



UNIVERSIDAD DE JAÉN



UNIVERSIDAD DE CÓRDOBA

MASTER'S DISSERTATION / TRABAJO FIN DE MÁSTER

**REVISITING ENGLISH-MEDIUM INSTRUCTION AND BILINGUAL
EDUCATION IN PAKISTAN: POLICY OPTIONS FROM CLIL
RESEARCH IN EUROPE**

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November, 2020

Abstract

Pakistan is a linguistically diverse country with a long-standing history of English-medium instruction and bilingual education. However, there is a worrying paucity of research that has been conducted to investigate and gauge the national performance in language education. Through a comprehensive literature review and a questionnaire, this dissertation collects and presents key findings on the issues and challenges that exist in the bilingual education space in Pakistan, and explores policy options from nearly two-decade-long research on “the increasingly acknowledged European approach to bilingual education: content and language integrated learning (CLIL)” (Pérez-Cañado, 2012, p. 315). It also captures the attitudes and perceptions of bilingual school staff, including content and language teachers, to help identify the missing link between the official policy and its micro-level implementation. Finally, based on the issues identified and emergent findings, it suggests recommendations and guidelines for a more holistic, efficacious and research-based approach to bilingual education.

Resumen

Pakistán es un país lingüísticamente diverso con una larga historia de *English-medium instruction* y educación bilingüe. Sin embargo, hay una preocupante escasez de investigaciones que analicen y midan el desempeño nacional en la educación de idiomas. A través de una revisión bibliográfica exhaustiva y un cuestionario, este trabajo recopila y presenta hallazgos clave sobre los problemas y desafíos que existen en el ámbito de la educación bilingüe en Pakistán. Además, explora las opciones y medidas políticas tomadas durante casi dos décadas de investigación sobre “el enfoque europeo hacia la educación bilingüe: aprendizaje integrado de contenidos y lenguas extranjeras (AICLE)” (Pérez-Cañado, 2012, p. 315). También mide las actitudes y percepciones de la comunidad educativa, incluyendo al profesorado de contenido y de idiomas, para ayudar a identificar el eslabón perdido entre la política oficial y su implementación a nivel micro. Finalmente, basándose en los problemas identificados y los hallazgos emergentes, sugiere recomendaciones y pautas para un enfoque más holístico, eficaz y basado en la investigación de la educación bilingüe.

Acknowledgements

While this dissertation bears my name, there are many people who have helped me accomplish this academic milestone. First and foremost, I would like to thank my supervisor and mentor, Dr. María Luisa Pérez Cañado, whose encouragement and support has guided my development as a learner and a scholar. Marisa, working with you on this dissertation was an immensely wonderful learning experience!

Next, I would like to acknowledge someone who has supported me through this journey in many ways, from sharing ideas to simply being there to listen. Bilal, thank you for believing in me! MIEB was a shared dream, and its completion is an achievement for both of us.

I would also like to thank all the faculty members of the MIEB, the experts who were involved in the validation of the research instrument, and Cristina - for her help in analysing the data. Last but not least, I would like to thank my parents for always being there for me, and my dog, Bruce, for all the love and cuddles as I worked on this dissertation.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Since its inception in 1947, Pakistan has adopted a three-language approach with regards to governance. Under this system, Urdu is recognized as the national language, English as the official state language, and Punjabi, Sindhi, Balochi and Pashto as the official language of each of the four provinces (Mahboob & Jain, 2017). The same approach is observed in educational institutions, where schools adopt English, Urdu, or the provincial language as the medium of instruction (Mahboob & Jain, 2017). To understand the current state of affairs, it is important to look at the historical context out of which the tripartite nature of languages in Pakistan emerged. Prior to 1947, India and Pakistan were governed as the Indian Subcontinent under British colonial rule, before which education in this region utilized the local language for primary and secondary stages, until those pursuing a higher level of scholarship graduated to studying a classical language such as Persian or Sanskrit (Mohanty, 2006). Under the British rule, however, this rich multilingual language system devolved to a two-language policy; with English being taught in elite schools, and Hindi or Urdu in most others (Coleman & Capstick, 2012).

While the three-language system exists on paper, prior research indicates that there is a gap between bilingual education policy formulation and implementation in the country, which causes the divide about the effective use of Urdu, English or the local regional language as medium of instruction (Shamim & Rashid, 2019). For instance, research shows that Pashto and Sindhi are used as medium of instruction along with Urdu or English in many schools of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and Sindh, respectively, whereas Punjabi and Balochi are not favored languages of instruction in schools in the provinces where they are commonly spoken (Mahboob & Jain, 2017; Rahman, 2001). This lack of clarity on medium of instruction hinders students' learning both in language and content subjects, and finding optimal combinations is thus essential to ensure that students acquire sufficient knowledge of content-subjects, as well as required language skills for higher education and job opportunities (Tollefson et al., 2003). Mahboob & Jain (2017) also note a distinct lack of classroom-based research and actual evidence on the issue of bilingual education (BE), and a dearth of descriptive studies that look at actual language use in classrooms.

A number of studies (see Channa, 2014; Mahboob, 2017; Raja, 2014), advocate for further research into development and implementation of a bilingual education system that allows students to learn in a more holistic and internationalized manner. An extensive report on the functioning on English medium schools in Sindh revealed that most teachers and students had positive attitudes towards bilingual education and the English language in general; however, the teachers were of the view that until an effective and consistent teacher training, monitoring, curriculum and student assessment program was launched, an English-medium policy would not be successful (Channa, 2014).

1.1 Scope

This study aims to critically examine the Language in Education Policy of Pakistan, with a particular focus on its micro-level implementation. More specifically, it seeks to understand the way the policy is envisioned, contested and implemented at the English-medium and bilingual schools across the country.

This has been accomplished by, first, carrying out a comprehensive analysis of the current landscape of bilingual education in Pakistan through literature review, and then comparing it with successful cases from Europe and beyond. Through a questionnaire, this study also aims to capture the attitudes and perceptions of the content and language teachers, as well as administrative staff in Pakistani bilingual schools over five key areas: coordination and organization; teacher training and support; pedagogy and classroom methodologies; curriculum, materials and resources; and assessment and evaluation.

Finally, the study proposes recommendations for bilingual education policy development based on research findings of the present study, and other empirical evidence gathered from research on CLIL conducted globally over the last two decades.

1.2 Significance and Rationale

It has been ascertained, through an in-depth literature review, that there is a dearth of research to investigate and gauge our performance in bilingual education, and that the current Pakistani approach to language education lacks a modern structure and empirical evidence. The lack of actionable research and a well-informed language in education policy has resulted in a seriously mismanaged and fragmented bilingual education system. Most of the schools adopt monolingual, bilingual or multilingual programs for instruction to fulfill their own institutional objectives where English, Urdu, or both languages combined with respective provincial languages are favored as the medium of instruction (Rahman, 2001, 2002).

An analysis of the National Education Policy of 2017 revealed a dire need of coherent language planning, and advocated for a simultaneous focus on both English and Urdu in terms of language in education, and the involvement of skilled linguists, psychologists, and education sociologists to further refine the policy (Shahzad et al., 2018).

Based on the above-mentioned challenges, primary research conducted on the perceptions held by teachers, and empirical evidence collected from prior research, this study aims to help identify the missing link between the official policy and micro-level implementation and contribute empirically sound data to determine good practices and guidelines for a more effective and research-based approach to bilingual education in Pakistan starting at the grassroots level.

1.3 Layout/Structure of the Dissertation

This dissertation consists of five chapters. Chapter 1, the Introduction, provides a basic overview and historical background of English-medium instruction and bilingual education in Pakistan. It discusses the scope, rationale and significance of the present study. Chapter 2 aims to canvass the current scenario of bilingual education in Pakistan. It does so by providing a comprehensive literature review of bilingual education and CLIL research in different regions around the world. It then presents a critical analysis of the language

education policies of Pakistan, in light of the research findings from other countries, especially Europe, where bilingual education programs like CLIL have witnessed a successful implementation. Chapter 3 provides understanding of the research framework, sample/participants of the study as well as the instruments, process and methodologies used for data collection. Chapter 4 explains the findings of the study and implications for the schools and policy-makers. The final chapter of the dissertation provides a summary of the research results and recommendations, limitations, and future research directions.

2. THEORY AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Content and Language Integrated Learning: Theoretical Backdrop

This section presents a brief overview of Content and Language Integrated Learning, categorized into three subsections: (i) History, Origins and Developmental Milestones, (ii) Definition and Characterization, and (iii) Critique (Advantages and Disadvantages) of CLIL in light of prior research. Understanding the philosophy and development of CLIL is key to understanding why it is considered valuable for effective bilingual education.

2.1.1 History and Origin of CLIL: Developmental Milestones

Until a few decades ago, the European education system relied on methods of bilingual teaching that it had borrowed from different countries around the world. An example of such a program is the Canadian language immersion program. However, researchers identified that there was a need for a “pragmatic European solution to a European need” (Marsh, 2002, p. 11); that is, plurilingualism for market, academic, and social mobility.

This led to the conceptualization and formal introduction of a novel approach to bilingual education by David Marsh, UNICOM - University of Jyväskylä (Finland) and the European Platform for Dutch education in 1996. They termed it Content and Language Integrated Learning, or CLIL for short. It was conceived as a means to not only increase the effectiveness of language teaching methods by integrating language and content, but also as a political tool with the aim of increasing professional competency and mobility in the European Union (EU) by enhancing language skills. Following the expansion of the

European Union, effective communication was seen as a key factor for socioeconomic development. The increased level of contact in terms of social, political, and economic aspects also meant that effective communication skills in multiple languages became highly valued (Hanesova, 2015). Following these factors, the European Commission envisioned a multilingual Europe where people could function in multiple languages and has since been working on developing bilingualism and language education.

Although the development of CLIL as a formal language teaching methodology came about only recently, according to some authors, the concept itself dates back to almost 5,000 years (Cenoz et al., 2014). History contains numerous examples of using foreign language as a method of instruction in order to gain contextual proficiency and integrating the language with the subject matter. According to (Hanesova, 2015), it can be traced back to the 16th and 17th centuries, to European pedagogues who not only studied effective language teaching, but also put forward the idea that language was just a means of gaining proficiency in the subject matter.

More recently, the concept of immersion for language learning was brought about in late 20th century Canada, before spreading across to the United States and to the rest of the world (Mehisto et al., 2008). Navés (2009) reports that the United States also has a history of using integrated learning programs, in the form of Content Based Instruction (CBI) and other bilingual education programs, to teach both subject matter and language. After 1978, immersion based on teaching content in a foreign language started becoming mainstream (Marsh, 2002). Following the continued development of various teaching methodologies, along with historical, sociological, and education considerations, integrated approaches such as CLIL became more common (Pokrivcakova, 2011). Recently, CLIL has also seen expansion into primary, secondary, and university education in the form of CBI, where foreign languages are integrated with teaching primary subjects from the curriculum (Zelenkova, 2014). Figure 1 below outlines the developmental milestones in the European history of CLIL between the time period 1990 and 2011:



Figure 1. Developmental milestones in European CLIL history

2.1.2 Definitions and characterization

Whether we call it CLIL in English (Content and Language Integrated Learning), AICLE in Spanish (el Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras), or EMILE in French (l'Enseignement de Matières par l'Intégration d'une Langue Étrangère), the overarching principle of CLIL remains the same: it is a learner-centric approach and it emphasizes contextual, integrated learning of content and language.

The very definition of CLIL focuses on its particular features by enlightening that it is a two-fold educational approach, in which a non-language subject is taught in a foreign language (Coyle et al., 2010), with a focus on learning content while developing skills and competence in the foreign language. According to Marsh (2002), attention to both content and language is necessary for teaching to fall under CLIL; however, it is important to note that while the bilingual element is at the heart of CLIL's unified approach towards content and language teaching, the balance is usually lopsided in favor of one of the two. In fact, it places the primary focus of learning on the meaning of the content being taught and sees language learning as a byproduct of such focus. As Darn (2006) and San Isidro-Smith (2018) explain, in CLIL, the knowledge of the language becomes a means of learning the content, and while language teaching is integrated into the broader curriculum, it is not an independent subject unto itself.

CLIL may be mistaken for bilingual education with a foreign language medium of instruction; however, that would be an erroneous conclusion. While CLIL is the delivery of education in a bilingual context for a bilingual audience, it entails additional elements. In the case of CLIL, language is not only used as a medium of instruction, but rather as a vehicle for content teaching through a triptych linguistic approach (graphically represented in Figure 2): language of learning, for learning, and through learning (Coyle & Baetens Beardsmore, 2007).

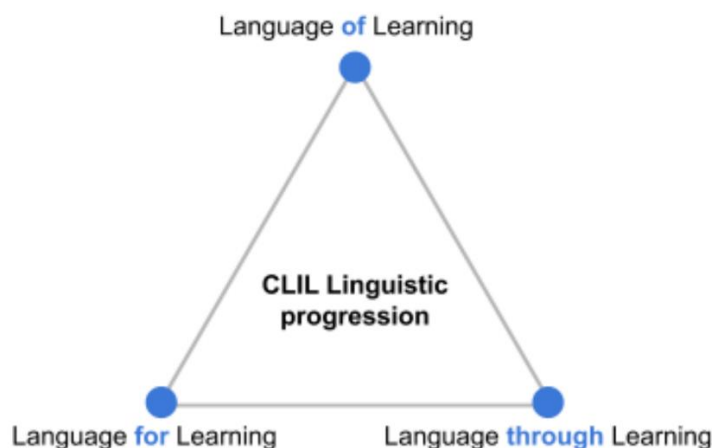


Figure 2. The triptych linguistic progression of CLIL (adapted from Coyle & Baetens Beardsmore, 2007)

Prominent scholars in the field of bilingual education indicate different points of views about the philosophy of CLIL. One view is that CLIL is strictly an educational method which concentrates on explicit classroom level pedagogical approaches (Cenoz et al., 2014; Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Nawrot-Lis, 2019). Another view highlights that CLIL originated from L2 acquisition theories and constructivism. However, academic scholars tend to agree on the fact that there is no single accepted theory and approach of CLIL (Cenoz et al., 2014; Coyle et al., 2010), and in fact, David Marsh in 2005 termed CLIL as an ‘umbrella’ concept under which diverse methodologies could be used to teach a subject whilst maintaining a dual focus on both the content as well as the language of instruction (Kovacs, 2014).

