An Investigation of the Questioning Behaviour of Teachers of Literature in the Classroom

by

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I, Sylvia Joyce Mudenda, do hereby solemnly declare that this dissertation represents my own work and that it has not previously been submitted for a degree at this or another university.

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APPROVAL

This dissertation of SYLVIA JOYCE MUDENDA is approved as fulfilling part of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Education by the University of Zambia.

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ABSTRACT

The dissertation reports an investigation of the type of questions and pattern of questioning used by the Grade Eleven "Literature in English" teacher in Zambia. The marked difficulty in using higher level cognitive skills in answering the questions on the Grade Twelve school-leaving examination in this subject, as noted by chief examiners over a period of years, was the starting point for the study. The researcher wanted to find out if the problem originated in the classroom, hypothesizing that the questions asked orally and in homework assignments by the teacher might call for the use of lower level cognitive skills, such as memory, rather than the more productive higher level skills of convergency, divergency and evaluation.

Eighteen graduate teachers of Grade Eleven (from a total population of thirty) in fourteen government and aided secondary schools in Central, Western and Southern Provinces were observed, the field-work covering the third school term of 1976. Each teacher was observed for two class sessions, one unstructured and the other being a class discussion on the characters in the text under study. Audio-recording, an interaction schedule and a general description schedule were used to record classroom data, and teacher characteristics, opinions and attitude toward the text being taught were ascertained by

means of researcher-administered questionnaires and an attitude scale.

The results were analyzed in terms of the total sample and the individual teachers, and possible covariations between, on the one hand, the percentage of higher level questions asked (high-level question score) and, on the other hand, the teacher variables of sex, education, experience in teaching literature or attitude toward the text were examined. In addition, the relationship between the high-level score and the time spent on the text, or the text itself, was investigated. Descriptive data concerning other aspects of teacher questioning behaviour in general were also evaluated.

Analysis of data established that the sample population asked more lower level cognitive questions than higher level ones, the lowest percentages being in the areas of divergent and evaluative questions. No clear pattern of teacher questioning was established nor was there any significant covariation between the high-level question scores of the teacher and the teacher variables of sex, education or experience, or the time spent on the text. However, the small number of teachers with many years of experience made this result inconclusive. When the average high-level scores and the average attitude scores for each text were correlated, a relationship of some kind was suggested, but not strongly enough to prove significant.

In the conclusion, the need for replication of this research on a larger and wider scale, implications and questions arising from the findings and some interim measures are discussed.

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Initial guidance from Professor Waddimba, help with resource material from Ms. Lawrence, and guidance and inspiration from Professor Kotelawala enabled me to organize my ideas and begin planning. The cooperation of the headmasters and headmistresses, teachers and students of Kabulonga Girls, Kabulonga Boys, Munali and Roma Secondary Schools in Lusaka, and of Dambwa Secondary School in Livingstone further enabled me to test the research instruments and establish their final forms.

The success of the field work can be ascribed to the gracious assistance rendered by the headmasters and headmistresses of the fourteen schools visited, and the willingness with which the eighteen teachers in the study opened their classrooms to observation and also cooperated by enthusiastically responding to the interviews and attitude measurement. In addition, I appreciated the opportunity to see something of the wide variety of school situations in Zambia and to interact, after observation and interviews were completed, with students and teachers.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Problem

The use of questions in teaching can be traced back as far as Socrates, who stimulated the natural motivation of his students with skilfully-leading questions in order to guide them to discover truths for themselves (Brown, 1975). Research has shown that carefully planned higher level teacher questions, those calling for convergent, divergent or evaluative thinking, serve to dig out ideas, stimulate discussion and focus student thinking (Lucking, 1976; Wright et al., 1970 in Brown and Edmondson, 1984; Borg et al., 1970). Stubbs (1976), in his discussion of the unseen curriculum, warned that the use by teachers of more questions demanding fact than questions demanding reasoning gives the students the impression that knowledge of facts is more important than the development and use of reasoning abilities.

In Zambia, it is incumbent upon the teacher of the course "Literature in English" to ask questions which provoke high-level thinking, as well as those involving memory, as he or she is teaching a second language literature. Moody (1982) pointed out that most Zambians do not read or learn about literature in their first language and so have no experience with the skills necessary for reading effectively,

and that most Zambians read only for specific functional purposes, not for pleasure. In view of this situation, the teacher must be prepared to use the students' experiences and, by skilful questioning, arouse interest in the material under study, opening the way to productive thinking about the text and its relationship to life in general. After all, literature is not 'a body of knowledge; it is a method of handling and presenting knowledge' (Montague and Henshaw, 1966: 2) and the study of literature, aside from providing pleasure and enlightenment, also prepares the student for dealing with the problems of life itself. The language in action is also a source of learning for the second language Zambian student. These are some of the concerns which went into the preparation of the "Literature in English" course.

