students get involved in while engaged in learning activities to improve their communicative language skills?

I try to get students involved in activities as much as I can. But it depends on the content of the textbook. (Teacher 9)

Students don’t enjoy learning English. They took little chance to use English in the class. (Teacher 6)
2. How would you describe the learner’s role in your classroom now compared to the past?

Students speak English more in class. They learn through learning activities, not just from the teacher. Working in groups helps students become more independent, more disciplined and responsible. (Teacher 6)

The students prefer the new way of learning. They are happy to learn English and have become more confident to speak English in the class. (Teacher 7)

Students enjoy learning. Their attitude towards the subject of English is positive. They are not shy about speaking English in the class. (Teacher 1)

3. What difficulties are there for students in getting involved in those activities? If any, please describe what they are.

At the beginning, students were not familiar with the new way of learning and our lessons moved very slowly. (Teacher 3)

Students don’t know vocabulary which they would like to express. When the come to ask me, sometimes, I didn’t know how to say it either. (Teacher 5)

It was not smooth when I asked students to do activities at the beginning. It was because learning activities are different from what they did in the past. (Teacher 8)

d. Teacher’s role

1. Can you describe your role while promoting learning opportunities?

With the old teaching method, I was exhausted because I talked all the time in the class and students forgot what I taught them by the next morning. (Teacher 7)

A teacher’s role is important in the class. The teachers help students to learn what they want by designing activities which develop their learning skill. (Teacher 4)

2. How would you describe your present role as a teacher compared to the past?

I preferred the new teaching method once I became familiar with its procedure. It changed my role to facilitator when students were doing activities in the class. (Teacher 1)

I have become a supporter of learning, not a person who teaches students everything. It was hard to change to this role, especially at the beginning. (Teacher 5)

I have become more confident speaking English in the class and control the class less. With the new teaching method, I spend more time preparing the lessons. But in the class, students spend most of the time doing activities. I am less controlling of the class and students participate more in the classroom.
3. Do you find any difficulties in this role? If yes, please describe them.

The new teaching method requires teachers to have skills in designing tasks for students. It is hard for the teachers who are not familiar with it, especially designing tasks which link to real life outside the class. (Teacher 8)

I didn’t trust my students and I was worried that they wouldn’t learn as much as I wanted. I couldn’t wait to let them find answers by themselves so I told them the answers. (Teacher 9)

It was hard to control myself and not interfere in the students’ work, to let them learn through learning activities. Sometimes I didn’t trust them to learn by themselves. (Teacher 7)

The difficulty in using the new teaching method was that I just couldn’t wait for the students to get their work done. I was worried that they couldn’t do it so I told them the answers. (Teacher 6)

e. The role of instructional materials

1. What sort of instructional materials do you use to promote English language communication for your students?

With the previous teaching method, I taught by following the textbook page by page and I found that it was very boring. (Teacher 7)

I use **ON THE SPRING BOARD.** It is a ready-made material which includes textbook, workbook, exercises and teacher’s manual. (Teacher 9)

2. How would you describe the instructional materials you use compared to the past?

Before joining this programme, I used only chalk and talk and the blackboard. The new teaching method encourages me to use a variety of materials and sources to support students’ learning. (Teacher 8)

I don’t rely on the textbooks much now. It depends on the tasks I design for my students: I will select instructional materials which support that task. (Teacher 1)

In the past, I felt guilty when I couldn’t finish all of the contents in the textbook. I wanted my students to learn everything in the textbook. (Teacher 4)

3. Do you find any problems in using those materials?

I need to find materials myself for my students. It costs me money and consumes time to prepare materials for students. I want this support from the school or district. (Teacher 2)
I found it difficult to understand English language materials. I spent hours to study the instruction and prepared my lesson. (*Teacher 9*)

4. How do you use those materials to make a link between your classroom and the wider world?

Setting learning situations for students, preparing lessons and help them to meet learning objectives, then designing what sort of materials I am going to use to support the students' learning. (*Teacher 9*)

I use materials to support students' learning. The students use those materials such as worksheets to do their tasks designed for them. (*Teacher 4*)

### f. Assessment / Evaluation

1. What assessment methods do you use to evaluate your students' progress?

The new concept of assessment needs a variety of methods to evaluate students' learning and I am using them more often. (*Teacher 1*)

I use different methods to assess my students' progress. The new assessment helps me to provide students with systematic and useful feedback. (*Teacher 5*)

2. In what way do you monitor your students?

Testing is common. I use an interview sometimes, but not very often and it was conducted informally. I try to keep students' record in their portfolios. (*Teacher 1*)

I use pre and post test. (*Teacher 3*)

3. How would you describe your current learning assessment methods compared to the past?

I am not worried now about how much my students can learn. I don't expect them to learn everything I teach them. It doesn't matter. (*Teacher 2*)

The new concept of assessment is to help students to improve their learning performance, not to judge their learning performance. This helps students to reduce the sense of competition and comparison between them. (*Teacher 7*)

Students are involved in the assessment process and they are happy to do that. The new concept of assessment encourages more interaction between teacher and student. (*Teacher 4*)

4. Has the change in assessment procedure created any difficulties for you? If yes, please describe them.
I am very surprised to find that students are very honest when I ask them to do self-assessment. I thought they might cheat to get higher scores, but they don't. (Teacher 1)

What I am still very worried about is that the standard examination from the provincial board won't change to go along with the new assessment. (Teacher 9)
Appendix L: Sample responses – Supervisor Interview Schedule

a. The general / specific objective

1. Can you describe the present English teaching method(s) teachers use to promote student learning?

This teacher tried very hard to move her class towards communicative language learning in her classroom, but the activities she has introduced didn’t help students much. The activities are very controlled and heavily based on grammar. The classroom is very far from communicative. What students learn from this class is memorizing vocabulary and language patterns. (Supervisor 2)

The teacher relied heavily on the textbook. Learning activities did not link to students’ real life, but focusing on learning grammar. The classroom is very passive and very teacher-controlled. (Supervisor 3)

In particular, can you highlight the strengths and weaknesses of the English teaching method(s) that those teachers use?

This classroom is very boring. It is very far from a learner-centred classroom. Students don’t have any chance for classroom participation. (Supervisor 3)

The teacher is very controlling of the class and students don’t have any chance to get involved in classroom activities. Students don’t enjoy learning and the teacher is very exhausted because she speaks all the time. (Supervisor 1)

This teacher relied heavily on the textbooks. I don’t think that her students could learn and use the English language she taught for communication. Students learnt by memorizing what she taught from the textbook which is not related to real life. (Supervisor 3)

2. How would you describe these teaching methods compared to those they used in the past?

Learning activities designed by the teacher are very much communicative activities. Her students get opportunities to practise their English through these activities. The students are enthusiastic about doing activities to complete their tasks. (Supervisor 1)

Her classroom is changing a lot. She feels more confident using a new teaching method. Her class is active. Activities are meaningful. It is a great move. (Supervisor 3)
b. Types of learning and teaching activities

1. What activities do teachers use in their classrooms to promote English language communication skills?

Activities are very controlled and heavily based on the grammar of the language. Students don’t have any chance to get involvement in classroom activities. The class is very passive. (Supervisor 1)

Activities are not related to the real world. Students learn by memorizing what their teacher taught them. (Supervisor 3)

2. How would you describe these in learning activities compared to those used in the past?

Activities can lead to communication, but the teacher is still worried that students can’t find answers so she tells them those answers. She doesn’t trust her students. (Supervisor 2)

The teachers don’t explain to students what to do before telling them to get on with activities so they can’t do them and the lesson is not smooth. In the end, the teachers are back to their [usual] role, controlling students to get them to do what they want. (Supervisor 3)

The classroom activities have changed to communicative activities which allow students more chances to get involved. The classroom is more active and the teacher is less concerned with controlling the students in comparison to the past. (Supervisor 1)

I can see that activities allow students to have more participation. The classroom has become more learner-centred. (Supervisor 3)

I had had a wrong concept about meaningful activities and that became clear to me when I joined this programme. Now I have a clear concept of how a meaningful activity can help students to make a link between what they learn in class and real life. (Supervisor 2)

3. What difficulties do you find the teachers encounter when using these activities?

The problem in this case is that the teacher is worried that students won’t learn vocabularies and language patterns so she spends too much time on pattern drills until there is little time left for students for practising communication. (Supervisor 1 talking about Teacher 2)

I think she understands the concept of the new teaching method, but she needs more time for skill development. She needs more coaching on how to design communicative activities and how to apply them in the class. It is hard for her to change, specifically to change activities in her class. (Supervisor 1 talking about Teacher 3)
She needs more time to practise her [new teaching] skills. She controlled her students less, but sometimes she can’t wait to allow her students to complete the tasks and she tells them the answers. (Supervisor 3 talking about Teacher 9)

c. The learner’s role

1. What are students doing in their classrooms currently to improve their English communication skills?

The activities don’t help students to learn much. The teachers don’t trust students that they can learn and the teachers don’t allow them to learn by themselves. (Supervisor 2)