Coyle proposed the 4Cs framework of CLIL, which presents the four main elements of CLIL lessons that are significant for the integration of language and content (Brown & Bradford, 2017). These include content, communication, cognition and culture, as presented in Figure 3:

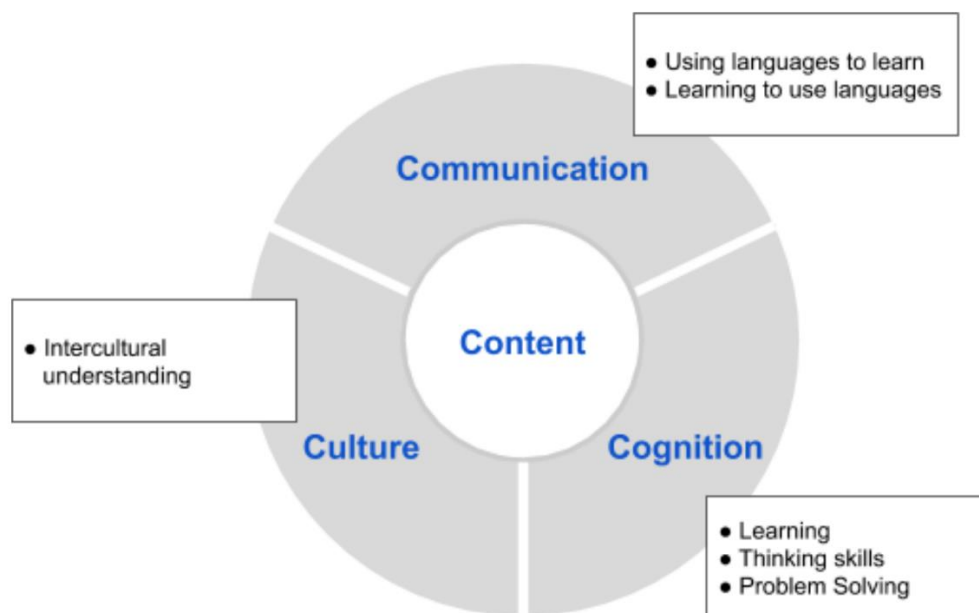


Figure 3. The 4C's of CLIL (adapted from Coyle, 2007)

2.1.3 Critique (Advantages / Opportunities and Disadvantages / Challenges)

Although CLIL is still thought to be in its development phase, it has the potential to offer an effective and sustainable method of bilingual education that can be applied globally. It is also widely reported to have benefits in terms of not only education and linguistics, but also social-behavioral assets.

In terms of the linguistic benefits, CLIL students have an opportunity to learn content through a variety of perspectives in a multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary manner. This increases the overall presence of the foreign language in the classroom, along with contextualized exposure to the FL that provides the learners with a chance to acquire subject-specific terminology in parallel to content learning. As an outcome of this, they are more prepared for cross-language and cross-disciplinary contexts. CLIL creates an environment for a more naturalistic and incidental learning, meaning that language learning in CLIL is not enforced, but is rather a byproduct of the content-focused instruction. Furthermore, the focus on fluency rather than accuracy promotes meaningful and authentic communication, and enhances functionality and interaction. In this sense, “it supersedes the

shortcomings of traditional language teaching without causing collateral damage to the L1, as awareness of both the mother tongue and the foreign language have been documented in CLIL classrooms” (Pérez Cañado, 2013, p. 16).

As regards the educational and pedagogical benefits, one of the major assets of CLIL is its flexibility in that it encompasses a variety of pedagogic methods and models that can be adapted to the age, educational level, language competence, needs and interests of the learners. This also means that CLIL is inclusive for all learners and can be developed for different levels of complexity for different contexts. Another advantage of CLIL is its learner-centricity. What that means is that it incorporates a wide variety of methodologies that place the focus on the learner, such as Cooperative and Collaborative Learning, Project Based Learning (PBL) and Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT). All of these methods have been shown to have a positive pedagogic impact in classrooms (see Crandall, 1994; Slavin, 1995; Troncale, 2002). Pérez-Cañado (2013) notes that CLIL advances learners’ cognitive development, widens their conceptual mapping resources, and develops a broader range of communicative, problem-solving, pragmatic and interpersonal skills.

On the social front, CLIL has been praised and recognized for promoting a sense of social inclusion and integration in students and helping bridge the socioeconomic gap present in society. It offers a pathway for building globally recognized competencies and helps prepare students for globalization and internationalization, and promotes cross-cultural understanding, thereby enabling them to work and study abroad in intercultural environments.

While the benefits and opportunities of CLIL are evident from research works cited above, the author considers it important to offer a fair and balanced review which encompasses discussion of its limitations and impediments to its successful implementation. CLIL can undoubtedly prove to be highly beneficial for supporting the achievement of the European Commission’s vision of a multilingual and multicultural Europe; however, the rethink of traditional language teaching methodologies does present certain challenges. One of these challenges is that subject teachers will often require additional training to be able to teach effectively in foreign languages and may not always be willing to take up the added responsibility (Klimova, 2012).

Another main challenge that warrants immediate attention is the lack of teaching material that is suitable for effective CLIL programs. As Fullan (2005) describes it, the implementation of CLIL goes beyond the introduction of new language teaching methodologies or approaches into content teaching. It involves, what he terms, ‘reculturing’ of the system, which, in turn, affects all the various elements of the system to which teaching materials are central. With the shortage of specialized teaching material available, many CLIL teachers have to create their own materials or adapt the existing material to their respective contexts, a practice that is time-consuming and likely leads to work overload, and in turn decreased motivation. Cenoz et al. (2014) also argue that the definition and usage of the term CLIL indicate that the core characteristics of this methodology are understood in different ways with respect to the nature of the target languages involved, pedagogic goals, and balance of integration of language and content instruction. In other words, this refers to the lack of conceptual clarity on CLIL, which may be rooted in the fact there are a number of versions, definitions, models and formats of CLIL.

Among the most prominent of the criticisms levelled at CLIL is that of elitism. Bruton (2011a, 2011b, 2013) and Paran (2013), for example, argue that CLIL is only effective in elitist contexts, when implemented selectively, and with the highest achiever groups that normally comprise the most motivated, intelligent and linguistically proficient students. Other authors have responded to these criticisms basing their arguments on empirical evidence from various educational, regional and linguistic settings. One such study is conducted by Pérez Cañado (2020), which explores the issue of elitism in CLIL through a large-scale longitudinal investigation with a sample of 2,024 students from primary and secondary education levels, in twelve monolingual provinces in Spain. The study finds that there is a need to re-examine the commonly harbored beliefs vis-à-vis the elitism of CLIL (see Pérez-Cañado, 2020).

2.2 CLIL: Success Stories from Europe and Beyond

Europe is a multicultural and multilingual continent with a history of bilingual education in the past several centuries (Coyle & Baetens Beardsmore, 2007). In 1975, *The*

Bullock Report - A Language for Life, stated that “all teachers are teachers of language”. Cummins (1986) even goes so far as to call all teachers “teachers of content and language” (Stoddart et al., 2002, p. 668). The United Kingdom’s Content and Language Integration Project (CLIP) also advocates for bilingual teaching across the curriculum due to the stated advantages of enhancing cultural awareness in learners, developing greater language competence, and allowing better preparation for research and professional roles (Darn, 2006).

CLIL has been regarded as an innovative pedagogical approach (Lasagabaster & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010), and soon after its introduction in the 1990s, it had become available in many European Union member states, with Austria, Hungary, Spain, and Finland being some of the countries implementing early education programs. As Pérez Cañado (2012, p. 319) describes it, “CLIL practice has spread rapidly in the past 10 years, currently spanning the continent from North (Finland) to South (Italy), and from East (Bulgaria) to West (Spain)”.

Finland’s Ministry of Education saw very positive results of their research on CLIL, and a wide expansion program was launched, resulting in 251 schools having CLIL programs by 1996 (Hanesova, 2015). Merisuo-Storm (2006) conducted a comparative study of the L1 literacy skills of CLIL and non-CLIL students in early primary education through a longitudinal study spanning two years. Although the results of the study yielded no significant differences in terms of the literacy skills, a more positive attitude was observed in the CLIL group compared to its non-CLIL counterpart.

Pérez-Cañado (2012, p. 321) discusses a study carried out in Sweden, that measured FL competence and “matched students for intelligence, motivation, and sociocultural variables but detected no statistically significant differences between both groups”. However, interestingly, two other similar studies reported differences in reading proficiency in the context of Norway (Hellekjaer, 2004), and in incidental vocabulary acquisition in the context of Sweden (Sylvén, 2004). In both these studies, the CLIL learners surpassed their non-CLIL peers “in all the vocabulary areas tested over the course of two years with three separate test rounds” (Pérez-Cañado, 2012, p. 321).

In Hungary, the impetus for CLIL programs came from parents and teachers who wanted to develop meaningful language teaching methods for students (Kovacs, 2014). In 1991, the Association for Bilingual Schools was founded, with country-wide CLIL teacher training courses being initiated by 2004. In the Czech Republic, the Trans-Language in Europe CLIL project was immensely successful in disseminating guidelines, development courses, and general information to teachers and the public (Hanesova et al., 2015). In 2014, a follow-up in the form of the Foreign Languages for Life project was launched to further develop and implement CLIL programs across primary and secondary schools in the country. Bilingual education programs in Germany started relatively early compared to the rest of Europe, with the initial focus being on German-French programmes, but formal CLIL programs focusing on English became fully developed following the year 2000 (Hanesova, 2015). Poland also saw widespread implementation of CLIL programs by the same time. Many schools in the Netherlands also adopted CLIL and by 2007, 300 schools in the country were categorized as bilingual schools (Hanesova, 2015).

In Slovakia, the CLIL concept started out in the form of ITV (Integrated Thematic Teaching), and in 2008, the Slovak National Institute for Education launched a five-year long experiment to ascertain the effectiveness of teaching foreign languages in primary education. The results were mostly positive, depicting very feasible approaches for CLIL implementation. In 2010, the CLIL Teachers' Competence Grid was developed to provide the required professional development for CLIL teachers (Bertaux et al., 2010), followed by a European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education in 2011 (Marsh, 2011). In Austria, the Salzburg CLIL model has also seen particular success by simply introducing a 15-minute module of content teaching in a foreign language, which has allowed students to develop basic conceptualization skills in the second language and enhanced their ability to learn the language formally (Arritt, 2010).

An interesting case is that of Spain, which as Coyle (2010, p. viii) underscores, "is rapidly becoming one of the European leaders in CLIL practice and research". Some of this success can be attributed to its diversity in language and culture. Spain's 17 autonomous regions, and the legislative frameworks that guide the education system of Spain include the Spanish Constitution and Organic Act of Education. CLIL programs are being applied in

schools across the country with the help of educational authorities (Lasagabaster & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010). A study of student perspectives regarding CLIL program development in Spain reported high levels of motivation with regards to learning a second language, and outlook towards teachers and the subject matter being taught in the second language were also positive. Despite the existence of certain variables among the participating students, most found the CLIL method advantageous for foreign language learning (Oxbrow, 2018). This dissertation expounds on this in more detail in Chapter 5, and presents Spain as a model for CLIL adoption and implementation in Pakistan.

While CLIL did originate in Europe, it is certainly not only circumscribed to Europe. In fact, as Oxbrow (2018, p. 137) denominates it, this “escalating phenomenon” is attracting increasing attention beyond Europe, particularly in Asia, as more and more countries see it as a route towards social and economic development (Coleman, 2011; Morton, 2013; Powell-Davies, 2009). With respect to the viability of CLIL programs outside Europe, researchers in Australia found that despite public opinion that languages are not an important part of student academics (Price, 2011), a study on student perceptions in Victorian schools found that they place high value on effective and high-quality language teaching programs (Lo Bianco & Aliani, 2008). A study on implementing CLIL programs in Victorian schools also found that integrated approaches to content and language instruction were effective and supported by both teachers and parents (Cross, 2013). The CLIL methodology has also been presented as a means of increasing English language teaching and learning proficiency in Japan (Elwood, 2018).

A study on the education policy of Iran concluded that there is a need to shift the approach for language teaching towards a method that takes into account greater awareness and understanding of bilingualism, two aspects that are critical in any methodology dealing with foreign language teaching (Maghsoudi, 2010). The Kurdistan region in Iraq is another area where the CLIL approach has been used to enhance the communication abilities of teachers, students, and professionals. A study found that using the CLIL principles to integrate content and language resulted in effective language development that was sustained through suitable activities and integrated lesson planning (Hussein, 2020).

2.3 Language Education Policy in Pakistan: The EMI-UMI Pendulum

This section presents a concise yet comprehensive review of the national education policies implemented in Pakistan to-date, and their take on bilingual education issues. The issue of medium of instruction in Pakistan has been there for a while, and various governments have tried to respond, although with questionable resolve. Before moving on to discuss the policies, it is important to understand that the issue of National and Official language is significant in the more than seventy-year long history of Pakistan. At the time of the founding of the country, approximately fifty percent of the population resided in East Pakistan (now Bangladesh) and primarily spoke Bangla as their first language (Kaye & Rahman, 1999; Saxena & Borin, 2006). The official designation of Urdu as the national language of the country was a major factor that led to resentment and dissatisfaction among the people of East Pakistan, which was politically exploited and led to the region declaring independence from Pakistan by forming of the new country, called Bangladesh (Kaye & Rahman, 1999; Saxena & Borin, 2006). Since then, the multitude civilian and military governments have failed to articulate a cohesive and consistent national language policy. Different government regimes have oscillated between declaring English and Urdu as official languages, relying primarily on their vested political interests, instead of research and empirical evidence.

In 1947, the Pakistan Educational Conference held in Karachi declared Urdu to be the lingua franca of Pakistan and made it compulsory to teach Urdu as a language in schools. Urdu became synonymous with national integration and cohesion, and provincial languages were pushed aside in favor of using Urdu as the medium of instruction to act as a unifying force in Pakistan. While the 1959 Commission on National Education determined that teaching using the mother tongue of the learners results in the best outcome, Urdu was still pushed as a compulsory language subject. The previous National Education Policy set out to develop an action plan to implement the English language across the country, but no comprehensive language policy was ever proposed or implemented. After the 18th Amendment in 2010, education policy was devolved to be the domain of the provincial governments, and instead of putting forward a national framework for medium of instruction

on education, the latest Education Policy, developed in 2017, simply states that a common framework would be beneficial for the country. The 2017 National Curriculum Framework excuses itself from developing or even proposing a practical language or language-in-education policy, instead choosing to transfer all responsibility to the provincial Ministries of Education.

2.3.1 National Education Policies between 1947 - 1998

The first educational conference was organized just a few months after Pakistan's independence in August 1947. This conference was attended by political leaders and academic experts from East Pakistan as well as West Pakistan. The event was the start of the first phase of education in Pakistan. It also marked the conception of the country's first official policy on education, the National Education Policy of 1947. The policy's themes were spiritual, social, and vocational development through formal education.

Following the rise to power of President General Ayub Khan in 1959, the National Commission on Education was tasked with developing a new education policy document, the National Education Policy 1959, starting the chain of inconsistency in education that is still prevalent today. Character-building and personality development along moral, physical, and mental aspects were a key focus of this new policy, the aim being to create a skilled labor force which could be harnessed to leverage the natural resources of Pakistan.

The second phase began in 1970, with Pakistan seeking to transform its economy from primarily agricultural to one more reliant on industry. The third National Education Policy was introduced, which focused on ideological orientation and promotion of STEM subjects. Just two years later, a new education policy was announced in 1972, the aftermath of East Pakistan's splitting from Pakistan and its declaration of independence. It was based on the National Education Policy of 1970 and was essentially the same policy, but applied to the new, smaller territory which is now the current Pakistan.