"Literature in English" is a course at the senior secondary level, extending for the full three year period. It is an optional subject in some schools, a required one in others and is not offered at all in still others. The first year is supposed to comprise a general introduction to all forms of literature, guiding the student to see the relationship of literature to ordinary language usage and its significance in the cultural context, as well as teaching literary terms and concepts. Having only been introduced in January 1985 when Zambia changed from a two year to a three year senior secondary format, the first year course is described in a provisional syllabus.

The second and third years are usually devoted to the set texts, although the syllabus advises that they be started

in the second term of Grade Eleven. In Section A of the set book list, that section which is covered by one context and one essay question on the examination, the teacher must select one play (from three) and one novel (from three) for detailed study. Three different texts (out of seven), for more general study, are selected from Section B, which is examined by essay questions. In all, the students go through five texts in preparation for the school-leaving examination. The course is presently under review.

The Interim English Syllabus Supplement (Ministry of General Education and Culture, 1984: 3), the latest guide on literature teaching sent out by the Ministry, gives the purpose of the literature course in a series of general objectives:

1. To introduce pupils to the activity of discussing ideas in books and the implications of these ideas;
2. To study literature as a vivid expression of human problems;
3. To make literature relevant to the circumstances and needs of today; and
4. To inculcate deepening enthusiasm and the beginning of a critical approach.

The teacher, then, is to encourage a cognitive as well as an affective approach to literature. It is expected that this will be easier seeing that reading skills are to have been taught in intensive reading lessons in Grades Eight through Ten (The supplement was written before the change-over to three years of senior secondary.) and so pupils will have got used to answering interpretive questions about short texts.

Although the syllabus acknowledges that there is no set approach due to the differences in texts, students and teachers, several suggestions pertinent to this study were made. Firstly, the teacher is to assure the students that the examiners have no set answers for the questions on the examination. They only expect that a student will support his/her answer with evidence from the text. Secondly, the emphasis should be on discussion prompted by questions on what has been read so that pupils see that the work must be interpreted. Finally, the teacher may guide the pupils' thinking by carefully structured questions but must not do summaries or provide notes for the students. In other words, they should be led to make discoveries for themselves. This last is facilitated when the teacher has familiarized himself or herself thoroughly with the material and can then frame questions which encourage the pupil to explore the significant aspects of the text.

Armed with these guidelines, the teacher remains with one major problem in conducting the course. Chileshe pointed out in 1983 that scarcity of resources - that is, textbooks and adjuncts such as newspapers, magazines and government documents and reports - was making the teaching of English very difficult. The situation has not improved since then; in some classrooms, one may find as many as five pupils sharing one text.

1.2 The Problem

The chief examiner's reports (Chief Examiner, 1984; 1981; 1979; 1978; 1975) on the performance of Zambian candidates in the "Literature in English" paper of the Cambridge Overseas School Certificate Examination have consistently highlighted one problem. In the 1975 report, the examiner wrote about 'massive accounts of plots of the play or novel which are generally quite irrelevant and indicate an inability to interpret a question correctly'. The 1979 examiner wrote 'what was written was not relevant'; the examiner for 1978 asserted that the pupils 'did not always see clearly what the question demanded of them'. The 1981 and 1984 examiners bluntly declared that some pupil answers showed evidence of answers to past questions or memorization of teacher notes, and strongly advised that pupils be encouraged to study and analyze the questions carefully before attempting them. From these reports, one concludes that for some reason, many pupils had shown a failure to use the higher cognitive skills of, at the least, interpretation and analysis, and possibly synthesis and evaluation as well.

The 1981 examiner attributed this failure to a lack of sufficient time in which to both think about and answer the questions. However, when students were given an additional fifteen minutes reading time on the examination, the problem persisted. Mwape (1984: 57) also advanced this explanation but in addition said that the examination was 'primarily directed at testing lowlevel educational skills' such as

memory, and that both teachers and students approach the subject as a content subject.

The problem, then, is that a large number of students have not demonstrated the higher level cognitive skills necessary to answer examination questions well. The use of memory, or recall, presents no difficulty. But productive thinking, which in Guilford's theoretical model (1956) comprises convergent, divergent and evaluative operations, is not as easily employed. In the study to be reported here, convergent thinking is defined as being characterized by the rearrangement or use of facts, or the analysis of a character or situation, in order to come to a limited number of valid solutions. Divergent thinking, in contrast, results in any number of correct answers. It begins with widespread mental activity on the part of the pupil in which he makes predictions or generalizations or produces images and ideas, resulting in an answer which demonstrates a unique and original interpretation of the facts. Evaluative thinking, as defined for the study, is demonstrated by the pupil's expression of a judgment of the merit or value of something - characters, actions, ideas, or solutions present in the text - based upon some relevant criteria.