The activities are very controlled by the teacher and heavily based on grammar. Students don’t have any chances to participate in the activities. The classroom is very passive. (Supervisor 1)

2. How would you describe the learner’s role compared to the past?

The new teaching method encourages students to have more participation in the class and also reduces the gap between the bright and weak students. (Supervisor 3)

I have no doubt that students enjoy learning in this way. (Supervisor 2)

Students are more confident, more independent. The new teaching method reduces the gap between students. Group work creates cooperation among students and the teacher. (Supervisor 1)

The new teaching method serves individual differences among students. All students can learn because they don’t worry so much about comparing their results with each other. The assessment is focused on their study development, rather than achievement. (Supervisor 2)

3. What difficulties are there for students in getting involved in learning activities? Please describe what they are.

The new teaching method encourages students to have more participation in the class and also reduces the gap between the bright and weak students. (Supervisor 3)

I have no doubt that students enjoy learning in this way. (Supervisor 2)
Students are more confident, more independent. The new teaching method reduces the gap between students. Group work creates cooperation among students and the teacher. (Supervisor 1)

The new teaching method serves individual differences among students. All students can learn because they don't worry so much about comparing their results with each other. The assessment is focused on their study development, rather than achievement. (Supervisor 2)

d. Teacher's role

1. How would you describe the teacher's role in promoting learning opportunities in the classroom currently?

The teacher is heavily reliant on the textbook. I don't think that her students could use the English she taught for communicative purposes. Students speak English by memorizing from the teacher and it is not linked to the real world. (Supervisor 2)

The classroom is very boring, very passive. It is very far from a learner-centred classroom. Students don't have any chance for participating in learning activities. (Supervisor 1)

2. How would you describe the teacher's role compared to the past?

The teacher is less controlling of the class. Learning activities allow students to be more involved. The classroom becomes more active because the tasks introduced by the teacher allow students to participate. The activities are meaningful and linked to real life. (Supervisor 3)

The class is more open to students, and activities encourage them to learn by themselves through meaningful activities. The teacher is less controlling of the class. (Supervisor 2)

3. What difficulties do you think teachers are facing in fulfilling their role currently? Please describe them.

Teachers don't trust their students that they can learn by themselves through learning situations set by the teacher. The teachers interfered and interrupted students when they were doing activities because they were worried that students didn't learn what the teacher expected them to learn. (Supervisor 3)

It is hard for teachers to move to a new role as a learning facilitator, especially at the beginning of the implementation. They need time to practice the new skill. (Supervisor 1)
e. The role of instructional materials

1. What sort of instructional materials are teachers using to promote learning English for communicative purposes?

The teacher relied heavily on the textbook. I don’t think that her students could use English for communicative purposes. Students could speak English by memorizing from the teacher and the English they learnt was not related to their real life. (Supervisor 3)

After the programme, teachers rely less on using textbooks as the only main resources. Task-based learning approach encourages teachers to use different resources to support their students’ learning. (Supervisor 2)

2. How would you describe their use of instructional materials compared to the past?

The role of instructional materials has changed. Before the programme the teachers used the materials to support their teaching and they were held by the teachers. But in the new teaching method the materials are used for supporting students’ learning and students themselves use them, not the teacher. (Supervisor 1)

The new teaching method encourages teachers to use a variety of instructional materials to help students to learn and to do tasks. (Supervisor 2)

3. What difficulties do you think teachers have in using these materials?

The teacher didn’t explain to her students clearly about what she expected them to do, so the students were confused and learning activities didn’t work. (Supervisor 2)

The new teaching method encourages a teacher to use a variety of materials to support students’ learning. This pushes the teachers to work harder to prepare lessons and materials. (Supervisor 1)

4. How are teachers using these materials to make a link between their classroom and the wider world?

After the programme, teachers have relied less on using only textbooks as a main resources. TBL helps the teachers to create meaningful learning situation for students and materials are used by the students to support their learning. (Supervisor 1)

Learning activities designed for students related to their life outside the class. What students learn in their class are meaningful. This is what we want to see. (Supervisor 3)
f. Assessment / Evaluation

1. What assessment methods are teachers using to evaluate their students' learning progress?

   Before teachers joined this programme, they use pre- and post-test as a main approach to evaluate their students' learning progress. Now, the teachers use different approaches such as diary, interview, questionnaire etc. (Supervisor 3)

   I would love to see teachers keep students' records, so they can have evidence to show their students' learning progress when someone wants to see it. (Supervisor 1)

2. In what way do teachers monitor their students?

   It is a good sign to see that the teachers use students' records to assess their students' progress. So they can have evidence on which they can also provide feedback to their students about their learning progress. (Supervisor 2)

   After the programme, teachers assess their students' learning progress more often and regularly. Students are allowed to do their self-assessment. (Supervisor 3)

3. How would you describe these learning assessment methods compared to the past?

   The new way of assessment helps students to reduce stress and anxiety. Its goal is to develop their learning skills, not to judge their performances. So students do not worry about comparing themselves with others. (Supervisor 1)

   The assessment is done by the teacher and students, not only the teacher like in the past. Students have their involvement in an assessment process. The new way of assessment uses a variety of methods to evaluate students' learning. (Supervisor 2)

4. Has the change in assessment procedure created any difficulties for teachers? If yes, please describe them.

   Many teachers still worry about a standard test from the Provincial Board which is a heavily knowledge-based examination. (Supervisor 2)

   A few teachers are concerned about their students when they have to take an entrance examination at high school. (Supervisor 1)
Appendix M: Sample responses – Teacher & Supervisor Interview

This interview was used in tandem with the questionnaire which aimed to elicit in-depth data from the personal experiences of the supervisors, teachers and students participating in the PDP. The results of the interviews were triangulated with those of the questionnaires and the observations for the purpose of the validity and reliability.

Supervisors and teachers participating in the PDP were interviewed by the researcher both before and after the programme.

1. Perception of need: Why do you think a learner-centred curriculum is needed?

   I was not happy when students couldn’t remember what I taught them. They could answer in the class, but forgot by the next day. (Teacher 5)

   The world is changing and it affects schools and education. We have to prepare for that change. I have taught English for ten years, but my students can’t use English for communication. I want to solve this problem. (Teacher 6)

   Thai society is changing a lot; especially there is a change in technology. It affects educational policy and schools. The learner-centred curriculum is considered a suitable way to prepare students for the change. (Supervisor 1)

   The present curriculum doesn’t fit Thai society which is changing a lot now, specifically the change in technology which affects schools and students. (Supervisor 3)

   In the current curriculum, students have very little space in the classroom. The classroom is very passive and very controlled by the teacher. Students learn what their teacher wants them to learn. It shows that the curriculum doesn’t help students to develop their learning skills. The new curriculum can help students to develop their learning skills to acquire knowledge by themselves in the future. (Supervisor 3)

   The new curriculum promotes learners. Students get benefits from the curriculum. The new curriculum allows students more involvement in the learning process. The present curriculum promotes students memorizing and what students learn in the class is very far from their real life. (Teacher 1)

   According to the Thai education reforms, learners are recognized as the centre of the learning process. We want to see schools provide friendly learning environments for students and we expect teachers to take a role supporting students to learn. This is the aim of the new education reform. (Supervisor 2)
2. Implementation issues: What is your understanding of the learner-centred curriculum?

A few training programmes about the new curriculum have been offered for supervisors, but I am not clear at the moment how to apply the new curriculum at a practical level. (Supervisor 1)

At this stage, we study from documents distributed by the Board of the National Education Commission. But they don’t explain how to apply the new curriculum to a practical level. I am uncertain how to do that. (Supervisor 3)

Teachers accept the change and they know that the learner-centred curriculum will be introduced in the near future. They don’t oppose it. The problem is that they have no idea what a learner-centre curriculum is and how they are to apply it in their classrooms. (Supervisor 3)

Many teachers don’t have a clear concept about the learner-centred curriculum and none of them implement the new curriculum into their classes at the moment. (Teacher 4)

I have been informed about some issues concerning the new curriculum, but am still not clear what it is and how I can implement it into my classroom. I try to apply it in my classroom, but it doesn’t work. I’ve got difficulties using it. I think teachers’ understanding about the new curriculum is very important. We have to clarify it before implementing it in the classroom. (Teacher 9)

This programme is coming at just the right time. We are facing a big change because of the education reform. Teachers need someone to help them. They feel anxious and insecure about their future. Teachers don’t know how to apply the new curriculum in their classroom. The programme has shown them a clear procedure of curriculum implementation. (Supervisor 3)

My understanding about the new curriculum is clear now. Before I participated in this programme I didn’t have a clear concept of what the new curriculum was like and how I could apply it in my classroom. I want my colleagues to have this chance to develop themselves. (Teacher 6)

My understanding about the new curriculum is about ninety percent. I need more time to practise my skills, specifically, designing learning activities and assessments. (Teacher 5)