The 1973 Constitution of Pakistan acknowledged Urdu as the national language, and encouraged the measures for the implementation of Urdu as the official language. However, it permitted the use of English as an official language for a period of fifteen years, providing

sufficient time to take appropriate measures for the use of Urdu in official capacity. The Constitution also allowed the promotion and teaching of provincial languages through laws passed by the respective Provincial Assemblies (Saxena & Borin, 2006). Soon after General Zia Ul Haq came to power, a new education policy was announced. This policy was announced in October 1978, but the work plan of the policy was presented in December 1978 and it was officially implemented effective February 1979. This policy primarily focused on creation of a supra-national Muslim community, teaching of Arabic in all schools, and most importantly, made Urdu as the medium of instruction once again.

The third phase of education in Pakistan came about with the 1992 Education Policy, which also marked the introduction of demand-oriented curriculum. For the most part, this policy espoused much of the same rhetoric and objectives as the previous one, the difference being that the new policy was focused towards the Islamization of education. Islamic values were promoted (Ministry of Education, 1992) and there was an emphasis on improvement of female education. The notion of character-building in this context was entirely based on Islamic principles, with science and technology put on the back burner. This idea of human welfare and development was at odds with education systems in the rest of the world, where STEM and evidence-based teaching methodologies were being supported. In the seventh National Education Policy, announced in 1998, the bend towards Islamization of Education was further cemented by making teaching of Quranic and Islamic principles essential.

It is pertinent to note that none of the policies till point addressed the medium of instruction in a conclusive manner. For instance, the Education Policy of 1998, which was the most recent policy at this time, did not contain a single statement referring to language in education policy. That aptly reflects the significance, or lack thereof, that the government attaches to language education. The problems with the seven policies announced by this point were very similar to the ones facing the education sector today, namely lack of clarity on language policy for medium of instruction, obsolete and outdated curriculum and textbooks, poor assessment standards, lack of specialized teacher training for content and language subjects, dearth of classroom aid, and shortages in equipment and school financing.

2.3.2 National Education Policy 2009

Perhaps the most comprehensive education policy was the National Education Policy of 2009. It was the first time that the issue of the medium of instruction was recognized and addressed in the official education policy. However, the sweeping guidelines and recommendations provided by the policy were somewhat paradoxical in nature. On the one hand, it made a commitment to use Urdu as the medium of instruction in public schools, yet on the other hand, it regarded English as a “source of social stratification” between socioeconomic classes, and emphasized on widening access to English language learning.

Article 38 of the National Education Policy (2009) also stated an objective “to resolve the issue of medium of instruction and teaching of foreign languages”. To this end, it outlined steps for transitioning to English as the medium of instruction after declaring Urdu as the lingua franca. According to the Section 3, subsection 3.5 titled “Overcoming Structural Divides”:

- 1) The curriculum from Class I onward shall include Urdu, English (as a subject), one regional language, and Mathematics, along with an integrated subject. The Provincial and Area Education Departments shall have the choice to select the medium of instruction up to Class V. English shall be employed as the medium of instruction for Science and Mathematics from class IV onwards.
- 2) For the primary years, provinces shall have the option to teach Mathematics and Science in English or Urdu / official regional language, but after five years the teaching of these subjects shall be in English only.
- 3) A comprehensive school language policy shall be developed by the Ministry of Education in consultation with Provincial and Area education departments, relevant professional bodies and other stakeholders.

2.3.3 National Education Policy 2017 and Onwards

The most recent policy, The National Education Policy vision 2017-2025, promises that a consistent bilingual education policy for public and private schools is to be introduced

("National Education Policy 2017-2025"), however one notes that there has been no documented development in this regard till date.

The National Curriculum Framework 2017, which was to be used in conjunction with this policy, has a whole chapter dedicated to the medium of instruction and teaching of languages. In both documents, it is declared that Urdu is pivotal for maintaining national identity and integrity, and social cohesion. Furthermore, it states that the medium of instruction for all subjects will be either Urdu or the local language. And while the policy offers clear guidelines for language of instruction for primary level, it does not specify what happens beyond that. The policy also states that research studies may be commissioned to investigate effects of medium of instruction and gather new information about related issues like teachers' competencies and classroom practices.

Just one year later, the newly appointed administration released a National Education Policy Framework 2018. This policy framework proposes significant changes to the direction set by the Education Policy of 2017. While the former gave the provinces the autonomy to decide the language for the medium of instruction after grade 5, the latter declared Urdu as the default and mandatory medium of instruction by stating that the medium of instruction is an important divisive factor for the quality of teaching across Pakistan.

The framework also recommended that Inter-Provincial Education Ministers Conference (IPEMC) shall engage with education professionals under the leadership of the Federal Ministry of Education and Professional Training to determine ways and means of making the Pakistani children multilingually proficient and ensuring a level playing field for all children across the three systems of education, namely: private education system, public education system, and Madrassah¹ education system.

3. RESEARCH FRAMEWORK AND DESIGN

The present study is an instance of primary research that combines elements of qualitative and quantitative investigation. This section will talk about the research design,

¹ Madrassahs are traditional schools that follow a religious (Islamic) curriculum instead of one stipulated by the Provincial or Federal Ministry of Education.

sample/participants of the study, as well as the instruments, process and methodologies used for data collection. Survey research design has been used to evaluate opinions and perspective of respondents about the bilingual education policies and classroom implementation.

3.1 Objectives

The broad goal of this study is to conduct a multi-faceted analysis of the Bilingual Education Policy of Pakistan, with a particular focus on its micro-level implementation. It can be broken down into the following objectives:

1. To gauge content and language teachers' perspective on the following five cornerstones of a successful bilingual education program: a) Coordination and Organization, b) Teacher Training and Support, c) Pedagogy and Classroom Methodologies, d) Curriculum, Materials and Resources, and e) Assessment and Evaluation.
2. To determine if there are statistically significant differences in teachers' perceptions vis-à-vis gender, qualification, type of teacher, type and location of institute, subjects taught, language proficiency in Urdu and English, and teaching experience.
3. To put forth a plan to address the issues faced by teachers in Pakistani bilingual schools and propose guidelines for developing a more research-based Bilingual Education Policy.

3.2 Variables

A number of identification variables have been contemplated, that relate to the individual characteristics of the participants. These include the following:

- Type of institute
- Location of institute
- Grades taught

- Gender
- Type of teacher
- Qualification
- Subjects taught
- Language proficiency in Urdu
- Language proficiency in English
- Total teaching experience
- Teaching experience in a bilingual program

3.3 Sample / Participants

The sample included in this study comprises language and content teachers, currently teaching at English-medium schools in Pakistan. Fifty-five responses were collected over a period of twelve days. The breakdown of the response rate is presented in Table 1.

Response	Rate
Total Distributed Questionnaires	55
Returned Questionnaires	55
Usable Questionnaires	55
Disqualified Questionnaires	0
Response Rate	100 %

Table 1. Questionnaires' response rate

Responses were invited from teachers working in both public and private schools with 34.5% of the teachers currently teaching in public schools and 65.5% of teachers at private schools. The respondents were mostly teaching at schools based in Punjab (94.5%), followed by Azad Jammu And Kashmir (3.6%), and then Sindh (1.8%). 72.7% of the respondents identified as females, 25.5% as male and 1.8% chose to not share their gender.

The distribution of content and language teachers was almost equally represented, with 52.7% content teachers and 47.3% language teachers. The respondents represent language teachers and content teachers of six different subject areas: Natural Sciences,

Computer Science, Mathematics, Media Studies, Social Studies, and Islamic Studies. In terms of grades taught, respondents represented teachers for all levels, from Kindergarten to Grade 12, as presented in Table 2.

Grades Taught	Frequency
Kindergarten	9
1-5	21
6-8	13
9-12	25
Total	68

Table 2. Distribution of respondents by grades taught

In terms of their highest level of qualification, 61.8% of the respondents reported a Master's degree (MA/M.Ed), followed by Bachelor's (BA/B.Ed) with 21.8% of the respondents, Doctorate (PhD/Ed.D) with 10.9%, whereas 5.5% of the respondents said Others. 18.2% of the teachers surveyed were also language coordinators at their institute.

The participants were also asked about their total teaching experience in a bilingual program. 41.8% of the teachers had taught for less than five years, 2.3% had taught for between five and ten years, and 34.5% had been teaching in a bilingual program for more than ten years.

Table 3 below presents the profile of respondents in terms of such identification variables as the type of institute, gender, highest qualification, language proficiency and teaching experience.

Features	Frequency	Percent (%)
Type of Institute		
Private	36	65.5%
Public	19	34.5%
Gender		
Male	14	25.5%
Female	40	72.7%
Prefer not to say	1	1.8%

Type of Teacher		
Language Teacher	26	47.3%
Content Teacher	29	52.7%
Qualification		
Doctorate (PhD/Ed.D)	6	10.9%
MA/M.Ed.	34	61.8%
BA/B.Ed.	12	21.8%
Other	3	5.5%
Total Teaching Experience		
Less than 5 years	21	38.2%
Between 5 & 10 years	12	21.8%
More than 10 years	22	40.0%
Teaching Experience in a Bilingual Program		
Less than 5 years	23	41.8
Between 5 & 10 years	13	23.6
More than 10 years	19	34.5
Language Coordinator		
Yes	10	18.2
No	45	81.8

Table 3. Profile of respondents

3.4 Instruments and Data collection

Data was collected using a questionnaire in English language. The primary purpose of using this instrument was to capture the attitudes and experiences of teaching staff and administrative staff in English-medium schools in Pakistan.

The questionnaire was validated using the expert ratings approach. Eight experts were selected for this purpose, who rated the questionnaire on three parameters: Clarity, Precision and Relevance. Their feedback was carefully considered and incorporated, before finalizing the instrument for presenting to the respondents. The panel of experts included researchers belonging to different countries and institutions that specialized in CLIL and Bilingual Education at different levels of the education system: primary, secondary, and tertiary education.

The questionnaire consisted of six sections. The first section had twelve identifying questions that were added to help identify trends and insights for different segments of the sample. The remaining five sections addressed the key themes selected as areas of focus for this research namely: (a) Coordination and Organization, (b) Teacher Training and Support, (c) Pedagogy and Classroom Methodologies, (d) Curriculum, Materials and Resources, and (e) Assessment and Evaluation. Each of these five themes consisted of five items/statements/questions. For each item, participants were asked to provide their responses on a 6-point Likert Scale (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = slightly disagree; 4 = slightly agree; 5 = agree; 6 = strongly agree). The reason a 6-point likert scale was used was to avoid the central tendency error and elicit an opinion instead of yielding neutral responses that may not offer any significant insights. The questionnaire used is attached in the Appendix A at the end of this paper.

The first theme in the questionnaire is about **Coordination and Organization**. It pertains to the administrative, organizational and managerial aspects of teaching at the English-medium schools. It inquires about suitability of language and content teachers for teaching in a bilingual program, and covers the perceived ease of collaboration with other language and content teachers in the school. Additionally, the section also asks about the support provided by school management and/or the bilingual coordinator and whether or not experience of teaching in a bilingual program has been a positive one.

Teacher Training and Support is an essential component of the education system and is the next theme in the questionnaire. This theme inquires about teachers' training needs and the degree of support the teachers receive from their respective schools in this regard. All respondents are asked about whether or not the content and the language teachers need any specific training to teach in a bilingual program. It then follows up by asking about the level of support offered by their school in this regard, by encouraging teachers to attend professional development programs or undertake research or study leave to enhance their skill sets as a bilingual teacher. The last questions in this theme inquires about whether the teachers believe that providing training to the teachers should be the responsibility of the school and/or the Ministry of Education.

The third theme is **Pedagogy and Classroom Methodologies**, and it helps understand how familiar the respondents are with ideas of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), and how well they are able to apply them to their teaching practice. Additional items are related to classroom methodology and inquire whether teachers employ student-centered methodologies in their classroom such as collaborative and cooperative learning, Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), Project-Based Learning (PBL), and practices that promote learner autonomy.

The next theme is based on **Curriculum, Materials, and Resources** and begins by asking about the respondents' understanding of the principles of developing an integrated curriculum for CLIL and bilingual teaching. Access to authentic and original materials is essential part of CLIL and it is evaluated herein. It also inquires about the participants' ability to adapt the teaching materials to their needs, their ability to use multimedia and digital resources and other related issues.

The fifth and the final theme is **Assessment and Evaluation**, and inquires about whether the respondents understand the importance of balance between content and language in integrated assessment. Furthermore, it also aims to gauge the importance teachers assign to national board tests scores versus the students' learning as determined by other means, by understanding their viewpoint about the same. Next, it asks the respondents whether they use language benchmarks such as Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), Canadian Language Benchmark (CLB), or American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL Scale) to assess their students' language knowledge and competence. Finally, the respondents are asked if their assessment methodologies are consistent with the federal and provincial language policy and National Skills and Assessment Standards of the Federal Ministry of Education.

3.5 Ethics

The process used in this research for data collection through the questionnaire followed all ethical protocols defined by the participating institutions and other relevant bodies. These included informed consent of respondents, briefing about the research,

providing right to withdraw, ensuring and informing the respondents about the confidentiality of their responses, seeking no sensitive information, and protecting respondents from any potential harm of physical, social, or emotional nature. There was no bias in collecting data from respondents. Data was gathered from a random sample and it was correctly reported in the research.

4. RESEARCH FINDINGS AND ANALYSES

The data obtained has been analyzed statistically, using the IBM SPSS Statistics package version 24.0. Graphs have been generated using Google Sheets and Microsoft Excel. Central tendency (mean, median, and mode) and dispersion measures (standard deviation, and range) have been calculated, and descriptive and inferential statistics have been used to report on the results obtained and to determine the existence of statistically significant differences in terms of the moderating and identification variables considered. Table 4 presents a summary of central tendency and dispersion measures for Questions 13-37, and mean values of responses for each question are presented in Chart 1.