The objectives of the literature course as outlined in the interim syllabus can be realized only through the use of all levels of cognitive activity. The various techniques suggested by the syllabus are also conducive to student cognitive growth. What, then, is the source of the problem? Although the emphasis of the examination questions (as Mwape implied) could be at fault, one must first look into the

classroom and find out whether the teacher is asking predominantly low-level type questions.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

Examinations are set for the purpose of evaluating the pupils' classroom learning. Therefore an investigation of poor higher level cognitive performance on the examination must begin with research into the setting of cognitive tasks in the classroom. The purpose of this study was to examine the questions, both oral and homework, asked by the teacher, and to determine which levels of thinking were to be stimulated by the questions. The choice of questions reflecting various levels of thought, and the use of these in the classroom was termed the "questioning behaviour" of the teacher.

A general hypothesis was generated by the problem set forth above:

> The class and homework questions asked by the "Literature in English" teacher call for the use of low-level more than high-level, or productive, cognitive skills.

In order to confirm or reject this hypothesis, and to try to pinpoint influences behind the teachers' behaviour, five objectives for the study were identified.

The first of the five objectives was to find out what types of cognitive questions teachers ask. An emphasis on yes/no or memory-type questions would indicate more interest in testing factual knowledge, whereas a greater use of convergent, divergent or evaluative-type questions might imply an interest in involving the pupils more deeply in thinking

about the text and its implications for their lives, which is indeed what the course is designed for.

The other objectives served to clarify this inference, to find out if other factors or variables seem to have a bearing on the teachers' behaviour. Of primary importance was the second one, to find out what the teachers saw as the purpose of literature study for their pupils, and whether their views corresponded with those aims set out or implied in the syllabus.

The third objective was to find out whether teacher variables such as sex, teacher training or literature teaching experience were related to the percentage of high-level questions the teacher asked. Several naive assumptions made this necessary. It is thought that male and female approaches to most situations vary. It is believed that there is a great difference in the training of Zambian graduate teachers and of expatriate graduate teachers in general which shows in performance. It is also suspected that the study of literature content courses, and the taking of one English method's course or two may make a difference in the performance of the teacher. Finally, there is the old belief in longer experience making a better teacher.

Objective four was to look at text-oriented variables - the teacher's attitude towards the text, the text itself, the time spent on the text and the teaching technique - in relation to the percentage of high-level questions asked by the teacher. Again, if the teachers varied widely in the percentage of high-level questions they used, some of these

variables might have been responsible. More interest in the text on the part of the teacher might inspire a greater desire to involve pupil thinking and so a greater proportion of high-level questions. Perhaps the text lent itself to a particular level of thinking. The time already spent on the text, or the particular technique used on the day of observation could possibly dictate a specific kind of question.

The final objective was to determine the average level of thinking demanded by the questions, as a whole and per text, in the "Literature in English" school-leaving examination papers (1981-1985). The examination can actually be a more powerful force than the syllabus in determining what the teacher does in the classroom. A predominanc of low-level type questions on the examination accompanied by a predominance of low-level teacher questions would be a relationship worth investigating in more depth. However, the very fact that examiners complained about students failing to analyze and interpret according to the requirements of the questions indicates that at least some higher level type questions do appear on the examination.

1.4 Limitations of the Study

Many limitations had to be imposed on the study, partially due to constraints of time and funds, but also as a result of the complex, ever-changing entity that is the classroom. The many student and teacher variables brought into or arising within the classroom and from classroom activity are, in a country such as Zambia where not much research in this area has been done, difficult to identify and so to

control. In addition, as Gragg (1973: 94) pointed out, 'there is a constant flow of influence across presage, process and product variables in both directions'. For this reason, the researcher limited herself to consideration of one particular aspect of teacher behaviour, the selection and use of questions, and the variables mentioned in the objectives.

The size of the sample was also a limitation as it is difficult to draw conclusions from statistical tests on very small samples. Nonparametric tests can, however, indicate covariations, the implications of which can lead to further research.

Another limitation arises from the fact that the teacher can ask questions touching several domains. He or she may emphasize the affective, the cognitive, or even ask questions which are merely concerned with management in the classroom. The researcher could evaluate these questions in terms of whether they are complex or simple, concrete or abstract. However, the present study was only concerned with the cognitive domain and in classifying questions according to the level of thinking they demanded, with Guilford's theoretical constructs (1956) as a basis.