3. Implementation plan: Is there a clearly defined plan for implementation of the learner-centred curriculum?

We know very little about the new curriculum. In the past three years, there has not been any training for supervisors concerning the new curriculum implementation. This is why many supervisors have no idea what we are going to do or how we can help schools and teachers to implement the new curriculum. (Supervisor 2)
We haven't got any plan yet concerning to the new curriculum implementation and we don’t have any idea how to do it either. We are waiting for a master plan from the central authorities. *(Supervisor 3)*

I don’t have a clear picture of the new curriculum and I don’t know how to implement it into my classroom either, but I am very keen to learn. *(Teacher 9)*

I need someone to guide me and help me to implement the new curriculum. I am not confident about having to use the new curriculum. *(Teacher 1)*

I am clear about the procedure for curriculum implementation and I am confident about how to do it; but for the teachers, I think they need a longer time to practise their skills. *(Supervisor 1)*

I am confident that I can implement the new curriculum in my classroom. The programme provided a clear procedure for classroom practice. The coaching sessions helped me to clarify what I was not clear about. *(Teacher 1)*

I think that I can do it now, but I still need a supervisor to be my consultant and guide me. I need feedback from my supervisor. *(Teacher 3)*

**4. Participation:** What is your involvement in implementing the learner-centred curriculum?

I have implemented a few projects concerning the new curriculum in two pilot schools. We haven’t got any plan to implement the new curriculum in every school in the region. I am waiting for a master plan from the provincial board. *(Supervisor 3)*

We work as a team. The supervisor’s role is to support schools and teachers towards successful implementation in their school, specifically in the area of teaching and learning improvement. There is little chance of success if the teachers are not clear about what they are going to do and nobody helps them. *(Supervisor 1)*

My concept of the new curriculum is not clear and I think other supervisors are not either. We haven’t got enough information concerning the new curriculum from the province. At this stage, we have studied documents distributed by the Board of the National Education Commission. But they don’t tell us how to apply it at a practical level. *(Supervisor 3)*

From my understanding, in the new curriculum students are at the centre of the learning process. The teacher’s role is to support and facilitate students’ learning. The new curriculum requires more participation by teacher and students. Many teachers don’t have a clear concept about the new curriculum and none of them implement the new curriculum in their classrooms at the moment. *(Teacher 4)*
I have been informed about some issues concerning the new curriculum, but I am still not clear what and how I can implement it in my class. I tried it, but it didn’t work well and I find it is difficult for me. I think that the teacher’s understanding is really important before implementation in the classroom. (Teacher 9)

We need this kind of professional development programme to assist the teachers to develop their teaching careers. As supervisors, we support schools and teachers to implement the national curriculum in their schools. The new curriculum requires teachers to be a classroom researcher. We expect the teachers to be classroom planners and to design their own curriculum to suit their situations. (Supervisor 2)

These teachers can help the supervisors by being key teachers. They can work with the supervisors to implement this kind of professional development programme in other schools. (Supervisor 1)

It is hard at the beginning to use the new curriculum, but that is what education reform requires teachers to develop for themselves. The coaching process helps teachers to become more and more confident to implement the new curriculum in the classroom. (Teacher 4)

The teacher’s role is still very important in the new curriculum as a support for student learning. It is very hard particularly for the old teachers if they don’t know how to do it. (Teacher 7)

5. Decision making: To what extent were you involved in the decision to implement the learner-centred curriculum?

The teacher’s role is still very important in the new curriculum as a support for student learning. It is very hard particularly for the old teachers if they don’t know how to do it. (Teacher 7)

I am not confident if I have to implement the new curriculum in my classroom. I need someone to guide me and give me feedback. (Teacher 1)

I have attended seminars concerning the new curriculum, but I can’t do it when I try to use it at my school. (Teacher 8)

I am confident that I understand the procedure of curriculum implementation. This is a good model of a professional development programme to develop schools and teachers. As supervisors we work as curriculum supporters to assist schools and teachers to implement the new curriculum in their schools. (Supervisor 1)

This is the right way to help teachers to develop themselves in the long term. The programme allowed more space for the teachers to think what they should do in their own classrooms. (Supervisor 2)
I am confident that I can implement the new curriculum in my classroom. In the new curriculum, teachers are still to take an important role in creating learning situations for their students. The coaching process is very useful to help me to clarify mistaken concepts about the new curriculum. (Teacher 2)

The programme provides a different way which encourages teachers to design their own details to suit their situations. I didn't like it at the beginning because it was difficult, but when I became familiar with it, I liked it. (Teacher 5)

6. Implementation support: What support have you had in implementing the learner-centred curriculum?

I think the support from the programme is enough for the teachers to have a clear understanding about the new curriculum. As a supervisor, this programme also guided me with a clear practical procedure about how to implement the new curriculum in schools. (Supervisor 2)

I think that the programme covers every stage and aspect of the training process. It is a well-designed programme which helps the teachers to develop their professional careers to meet the goals of the new curriculum. The programme provides a clear understanding about the new curriculum in every aspect and the teachers can apply it in their classrooms. (Supervisor 1)

The coaching process was very helpful. It helps me a lot to provide feedback on my classroom practice and reduces my feeling of insecurity. (Teacher 5)

I have never followed-up at schools every fortnight for supervision as this programme expected. Actually, it is important to do so, but we don't have much time. There is a lot of routine work, paper work at the office. (Supervisor 1)

What I really need is feedback. I understand that supervisors are busy, but coaching and school visits are necessary and important. (Teacher 6)

The training session is a bit short for teachers, but the school follow-up helped us to become clear and provides feedback for us to make sure we are on the right track. (Teacher 1)

I need more support with materials and I think the programme is too short to conduct in one school term. (Teacher 7)

At the beginning, I thought that the programme took a long time to conduct, nearly nine months. But actually it is not a long time. (Supervisor 1)

Yes, I think the timeline is enough for the teachers to have a clear concept and understanding about the new curriculum and its application into their classrooms. But the teachers need a longer time for skills to use the new curriculum. (Supervisor 2)

I have a clear concept of the new curriculum and how to apply it in my classroom, but I need a longer time to practise my skills. I think only one school term is too short. (Teacher 7)
The time for the teacher workshop is too short. We need more time practising our skills in using the new curriculum. But the coaching process at schools helps to clarify the difficulties. School visits are really helpful. (Teacher 1)

7. Implementation advocates: Is there any person(s) who you see as central to the implementation?

Our role is a link between schools and the central educational authorities. All policies and educational innovations are passed to our office before being implemented in schools. (Supervisor 1)

Yes, teachers come to meet supervisors when they need help concerning teaching and learning. Sometimes they ask their colleagues if they are confident that their colleagues can help. (Supervisor 2)

I will ask supervisors if I don’t understand anything concerning the curriculum implementation. The supervisors have information, documents and materials which I can study. (Teacher 6)

I ask my colleagues if they know that they can help me. At my school, there is a curriculum support board to assist teachers with teaching and curriculum issues. (Teacher 1)

8. Teaching behaviours: How has your teaching behaviour changed as the result of the innovation?

After the programme, I can see changes in both the teachers and the students. Students are allowed to do activities by themselves without direct control by their teachers. And the teachers changed their roles to support and encourage students to learn. (Supervisor 1)

The role of instructional materials in the new curriculum is changed from the past when they were used by the teachers to support the teachers' teaching. In the new curriculum, materials are used by students to assist them to learn by themselves. (Supervisor 2)

The new way of assessment helps students to reduce stress and anxiety. Its goal is to help students develop learning skills, not to judge their learning performances. Students do not worry about comparing their results with others. (Supervisor 2)

I spent more time preparing my lessons, but talk less in class time. The class is less teacher-controlled. (Teacher 8)

The new curriculum encourages me to use a variety of materials to help students learn, compared to the previous one when I used only textbooks. (Teacher 2)

My concept of assessment has changed. I don’t expect that students have to memorize everything I teach in the class. It doesn’t matter now. (Teacher 3)
Appendix N: Sample responses – Student Interview Schedule

1. Perception of need

1.1 Why do you think it is important to learn English language?

- I want to read stories in English. *(Class 1 Student)*
- It will help me if I run a business in the future. *(Class 4 Student)*
- It will be useful for my further study. *(Class 7 Student)*
- I can talk to tourists. *(Class 9 Student)*

1.2 Does the present teaching English you have learned in the class meet your needs?

- I like learning English this year. The class is active and I don’t fall asleep in the class. *(Class 1 Student)*
- I enjoy learning English this year. My English is improving. *(Class 8 Student)*

2. Perception of participation in learning (types of activities)

2.1 What does the teacher do in the class to help you to learn/improve your English language skills?

- There are more activities for us to practise English in the lesson. *(Class 4 Student)*
- The teacher gives us learning tasks to do in the class. They are helpful to practise English. *(Class 7 Student)*