Questions 13-37							
Items	N	Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Q13	55	4,35	5,00	5 ^a	1,613	1	6
Q14	55	4,07	4,00	4	1,303	1	6
Q15	55	4,78	5,00	5	0,937	3	6
Q16	55	4,31	5,00	5	1,477	1	6
Q17	55	4,56	5,00	5	1,244	1	6
Q18	55	2,89	2,00	2	1,729	1	6
Q19	55	2,85	3,00	2	1,496	1	6
Q20	55	4,53	5,00	5	1,386	1	6
Q21	55	3,36	4,00	1	1,994	1	6
Q22	55	5,20	6,00	6	1,095	2	6
Q23	55	4,11	4,00	5	1,286	1	6
Q24	55	5,27	5,00	6	0,757	3	6
Q25	55	4,67	5,00	5	1,233	1	6
Q26	55	5,00	5,00	6	1,089	1	6
Q27	55	5,16	5,00	5	0,834	2	6
Q28	55	4,27	5,00	5	1,209	1	6
Q29	55	4,62	5,00	5	1,194	2	6

Q30	55	4,13	4,00	5	1,375	1	6
Q31	55	5,00	5,00	5	0,962	2	6
Q32	55	5,15	5,00	5	0,756	3	6
P33	55	5,20	5,00	5	0,650	3	6
P34	55	3,18	3,00	2	1,516	1	6
P35	55	3,25	4,00	4	1,336	1	6
P36	55	4,13	4,00	4	1,362	1	6
P37	55	4,24	5,00	5	1,170	1	6

Table 4. Central tendency and dispersion measures summary for questions 13-37

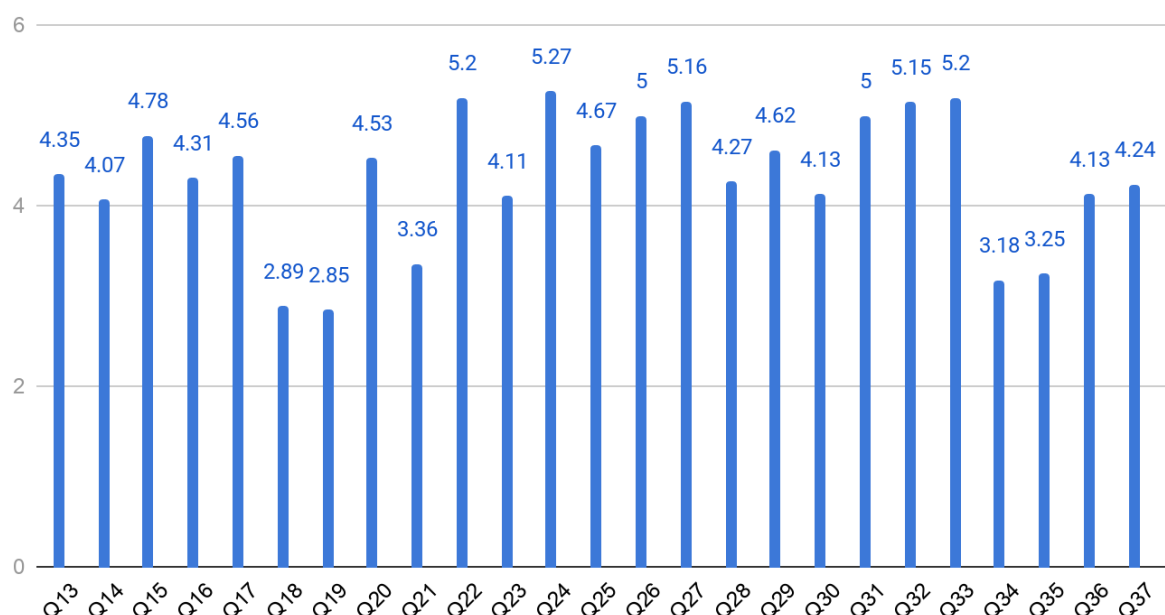


Chart 1. Summary of mean values of responses for questions 13 - 37

4.1 Theme 1: Coordination and Organization

In terms of the suitability of content and language teachers for teaching in a bilingual program, the responses note somewhat higher suitability for language teachers, with the majority of the respondents from public schools tending to agree more with the statement (cf. Appendix B, Table 1). Respondents from private schools, on the other hand, are of the view that content teachers are better suited to teach in bilingual programs. The respondents generally agreed that they find it is easy to collaborate with other language and/or content

teachers and reported that their overall experience teaching in a bilingual program is positive.

Overall, the respondents generally lean towards agreeing that they get adequate support from their school management, including the language coordinator. However, it is less true for content teachers, as they overwhelmingly believe (mean = 3.83) that they do not get adequate support from the school including the language coordinator. This is not surprising given the support structure for language departments present in most schools, and so there are more opportunities for language teachers to coordinate with the language coordinator and less so for content teachers. Ramifications of this have been discussed further in section 5. Chart 2 presents mean values of responses for ‘Coordination and Organization’ theme.



Chart 2. Mean values of responses for ‘Coordination and Organization’ theme

4.2 Theme 2: Teacher Training and Support

In regards to specific training needs for bilingual teaching for both content and language teachers, responses from nearly all participants showed a minor deviation towards

an agreement for the need of specific training. The results also show a somewhat neutral response about the schools granting study/research leaves to teachers to enhance skills.

While results point to a strong consensus among the participants that bilingual teaching training should be provided to the teachers by the school and/or Ministry of Education, respondents with a Doctorate degree tended to strongly agree with this (cf. Appendix B, Table 4). This can be attributed to the fact that they have a better theoretical underpinning of pedagogical needs of bilingual education and the skill sets required in a classroom, and therefore believe more strongly in the need of specialized training. Chart 3 presents mean values of responses for ‘Teacher Training and Support’ theme.

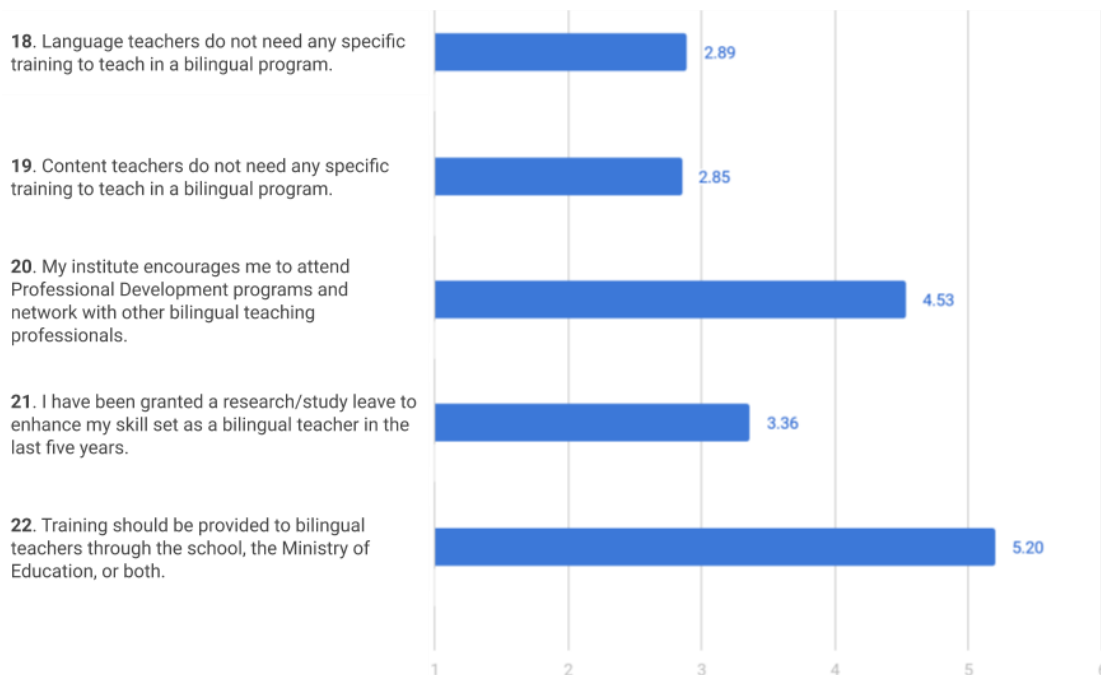


Chart 3. Mean values of responses for ‘Teacher Training and Support’ theme

4.3 Theme 3: Pedagogy and Classroom Methodologies

Results showed a moderate agreement to whether the respondents are familiar with CLIL and can apply it to their teaching practice, with teachers holding a Doctorate degree

more likely to say so, in comparison to respondents with a Master's and Bachelor's degree (cf. Appendix B, Table 4).

The respondents agreed strongly with the statement that they predominantly use student-centered methodologies in their classroom (mean value: 5.27). Although fewer answered in affirmative (mean value: 4.67), when asked specifically about their familiarity with Task-Based Language Teaching or Project-Based Learning. But the results also show that the respondents are likely to use group work and cooperative learning in their classroom. The results also showed an agreement among the respondents when asked whether they use methodologies and pedagogical practices that promote learner autonomy. No statistically significant differences were observed for Questions 24, 26 and 27, in regards to identification variables of the respondents. Chart 4 presents mean values of responses for 'Pedagogy and Classroom Methodologies' theme.

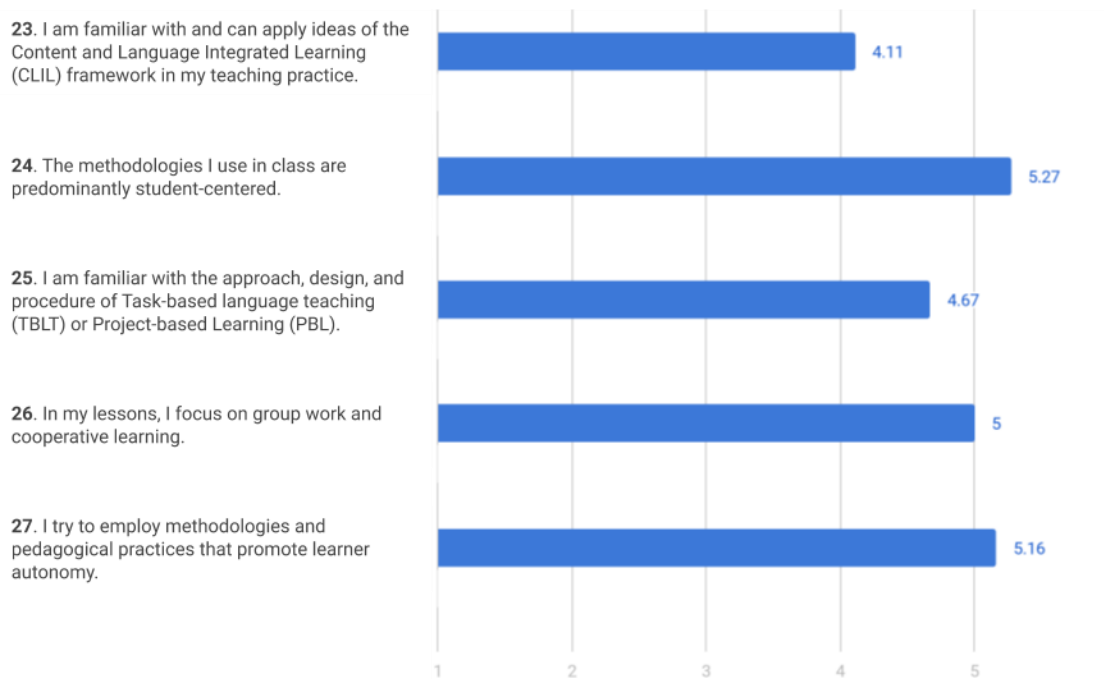


Chart 4. Mean values of responses for 'Pedagogy and Classroom Methodologies' theme

4.4 Theme 4: Curriculum, Materials and Resources

The respondents viewed themselves as having a sound understanding of the principles of developing a curriculum for CLIL and bilingual teaching at a moderate level. While the responses indicate teachers have access to authentic materials that they can adapt for bilingual teaching, the results show that the teachers were less likely to view themselves as being equipped well enough to design and develop materials for bilingual teaching themselves. Interestingly, teachers were generally confident about their skills regarding the use of multimedia software and online digital resources and also shared they are able to always consider differentiation and flexibility to meet the different learning styles of their students. No statistically significant differences were observed for Questions 28 to 32, in regards to identification variables of the respondents. Chart 5 presents mean values of responses for ‘Curriculum, Materials and Resources’ theme.

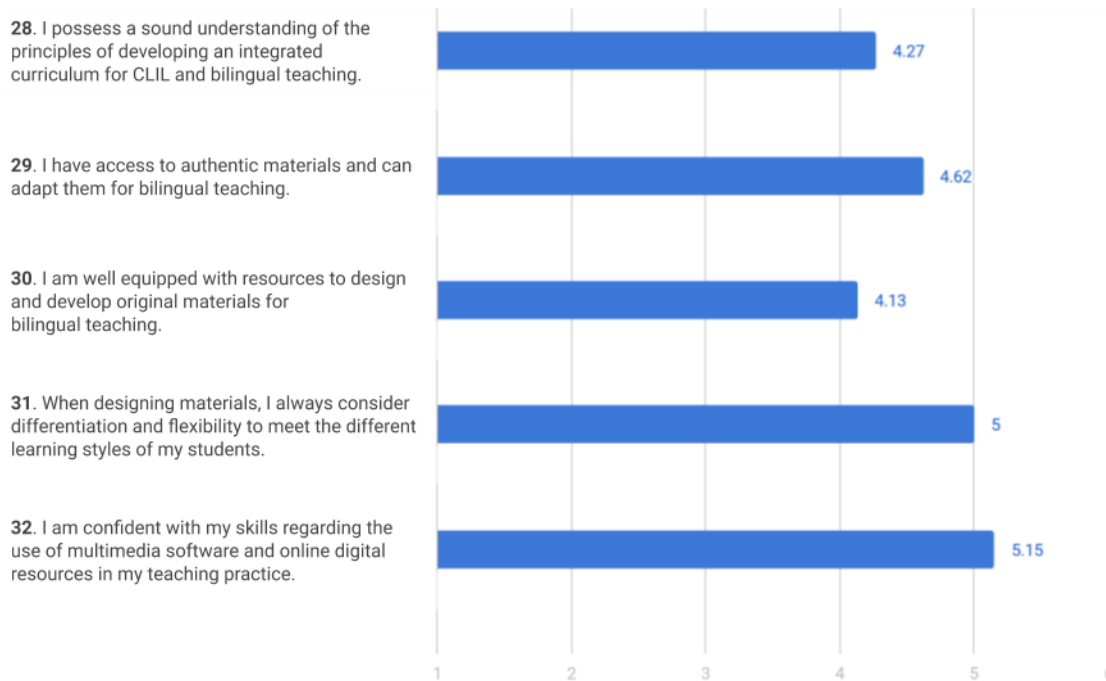


Chart 5. Mean values of responses for ‘Curriculum, Materials and Resources’ theme

4.5 Theme 5: Assessment and Evaluation

Both language and content teachers at public and private schools appreciate the significance of balance between content and language in integrated assessment. The results also show a neutral opinion about importance of national board test scores over students' learning, although female teachers tended to place less importance on national board scores relative to their counterparts that identified as males (cf. Appendix B, Table 2).

The teachers' opinion does not lean in either direction when it comes to usage of language benchmark tools or scale for assessment and evaluation of students' language skills. The results show that overall teachers are moderately familiar with the federal or provincial language policy. However, teachers that also serve as language coordinators at their respective institutions are significantly more familiar with the policy (cf. Appendix B, Table 5). Finally, the teachers viewed their teacher practice as being in accordance with National Skills and Assessment Standards of the Federal Ministry of Education at a moderate level. Chart 6 presents mean values of responses for 'Assessment and Evaluation' theme.