Thirdly, the questions could have been classified according to any one of four criteria: the intention of the teacher, the question itself (with a knowledge of the text involved), the response from the pupil or the previous knowledge or experience of the class. In order to maintain as much objectivity as possible (Dunkin and Biddle, 1974),

however, the researcher, having familiarised herself with the contents of the texts under study, looked only at the question itself in deciding on classification. In this way, an independent coder, with a knowledge of the texts and of the category system, could use the audio-recorded data for verification. In fact, it would have been extremely difficult, considering the time available for the study, to ascertain the teacher's intention behind every question or the previous learning. The high-inference nature of some of the question categories would, in any case, cause some difficulty which would only be increased by the introduction of less objective observations.

Finally, this study is committed only to the belief that carefully formulated high-level teacher questions can induce productive thinking on the part of students, not to the belief that high-level teacher questions affect pupil achievement.

1.5 Methodology of the Study

Dunkin and Biddle (1974) remarked that before any change in educational practices is considered, there must be research evidence concerning what is currently being done in the classroom. What they called field survey, Van Lier (1978) described as ethnographic monitoring, and Stubbs (1976) labeled naturalistic observation, is a combination of detailed observation in the classroom with descriptive analysis of, as well as quantifiable insights from, the observation. Dunkin and

Biddle (1974) also saw the measurement of some presage, context or product variables that might be associated with the process of teaching as part of a field survey. The researcher, interested in finding out about the little-explored area of literature teacher questioning behaviour in Zambia, chose the field survey approach as most suited to the investigation of the problem.

She first considered the teacher him-/herself, focusing on the categories of the questions he/she asked and the frequency of each kind. She then turned to the "Literature in English" school-leaving examination papers for 1981 to 1985 to determine the levels of thinking demanded by the questions This section will describe the sample, the research instruments used, the conduct of the field work and the preparation of the data for analysis.

1.5.1 The Sample

The population of the study was all Grade Eleven, foreign- or Zambia-trained "Literature in English" teachers teaching in aided or government secondary schools in Central, Western and Southern Provinces. The Grade Eleven level was deemed best for study because Grade Ten is the introductory one and Grade Twelve the examination year. The researcher first corresponded with the headmasters of all the schools to determine whether they were willing to have teachers observed and audio-recorded, and to find out how many graduate teachers were to teach Grade Eleven classes in the third term. The total number of teachers was 30.

By stratified random sampling, taking into account school characteristics (e.g. coeducational/boys/girls, aided/government, boarding/day), sixteen schools were selected with a total of twenty teachers, who were also randomly selected from the literature teachers in the individual schools. Subsequently, though, two teachers were not observed, one (from Chipepo) having been transferred and the other (from St. Raphael's) being a Grade Ten teacher. A list of the schools with their characteristics and a list of the teachers (by number, no names included) and their characteristics can be found in Appendix A. On reaching some boarding schools, such as St. Edmond's, the researcher discovered that they are now more day than boarding.

1 5.2 The Research Instruments

Observation and practice coding in Lusaka Grade Eleven literature classes enabled the researcher to prepare the research instruments and pilot tests for the study were run in late July and early August in two Lusaka schools. The final forms for the research instruments listed below were established:

1. Class Observation Schedule (Interaction)
2. Class Observation Schedule (General)
3. Teacher Attitude toward Text Scale
4. Teacher Questionnaires (3 parts).

The interaction observation schedule (Appendix B1) was used to code activity within the classroom and so get a complete picture of what went on there. The categories

were as follows:

1. Teacher talk (lesson-oriented)
2. Management (non-lesson-oriented teacher talk, including non-cognitive questions)
3. Yes/no question
4. Memory question
5. Convergent question
6. Divergent question
7. Evaluative question
8. Silence (teacher writing on board or other pause in lesson)
9. Pupil answer
10. Pupil question
11. Teacher accepts answer
12. Teacher rejects answer
13. Teacher repeats pupil answer
14. Teacher answers own question
15. Teacher refers question to another pupil.

The researcher coded every five seconds except in the case of a question-answer-acceptance/rejection of answer-repeat pupil answer series, in which case each event was recorded, and so several events could be coded in one box. The coding was checked against the cassette recording after the lesson. An intra-coder reliability rate was established for the coding system.

The general observation schedule (Appendix B2) was to assist in recording miscellaneous data such as length of session, time of beginning, technique used by the teacher, assignments written on the board and any deviations from

the expected flow of events.