2.2 What activities do you find useful to learn English?

- I like playing games. *(Class 2 Student)*
- I want to study outside class, visiting places where I can practise English. *(Class 1 Student)*
- I prefer learning following textbooks. *(Class 3 Student)*

2.3 What learning activities have you preferred?

- I prefer learning activities which allow us find answers by ourselves. I don’t like learning by memorizing. *(Class 3 Student)*
- I prefer learning in groups because we can help each other, and I feel more relaxed when I’m learning in a group. Learning in groups, the poor students can ask their friends for help if they can’t do the task. *(Class 6 Student)*
3. Perceptions of the learners' role

3.1 Can you explain how you get involved in learning activities in your classroom?

I was scared to learn English in the past, but I am not now. I am more confident to read English. I enjoy learning it. The teacher teaches what we want to learn. (Class 5 Student)

I like learning in groups. We help each other to find answers. (Class 5 Student)

I want more communicative activities. They help Students to practice English. (Class 6 Student)

4. Perceptions of the teacher's role

4.1 In the classroom, how does your teacher encourage you to learn?

The teacher asked us what we wanted to learn at the beginning of the course. Last year, she came to the class and told us to do what she wanted. (Class 7 Student)

In the past, she taught, taught and taught and never asked us whether we liked it or not. (Class 5 Student)

4.2 What do you like your teacher to do to improve your learning?

My teacher did not get angry this year when we couldn't answer questions in the class. (Class 9 Student)

This year the teacher didn't have many rules in the class. She was very kind this year. (Class 1 Student)

4.3 When learning, do you want to be corrected by your teacher if you make mistakes?

The teacher didn't tell answers to students, but helped us find those answers by ourselves. (Class 1 Students)

I was not embarrassed when I made a mistake and I wanted the teacher to correct me. (Class 4 Student)

5. Perceptions of the role of instructional materials

5.1 What sort of instructional resources does the teacher provide to assist your English learning in the class?
This year, the teacher uses a lot of games in the class. *(Class 1 Student)*

The teachers uses worksheets and asks students to learn following the instruction in those worksheets. It is good. *(Class 7 Student)*

We like learning English from situations which the teacher set up like shopping or interview friends. *(Class 5 Student)*

5.2 What sources or materials do you like learning from?

We learn from worksheets, games, and role plays. Last year, the teacher used only textbooks and we learned following those textbooks. *(Class 1 Student)*

6. Perceptions of learning assessment methods

6.1 How do you find out how much your English is improving?

This year, the teacher asks students to do self-assessment. *(Class 5 Student)*

The teacher tells Student to keep students' records this year. *(Class 7 Student)*

6.2 How do you get involved in the assessment of your study progress?

This year, the teacher does assessment very often and asks us to keep our work records, so we can evaluate our study progress. *(Class 1 Student)*

We can do self-assessment and sometimes the assessment is done by our friends. *(Class 2 Student)*
APPENDIX O

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT
PROGRAMME WORKSHOP PLAN
## Appendix A: Intensive Pre-PDP Workshop Schedule

### Day 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Persons involved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.30 - 9.30</td>
<td>- Induction session: an introduction of the professional development programme</td>
<td>- A superintendent, principals, supervisors, teachers and a researcher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.30 - 12.00</td>
<td>- Education reform in Thailand</td>
<td>- Presented by the superintendent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- A learner-centred curriculum</td>
<td>- Presented by supervisors and the researcher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LUNCH</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.00 - 14.30</td>
<td>- A new policy in the English curriculum</td>
<td>- Presented by supervisors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- A communicative language teaching (CLT)</td>
<td>- Presented by the researcher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.30 - 16.30</td>
<td>Discussion: Current situations in Thai EFL classrooms.</td>
<td>- Supervisors, teachers and the researcher</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Day 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Persons involved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.30 – 9.30</td>
<td>- Task-based learning approach and CLT</td>
<td>- Presented by the researcher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.30 – 12.00</td>
<td>- Classroom observation and a use of the classroom observation checklist</td>
<td>- Presented by the researcher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LUNCH</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.00 – 14.30</td>
<td>- A presentation of teachers' lesson videotapes</td>
<td>- Supervisors, teachers and a researcher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.30 – 16.30</td>
<td>- Discussion: A feedback from supervisors and teachers on viewing the lesson videotapes.</td>
<td>- Supervisors, teachers and the researcher</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Day 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Persons involved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.30 – 9.30</td>
<td>- Demonstration of teaching by a volunteered teacher</td>
<td>- A volunteered teachers, supervisors and the researcher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.30 – 12.00</td>
<td>- Structured and open ended feedback from the supervisors and other teachers</td>
<td>- Supervisors, teachers and the researcher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>LUNCH</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.00 – 14.30</td>
<td>- Design lesson plan using a new teaching method</td>
<td>- Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.30 – 16.30</td>
<td>- Discussion: supervisors provide feedback to teachers on their lesson plans.</td>
<td>- Supervisors, teachers and the researcher</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX P

FRAMEWORK FOR TASK-BASED LEARNING (TBL)
Appendix P: Task-based Learning (TBL) Framework Outline

**Pre-task (including topic and task)**

**The teacher**
- introduces and defines the topic
- uses activities to help students recall useful words and phrases
- ensures students understand task instructions
- may play a recording of others doing the same or a similar task

**The students**
- note down useful words and phrases from the pre-task activities and/or the recording
- may spend a few minutes preparing for the task individually

---

**Task cycle**

**Task**
- The students
  - do the task in pairs/small groups. It may be based on a reading/listening text

**The teacher**
- acts as monitor and encourages students

**Planning**
- The students
  - prepare to report to the class how they did the task and what they discovered/decided
  - rehearse what they will say or draft a written version for the class to read

**The teacher**
- ensures the purpose of the report is clear
- acts as language adviser
- helps students rehearse oral reports or organize written ones

**Report**
- The students
  - present their spoken reports to the class, or circulate/display their written reports

**The teacher**
- acts as chairperson, selecting who will speak next, or ensuring all students read most of the written reports
- may give brief feedback on content and form
- may play a recording of others doing the same or a similar task

---

**Language focus**

**The students**
- do consciousness-raising activities to identify and process specific language features from the task text and/or transcript
- may ask about other features they have noticed

**The teacher**
- reviews each analysis activity with the class
- brings other useful words, phrases and patterns to students' attention
- may pick up on language items from the report stage

**Practice**
- The teacher
  - conducts practice activities after analysis activities where necessary, to build confidence

**The students**
- practise words, phrases and patterns from the analysis activities
- practise other features occurring in the task text or report stage
- enter useful language items in their language notebooks

---

NB: Some time after this final phase, students may like to repeat the same or a similar task with a different partner.

APPENDICES Q - S

SAMPLE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT WORKSHOP MATERIAL

Q: Sample of six TBL task types
R: Sample task-based lesson outline
S: Sample of communicative games
APPENDIX Q

SAMPLE OF SIX TBL TASK TYPES

Appendix Q: Sample of six TBL task types

Six types of task

This classification, which does not claim to be exhaustive, will help you generate a variety of tasks on whatever topic you have selected. For each type of task, it gives the outcome, broadly analyses the processes involved, then suggests some specific starting points and examples that you can adapt and build on.

Simple tasks may consist of one type only, such as listing; more complex tasks may incorporate two or more types, such as listing then comparing lists or listing then ranking. Problem solving may include listing, comparing and ranking.

After the starting points and examples, this classification also suggests follow-up tasks. All tasks involve speaking and listening. Many also entail reading and note-taking. All tasks can lead into a more formal oral or written presentation.

The task types classified here are introduced in Chapter 2. A more detailed breakdown of task types for use with texts can be found in Chapter 5, Section 4. Tasks specifically for beginners and young learners can be found in Chapter 8, Sections 2 and 5. Meta-communicative tasks, i.e. tasks that focus on language itself, are termed 'language analysis activities' in this book and are illustrated in Chapter 7.

1 Listing

Outcome: Completed list or draft mind map (see Focus 5).