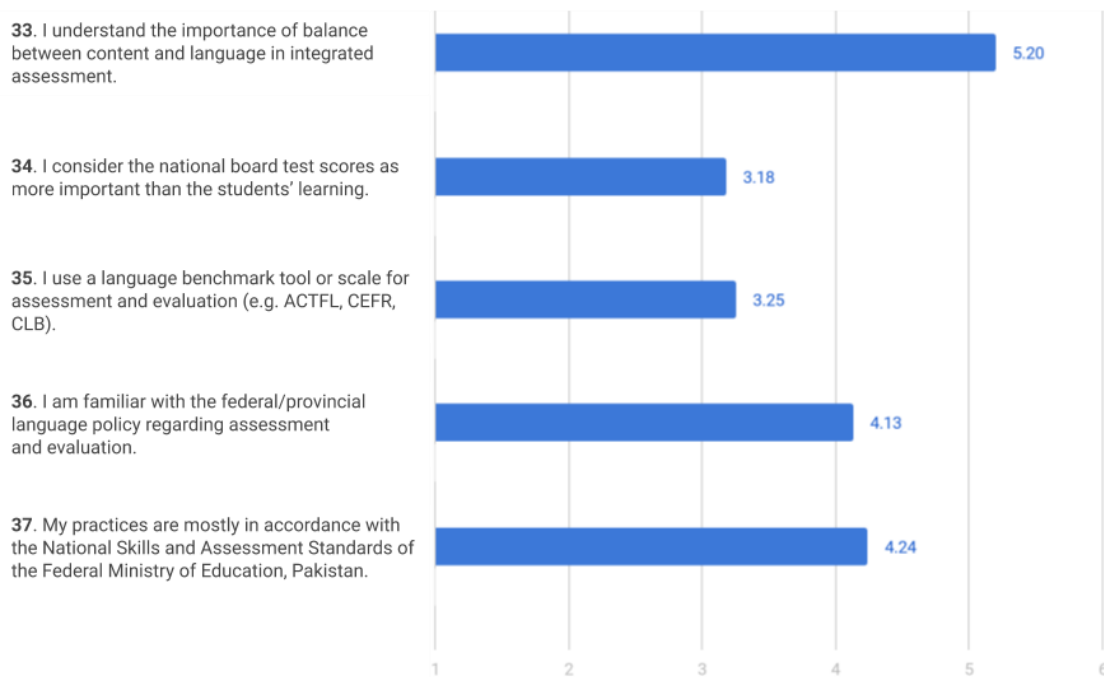


Chart 6. Mean values of responses for 'Assessment and Evaluation' theme

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Conclusions

The interpretation and analysis of the results were used to develop an understanding of content and language teachers' perceptions and opinions about different aspects of the bilingual programs in Pakistan, in light of the objectives defined in Section 3.1.

In regards to the first objective of the study, the end results demonstrate that both language and content teachers perceived that they were suited to teach in a bilingual program and reported a positive overall teaching experience. Responses from the teachers also indicated that specialized training is required for teaching in BE programs, and there was a strong consensus amongst the respondents that the training should be provided by the school and the Ministry of Education. In general, respondents believed that the methodologies they employed in the classroom were learner-centric. And as far as the evaluations and assessments were concerned, teachers indicated that they were cognizant of the importance of balance between language and content, but most of them did not use a language benchmark tool as a part of their practice.

Another objective of the study was to determine if any statistically significant differences existed in terms of the identification variables considered. In terms of the type of teacher (language and content), gender, type of institute (public and private), or teaching experience, the opinions of the respondents were common on most items. However, on multiple other items, differences were observed. Public school teachers were of the view that language teachers are more suited to teach in a BE program, while teachers in private schools were inclined to say that content teachers are better suited (cf. Appendix B, Table 1). Relative to language teachers, content teachers also reported getting less support from the school administration. While the respondents were not very familiar with CLIL in general and the concept of integrated curriculum, the teachers that had a Doctorate degree were likely to share that they were familiar with the methodology and believed more strongly in the need for specialized training for teaching in a BE context (cf. Appendix B, Table 4). Furthermore, teachers that also served as language coordinators at their schools were likely to be familiar with federal and provincial language policy (cf. Appendix B, Table 5). And

while most of the teachers considered themselves to be confident in the use of multimedia software and digital resources, they were less likely to agree that they were well equipped with resources they needed to design and develop materials for bilingual teaching.

Finally, in connection to the third objective of the study, Section 5.2 fleshes out recommendations to address the issues faced by content and language teachers, as well as other staff in bilingual schools and proposes guidelines for developing a more research-based Bilingual Education Policy.

5.2 Recommendations

The findings from prior research, combined with the analysis of the primary data gathered through this study allowed the author to identify multiple challenges facing the bilingual education system in Pakistan. This final section briefly discusses these problems and proposes potential solutions in the form of policy and implementation-level recommendations:

1. The quality of education in Pakistan, especially bilingual education, is fraught with inconsistencies and a lack of coherent structure across different systems and institutions. The content, teaching methodologies, availability of supplementary resources, and infrastructure all vary from public to private sector, rural to urban settings, as well as between provinces. To address this problem, as a first step, Minimum Quality Standards or Indicators (MQS/MQI) should be established and documented, which can go a long way towards the development and implementation of a coherent and consistent bilingual education program. Comprehensive documentation, and subsequent implementation of these standards will allow educational institutions to accurately identify problematic areas and develop targeted solutions to rectify these issues. In addition to being used to monitor and evaluate the quality of education, MQS can also be helpful in improving accountability in education as they have been reported to increase the consistency and quality of education in various developing countries such as Vietnam, Indonesia, and Kazakhstan (Ahmed, 2019). Apart from a direct positive impact on education

quality, implementation of MQS can also help improve school infrastructure and environment, teaching quality, and learning resources (Ahmed, 2019; Bhattacharya, 2017). A consistent MQS approach across the country has the potential to greatly reduce the inequality present in the current education system, and help ensure that students have access to a satisfactory standard of education regardless of where they are located or whether they are enrolled in a public or private institution.

2. Bilingual education programs, such as CLIL, are only effective if there is collaboration between language and content teachers. The current system bifurcates these two areas and does not allow for content and language teachers to collaborate and benefit from each other's skills and experience.

This study finds that an effective approach towards establishing a CLIL framework incorporates Bilingual Coordinators to facilitate collaboration between language and content teachers. As evidenced by a comprehensive study undertaken in Europe under an Erasmus project, collaboration between subject and language teachers is seen as a vital part of implementing an effective CLIL program (Ivanova, 2018). A study on CLIL teacher training programs also classified professional development in terms of CLIL a collaborative, dynamic, and dialogic process (He & Lin, 2018).

Therefore, bilingual educational institutions should appoint Bilingual Coordinators who would ideally be sufficiently trained in bilingual teaching methodologies and would bridge the knowledge and skills gap between content and subject teachers by acting as a liaison and ensuring collaboration between the two. They would allow for efficient skills and knowledge transfer across the faculty, thereby allowing for a more effective bilingual education program. These coordinators would act as administrators for the CLIL program, as well as fulfil monitoring and evaluation requirements to ensure program implementation and resolve any issues that may arise.

3. Research results show that there are acute deficiencies as regards teacher training. The lack of resources allocated to the education sector has overall resulted in woefully inadequate training facilities for teachers and in most cases, as Pavón &

Rubio Alcala (Pavón & Rubio Alcala, 2010) explain, teachers may not be aware of how they need to deliver CLIL lessons because of the lack of pedagogy training. Pakistan's current education system undervalues teacher training and development, an aspect that is having a well-documented detrimental effect on teaching across the country. There is a severe lack of effective certification or licensing programs in place that would allow for a minimum standard of quality teaching, and resources for bilingual teaching are even more scarce.

Teachers initially educated in other paradigms need professional development opportunities to understand CLIL as an innovative language and content teaching approach. One of the most effective methods to ensure quality teaching is to implement strict teacher certification controls that incorporate pre-service and in-service training programs. Federal or provincial directorates should be set up for the purpose of designing and conducting pre-service and in-service teacher training programs. The remit of these departments will ideally also include research on the latest global bilingual teaching methodologies and apply them to training programs in Pakistan.

While this goes without saying for most of the developed world, it is important to emphasize in Pakistan's context that teachers be trained and certified before they are engaged in a teaching position. Professional teaching qualifications (M.Ed / B.Ed etc), which are currently treated as a recommended qualification for most teaching positions, should be made compulsory.

Insights can also be learned from different countries, such as Spain and Australia, where they have programs that focus specifically on bilingual teaching. Spain can act as a model with special bilingual education programs such as the innovation courses on language and pedagogy, as well as the introduction of new degrees for bilingual education being utilized to prepare teachers for CLIL (Turner & Fielding, 2020). Australia has introduced short CLIL training courses for teachers in order to help them develop CLIL-based teaching methodologies with a focus on the 4Cs framework and the language triptych (Turner & Fielding, 2020), and Thailand has enacted a policy focused towards encouraging content teachers to integrate English

into their lessons (Kewara & Prabjandee, 2018). These approaches can be adapted to train teachers and allow them to effectively leverage their knowledge and experience to deliver quality bilingual teaching to students in Pakistan.

4. Pakistan's current National Curriculum is not designed for bilingual education. Despite the existence of bilingualism across the country, the curriculum completely separates content and language teaching, with the split resulting in a significant loss in learning potential. Language is just used as a medium of instruction, thereby losing the potential advantages that effective and more integrated bilingual education programs can offer.

As Casal (2008) reminds, an important point that needs to be heeded for a success-prone implementation of a CLIL program is careful and systematic planning, with specification of language objectives and synchronization of language with content syllabus. She stresses that integration of curriculum for both language and content must take place in such a manner that objectives for both are catered to simultaneously. Contextualized and relevant curriculum should thus be developed for bilingual programs in Pakistan, and work should be done on development of Content and Language Integrated Curriculum, where language and the content should complement each other. This will enable teachers to deliver curriculum that has been specifically designed for bilingual education, and hence increase overall proficiency in terms of both content and language learning. Insights can be gleaned from examples from other parts of the world where integrated curricula have been implemented, such as the United Kingdom through the Content and Language Integrated Project (Dobson, 2020), Spain, Italy, Finland and Poland (Czura et al., 2009).

5. Most programs in Pakistan continue to rely on instructor-focused teaching methodologies that do not address the individual language competence and individual learning needs of the students. It is essential that bilingual education programs adopt methodologies that are learner-centric, innovative, up to date, and content-focused. Such methodologies transform the learning experience and offer much greater learning facilitation for students, but also allows teachers to accurately

identify the weaknesses and shortcomings of both the learning program as well as the students, and take appropriate actions to rectify the situation. Some student-centered methodologies that effectively facilitate learning and engagement include Collaborative Learning and Cooperative Learning that focus on group-based and team-based learning aimed at improving understanding of a subject, promoting interaction, individual accountability, confidence, conflict resolution, and a healthier learning environment (Alrayah, 2018; Bishoni, 2017). Project-Based Learning is known to result in greater motivation and increased flexibility in terms of offering real-life contexts for communication (Norboevich, 2019), while Task-Based Language Teaching is linked to increased student participation in the classroom as well as increased engagement with the content (Al Muhaimed, 2013).

6. The current education system also utilizes out of date and ineffective assessment models. There is a high level of subjectivity and inconsistency, and due to segregated assessment of content and language, there is no way to measure the support of one to the other.

Assessment models should move towards integration of content and language, with the assessment criteria defined and implemented for each of the two. Under such a model, the assessment should be content-focused and assessing language should not be the primary goal (Darn, 2006); however, the learners should be given feedback on their language development. An integrated assessment model that incorporates both formative and summative, formal and informal assessment modes, can offer a much clearer picture of learning outcomes in terms of content and language learning (Massler, 2011).

7. While formal language assessment is secondary, it is still very important to effectively gauge language proficiency. Pakistan does not currently employ a standard against which language is assessed, with subjective assessment as the go-to for most bilingual programs.

Introducing a standardized language benchmark against which English and Urdu language proficiency can be tested will allow students and teachers to benchmark their performance and evaluate and improve their language teaching and learning skills. Current global standards include the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). Both these programs offer guidelines for foreign language teaching. This allows for the development of more effective bilingual programs and assessments that are objective, valid, and reliable (Macdonald & Vandergrift, 2007). A standardized language benchmark also provides a clearer picture of language development and understanding in learners, and can be used to accurately determine language proficiency in academic and professional settings. Benchmarks provide a much more reliable method of evaluation and assessment, and act as an incentive for learners to continue improving to reach the next stage in their linguistic development. A study found that benchmarking can help improve academic performance at higher education levels through comparison and assessment as well (Tasopoulou & Tsiotras, 2017).

It is recommended that a language benchmark be developed by the National Skills and Assessment Standards of the Federal Ministry of Education, in consultation with the language experts, for the evaluation of language skills of students.

8. Lastly, Pakistan does not employ a consistent language competence assessment model. Language proficiency in Pakistan is determined through foreign language tests such as IELTS or TOEFL, which have limited efficacy and may not always depict an accurate picture of an individual's language competence.

This study recommends the utilization of the Language Portfolio tool for the purpose of language assessment. While foreign language tests such as those mentioned above continue to remain significant in terms of translating local language assessment against an external scale, a language portfolio offers a much more comprehensive picture of language competency of a learner. It is more reliable than single-sitting

tests, and instead assesses language over an extended period of time across various contexts and situations.

The language portfolio method is especially useful at a primary level, as evidenced by research conducted on English language education in Turkey. The study found that because teachers often develop their own teaching and assessment materials, utilizing language portfolios had a positive impact on learner motivation, engagement, and self-awareness (Zorba & Tosun, 2011). A study on the use of language portfolio for assessing an EFL program in Iran also concluded that it had advantages for learners in terms of self-assessment, peer feedback, and communication, while test developers could design alternative and focused methods to assess language skills (Safari & Koosha, 2016). Utilizing language portfolio assessment in higher education also yielded positive results in terms of self-analysis and improvement (Ulfa, 2019).

5.3 CLIL in Spain: A Potential BE Model for Pakistan

A particularly successful example of the application of CLIL is in the context of Spain, which as Coyle (2010: viii) underscores, “is rapidly becoming one of the European leaders in CLIL practice and research”. In terms of the implementation and investigation of CLIL, Spain has indeed stood out over the last decade despite its complex, decentralized education system. To understand this better, let us take into account that Spain comprises 17 autonomous regions that are guided by the *Ley Orgánica de Educación LOE 2006* (Organic Law/Act of Education 2006). While a national framework of education exists per this act, the autonomous communities are authorized to regulate and adapt this law to their specific contexts. As a result, various bilingual education and CLIL models are seen in action throughout the country. It is because of this very lack of a blueprint for a cohesive and structured language education policy, the Spanish model may serve as a model for a variety of countries, of which Pakistan is one.

In words of Ruiz de Zarobe & Lasagabaster (2010, p. 284), “drawing an uncomplicated, homogeneous picture of CLIL policy in Spain is an impossibility”.

However, research of bilingual policies in Spain reveals two main contexts in which CLIL models are applied (Coyle, 2010):

- **Monolingual communities**, where Spanish is the first language and the primary medium of instruction. Through CLIL, education is provided partly in Spanish and partly in one or two foreign languages.
- **Bilingual communities**, where Spanish is the first language along with one of the four regional languages: Basque, Catalan, Valencian, and Galician. Both Spanish and regional languages are taught in schools alongside foreign languages under the CLIL model.

According to article 3 of the Spanish Constitution, Catalan, Basque and Galician are recognized as co-official languages along with Spanish in the communities (regions) where these languages are spoken; however, Spanish remains the only official national Spanish language. The article states:

1) El castellano es la lengua española oficial del Estado. Todos los españoles tienen el deber de conocerla y el derecho a usarla. (Castellano is the official Spanish language of the State. All Spaniards have the duty to know it and the right to use it.)

2) Las demás lenguas españolas serán también oficiales en las respectivas Comunidades Autónomas de acuerdo con sus Estatutos. (The other Spanish languages shall also be official in the respective Autonomous Communities in accordance with their Statutes.)