The modified Thurstone-type scale prepared by the researcher was supposed to measure three components of the teacher's attitude toward the text he/she was teaching at that time. The components were the degree of teacher liking or disliking of the text, the degree of difficulty involved in teaching the text(teachability) and the value of the text for the pupils (Appendix B=). The scale was prepared using twelve graduate literature teachers, eleven of whom use English as a second language and one for whom English is the first language, as judges and seven categories (A through G) instead of the usual eleven. The previous experience of the researcher in designing such a scale had shown that the distinctions necessary to categorize in so many divisions caused some judges to assign statements haphazardly, a second possible cause being the fact that English is a second language for most Zambians. A second copy of the scale was sent to the teachers in January to be completed and returned. The Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient was used to establish the level of reliability of the scale.

On the teacher questionnaire (Appendix B4), teacher training was categorized as follows:

1. Zambian ED1 (one year of English Teaching Methods, no literature course)
2. Zambian ED2 (one year of English Teaching Methods, one/some literature course/s)
3. Zambian ED3 (two years of English Teaching Methods, one/some literature course/s)

4 Zambian M' Ed (Master of Education)

5 Zambian M. A. A L. (Master of African Literature)

6 Foreign B. A. _____(subject)

7. Foreign M. A. _____(subject)

Teaching experience was recorded in three-year blocks:

A. 0-2 yrs.
B. 3-5 yrs.
C. 6-8 yrs.
D. 9-11 yrs.
E. 12-14 yrs.
F. 15 and above yrs.

Time on the text was recorded in terms of weeks.

1 5 3 Conduct of Field Work

Headmasters were given a tentative timetable of visits which was usually up-dated by a telephone call before the researcher proceeded to the school. The field work began in the second week of the third school term of 1986(around 16th September) and extended to the week before final examinations for Grade Eleven began in most schools (around 15th November). The researcher attempted to arrive at each school early enough to give the teacher some information about the study, emphasizing the importance of his or her contribution, the confidentiality in which all data would be held, and the procedures to be followed each day of the study.

Each teacher was observed for two consecutive class sessions Only two were possible due to the constraint of time. In the first session, an unstructured one in which the teacher was urged to do as he/she pleased, the pupils and the teacher were able to get used to the idea of having a

(hopefully non-threatening) silent observer in the classroom with an audio-recorder. The researcher tried to keep her eyes on the teacher or on her writing materials to avoid eye-contact with the pupils. After the first ten minutes, she began coding using the interaction observation schedule, and continued this activity for the next twenty minutes. For the remainder of the class time, she merely observed, allowing the recorder to run until the end of the lesson or the end of that side of the cassette, whichever came first.

For the second session, the teacher was asked to use the class discussion technique in looking at the characters in the text. This technique was chosen because it offered the maximum opportunity for the use of different types of questions. Coding for this session began five minutes after the start of the lesson since it was felt that the teacher would probably go right into the main part of the lesson as quickly as possible and might stop short of the twenty minutes required as coded data. Administration of the attitude scale followed.

1.5.4 Extraction of Data from Examination Papers

The texts under study in the schools were as follows: Animal Farm by Orwell, Cry the Beloved Country by Paton, The Government Inspector by Gogol, Houseboy by Oyono, The Lion and the Jewel by Soyinka, No Longer at Ease by Achebe, The Old Man and the Medal by Oyono and Chaka Zulu by Mulikita. The questions on these books from Section A, 2 and Section B in the "Literature in English" school-leaving examination papers of 1981-1985 were extracted and coded according to

categories three to seven in the interaction schedule.

1.5.5 Preparation of Data for Analysis

All teachers were observed for two days except for two. Teacher 8, who fell sick on the first day of observation, was only recorded for Day 2, while Teacher 12, who due to an administrative error was observed only once, was recorded for Day 1.

The high-level question scores for each teacher from Day 1 and Day 2 were calculated for each day by dividing the total number of questions asked into the number of high-level (categories 5, 6, and 7) questions asked.

Teacher attitude toward the text was calculated by adding up the scale values of the items marked "yes" and dividing this sum by the number of items so marked.

1.6 Organization of the Remainder of the Report

Meaningful analysis of the data depends in part upon a familiarity with the literature on the subject. The next chapter, then, will be devoted to a review of the literature. In Chapter Three the data will be presented and the findings summarized and discussed, and the final chapter, Chapter 4, will contain suggestions for further research and possible interim measures.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this chapter, four general areas of research will be briefly surveyed: the literature on cognitive question classification systems, on teacher questions and related variables, on the "Literature in English" school-leaving examination questions and, finally, the literature on some aspects of methodology - classroom observation and attitude scales.

2.1 Cognitive Question Classification

The use of interaction analysis in classroom observation is so widely practised that a listing of such studies would fill several pages. Studies using Guilford's cognitive constructs and/or looking at literature classes are, however, few; in Zambia, research using a category system in connection with literature seems to consist of only one study.