Processes: Brainstorming, fact-finding

Starting points: Words, things, qualities, people, places, actions, job-related skills:
- international English words, e.g. in sport, in pop songs
- things found in particular places, e.g. in the kitchen, on the beach
- everyday things, e.g. that you carry with you or that you often forget or lose
- qualities looked for in a product, e.g. a good pen, a stereo system
- qualities needed for particular jobs, e.g. teaching, being prime minister
- personal characteristics, e.g. of a TV celebrity, an astronaut
- features of a place, e.g. a holiday resort, a language school, a sports complex
- things you do, e.g. prevent crime, plan a party, move house
- ways of doing things, e.g. remembering new words, cooking rice, saving money
- common questions, e.g. that guests ask hotel reception staff, that tourists ask tourist guides

Follow-up tasks:
- Memory challenge games (lists and sources can be hidden and students asked to recall as many items as possible in a specified time).
- Ordering and sorting tasks (type 2) and comparing tasks (type 3) can be based on lists that students have made.
## 2 Ordering and sorting

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Outcome</strong></th>
<th>Set of information or data that has been ordered and sorted according to specified criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Processes</strong></td>
<td><strong>Sequencing</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Starting points</td>
<td>Jumbled lists/sets of instructions/texts/news reports</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Sample tasks** | • Put the days of the week into the correct order.  
• Order the instructions for making an international phone call/the steps for doing a magic trick.  
• Rewrite this news report putting the events into chronological order. |
| **Follow-up tasks** | • 'Spot the missing item' – Students remove one item from a sequence, and read the list out for other pairs to spot it.  
• Groups present their rankings to the class to reach a consensus through discussion and debate.  
• Students justify their decisions to the class, or give an oral presentation of their completed table or a section of it.  
• 'Odd one out' – Students make up sets of four or five similar items and add one that doesn't match. They exchange sets and see if other pairs can spot it. |
| **Ranking** | Personal experience of methods/things/features that can be sorted according to specific criteria/personal values |
| **Categorising** | Headings/half-completed tables/charts followed by sets of statements, data from various sources |
| **Classifying** | Everyday things or events, lists of items, words |

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3 Comparing

Outcomes

Vary according to the individual task goals, but could be the items appropriately matched or assembled, or the identification of similarities and/or differences.

Processes

Matching

Information from two different types of source (e.g., visuals and text) that can be matched in order to identify someone or something.

Starting points

Sample tasks

- Descriptions
  - Listen to/read these descriptions of different people/places and identify which person/place is which.
- Narrative accounts
  - Read/listen to these accounts, e.g., of a car accident, and say which of the four diagrams most accurately portrays what happened.
- Following instructions
  - Match this text to the map or diagrams, e.g., to trace a route on a map, to complete a floor plan of a house, to assemble a model.

Finding similarities

Two or more sets of information on a common theme (from personal experience/visuals/texts) that can be compared to find similarities.

- Compare, e.g., two characters in a TV series, reports of the same event from different newspapers.
- Compare your own version with the official or original version, e.g., compare your story ending with the original story, your solution with the one in the text.
- Compare ways of doing things in different towns or countries, e.g., funding the arts, making coffee, cooking rice.

Finding differences

Two or more sets of information on a common theme (from personal experience/visuals/texts) that can be contrasted to find differences.

- 'Spot the differences,' e.g., between two pictures, two story endings, two accounts of the same incident.
- Jigsaw viewing, e.g., contrast a film/video sequence with a written account containing factual errors. Half the class see the video, half read the text, then they come together to identify the factual errors.
- Contrast systems, e.g., of education in different countries, of lending libraries.

Follow-up tasks

Students design parallel tasks based on their own data, or make their own changes to the original data.

- e.g., after matching text to diagrams, students make floor plans of their own homes and describe these for their partner to draw.
- e.g., after finding similarities in news reports, students bring in other current newspapers with parallel news items.
- e.g., after finding differences between pictures, students change three things in their picture, rewrite the text including different factual errors or three additions and play "Spot the differences."
4 Problem solving

Outcome
Solution(s) to the problem, which can then be evaluated

Processes
Analysing real or hypothetical situations, reasoning and decision making

Starting points
Sample tasks
- Short puzzles, logic problems
- Real-life problems, personal experience, hypothetical issues
- Incomplete stories/poems/reports, visuals/snippets of audio or video recordings; concealed pictures, clue words for prediction and guessing games
- Case studies with full background data, business and computer simulations

Sample tasks
- Cutting the cake
  What is the minimum number of straight cuts you must make to divide a round cake into eight equal pieces?
- Crossing the river
  An old lady wants to cross the river with a wolf, a goat, and a cabbage. She only has a small boat and can only take two things at a time with her. How does she do it?
- What advice would you give in response to this letter from an advice column?
- Decide on the best two places - cheap but safe - for a young person travelling alone to stay in your capital city.
- Plan a dinner menu for overseas guests within a given fixed budget. (Other constraints, such as diet, can be added later to increase the challenge.)
- Make up your own version of the missing section/ending of the story/report.
- Work out a possible storyline from these clue words/phrases/pictures/audio/video snippets.
- Fill the gaps in this text with appropriate phrases.
- Guess what’s in this (covered up) picture/(closed) bag.
- Social study of young offenders
  Decide on the best action to take to stop them reoffending. Previous solutions and statistics for reoffending are given.
  (Offenders' family backgrounds to be initially withheld.)
- Aid for development
  Decide on three appropriate ways for your company/country to give aid to this developing country.
- Product testing
  Play and report back on computer simulation games.

Follow-up tasks
Students do a comparing task, presenting, justifying and discussing their solutions for the class to vote on the best one(s).
5 Sharing personal experiences

Outcome
Largely social and far less tangible than with other tasks. Sharing personal experiences is something we do very often in daily life: we may simply be passing the time of day, being sociable or entertaining or hoping to get to know others better. This kind of casual social talk can happen naturally during other task types and, because it is so common outside the classroom, should be encouraged.

Processes
Narrating, describing, exploring and explaining attitudes, opinions, reactions

Starting points

- Anecdotes:
  - on given themes, e.g. terrible journeys, silly accidents.
  - about people, e.g. eccentric friends or relations, funny things done by children you know.
  - about things you own(ed), e.g. a favourite toy, old shoes, memorable presents.

- Attitudes, opinions, preferences:
  - Find out what others think about films or TV programmes, personalities, current concerns and/or professional issues.
  - Talk about your preferences and find people with similar ones, e.g. in leisure activities, places to shop, clothes.

- Personal reminiscences:
  - about past routines and experiences, e.g. early school days, traditional festivals and celebrations, friends you used to spend time with.
  - about single events you remember most clearly, e.g. moving house, visiting elderly relations, times of political/financial crisis.
  - about past regrets, e.g. three things you most regret doing/not doing.

- Personal reactions:
  - to situations, e.g. heights, frightening things, extremes of climate.
  - What generally makes you, e.g. most annoyed, very happy, highly stressed, most relaxed.
  - Quizzes, e.g. personality ones from quiz books.

Follow-up tasks
- Students select the funniest/most vivid/most memorable experience they have heard, tell the class and give reasons for their choice.
- Students tell another anecdote or personal story but it need not be true. Can the class guess whether it is true?
- Learners identify and summarise the reminiscences/opinions/reactions they found they shared with others.
6 Creative tasks

Outcome
End product which can be appreciated by a wider audience. Creative tasks tend to have more stages than the usual classroom tasks. They can involve out-of-class research and are often referred to as 'projects'.

Processes
Brainstorming, fact-finding, ordering and sorting, comparing, problem solving and many others

Starting points
Children's activities: done in small groups who then describe the process, e.g.

Sample tasks
- make a model, paint a picture, prepare snacks.
- do a science experiment, test and report on makes of colouring pens.
- take part in a dressing-up competition, put on a show for other groups.
- Write a poem, short story, song or play, based on a literary text students have read or arising out of a programme they have seen.
- Write diaries, e.g. for personal use, and/or to be read by the teacher but not by other students.
- Plan visits to local places, e.g. airport to interview passengers, company premises to report on products/processes, tourist office to investigate local tourism opportunities.
- Talk/write to older inhabitants about changes to their lives, e.g. past customs, games they used to play, changes in eating/leisure habits over three generations.
- Internet and email links, e.g. with twin towns overseas, overseas schools, research areas of interest on World Wide Web.
- Produce a class magazine or newspaper (one-off or regular issue).
- Set up a display, e.g. on a local or topical issue or exhibition, e.g. of students' photographs.
- Design and write a leaflet, e.g. for visitors to the school or town, or an advert, e.g. for a local product/entertainment.
- Design, produce and record a short programme on audio or video, e.g. a local news documentary or a short drama.

Follow-up tasks
- Other groups write a review of the end product.
- Learners keep a diary describing their progress on the project, and use this to write a report of how they achieved their product and what they learned, with an evaluation of their work.
- Groups make a poster advertising their end product.

NB: Many other types of task can be adapted for young learners.

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APPENDIX R

SAMPLE TASK-BASED LESSON OUTLINE
Appendix R: Sample task-based lesson outline

A FRAMEWORK FOR TASK-BASED LEARNING

Appendix C: Five sample task-based lesson outlines

The aim of these sample lesson outlines is to exemplify the flexibility of the TBL framework in practice. They cover a variety of task and text types, and are suitable for learners at different levels and stages in a course.

The first two outlines focus predominantly on the use of spoken language, the next two predominantly on written. The last one offers a balance of both. Other lesson outlines showing the adaptability of the TBL framework are to be found in Chapters 5 and 6.

Although the language analysis activities focus on English, teachers of other foreign languages have found it possible to use the same outlines, with parallel texts/recorderings, and to adapt the analysis activities to suit the features of other target languages.

The timings given are, of course, approximate. The outlines can obviously be adapted in various ways to suit learners in different circumstances.