3) La riqueza de las distintas modalidades lingüísticas de España es un patrimonio cultural que será objeto de especial respeto y protección. (The wealth of the different language variations of Spain is a cultural heritage which shall be the object of special respect and protection.)

Artículo 3 de la Constitución Española (Article 3 of the Spanish Constitution)

Within the bilingual communities, let us, first, look at the instance of Basque Autonomous Community (BAC). This community has a long tradition of bilingual teaching, and under the current CLIL model, two languages are taught; the regional one (Basque/Euskara/Vasco) and a foreign one (in most cases, English). The second notable example of CLIL implementation is Catalonia, where a number of studies measuring the

effects of CLIL on the learners' language proficiency (Navés & Victori, 2010) and about their writing competence (Navés, 2009), have shown favorable results for CLIL students. Specifically, it was found that for grades 5 to 12, CLIL students outperformed their non-CLIL peers on syntactic and lexical complexity, accuracy and fluency (Guerrero, 2015). Moreover, for some grades, "CLIL learners tended to obtain similar results to those of foreign language students one or two grades ahead" (Pérez-Cañado, 2012, p. 328). A third example in the context of bilingual communities is that of Galicia, the north-western region of Spain. Originally bilingual with Spanish and Galician as its official languages, this autonomous community has "an evidenced experience in immersion bilingual programs attending to environmental languages" (San Isidro, 2010, p. i). Although CLIL isn't as widely used in Galicia in formal education settings, the Galician government is giving increasing importance to this methodology and bilingual sections are on the rise.

As regards the monolingual communities, Madrid is a notable example where the majority of the CLIL research is conducted by the institutes of higher education. Local universities, such as University of Alcalá de Henares (UAH), Universidad Autónoma de Madrid (through its UAM-CLIL Project), and Universidad Complutense de Madrid (through its UCM-CLUE Project) have contributed significantly to the understanding of CLIL and its implementation in the local context (Guerrero, 2015). The main initiatives taken by the regional Government of Madrid to promote foreign language learning in the community include a) the Bilingual program by the Spanish Ministry of Education and the British Council, b) *Programa Colegios Bilingües* (Program of Bilingual Infant and Primary Schools), c) *Programa Institutos Bilingües* (Program of Bilingual Secondary Schools) and d) *Secciones Lingüísticas* (Language Sections) (Vázquez, 2015).

In Extremadura, bilingual education can be traced back to the academic year 1996-1997; however, CLIL was officially implemented in 2004-2005 when the Extremadura Education Authority promoted the *Proyectos de Sección Bilingüe* (Bilingual Section Projects) with the aim of "developing experimental CLIL initiatives in both primary and secondary education" (Vázquez, 2015, p. 140). Similarly, CLIL has also begun to gain popularity in La Rioja, through three main bilingual initiatives: the Bilingual Sections, *Proyectos de Innovación Lingüística en Centros* or PILC (School Language Innovation

Projects), and the *Programa de Competencia Lingüística Integrada en Centros* or PCLIC (School Integrated Language Competence Programme) (Vázquez, 2015, p. 140).

In 2005, the Junta de Andalusia presented the *Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo*, with the aim of bolstering bilingual education in an autonomous community without a bilingual tradition (Guerrero, 2015). The Andalusian Plan for the Promotion of Plurilingualism (APPP) marked a major milestone which, through its five subprograms, built a strong foundation for a well-structured bilingual system. These subprograms include: the Bilingual Schools Program, the Official Language Schools Program, the Teachers and Plurilingualism Program, the Plurilingualism and Society Program and the Plurilingualism and Cross-culturalism Program (Guerrero, 2015).

Finally, it is important to note that CLIL programs in Spain are, in large part, experimental; there is relatively little empirical data about the methodology, characteristics or effects of CLIL. Nevertheless, communities continue to pursue it on an ‘as-we-go’ basis; learning from experience and moving forward. Support for CLIL programs in some communities is growing more rapidly than others, with every autonomous region choosing to adopt the framework per their objectives, resources and language learning needs.

Maldonado García (2015) conducted a multi-pronged study to analyze the language models of various countries in respect to the similarities they showed with Pakistan, with an intent to identify a suitable, appropriate and effective model to fit the complex case of Pakistan. Interestingly, the country found to have a larger similarity with Pakistan was Spain. Maldonado García (2015) explains that while the linguistic panorama of Spain cannot be fully compared to that of Pakistan, some very important similarities certainly exist. These include, among others, division into autonomous communities, recognition of four regional/provincial languages in addition to the national language, rich ethnic and cultural diversity, as well as efforts for regional separatism from some communities. Given the remarkable similarity in terms of the aforementioned points, and after a comparative analysis of the education system of both countries, the author is of the view that the Spanish CLIL spectrum can work as an active and realistic prototype for Pakistan. Following the findings from the Spanish context, adapting the CLIL framework to Pakistan would be especially beneficial since education as a sector has been devolved to the provinces, each of

which has their own regional languages. Adopting the CLIL framework can thus not only improve language learning and proficiency, but also facilitate more regional harmony and foster cross-cultural understanding and appreciation, both aspects playing into the nation building objectives of national policies.

5.4 Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Certain limitations were observed during the course of this study. Firstly, as it was conducted as a part of coursework requirements for a Master's program, the different milestones of the study were time-bound as per the timeline defined by the university administration. Secondly, the bulk of field work, which included selection of schools and participants for the primary research and collection of data, was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic when all schools had been shut down in Pakistan. This affected access to the respondents, and as a result, the sample size had to be reduced considerably to make data collection targets more manageable. In terms of the location, the majority of responses to the survey are from Punjab which may not be indicative of teachers' perceptions towards bilingual education in other provinces.

While conducting research for this study, the author had many opportunities to note the significant dearth of quality research on the state of bilingual education in Pakistan. It is hoped that this study paves way for more focused research on the efficacy and challenges of bilingual education in Pakistan, that can be translated into insights and recommendations for bilingual education at the policy level. This study ought to be replicated on a larger scale, with a more substantial sample size and a more even representation from all the four provinces. In addition to identifying more statistically relevant insights, this will also help in identifying challenges and opportunities related to bilingual education at the provincial level.

The transferability of the study findings could be further strengthened by surveying and interviewing policy experts and other stakeholders involved in the development and formulation of education policies, to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the issues identified here. This type of triangulation of the data could help identify which themes and perceptions resonate within the greater bilingual academic community in the country. Future

research work should also be conducted with focus groups and interviews of teachers and bilingual coordinators, in order to more holistically capture their opinions and feelings about each theme, which cannot be captured by quantitative methods alone.

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Appendix A – Questionnaire

English-Medium Instruction and Bilingual Education in Pakistan

This questionnaire is an essential part of getting to understand the attitudes and experiences of the administrative and the teaching staff in bilingual schools in Pakistan. It should take less than 10 minutes to complete. The information gathered will be used in a research study carried out as part of an inter-university master's degree at the University of Jaén and the University of Córdoba, Spain.

All personally identifiable information, including your gender, affiliation as well as any answers to the questions will be kept strictly confidential and will not be shared with any person or group that is not associated with this study.

Should you have any questions, comments or concerns regarding your participation in this study, please feel free to contact the researcher at ai000011@red.ujaen.es.

Alternatively, this questionnaire can also be filled online at the following link: www.tiny.cc/mieb-pk

Basic Information	
Institute type ☐ Public ☐ Private Grades taught ☐ KG ☐ 1-5 ☐ 6-8 ☐ 9-12 Gender ☐ M ☐ F ☐ Prefer not to say Are you a language coordinator? ☐ Yes ☐ No	Location of Institute: _____ Qualification: ☐ PhD/Ed.D ☐ MA/M.Ed ☐ BA/B.Ed ☐ Other Teaching experience: a) Total experience: _____ years, _____ months b) Bilingual Education: _____ years, _____ months
Type of Teacher: ☐ Content teacher ☐ Language teacher Content subject(s) taught in Second Language: _____ (if applicable) Self-assess your language proficiency: a) Urdu ☐ Beginner ☐ Intermediate ☐ Advanced b) English ☐ Beginner ☐ Intermediate ☐ Advanced	

Please mark the appropriate box with an X to indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the statements below.
 [1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Slightly disagree, 4 = Slightly Agree, 5 = Agree, 6 = Strongly Agree]

Coordination and Organization							
1	Language teachers are better suited to teach in bilingual programs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Content teachers are better suited to teach in bilingual programs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I find it easy to collaborate with other language and/or content teachers on a regular basis.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I get adequate support from my school/college management, including the language coordinator.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	My overall experience teaching in a bilingual program is positive.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Teacher Training and Support							
6	Language teachers do not need any specific training to teach in a bilingual program.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Content teachers do not need any specific training to teach in a bilingual program.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	My institute encourages me to attend Professional Development programs and network with other bilingual teaching professionals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I have been granted a research/study leave to enhance my skill set as a bilingual teacher in the last five years.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Training should be provided to bilingual teachers through the school, the Ministry of Education, or both.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Pedagogy and Classroom Methodologies							
11	I am familiar with and can apply ideas of the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) framework in my teaching practice.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	The methodologies I use in class are predominantly student-centered.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	I am familiar with the approach, design, and procedure of Task-based language teaching (TBLT) or Project-based Learning (PBL).	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	In my lessons, I focus on group work and cooperative learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	I try to employ methodologies and pedagogical practices that promote learner autonomy.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Curriculum, Materials, and Resources							
16	I possess a sound understanding of the principles of developing an integrated curriculum for CLIL and bilingual teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I have access to authentic materials and can adapt them for bilingual teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	I am well equipped with resources to design and develop original materials for bilingual teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	When designing materials, I always consider differentiation and flexibility to meet the different learning styles of my students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	I am confident with my skills regarding the use of multimedia software and online digital resources in my teaching practice.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Assessment and Evaluation							
21	I understand the importance of balance between content and language in integrated assessment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	I consider the national board test scores as more important than the students' learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	I use a language benchmark tool for assessment and evaluation (e.g. ACTFL, CEFR, CLB, or Scale ¹).	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I am familiar with the federal/provincial language policy regarding assessment and evaluation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	My practices are mostly in accordance with the National Skills and Assessment Standards of the Federal Ministry of Education, Pakistan.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Thank you for participating.

¹ Details on the language proficiency scales can be found on their respective links:

ACTFL: <https://www.actfl.org/publications/guidelines-and-manuals/actfl-proficiency-guidelines-2012>

CEFR: <https://www.cambridgeenglish.org/exams-and-tests/cefr/>

CLB: <https://www.language.ca/resources/expertise/on-clb/>

Appendix B – Comparison tables and statistically significant differences

Table 1. Statistically significant differences in terms of ‘Type of Institute’

	Type of Institute	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Z	Sig	r
Q13	Public	19	5.47	0.841	-4.141	0.000	0.558
	Private	36	3.75	1.610			
Q14	Public	19	3.95	1.715	-0.375	0.708	0.051
	Private	36	4.14	1.046			
Q15	Public	19	5.05	0.848	-1.558	0.119	0.210
	Private	36	4.64	0.961			
Q16	Public	19	3.79	1.718	-1.552	0.121	0.209
	Private	36	4.58	1.273			
Q17	Public	19	4.79	0.976	-0.802	0.423	0.108
	Private	36	4.44	1.362			
Q18	Public	19	2.74	1.881	-0.761	0.447	0.103
	Private	36	2.97	1.665			
Q19	Public	19	2.79	1.619	-0.445	0.656	0.060
	Private	36	2.89	1.450			
Q20	Public	19	4.05	1.649	-1.585	0.113	0.214
	Private	36	4.78	1.174			
Q21	Public	19	3.11	2.052	-0.463	0.644	0.062
	Private	36	3.50	1.978			
Q22	Public	19	5.11	1.487	-0.602	0.547	0.081
	Private	36	5.25	0.841			
Q23	Public	19	3.95	1.615	-0.341	0.733	0.046
	Private	36	4.19	1.091			
Q24	Public	19	5.21	0.713	-0.627	0.531	0.085
	Private	36	5.31	0.786			
Q25	Public	19	4.37	1.535	-1.012	0.312	0.136
	Private	36	4.83	1.028			
Q26	Public	19	5.00	1.374	-0.638	0.524	0.086
	Private	36	5.00	0.926			
Q27	Public	19	5.05	1.079	-0.229	0.819	0.031
	Private	36	5.22	0.681			
Q28	Public	19	3.95	1.471	-1.149	0.251	0.155
	Private	36	4.44	1.027			
Q29	Public	19	4.53	1.467	-0.093	0.926	0.012
	Private	36	4.67	1.042			
Q30	Public	19	4.16	1.425	-0.046	0.964	0.006
	Private	36	4.11	1.369			
Q31	Public	19	5.16	1.015	-1.168	0.243	0.157
	Private	36	4.92	0.937			

Q32	Public	19	5.26	0.733	-0.807	0.420	0.109
	Private	36	5.08	0.770			
Q33	Public	19	5.32	0.582	-0.866	0.386	0.117
	Private	36	5.14	0.683			
Q34	Public	19	2.89	1.761	-1.287	0.198	0.174
	Private	36	3.33	1.373			
Q35	Public	19	3.16	1.463	-0.447	0.655	0.060
	Private	36	3.31	1.283			
Q36	Public	19	4.42	1.427	-1.323	0.186	0.178
	Private	36	3.97	1.320			
Q37	Public	19	4.26	1.098	-0.150	0.881	0.020
	Private	36	4.22	1.222			

Table 2. Statistically significant differences in terms of ‘Gender’

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Z	Sig	r
Q13	Male	14	5.07	1.269	-2.221	0.026	0.302
	Female	40	4.05	1.648			
Q14	Male	14	4.07	1.817	-0.244	0.807	0.033
	Female	40	4.08	1.118			
Q15	Male	14	5.14	0.864	-1.765	0.078	0.240
	Female	40	4.65	0.949			
Q16	Male	14	3.64	1.823	-1.499	0.134	0.204
	Female	40	4.58	1.279			
Q17	Male	14	4.93	0.997	-1.342	0.179	0.183
	Female	40	4.43	1.318			
Q18	Male	14	2.57	1.910	-1.241	0.214	0.169
	Female	40	3.05	1.663			
Q19	Male	14	2.71	1.816	-0.972	0.331	0.132
	Female	40	2.95	1.377			
Q20	Male	14	4.00	1.797	-1.297	0.195	0.177
	Female	40	4.75	1.171			
Q21	Male	14	3.43	2.138	-0.202	0.840	0.028
	Female	40	3.40	1.959			
Q22	Male	14	4.79	1.626	-0.658	0.511	0.090
	Female	40	5.33	0.829			
Q23	Male	14	3.79	1.805	-0.514	0.607	0.070
	Female	40	4.28	1.012			
Q24	Male	14	5.29	0.726	-0.064	0.949	0.009
	Female	40	5.25	0.776			
Q25	Male	14	4.50	1.653	-0.145	0.884	0.020
	Female	40	4.78	1.050			
Q26	Male	14	5.21	1.051	-1.087	0.277	0.148
	Female	40	4.90	1.105			
Q27	Male	14	5.07	1.141	-0.160	0.873	0.022
	Female	40	5.18	0.712			
Q28	Male	14	3.93	1.685	-0.631	0.528	0.086
	Female	40	4.40	1.008			
Q29	Male	14	4.64	1.499	-0.611	0.541	0.083
	Female	40	4.65	1.075			
Q30	Male	14	4.43	1.284	-0.755	0.450	0.103
	Female	40	4.05	1.413			
Q31	Male	14	5.14	1.027	-1.017	0.309	0.138
	Female	40	4.93	0.944			
Q32	Male	14	5.43	0.514	-1.630	0.103	0.222
	Female	40	5.03	0.800			
Q33	Male	14	5.29	0.611	-0.617	0.537	0.084