Guilford's 'The Structure of Intellect' (1956) discussed the parameters making up intelligence, which he had arrived at through factorial analysis. It is the theoretical basis of some category systems. The operations of thinking, according to Guilford, are cognition, memory, convergence, evaluation and divergence but researchers combine the first two, cognition and memory (recognition and recall), as they are

two operations between which an observer would have difficulty in differentiating. Guilford himself said that cognition, or recognition of something, is dependent upon memory (1966). Aschner and Gallagher (1963: 186-188) defined these categories as follows:

1. Cognitive-memory operations - the simple reproduction of facts, formulae, or other items of remembered content through use of such processes as recognition, rote memory and selective recall.

2. Convergent thinking - the analysis and integration of given or remembered data, leading to one expected end-result or answer.

3. Divergent thinking - operations wherein the individual is free to generate independently his own data within a data-poor situation or take a new direction or perspective on a given topic.

4. Evaluative thinking - matters of judgment, values or choice, characterized by its judgmental quality.

Evans (1962), in his discussion of the role of teacher's questions in the study of literature, advised use of these cognitive categories in framing questions.

Discussing how different levels of questions stimulate different levels of thinking, Jangira and Singh (1982) equated Guilford's cognitive memory with Bloom's (1956) knowledge and Sanders' (1966) memory. Guilford's convergent production corresponds to Bloom's comprehension and application categories and Sanders' translation, interpretation and application categories. Jangira and Singh (1982) saw Bloom's and Sanders' analysis and synthesis as corresponding to Guilford's divergent production. However, this last is open to some doubt as Guilford's divergent production involves a situation for which there may be any number of solutions

(Cronbach, 1963) and is characterized by creative thinking. Although some analysis may come into divergent thinking, the end result is synthesis. Therefore, analytical thinking would be included in Guilford's convergent production category. Guilford's evaluation corresponds to both Bloom's and Sanders' evaluation classification, although he seems to put more emphasis on the judgmental aspect.

Most cognitive question categorization systems put questions answered simply by "yes" or "no" and memory/recall questions in one general category: restricted (Aber, 1971), recall or closed (Brown and Edmondson, 1964), narrow/factual (Flanders, 1970), factual (Hargreaves, 1964) and low (Kleinman 1964, in Jangira and Singh, 1972). Question categories for cognitive activity above this level are collectively designated variously as expanded thinking (Aber, 1971), high (Kleinman, 1964, in Jangira and Singh, 1972), thought or open (Brown and Edmondson, 1964), interpretive (Hargreaves, 1964) and productive thinking (Aschner and Gallagher, 1963).

Some researchers in literature classes view literary objectives as more affective than cognitive and the category systems they employ reflect this belief. Swape (1964) adapted his system from that of Pooley (1968), who was investigating the reactions of pupils to literary materials. Pooley's categorization system contained seven classifications: literary judgment, interpretational responses, narrational responses, associational responses, self-involvement, prescriptive judgments and miscellaneous responses. Interested in categorizing the kinds of questions (according to response

expected) which appeared on the literature examination and on teachers' end-of-term literature tests, Swape narrowed the classification to five: narrational response, interpretational response, self-involvement/associational response, literary judgment and mixed.

Although both Pooley and Swape were trying to cater for affective as well as cognitive responses, the cognitive aspect does come through clearly and makes it possible to do some comparison with other systems. Swape himself delineated a relationship of his narrational category with Bloom's knowledge category, and his interpretational responses with comprehension and interpretation from Bloom's Taxonomy (1969). He put narrational responses at a "low" level of response, while interpretational, self-involvement/associational and literary judgment were theoretically at a "higher" level.

2.2 Teacher Questions

The majority of cognitive questions asked by teachers, that is, those questions which stimulate some level of thinking, are in the memory category (Hughes, 1963; Chikalanga, 1972; Gall, 1970). Gall (1970) and Lucking (1976) reported percentages of sixty or more in the category in their survey of studies on teacher questions. Although most researchers in this area based their studies on the assumption that questions demanding higher levels of thinking are better, some were careful to point out that factual questions do serve as the basis for higher thinking. McNamara (1981) asserted that the extensive use of such questions by experienced teachers was an indication that they found it

preferable to other styles of questioning, and that higher order cognitive questions might even inhibit learning if pupils were unable to answer. Because Taba's studies in 1964 and 1966 (Dunkin and Biddle, 1974) showed that attempts to stimulate a higher level of thinking can be premature and consequently damaging to some extent, she advised the use of a hierarchy in questioning, from low-level to high.

Nash and Shiman (1974) discovered in their investigations that teachers ask more factual questions because they feel more sure of getting through the course content by a particular time and because they will know the answer, therefore finding it easy to evaluate and non-threatening to their own sense of security. Hargreaves (1974) agreed with their analysis.