The aim of this lesson outline is to illustrate a typical revision lesson covering familiar topics. The pre-task phase is, therefore, shorter than usual. This lesson also shows how a recording can be used at the end of the task cycle (see Chapters 2 and 3).

Class and course background
Elementary, Spanish-speaking learners of mixed ability. Used to rule-based teaching but would like to learn to speak. They have completed the first four units of a topic-based coursebook (addresses etc, family, homes, uses of numbers) and have done simple tasks and puzzles. Lessons are 50 minutes long.

Starting lesson
Explain this lesson is mainly revision, and aims to revise words and phrases from Units 1–4, give ss different kinds of speaking practice and finally focus on question forms.

Pre-task (3–4 min)

1 Get ss to stand up, find a different partner from usual and sit down in their new pairs. Check they have at least one book between two. Keep them closed for now. They also need one sheet of paper between two, a pen or pencil and their language notebooks.

2 Introduce task - 'Find the differences' puzzle, like one they have done before (remind them) only with different pictures (see page 29). Each student will see both pictures. Together they have to find seven differences and write them down in note form. (Put an example (cat on right/on left of sign) on the board.) They will only have one minute. They should talk in English, but quietly.
A FRAMEWORK FOR TASK-BASED LEARNING

Task cycle

Task (1 min)
Get them ready to start: Find the pictures on page... and you have one minute from... NOW.
Stop the task as soon as a few pairs have noted down seven differences (or when one minute is up). Ask how many differences others have found already.

Planning (8–10 min)
Tell all pairs to choose four differences they think the others may not have seen. They write them down in detail, and practise explaining them, so they can tell the whole class. Show them by expanding cat example on board.
Go round and help, noting useful phrases and writing some on left of board, e.g. In picture A... the sign says... N nominate the shy ones as reporters, and give them another two minutes to practise. Draw attention to phrases on board.

Report and listening (15 min)
Explain that they must listen carefully to other pairs. If they have the same difference, they tick it off. Once they have heard a difference, they must not report it themselves.
Each pair gives one difference (write these on board as they tell the class) till there are seven. Some pairs may still have more. Stop them from shouting them out (so they still have some to listen for later).
Announce recording of David and Bridget doing the same task.
Play recording. Ss tick off the differences they hear. (May need to pause after each one, and play it again.)

David: Okay? Another difference is the number of the house.
Bridget: Yes.
David: In Picture A it's thirty; in Picture B it's thirteen...
Bridget: -- is thirty. Oh!
David: Oh, okay.
Bridget: Oh. Do you think?--
David: Doesn't matter. Thirty in Picture A and thirteen...
Bridget: Thirteen in picture B. And this number's different.
David: What number?
Bridget: The phone number of Paul Smith and Sons.
David: Oh yeah. So, the phone number of Paul Smith and Sons is what? – in Picture A – is six three one nine oh.
Bridget: Mmm.
David: And six three three nine oh in Picture B.
Bridget: Okay.
David: Okay. How many have we got? That's three.
Bridget: Three. How many do we have to have? Seven. Mm.
David: How about the television is that on? Yes. Oh no, the television is on, isn't it? – in the first picture--
Bridget: Yes, it is!
David: ... and it's not on in the – in Picture B... that's – what have we got?
Bridget: The television is on in Picture A but off in Picture B.
David: Okay. Right. Anything else? Oh yes, the man's carrying an umbrella.
Bridget: Okay.
David: So what shall we put? The man...

Now ask class if any pairs have more differences? Ask them to give one each. Tell them the record total so far is 13 – can they beat it?

**Analysis and practice**

From board:
1. Ss choose a useful phrase from each sentence and practise saying it. Delete the phrase immediately it is said. Delete other words gradually. This is called ‘progressive deletion’ (see page 111) and should be fun!
2. Ss read out all sentences in full, including the missing parts. Clean board.

From transcript:
3. Ss hear recording again and follow it in the transcript. Pause tape sometimes to let them predict how next phrase will be said (intonation with stress on key words).
4. Ss read whole transcript and find twelve questions to classify in whatever ways they like (e.g. questions with *shall* or *get*; short questions/long questions; questions with/without verb, etc.).
5. Ss find two examples of the word *so*. Where does it come in the conversation?
6. If time, ss write down any new phrases they noticed.

Bring class together and review analysis of questions. Practise short questions (point out many are without verbs) and then list questions with *shall*, *get*, *have* and practise them.

Discuss use of *so*, and ask what word(s) are used in Spanish for this.
Ss read out their phrases.

NB: 4 - 6 can be done for homework and reviewed in class.
Outline 2
A sea journey

The aim of this lesson outline is to illustrate the first lesson in a series based on a new topic. The pre-task phase will therefore be longer than usual, introducing topic lexis by various means including teacher anecdote and the use of a recording (see Chapters 2 and 3).

Class and course background
Intermediate/upper intermediate multi-lingual learners, mixed level, mixed ability, ages from 16 upwards. Part-time class, two two-hour lessons a week. They are beginning a textbook unit on sea journeys, which contains around five tasks, leading into a short story.

Starting lesson
Announce new topic. Relate this to textbook unit.
Give overview of work for next two weeks, e.g. By the end of this you’ll have talked and written about different aspects of journeys by boat, and read a short story about a sea journey. Ask them to bring to class anything they like that is linked to the theme. Remind them main language features will be summarised at the end of each week.

This lesson they’ll be hearing a recording about a sea journey, then doing a similar task – sharing their experiences of sea travel or boats. Language focus: studying useful phrases and features of spontaneous English and comparing these with planned English.

Pre-task
(15–20 min)

Aim: To introduce topic of sea journeys, and give class exposure to topic-related talk, to activate and highlight useful words and phrases.

Starting points: three pictures of ships – big and small on rough and calm seas; teacher’s personal experience.

1 Talk about pictures one by one while putting them up on wall. Ask questions to assess class experience of topic, e.g. Have any of you travelled by boat/seen any TV programmes, films about sea travel? Let class indicate their experience very briefly. (I’d tell them about my first experience in a small boat when the sea got really rough.)

2 Brainstorm with class on words and phrases. Organise on board as a mind map words about sea, boats, people, feelings, attitudes to sea journeys/being in boats.

Bring theme round to Are you a good traveller? (and what this means, i.e. Do you get travel-sick on buses, in cars? or sea-sick?). Add other vital topic words that will come in the recording (see transcript below).

3 Announce recording of Rachel telling Chris about a sea journey. (Sir know her already from earlier recordings.) Write up alternatives to help them listen: alone or with family? big or small boat? calm or rough sea? pleasant or unpleasant experience?

Play recording two or three times – 1) for gist (select words from board), 2) for words and phrases they notice (add to board if useful), 3) if they want to hear it again.

Chris: Are you a good sailor? Have you ever been seasick?

Rachel: Yeah I have been seasick, once. But I haven’t sailed very much. Except in a-
A FRAMEWORK FOR TASK-BASED LEARNING

Task cycle

Language focus

15-20 min

1. 

2. 

3. 

4. 

NB: 2 and 3 can be done for homework.
Spiders: a success story

Outline 3

Class and course background

Intermediate learners, monolingual, mixed-level class. They have already talked about phobias, and done a listing task on all the things they have heard people can be frightened of. They have also completed a more open task, where they told each other about what they had been frightened of as children. A few people have mentioned insects and spiders briefly, and students have found out who in the class is afraid of spiders. So there is no need for a lengthy pre-task phase.

Starting lesson

Explain there will be two task cycles in this lesson. These will lead into reading a newspaper report about a woman with a serious phobia about spiders. She lived with her husband near a large town, but could never be left alone in case she saw a spider (possibly write main topic words on board: woman—phobia about spiders, etc.).

Pre-task (2–3 min)

Explain the first task: in pairs ss to brainstorm and list three consecutive steps they might take to help cure this woman of her phobia about spiders.

Task cycle 1

(Speaking)

Task 1 (2–3 min)
Pairs list possible ways to help her get over her phobia.

Planning 1 (2–3 min)
Pairs rehearse how to explain the steps they recommend, and justify the order they are in.

Report and reading 1 (10 min)
Pairs tell the class their proposals and justify them. The class listen and count how many different ideas they come up with.

Let the class discuss and vote on which four steps might be similar to those in the newspaper report. Write these on the board.

Give out the texts with the missing line in Focus 5. Ask students to read to see whether their four steps were in the report. Finally ask which pair had the most steps that were similar.

Task 2 (4-5 min)

Ss read the text again and discuss in twos where the 'lost line' must have come from.

Planning and report 2 (2–3 min)

They tell each other where they think the line fits and why. Do not tell them if they are right or wrong. (If they all agree, no need to prolong the report!) Give out the text with the line in place, so they can see if they were right. (They will need the complete text for the next phase.)
A FRAMEWORK FOR TASK-BASED LEARNING

Language focus
(20–35 min)

Analysis and practice

Each of the activities below can be followed by a review, hearing what ss thought, and bringing out some of the ideas in the notes below. In some cases, ss may benefit from a brief practice activity. (I would aim to do activities 1, 2 and two others in class and set 4.3 (on to) for homework.)