	Female	40	5.15	0.662			
Q34	Male	14	2.64	1.781	-2.074	0.038	0.282
	Female	40	3.43	1.357			
Q35	Male	14	3.14	1.562	-0.570	0.569	0.078
	Female	40	3.35	1.231			
Q36	Male	14	4.86	1.460	-2.776	0.006	0.378
	Female	40	3.85	1.252			
Q37	Male	14	4.43	1.284	-0.814	0.416	0.111
	Female	40	4.15	1.145			

Table 3. Statistically significant differences in terms of 'Type of Teacher'

	Type of Teacher	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Z	Sig	r
Q13	Language Teacher	26	4.15	1.848	-0.529	0.597	0.071
	Content Teacher	29	4.52	1.379			
Q14	Language Teacher	26	3.88	1.211	-1.114	0.265	0.150
	Content Teacher	29	4.24	1.380			
Q15	Language Teacher	26	4.81	0.895	-0.240	0.810	0.032
	Content Teacher	29	4.76	0.988			
Q16	Language Teacher	26	4.85	0.967	-2.196	0.028	0.296
	Content Teacher	29	3.83	1.692			
Q17	Language Teacher	26	4.65	1.468	-1.402	0.161	0.189
	Content Teacher	29	4.48	1.022			
Q18	Language Teacher	26	2.96	1.612	-0.578	0.563	0.078
	Content Teacher	29	2.83	1.853			
Q19	Language Teacher	26	2.85	1.287	-0.424	0.672	0.057
	Content Teacher	29	2.86	1.684			
Q20	Language Teacher	26	4.96	0.871	-1.729	0.084	0.233
	Content Teacher	29	4.14	1.642			
Q21	Language Teacher	26	3.85	1.804	-1.694	0.090	0.228
	Content Teacher	29	2.93	2.086			
Q22	Language Teacher	26	5.54	0.582	-1.572	0.116	0.212
	Content Teacher	29	4.90	1.345			
Q23	Language Teacher	26	4.31	1.225	-1.149	0.251	0.155
	Content Teacher	29	3.93	1.334			
Q24	Language Teacher	26	5.38	0.752	-1.121	0.262	0.151
	Content Teacher	29	5.17	0.759			
Q25	Language Teacher	26	5.00	0.894	-1.627	0.104	0.219
	Content Teacher	29	4.38	1.425			
Q26	Language Teacher	26	5.04	1.148	-0.375	0.708	0.051
	Content Teacher	29	4.97	1.052			
Q27	Language Teacher	26	5.31	0.736	-1.111	0.267	0.150
	Content Teacher	29	5.03	0.906			
Q28	Language Teacher	26	4.42	0.987	-0.450	0.653	0.061
	Content Teacher	29	4.14	1.382			
Q29	Language Teacher	26	4.54	1.174	-0.582	0.561	0.078
	Content Teacher	29	4.69	1.228			
Q30	Language Teacher	26	4.19	1.386	-0.357	0.721	0.048
	Content Teacher	29	4.07	1.387			
Q31	Language Teacher	26	5.19	0.801	-1.221	0.222	0.165
	Content Teacher	29	4.83	1.071			
Q32	Language Teacher	26	5.00	0.800	-1.272	0.204	0.171
	Content Teacher	29	5.28	0.702			
Q33	Language Teacher	26	5.27	0.604	-0.621	0.535	0.084

	Content Teacher	29	5.14	0.693			
Q34	Language Teacher	26	3.31	1.543	-0.561	0.575	0.076
	Content Teacher	29	3.07	1.510			
Q35	Language Teacher	26	3.31	1.289	-0.400	0.690	0.054
	Content Teacher	29	3.21	1.398			
Q36	Language Teacher	26	4.15	1.120	-0.235	0.814	0.032
	Content Teacher	29	4.10	1.566			
Q37	Language Teacher	26	4.38	1.098	-0.992	0.321	0.134
	Content Teacher	29	4.10	1.235			

Table 4. Statistically significant differences in terms of ‘Qualification’

	Qualification	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Chi-Square (χ^2)	Sig	Eta-squared (η^2)
Q13	Doctorate	6	5.00	1.549	2.024	0.364	0.040
	Master's	34	4.44	1.580			
	Bachelor's	12	4.00	1.758			
Q14	Doctorate	6	4.67	1.506	4.341	0.114	0.085
	Master's	34	3.76	1.327			
	Bachelor's	12	4.50	0.905			
Q15	Doctorate	6	5.17	0.753	2.915	0.233	0.057
	Master's	34	4.65	0.950			
	Bachelor's	12	5.08	0.996			
Q16	Doctorate	6	4.17	1.835	3.230	0.199	0.063
	Master's	34	4.00	1.557			
	Bachelor's	12	5.00	0.853			
Q17	Doctorate	6	4.83	0.753	2.061	0.357	0.040
	Master's	34	4.41	1.373			
	Bachelor's	12	5.08	0.793			
Q18	Doctorate	6	2.17	1.602	2.280	0.320	0.045
	Master's	34	2.88	1.855			
	Bachelor's	12	3.17	1.337			
Q19	Doctorate	6	2.33	1.033	1.602	0.449	0.031
	Master's	34	2.74	1.563			
	Bachelor's	12	3.08	1.240			
Q20	Doctorate	6	4.83	1.602	5.703	0.058	0.112
	Master's	34	4.32	1.224			
	Bachelor's	12	5.08	1.379			
Q21	Doctorate	6	3.67	2.251	3.697	0.157	0.072
	Master's	34	3.03	1.962			
	Bachelor's	12	4.25	1.913			
Q22	Doctorate	6	6.00	0.000	6.172	0.046	0.121
	Master's	34	5.00	1.206			
	Bachelor's	12	5.33	0.888			
Q23	Doctorate	6	5.33	0.816	8.137	0.017	0.160
	Master's	34	3.82	1.336			
	Bachelor's	12	4.42	1.084			
Q24	Doctorate	6	5.17	0.753	0.213	0.899	0.004
	Master's	34	5.29	0.719			
	Bachelor's	12	5.17	0.937			
Q25	Doctorate	6	5.33	0.516	6.249	0.044	0.123
	Master's	34	4.35	1.390			
	Bachelor's	12	5.25	0.754			
Q26	Doctorate	6	4.50	1.871	1.955	0.376	0.038
	Master's	34	5.24	0.890			

Q27	Bachelor's	12	4.83	1.115	0.508	0.776	0.010
	Doctorate	6	5.00	0.894			
	Master's	34	5.21	0.880			
	Bachelor's	12	5.25	0.754			
Q28	Doctorate	6	4.83	0.983	2.064	0.356	0.040
	Master's	34	4.18	1.242			
	Bachelor's	12	4.50	1.087			
Q29	Doctorate	6	3.83	2.041	0.791	0.673	0.016
	Master's	34	4.71	0.906			
	Bachelor's	12	4.67	1.435			
Q30	Doctorate	6	4.00	1.673	0.158	0.924	0.003
	Master's	34	4.26	1.263			
	Bachelor's	12	4.08	1.505			
Q31	Doctorate	6	5.17	1.169	0.462	0.794	0.009
	Master's	34	5.00	1.015			
	Bachelor's	12	5.00	0.853			
Q32	Doctorate	6	5.67	0.516	4.296	0.117	0.084
	Master's	34	5.18	0.626			
	Bachelor's	12	4.83	1.030			
Q33	Doctorate	6	5.50	0.548	1.726	0.422	0.034
	Master's	34	5.29	0.462			
	Bachelor's	12	5.00	0.953			
Q34	Doctorate	6	2.67	1.862	1.852	0.396	0.036
	Master's	34	3.09	1.422			
	Bachelor's	12	3.67	1.670			
Q35	Doctorate	6	3.17	0.753	0.599	0.741	0.012
	Master's	34	3.32	1.387			
	Bachelor's	12	3.50	1.314			
Q36	Doctorate	6	4.33	1.366	0.162	0.922	0.003
	Master's	34	4.15	1.480			
	Bachelor's	12	4.25	1.055			
Q37	Doctorate	6	4.50	0.548	0.315	0.854	0.006
	Master's	34	4.29	1.268			
	Bachelor's	12	4.25	1.055			

Question	Qualification	Doctorate	Master's	Bachelor's
22	Doctorate (PhD/Ed.D)		0.013	0.074
	Master's (MA/M.Ed)	0.013		0.444
	Bachelor's (BA/B.Ed)	0.074	0.444	
23	Doctorate (PhD/Ed.D)		0.008	0.074
	Master's (MA/M.Ed)	0.008		0.186
	Bachelor's (BA/B.Ed)	0.074	0.186	

25	Doctorate (PhD/Ed.D)		0.076	0.917
	Master's (MA/M.Ed)	0.076		0.040
	Bachelor's (BA/B.Ed)	0.917	0.040	

Table 5. Statistically significant differences in terms of ‘Administrative role: Language Coordinator’

Are you a language coordinator?		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Z	Sig	r
Q13	Yes	10	5.20	1.033	-1.885	0.059	0.254
	No	45	4.16	1.665			
Q14	Yes	10	4.00	1.491	-0.045	0.964	0.006
	No	45	4.09	1.276			
Q15	Yes	10	5.20	0.632	-1.519	0.129	0.205
	No	45	4.69	0.973			
Q16	Yes	10	4.80	1.317	-1.144	0.253	0.154
	No	45	4.20	1.502			
Q17	Yes	10	5.00	0.667	-1.023	0.306	0.138
	No	45	4.47	1.325			
Q18	Yes	10	2.30	1.252	-1.005	0.315	0.135
	No	45	3.02	1.803			
Q19	Yes	10	2.00	0.667	-1.970	0.049	0.266
	No	45	3.04	1.566			
Q20	Yes	10	4.90	1.287	-1.011	0.312	0.136
	No	45	4.44	1.407			
Q21	Yes	10	4.10	1.853	-1.365	0.172	0.184
	No	45	3.20	2.007			
Q22	Yes	10	5.50	0.527	-0.479	0.632	0.065
	No	45	5.13	1.179			
Q23	Yes	10	4.70	0.823	-1.589	0.112	0.214
	No	45	3.98	1.340			
Q24	Yes	10	5.40	0.843	-0.737	0.461	0.099
	No	45	5.24	0.743			
Q25	Yes	10	4.90	0.876	-0.446	0.655	0.060
	No	45	4.62	1.302			
Q26	Yes	10	4.90	0.738	-0.902	0.367	0.122
	No	45	5.02	1.158			
Q27	Yes	10	5.20	0.789	-0.047	0.962	0.006
	No	45	5.16	0.852			
Q28	Yes	10	4.70	0.823	-1.199	0.230	0.162
	No	45	4.18	1.267			
Q29	Yes	10	3.80	1.476	-2.054	0.040	0.277
	No	45	4.80	1.057			
Q30	Yes	10	3.70	1.703	-0.979	0.327	0.132
	No	45	4.22	1.295			
Q31	Yes	10	5.10	0.738	-0.059	0.953	0.008
	No	45	4.98	1.011			
Q32	Yes	10	4.80	0.919	-1.362	0.173	0.184

	No	45	5.22	0.704			
Q33	Yes	10	5.10	0.568	-0.716	0.474	0.097
	No	45	5.22	0.670			
Q34	Yes	10	3.00	1.054	-0.212	0.832	0.029
	No	45	3.22	1.608			
Q35	Yes	10	3.20	1.229	-0.180	0.857	0.024
	No	45	3.27	1.372			
Q36	Yes	10	4.90	0.876	-2.126	0.034	0.287
	No	45	3.96	1.397			
Q37	Yes	10	4.70	0.823	-1.330	0.183	0.179
	No	45	4.13	1.217			

Table 6. Statistically significant differences in terms of ‘Language Proficiency in Urdu’

Language Proficiency in Urdu (Self-assessed)		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Chi-Square (χ^2)	Sig	Eta-squared (η^2)
Q13	Basic	4	5.50	0.577	2.356	0.308	0.044
	Intermediate	37	4.22	1.718			
	Advanced	14	4.36	1.447			
Q14	Basic	4	4.50	1.291	0.448	0.799	0.008
	Intermediate	37	4.00	1.434			
	Advanced	14	4.14	0.949			
Q15	Basic	4	5.00	0.816	1.877	0.391	0.035
	Intermediate	37	4.65	1.033			
	Advanced	14	5.07	0.616			
Q16	Basic	4	4.25	1.500	0.013	0.993	0.000
	Intermediate	37	4.30	1.525			
	Advanced	14	4.36	1.447			
Q17	Basic	4	4.75	0.500	2.746	0.253	0.051
	Intermediate	37	4.35	1.399			
	Advanced	14	5.07	0.730			
Q18	Basic	4	2.75	1.708	6.419	0.040	0.119
	Intermediate	37	3.24	1.739			
	Advanced	14	2.00	1.468			
Q19	Basic	4	2.25	0.500	10.638	0.005	0.197
	Intermediate	37	3.30	1.525			
	Advanced	14	1.86	1.027			
Q20	Basic	4	3.75	2.062	0.723	0.697	0.013
	Intermediate	37	4.51	1.446			
	Advanced	14	4.79	0.975			
Q21	Basic	4	2.50	1.732	2.235	0.327	0.041
	Intermediate	37	3.68	1.973			
	Advanced	14	2.79	2.045			
Q22	Basic	4	5.00	2.000	0.900	0.638	0.017
	Intermediate	37	5.16	1.041			
	Advanced	14	5.36	1.008			
Q23	Basic	4	5.00	0.816	3.497	0.174	0.065
	Intermediate	37	3.95	1.246			
	Advanced	14	4.29	1.437			
Q24	Basic	4	5.50	0.577	0.342	0.843	0.006
	Intermediate	37	5.24	0.760			
	Advanced	14	5.29	0.825			
Q25	Basic	4	4.25	0.500	1.954	0.376	0.036
	Intermediate	37	4.68	1.375			
	Advanced	14	4.79	0.975			
Q26	Basic	4	5.00	1.414	1.315	0.518	0.024
	Intermediate	37	5.11	0.994			