Despite memory questions being important for assuring knowledge, and a basis for higher levels of thought, Nash and Shiman (1974: 40) found that an extensive use of these questions gives pupils the impression or message that all knowledge is already known and their task is merely 'to understand and accept the preexisting knowledge and expertise' without questioning or modifying it. If achievement is measured in terms of knowledge remembered, then most assuredly teachers will concentrate on the imparting of facts.

Research has shown that productive or high-level thinking is encouraged by higher level questions on the teacher's part. The Taba research work mentioned above showed that when teachers probe for higher levels of thought,

pupils are likely to respond, and that pupils acquiesce to a teacher's attempts to raise the level of thought. In the Gallagher and Aschner study (1963), the profile of the pupils' divergent production followed the same overall pattern as that of the teacher's, and a slight increase in the teacher's percentage of divergent questions brought forth a large increase in the divergent production of the students. Smith (1977) equated longer communication units with higher cognitive functioning, finding that interpretive questions elicited answers which were two or three times longer than those from factual questions. She concluded that factual questions tend to inhibit higher thinking processes while interpretive questions stimulate them. Finally, Wright and Nuthall's experimental research in 1970 (Brown and Edmondson, 1984) showed that the teacher's use of open rather than closed questions aided student achievement on tests requiring thought. The studies reported above indicate that the teacher's questions do influence the pupil's level of thinking, low-level questions limiting thinking to the factual level while higher level questions stimulate similar thinking on the part of the student.

Reports on pupil response to literary works show that the teacher's questions can be very influential. Applebee (1977), in summarizing studies done in this area, concluded that when a student had difficulty in understanding a work, his responses tended to be less interpretational and more content-oriented. This could also be true of a pupil who has little experience of interpretational questions when he is

faced with them on an examination. In Lucking's study(1976), students showed, in addition to improved attitudes towards reading, a significant gain in both interpretational and evaluative responses to stories they read after undergoing instruction through hierarchically-ordered questions designed to focus their thinking. Evans (1982) suggested a progression of questions using Guilford's categories and, if necessary in order to stimulate pupil interest, beginning with evaluative or divergent questions and moving on from there. It can be seen, then, that in the study of literature as well, the teacher's questions do influence the cognitive aspect of pupil answers.

From the literature at least three conclusions may be drawn concerning teacher questions in general. Firstly, memory questions are important for cementing knowledge, and serve as the basis for questions stimulating higher cognitive activity. Secondly, high-level questions need careful thought and planning in order to be successful. Finally, high-level questions by the teacher do provoke productive thinking on the students' part.

The researcher had difficulty in locating reports on research into teacher variables which affect teacher questioning. Crocker (1974) reported a study by Swineford in 1963 which indicated that experience does not necessarily lead to increased skill in teaching. Supporting this view is the study by Labriola in 1965 and 1966 (Crocker, 1974) which showed that successful student teachers make successful teachers while unsuccessful ones make poor teachers. Bennett

et al.(1976) pointed out that the teacher's attitudes towards his/her work have an influence in the teaching situation. However, none of these studies pinpoints any direct relationship between teacher questions and teacher presage variables.

Regarding the relationship of teacher technique - whether he/she uses lecture, discussion or something in between - or the time spent on the text to the kind of questions asked, again little research seems to have been done. Many writers (Pattison, 1954; Nash and Shiman, 1974; Eble, 1976; Moody, 1983; Brumfit, 1982) feel that discussion conducted in the classroom should elicit high-level thinking on the part of the students but there seem to be no reports of research investigating the relationship of teacher high-level questions with the teacher's use of the lecture, the discussion or any other technique. Some believe that the kinds of question depend on the amount of time which has been spent on the literary work (Lucking, 1976; Evans, 1982), and indeed, the syllabus (MGEC, 1984) does advise starting with short and factual questions and then progress to a more general essay type, but again no research reports are available.

2.3 Questions on the "Literature in English" Examination

The most recent research on the examination was done by Mwape in 1984. Mwape analyzed the questions from Section B of the question paper for the previous ten years, and found that a large number of questions demanded responses

in the narrational category, which indicated that the questions dealt with facts and memory. The percentage in this category was 50 percent of the total. Interpretational, self-involvement/associational and literary judgment responses, all of which are high-level responses, totaled about 45 percent. If the mixed response category, which is largely a combination of associational and literary judgment, is added on, it gives a 50 percent high-level response rate for that section of the examination. Mwape (1984: 35) considered literary judgment as a low-level response because 'secondary school students are unlikely to have such a higher level skill' and so most likely were just depending on teachers' notes. However, it would be difficult to prove this observation and therefore responses in this category really should be considered as high-level. Despite this small problem with classification, though, the implication that the examinations are heavily loaded with factual questions does remain and, if true, is disturbing.