1 Main theme: Spiders

Circle all the phrases which refer to spiders, including those with pronouns, e.g., saw one, removed it. Join up the circles with straight lines, to get a lexical chain (see example below). Ss can then compare chains to see if they have found the same set of references.

NB: In order to do this, learners will have to focus on aspects of textual cohesion. They may notice the use of plural forms (and the word one) to express spiders in general. They can distinguish phrases that contrast with the idea of a real spider, e.g., doodles resembling spiders. These points can be highlighted at the review stage.

ONE woman was so afraid of spiders she could not be left in a house alone.

If she saw one, she would climb on the table and not be able to get down until somebody came into the room and removed it.

During her first TOP meeting, she noticed doodles on a page which resembled spiders and she suddenly recoiled in horror.

She was eventually persuaded to look at photographs of spiders in books, then leave the pages open in a room so she saw them each time she walked in.

Her husband began to move the position of the book and change the page so she saw a different one each time.

After three weeks, she was given a plastic spider at a TOP meeting and took it home. One of the group took a real spider in a jar to the next meeting, where it gradually moved nearer to the sufferer. She later agreed to take the real spider home and gave it the name Bernard.

Two and a half months after first going to the group her phobia had gone.

The Daily Telegraph 24 January 1994

2 Time and sequence

Ask ss to find between eight and eleven phrases or single words that express the notion of time. Which ones denote the passing of time and thus help to signal the stages in the cure of the phobia? (There are seven or eight of these.)

NB: This highlights a very common function of time phrases – signalling the structure of a sequential narrative. It also shows that not all stages are explicitly signalled, and learners may need to look for less obvious linguistic clues, as in began to ... above.

A further focus on adverbs of time could be achieved by asking where the words suddenly, eventually, gradually, later, and first occur in the time phrases. Ask
ss in pairs to read the phrases with these words out loud and notice where there might be similar stress patterns.

3 Place and position

Ask ss to look for around twelve phrases expressing the general notion of place and position. Subdivide these into three or four categories: those referring to
- her house, e.g. left in a house alone
- the spiders themselves, e.g. in a jar
- position or movement, e.g. moved nearer to the sufferer
- the meeting, e.g. to the next meeting, going to the group.

4 Common words highlighting grammar points: the passive voice and uses of to.

4.1 Ask ss to find four phrases with the word was. Which three have a similar structure? (She was eventually persuaded to look at photographs/she was given a plastic spider/it was gradually moved nearer.)

Ask ss if they know exactly who persuaded her to look at the pictures, who gave her a plastic spider, and who moved the spider nearer to her? Does it matter that they don’t know?

Ask where else in those sentences they could put the words gradually and eventually.

Either

4.2 Ask ss to find six phrases with the word to and notice which verbs it goes with. Ask them if they can divide these phrases into two categories. There is one phrase where you can omit the to and still have a grammatical sentence. Ask them to find it.

or

4.3 Tell ss these common uses of the word to:
   a) as a preposition indicating movement towards something or someone, e.g. They have just moved to Kendal.
   b) before an indirect object e.g. I wrote three letters to the headmaster.
   c) following a verb like want before an infinitive, e.g. I tried to kick the door open.
   d) denoting purpose or intention in order to ..., e.g. I came in today just to see you.

Now they try to decide which category each example below belongs to.

   table and not be able to get down until somebody came
   Her husband began to move the position of the book
   took a real spider in a jar to the next meeting, where it was
   gradually move nearer to the sufferer. She later agreed
   She later agreed to take the real spider home and gave
   months after first going to the group her phobia had gone.
   ran on the spot for ten hours to stay alive. Peter Emerson, aged
   reported him missing to the police. Peter, who lives in
   I tried to kick the door open and to pick the lock but
   We've each got to say a little bit about our favourite

4.4 Underline the other verb phrases in the examples below which have the same patterns as this example: She was eventually persuaded to look at photographs. (These can include any part of the verb be, i.e. was, will be/is, etc.)
I was asked to help out at the butcher's shop.
You will normally be required to work one weekend day.
He was just told to go home and fetch it.
She is being encouraged to rest more.
You are advised to travel light, carrying no more than one...
They were more or less forced to accept an alternative.
You are constantly being reminded not to leave your luggage unattended.

NB: Some of these sentences may be unfamiliar to learners. Ask them to think of contexts in which they might hear or see them used.

Review analysis and get ss to write useful language in their books. If time, ask them to do a 'gapped example' quiz round the class, using examples from their notebooks.
Outline 4
Romania: an economic report

The aim of this outline is to illustrate a range of language-focused activities suitable for ESP texts in general (see Chapter 7). This lesson is based on the start of a text brought by one of a group of ESP (Business English) students.

Class and course background
Small group of business people with interests in Eastern Europe. They have rusty lower-intermediate level English and wish to broaden their business vocabulary and improve their reading of economic texts. They bring with them magazines like Time and Newsweek which can be exploited for more examples.

Pre-task (5–10 min)
1 I would ask the class to tell me (as non-expert teacher) what they already know about the current economic scene in Romania. I'd ask about the chief economic adviser and whether they think Romania is meeting IMF (International Monetary Fund) and World Bank requirements. Their main points can be written briefly on one side of the board.
2 Explain they will be reading the text of part of an interview held in 1994 with the chief economic adviser. It has lots of useful vocabulary and specialist phrases.
3 Ask which five of these six phrases are likely to appear in the text of the interview. Can they explain to me what they mean (after discussing this in pairs first)?

transition to a market economy
general surge in profits
balance of trade
money supply

Task cycle (10 min)
Task
Ss read both columns in order to:
* find out who is being interviewed and what his overall purpose seems to be;
* discuss how far the speaker answered the interviewer's question.

Romania: Adviser outlines economic scene

Misu Negritoiu has played a prominent part in Romania's transition to a market economy... At present he is chief economic adviser to the president, one of the key figures in Romania's process of economic development. In an interview he discussed aspects of Romania's economy.

Q. Is Romania currently meeting IMF and World Bank requirements?
A. We are doing better than expected. The balance of trade was excellent in the first months of the year and up 40 per cent on the same period of 1993. The trade deficit now stands at about $200 million. The money supply is high. Industrial production has increased 20 per cent in the first half.

Planning and report
Each pair plans their responses then gives them to the class. The purpose of the report stage is to see if ss all agree, and if they don't, to discuss further.
Language focus (15–20 min)

Analysis

Focus on useful forms by asking ss in pairs to do the following:

1. Phrases implying importance and authority
   Find three phrases in the left-hand column which emphasise that Misu Negritoiu is an authority on the subject. Which words express the notion of importance?

2. Phrases implying success and increase
   Find five or six phrases in Misu Negritoiu’s answer (right-hand column) which express the notions of success and increase.

   Ask students whether the trade deficit of $200 million is actually good or bad news, and why. (It’s not clear to me as a non-expert.)

NB: The lexical phrases identified through both the above analytical activities illustrate various types of common collocations (see 2.3.1). Better than expected is a fixed phrase; played a part in and up 40 per cent on the same period are semi-fixed phrases; key figure is a very common collocation.

The balance of trade was excellent and the money supply is high illustrate two very typical types of noun phrase: one with of, and one with noun plus noun, and the lexical items themselves (e.g. balance of trade) are typical of economic text. Trade would be a useful word for ss to do a dictionary exercise on.

3. Specialist/topic lexis: structure of noun phrases

3.1 Find five noun phrases with the word economy or economic. What other phrases with these words do learners know? Get them to experiment with creating phrases by putting economy/economic together with words like crisis and system.

3.2 Find two phrases with the word trade. What other kinds of words are often found with the word trade? Can they find some more examples in a newspaper, journal or dictionary? Are they all the same grammatically?

3.3 Say what all these phrases have in common structurally: market economy, key figure, World Bank requirements, trade deficit, money supply. (They are all made up of two or more nouns together.)

3.4 Say which phrase is the odd one out structurally and why: market economy, key figure, trade deficit, money supply, industrial production.

Practice

Expressions with numbers: Memory challenge game

Tell ss to turn the text over. Write these numbers on the board: 1 20 40 200 1993. Can they remember the whole phrases they were in? Give them one minute to read the text again, without writing.

Then, again without looking back at the text, they write the phrases down from memory. They check to see if their partner has the same as them. Then read them out to the class to discuss before reading for a final check.

For homework, ss can either prepare a first draft of a two-minute presentation in answer to the same interview question on a different East European country or prepare a list of questions they would like to ask the economic adviser. (They will ask each other these in the next lesson.)
Outline 5
Survey on favourite school subjects

Like Lesson Outline 2 this outline gives an example of a TBL lesson on a new topic. Thus it has a long pre-task phase, with a task recording to help students understand what to do. It also exemplifies a range of language-focused activities highlighting phrases which express specific notions and functions (see Chapter 7).