	Advanced	14	4.71	1.267			
Q27	Basic	4	4.50	1.732	0.715	0.699	0.013
	Intermediate	37	5.24	0.723			
	Advanced	14	5.14	0.770			
Q28	Basic	4	4.00	0.816	0.809	0.667	0.015
	Intermediate	37	4.22	1.336			
	Advanced	14	4.50	0.941			
Q29	Basic	4	3.25	1.500	4.769	0.092	0.088
	Intermediate	37	4.81	1.076			
	Advanced	14	4.50	1.225			
Q30	Basic	4	3.75	1.258	1.072	0.585	0.020
	Intermediate	37	4.22	1.436			
	Advanced	14	4.00	1.301			
Q31	Basic	4	5.00	1.414	0.207	0.902	0.004
	Intermediate	37	5.05	0.848			
	Advanced	14	4.86	1.167			
Q32	Basic	4	4.75	0.957	3.279	0.194	0.061
	Intermediate	37	5.08	0.759			
	Advanced	14	5.43	0.646			
Q33	Basic	4	5.50	0.577	2.120	0.347	0.039
	Intermediate	37	5.11	0.699			
	Advanced	14	5.36	0.497			
Q34	Basic	4	2.50	0.577	6.122	0.047	0.113
	Intermediate	37	3.51	1.557			
	Advanced	14	2.50	1.345			
Q35	Basic	4	3.25	0.500	0.533	0.766	0.010
	Intermediate	37	3.32	1.415			
	Advanced	14	3.07	1.328			
Q36	Basic	4	3.75	1.708	0.594	0.743	0.011
	Intermediate	37	4.22	1.294			
	Advanced	14	4.00	1.519			
Q37	Basic	4	3.00	1.155	4.852	0.088	0.090
	Intermediate	37	4.35	1.006			
	Advanced	14	4.29	1.437			

Question	Language	Basic	Intermediate	Advanced
18	Basic		0.591	0.311
	Intermediate	0.591		0.012
	Advanced	0.311	0.012	
19	Basic		0.167	0.313
	Intermediate	0.167		0.002
	Advanced	0.313	0.002	
34	Basic		0.164	0.558
	Intermediate	0.164		0.026

Advanced	0.558	0.026
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Table 7. Statistically significant differences in terms of 'Language Proficiency in English'

Language Proficiency in English		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Chi-Square	Sig	Eta-squared
Q13	Basic	9	4.89	1.616	1.742	0.418	0.032
	Intermediate	27	4.30	1.636			
	Advanced	19	4.16	1.608			
Q14	Basic	9	4.00	1.732	0.768	0.681	0.014
	Intermediate	27	4.22	1.281			
	Advanced	19	3.89	1.150			
Q15	Basic	9	4.89	0.782	2.393	0.302	0.044
	Intermediate	27	4.59	0.971			
	Advanced	19	5.00	0.943			
Q16	Basic	9	4.00	1.500	1.846	0.397	0.034
	Intermediate	27	4.07	1.685			
	Advanced	19	4.79	1.032			
Q17	Basic	9	4.44	1.130	3.122	0.210	0.058
	Intermediate	27	4.30	1.436			
	Advanced	19	5.00	0.882			
Q18	Basic	9	4.11	2.088	3.939	0.140	0.073
	Intermediate	27	2.63	1.573			
	Advanced	19	2.68	1.600			
Q19	Basic	9	3.56	1.878	1.413	0.493	0.026
	Intermediate	27	2.78	1.450			
	Advanced	19	2.63	1.342			
Q20	Basic	9	4.44	2.007	0.988	0.610	0.018
	Intermediate	27	4.37	1.391			
	Advanced	19	4.79	1.032			
Q21	Basic	9	3.56	2.242	0.208	0.901	0.004
	Intermediate	27	3.26	1.913			
	Advanced	19	3.42	2.090			
Q22	Basic	9	4.44	1.878	1.941	0.379	0.036
	Intermediate	27	5.26	0.859			
	Advanced	19	5.47	0.772			
Q23	Basic	9	3.56	1.740	0.917	0.632	0.017
	Intermediate	27	4.22	1.013			
	Advanced	19	4.21	1.398			
Q24	Basic	9	5.33	0.500	0.347	0.841	0.006
	Intermediate	27	5.19	0.879			
	Advanced	19	5.37	0.684			
Q25	Basic	9	4.00	1.803	1.611	0.447	0.030
	Intermediate	27	4.74	1.163			
	Advanced	19	4.89	0.937			
Q26	Basic	9	5.22	0.972	1.519	0.468	0.028
	Intermediate	27	5.11	0.974			

	Advanced	19	4.74	1.284			
Q27	Basic	9	4.89	1.167	0.638	0.727	0.012
	Intermediate	27	5.26	0.764			
	Advanced	19	5.16	0.765			
Q28	Basic	9	4.00	1.871	0.124	0.940	0.002
	Intermediate	27	4.37	1.043			
	Advanced	19	4.26	1.098			
Q29	Basic	9	5.22	0.667	2.596	0.273	0.048
	Intermediate	27	4.44	1.311			
	Advanced	19	4.58	1.170			
Q30	Basic	9	4.78	1.202	3.325	0.190	0.062
	Intermediate	27	3.89	1.340			
	Advanced	19	4.16	1.463			
Q31	Basic	9	5.11	1.054	1.464	0.481	0.027
	Intermediate	27	4.85	0.989			
	Advanced	19	5.16	0.898			
Q32	Basic	9	5.11	0.333	0.398	0.820	0.007
	Intermediate	27	5.15	0.662			
	Advanced	19	5.16	1.015			
Q33	Basic	9	5.22	0.441	1.049	0.592	0.019
	Intermediate	27	5.11	0.698			
	Advanced	19	5.32	0.671			
Q34	Basic	9	3.44	1.944	0.648	0.723	0.012
	Intermediate	27	3.26	1.534			
	Advanced	19	2.95	1.311			
Q35	Basic	9	3.67	1.323	3.863	0.145	0.072
	Intermediate	27	3.44	1.340			
	Advanced	19	2.79	1.273			
Q36	Basic	9	4.56	1.590	1.725	0.422	0.032
	Intermediate	27	4.00	1.414			
	Advanced	19	4.11	1.197			
Q37	Basic	9	4.22	1.202	0.064	0.968	0.001
	Intermediate	27	4.15	1.322			
	Advanced	19	4.37	0.955			

Table 8. Statistically significant differences in terms of ‘Total Teaching Experience’

Total Teaching Experience		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Chi-Square	Sig	Eta-squared
Q13	Less than 5	21	3.76	1.895	1.742	0.418	0.096
	Between 5 and	12	4.17	1.586			
	More than 10	22	5.00	1.069			
Q14	Less than 5	21	4.10	1.179	0.768	0.681	0.021
	Between 5 and	12	3.75	1.215			
	More than 10	22	4.23	1.478			
Q15	Less than 5	21	4.67	1.065	2.393	0.302	0.037
	Between 5 and	12	4.58	0.793			
	More than 10	22	5.00	0.873			
Q16	Less than 5	21	4.52	1.209	1.846	0.397	0.122
	Between 5 and	12	3.50	1.446			
	More than 10	22	4.55	1.625			
Q17	Less than 5	21	4.05	1.627	3.122	0.210	0.102
	Between 5 and	12	4.58	0.900			
	More than 10	22	5.05	0.722			
Q18	Less than 5	21	3.24	1.578	3.939	0.140	0.059
	Between 5 and	12	2.25	1.422			
	More than 10	22	2.91	1.974			
Q19	Less than 5	21	3.38	1.499	1.413	0.493	0.114
	Between 5 and	12	2.08	0.900			
	More than 10	22	2.77	1.602			
Q20	Less than 5	21	4.24	1.758	0.988	0.610	0.102
	Between 5 and	12	4.08	1.084			
	More than 10	22	5.05	0.950			
Q21	Less than 5	21	3.14	2.032	0.208	0.901	0.040
	Between 5 and	12	2.92	2.109			
	More than 10	22	3.82	1.893			
Q22	Less than 5	21	4.86	1.195	1.941	0.379	0.088
	Between 5 and	12	5.42	0.793			
	More than 10	22	5.41	1.098			
Q23	Less than 5	21	3.71	1.419	0.917	0.632	0.138
	Between 5 and	12	3.67	1.435			
	More than 10	22	4.73	0.767			
Q24	Less than 5	21	5.52	0.814	0.347	0.841	0.133
	Between 5 and	12	4.92	0.669			
	More than 10	22	5.23	0.685			
Q25	Less than 5	21	4.71	1.521	1.611	0.447	0.046
	Between 5 and	12	4.17	1.267			
	More than 10	22	4.91	0.811			
Q26	Less than 5	21	5.19	1.030	1.519	0.468	0.026
	Between 5 and	12	4.92	0.900			

	More than 10	22	4.86	1.246			
Q27	Less than 5	21	5.33	0.730	0.638	0.727	0.050
	Between 5 and	12	4.92	0.669			
	More than 10	22	5.14	0.990			
Q28	Less than 5	21	4.24	1.411	0.124	0.940	0.005
	Between 5 and	12	4.17	1.030			
	More than 10	22	4.36	1.136			
Q29	Less than 5	21	4.86	1.236	2.596	0.273	0.062
	Between 5 and	12	4.17	1.193			
	More than 10	22	4.64	1.136			
Q30	Less than 5	21	4.48	1.436	3.325	0.190	0.070
	Between 5 and	12	3.67	1.155			
	More than 10	22	4.05	1.397			
Q31	Less than 5	21	5.29	0.784	1.464	0.481	0.065
	Between 5 and	12	4.75	0.866			
	More than 10	22	4.86	1.125			
Q32	Less than 5	21	5.14	0.793	0.398	0.820	0.000
	Between 5 and	12	5.17	0.577			
	More than 10	22	5.14	0.834			
Q33	Less than 5	21	5.10	0.768	1.049	0.592	0.010
	Between 5 and	12	5.25	0.452			
	More than 10	22	5.27	0.631			
Q34	Less than 5	21	3.43	1.660	0.648	0.723	0.030
	Between 5 and	12	3.25	1.215			
	More than 10	22	2.91	1.540			
Q35	Less than 5	21	3.10	1.338	3.863	0.145	0.017
	Between 5 and	12	3.08	1.564			
	More than 10	22	3.50	1.225			
Q36	Less than 5	21	4.43	1.028	1.725	0.422	0.014
	Between 5 and	12	3.75	1.865			
	More than 10	22	4.05	1.327			
Q37	Less than 5	21	4.24	0.995	0.064	0.968	0.011
	Between 5 and	12	4.00	1.477			
	More than 10	22	4.36	1.177			

Table 9. Statistically significant differences in terms of ‘Teaching Experience in Bilingual Program’

Teaching Experience in Bilingual Program		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Chi-Square	Sig	Eta-squared
Q13	Less than 5 years	23	4.52	1.563	6.587	0.037	0.122
	Between 5 and 10	13	3.23	1.878			
	More than 10 years	19	4.89	1.100			
Q14	Less than 5 years	23	4.00	1.243	0.301	0.860	0.006
	Between 5 and 10	13	4.08	1.038			
	More than 10 years	19	4.16	1.573			
Q15	Less than 5 years	23	4.96	0.825	6.851	0.033	0.127
	Between 5 and 10	13	4.15	0.987			
	More than 10 years	19	5.00	0.882			
Q16	Less than 5 years	23	4.17	1.435	2.250	0.325	0.042
	Between 5 and 10	13	4.15	1.405			
	More than 10 years	19	4.58	1.610			
Q17	Less than 5 years	23	4.57	0.992	3.550	0.170	0.066
	Between 5 and 10	13	3.92	1.891			
	More than 10 years	19	5.00	0.745			
Q18	Less than 5 years	23	2.91	1.676	0.069	0.966	0.001
	Between 5 and 10	13	2.85	1.625			
	More than 10 years	19	2.89	1.941			
Q19	Less than 5 years	23	3.00	1.567	0.690	0.708	0.013
	Between 5 and 10	13	2.92	1.498			
	More than 10 years	19	2.63	1.461			
Q20	Less than 5 years	23	4.17	1.723	1.969	0.374	0.036
	Between 5 and 10	13	4.54	1.127			
	More than 10 years	19	4.95	0.970			
Q21	Less than 5 years	23	3.00	2.153	1.380	0.502	0.026
	Between 5 and 10	13	3.46	2.025			
	More than 10 years	19	3.74	1.790			
Q22	Less than 5 years	23	4.74	1.251	7.467	0.024	0.138
	Between 5 and 10	13	5.62	0.506			
	More than 10 years	19	5.47	1.020			
Q23	Less than 5 years	23	3.96	1.364	5.851	0.054	0.108
	Between 5 and 10	13	3.54	1.506			
	More than 10 years	19	4.68	0.749			
Q24	Less than 5 years	23	5.22	0.902	0.749	0.688	0.014
	Between 5 and 10	13	5.46	0.519			
	More than 10 years	19	5.21	0.713			
Q25	Less than 5 years	23	4.35	1.555	2.735	0.255	0.051
	Between 5 and 10	13	5.08	1.038			
	More than 10 years	19	4.79	0.787			
Q26	Less than 5 years	23	5.04	0.976	0.192	0.908	0.004
	Between 5 and 10	13	4.92	1.498			

	More than 10 years	19	5.00	0.943			
Q27	Less than 5 years	23	5.13	0.757	0.492	0.782	0.009
	Between 5 and 10	13	5.31	0.751			
	More than 10 years	19	5.11	0.994			
Q28	Less than 5 years	23	4.17	1.370	1.188	0.552	0.022
	Between 5 and 10	13	4.54	1.050			
	More than 10 years	19	4.21	1.134			
Q29	Less than 5 years	23	4.78	1.278	1.390	0.499	0.026
	Between 5 and 10	13	4.46	1.198			
	More than 10 years	19	4.53	1.124			
Q30	Less than 5 years	23	4.13	1.546	0.400	0.819	0.007
	Between 5 and 10	13	4.31	1.182			
	More than 10 years	19	4.00	1.333			
Q31	Less than 5 years	23	5.04	1.065	0.606	0.739	0.011
	Between 5 and 10	13	5.08	0.862			
	More than 10 years	19	4.89	0.937			
Q32	Less than 5 years	23	5.04	0.825	0.823	0.663	0.015
	Between 5 and 10	13	5.31	0.480			
	More than 10 years	19	5.16	0.834			
Q33	Less than 5 years	23	5.13	0.757	0.292	0.864	0.005
	Between 5 and 10	13	5.31	0.480			
	More than 10 years	19	5.21	0.631			
Q34	Less than 5 years	23	3.22	1.622	2.399	0.301	0.044
	Between 5 and 10	13	3.62	1.387			
	More than 10 years	19	2.84	1.463			
Q35	Less than 5 years	23	2.96	1.492	1.536	0.464	0.028
	Between 5 and 10	13	3.46	1.050			
	More than 10 years	19	3.47	1.307			
Q36	Less than 5 years	23	4.30	1.146	0.605	0.739	0.011
	Between 5 and 10	13	3.77	1.739			
	More than 10 years	19	4.16	1.344			
Q37	Less than 5 years	23	4.04	1.065	2.251	0.324	0.042
	Between 5 and 10	13	4.23	1.423			
	More than 10 years	19	4.47	1.124			

Question	Teaching Experience in Bilingual Program	Less than 5 years	Between 5 and 10 years	More than 10 years
13	Less than 5 years		0.045	0.599
	Between 5 and 10 years	0.045		0.012
	More than 10 years	0.599	0.012	
15	Less than 5 years		0.019	0.829
	Between 5 and 10 years	0.019		0.021
	More than 10 years	0.829	0.021	
22	Less than 5 years		0.028	0.023

Between 5 and 10 years	0.028	0.872
More than 10 years	0.023	0.872