Class and course background
Large monolingual class of mainly young adults from a range of backgrounds. Late elementary level, but very mixed. This is my second lesson with them. As back-up, I have copies of the six best pieces of last year's ss' written work on the same topic, to be used either this or next lesson.

Pre-task
(10–15 min)
1 Introduce topic and purpose of survey by asking ss what subjects they studied at school (see Focus 2, Task 7). Don't ask if they liked them or not.
2 Make a list on the board. Ask them to classify subjects - writing them in groups (e.g. languages, sciences, etc.) for later use.
3 I would tell class about subjects I liked and hated and, briefly, why (two or three minutes). Class then read task instructions: Tell your group what were the school subjects you liked best and least. Explain your reasons.
4 Organise groups of four with a chairperson. Give ss three minutes' individual thinking time to plan what subjects they will talk about, and what they will say.

Listening
(8–10 min)
Play recording to give groups some idea of how to do task. This is just the first few minutes of the task and they will hear about two out of four people's preferences (Caroline's and Stephen's). Play it a second time. Put a tick or a cross with an initial C or S by the relevant subjects on the board. Let ss ask about and write up a few useful phrases. (Remind them they will be able to study the transcript later, so no need to go into great detail now – approximate comprehension is sufficient.)

Catherine: We've each got to say a little bit about our favourite subject at school, and which were the ones, erm, that we liked the least and for what reasons. Why don't you start?

Caroline: Right, well. My favourite subject was always English, I think because I liked writing stories. The least favourite was always Maths. I was awful at it. I think, erm, didn't concentrate on some vital bits and missed out and then it just got worse and worse. I used to sit at the back and giggle quite a lot. And, er, so it was pretty disastrous, really.

Stephen: I liked science subjects, but I think that was because the teachers were very much better in that than in subjects like French which I really didn't like at all. I didn't mind things like Maths and English, because I could do them, but it - the languages, French, Latin, Greek, got a bit, you know - I got a bit behind, and the teachers weren't that helpful, so I didn't like those as much...

John: What did you dislike?

Stephen: Well, French...
A FRAMEWORK FOR TASK-BASED LEARNING

Task cycle 1
(Speaking)

Task (4 min)
Chairperson should allow each student to speak for not more than one minute. The group can take notes if they wish. Chairperson should speak last.

Planning (5–8 min)
Each student should report about someone else. (This increases their motivation to interact further, check facts, etc.)
Chairperson hears them rehearse. Students should aim for about half a minute’s talk.
Group can ask for help if unsure of any points. Write any useful words/phrases they ask for on board (for later practice).

Report (5 min)
Purposes: to find out which subjects were the most and least popular, and the most common reasons why. Also to discover if men/women like/dislike the same subjects.
Students listen and take notes. Explain they will need these in order to write the conclusion to their survey next lesson.

Language focus
(15–20 min)

Analysis and practice
Play the tape while students read the transcript to find the following:
1. Phrases expressing likes and dislikes of school subjects. Each student writes speakers’ positive and negative reactions in two lists.
   Review these and then ask if there are any school subjects ss felt the same about. Ask which expressions might be useful to them.
2. Phrases denoting or implying levels of achievement in these subjects. Ss decide whether the speakers were good or bad at them, then discuss in what ways these phrases could be classified.
3. Phrases giving reasons for speakers’ attitudes to these subjects.
   NB: In identifying these, learners will need to make Inferences and read between the lines; not all reasons are preceded by explicit verbal signals such as because. Some reasons have no signals, others are signalled afterwards by a word like so.
4. Three examples of the word that. Each use of that has a different meaning.
   Ask which one could mean which and which one means something like very. (This use of not that + adjective is quite common in spoken English.) What does the other one refer to?
5. Features that are typical of spoken English. Ask if there are also some useful phrases students might need in a written survey.

Task cycle 2
(Reading)

If time (now or next lesson), ss can read what last year’s groups wrote about their teachers, and prepare a report in which they summarise the main points and compare their findings with their own results.

For homework, ss write a first draft of what their group found out. This will be worked on in class next lesson, and then a final version of the small-group report will be read by other groups. This can lead to writing a whole-class survey report.
APPENDIX S

SAMPLE OF COMMUNICATIVE GAMES
Appendix S: Sample of communicative games

Looking for Mr X

Type of activity
whole class
information search

Function practised
asking for and giving personal information

Exponent
What is his name/address/telephone number?
What does he do?
Is he married?
What nationality is he? Where does he come from?

Lexical areas
occupations, nationalities, numbers

Essential vocabulary
name, address, nationality, telephone number, occupation, marital status, bus driver, married, Australian, park, road
numbers up to 20

How to use the game
Photocopy the forms so that there is one for each student.
Give out one form to each student.
The object of the game is to complete the form. To do this, students must move around the class asking questions about Mr X until they have obtained enough information to complete the form.
Students may only ask each other one question at a time before moving on. They may pass on information that they have obtained from other students, as well as the information that was originally on their form.
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Chit-chat

Type of activity
whole class
information search

Function practised
asking for and giving personal information

Exponent
What's your name?
Where do you live?
How old are you?
Are you married?
How many children have you got?
What do you do?
What are your hobbies?
Do you like ...-ing?

Lexical areas
occupations, hobbies

Essential vocabulary
age, married, single, divorced, child/children, job,
technician, retired, electrician, nurse, policewoman, student,
housewife, accountant, teacher, librarian, secretary, bank
manager, actress, doctor, tennis, football, gardening,
swimming, sailing, guitar, knitting, cooking, drinking,
talking, judo, woodwork, painting, crosswords, piano,
reading, art, pottery.

numbers 1 to 100

How to use the game
The game may be played with any number (with a suggested minimum of seven or eight). If there are more than 16 students in the class, the game may be played in two groups. If there are fewer than 16 students in a group, questions should be deleted from the questionnaire and the corresponding role-cards removed.

Copy one role-card and one questionnaire for each student in the class. Distribute one role-card to each student and allow a little time for them to become familiar with the information.

Then give each student a questionnaire.

The object of the game is to find all the people described on the questionnaire. To do this, students must move around the room, asking each other questions until they have found all the people described on the questionnaire.

A similar game could be constructed by the teacher based on the students' own characters, provided that you know a little about their lives, occupations, interests and so on.
Find:
a technician with two children
a grandmother who lives in Hull
a 24-year-old nurse
an electrician who plays the guitar
a policewoman who lives in Oxford
a lazy student
a 54-year-old housewife
an accountant who likes fishing
a fireman who likes judo
a married teacher
a teacher who lives in Liverpool
a librarian who likes crosswords
a secretary who is also a pianist
a hard-working bank manager
an actress who lives in Plymouth
a 37-year-old doctor with two children
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<td>Robert,</td>
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<td>guitar</td>
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<td>Josephine, Rebecca, Edv</td>
<td>bank manager</td>
<td>work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Celia Parsons</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>London</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Patricia, Caroline</td>
<td>doctor</td>
<td>pottery</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## How many?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of activity</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pair work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>information gap</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function practised</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>counting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exponent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>How many ... are there?</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>There are ... (+ numbers up to 20)</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Lexical areas**
- numbers up to 20, kitchen objects

**Essential vocabulary**
- teapot, pan, fork, knife, spoon, cup, saucer, glass, plate,
  - bowl, spider
- numbers 1 to 20

### How to use the game

Divide the class into pairs and copy enough pictures for each pair.

Give out the pictures so that one student in each pair has picture A and the other has picture B.

**The object of the game is to find out who has the most things in the kitchen.** To do this, A and B will have to ask each other how many teapots, pans, forks, knives, spoons, cups, saucers, glasses, bowls and plates there are in their kitchens and add up the total.

When they have done this, they can find out who has the most spiders!
Where are my glasses?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of activity</th>
<th>small groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Function practised</td>
<td>asking and replying where things are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exponent</td>
<td>Where's/Where are my...?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It's/They're in/on/under/on top of/near/next to/in front of/behind the...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical areas</td>
<td>furniture, common household objects and personal possessions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essential vocabulary</td>
<td>radio, pipe, glasses, cushion, paper, umbrella, record, book, glass, socks, football, comb, handbag, pen, cigarettes, gloves, hairbrush, hat, teapot, knitting, cup, shopping basket, slippers, purse; TV, carpet, fireplace, mantelpiece, sofa, armchair, table, chair, waste-paper basket, wall, bookcase, lamp; in, on, under, on top of, near, next to, in front of, behind, to the right/left of</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

How to use the game

This game can be played in groups of three or four. For groups of three, leave out Jenny.
Copy one set of cards for each group.
Divide the students into groups of three or four and give out the cards.
Tell the students that they belong to a very untidy
Mum
You live in a very untidy house. This is your living room.

You have lost these things:

Ask the others where they are!

Tom
You live in a very untidy house. This is your living room.

You have lost these things:

Ask the others where they are!