2.4 Aspects of Methodology

The literature on educational research by field or descriptive survey is copious. However only a few aspects of methodology need be looked at here: the effect of the observer in the classroom and the use of attitude scales.

In order to find out what is happening in the classroom, some observation system is necessary. Dunkin and Biddle (1974) reported a study by Sample in 1968 which showed that an observer does have an effect on the normal

procedure in the classroom. This was manifested by the teachers increasing their usage of categories describing acceptance of children's ideas and questioning. Boehm and Weinberg (1977) also warned against the observer's temptation to relate the observations to the variables being studied and thus contaminate the categorization.

Concerning the first problem raised, Barker et al. (1955, in Dunkin and Biddle, 1974), Stubbs (1976) and Boehm and Weinberg (1977) reported that the observer effect decreases over a relatively short period of time. In any case, though, it is difficult to completely change one's pattern of behaviour, especially if one does not know what the observer is looking at. Because observer bias is a part of all category systems, Van Lier (1978) advised the preservation of data so that it can be examined at a later stage. This also helps prevent errors in final categorization when high-inference concepts are used (Dunkin and Biddle, 1974). Medley and Mitzel (1963, in Boehm and Weinberg, 1977: 56) gave two criteria for validating observation measurement of behaviour:

1. a representative sample of the behaviours to be observed must be observed and
2. a complete, accurate record of the observed behaviour must be made.

Although there are some assertions that the teacher's attitude does influence his/her classroom performance, the researcher was unable to find any reports concerning teacher's attitude scales which measure attitude to a particular literary text. There are, however, some suggestions

regarding the establishment of reliability and validity of attitude scales. The test-retest method (Shaw and Wright, 1967; Mehrens and Lehmann, 1978) has been seen as one way of establishing reliability, the retest being given from two to six weeks after the first test. Content validity rests on whether the scale measures the full content of the attitude domain, whereas construct validity may be evaluated by internal consistency - high intercorrelations between the items measuring various complimentary components on the scale.

Other questions raised regarding the dependability of attitude scales are discussed in Mehrens and Lehmann (1978: 344):

1. The questionability of stability in affective behaviour and
2. The correspondence between verbally expressed opinions and "real" opinions.

It has been found that, while childrens' attitudes may be unstable, those of adults tend to be very stable. This can, of course, be established with the test-retest procedure as long as the indicated period has passed between the first and the second testing. Regarding the second question, Mehrens and Lehmann pointed out that this depends partly on the amount of confidence in him which the researcher has built up in the minds of the persons being tested. In addition, this method of measuring attitude is just as valid as measurement of overt behaviour, which will not necessarily give an accurate picture of the person's attitude.

The literature on teacher question research is extensive and comprehensive with regard to types of questions asked and category systems. There has also been considerable

research on class observation and attitude scales. Unfortunately, though, most of the studies reported in these areas were not done in the second language situation nor were they concerned with the subject "Literature in English".

Although English is the medium of instruction in all Zambian schools (as well as the official language of the country) and so one might expect that secondary level pupils would be quite competent in the use of the language, Moody's assertions concerning the position of literature, as discussed in Chapter One, are valid. The results of studies which were done in the first language situation cannot automatically be applied to the second language situation. However, they are good indicators of what problems can be expected in the teaching situation.

Research studies concentrating on questions in literature classes are also rare as are attitude scales which deal with attitudes toward a particular text.

Finally, research on the literature teacher for whom English is a second language, teaching "Literature in English" in a second language situation, does not seem to have been done. The researcher was unable to find any report of any such study, which could have provided some guidance in the present research.

In view of the scarcity of literature on the Zambian situation, the need for more research is real and urgent. What kind of questions does the teacher of 'Literature in English' in Zambia ask and what factors seem to influence his/her questioning behaviour?

CHAPTER THREE: INSTRUMENT EVALUATION, DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

After an evaluation of the category system and the attitude scale used in the study, data from the field work and the literature paper are here considered in six sections: teacher questions, the pattern of teacher questions, teachers' perception of the purpose of literature study, teacher variables, text-related variables and literature examination questions. Then the results are discussed in the light of the hypothesis and of the objectives of the literature course.

3.1 Evaluation of Research Instruments

Although the research instruments have already been discussed in Chapter One, two of them require examination here to determine the strength of the data which they generated. The first is the category system for questions asked by the teacher; the second the attitude scale which produced the attitude-toward-the text score.

The intra-judge rate of agreement for the category system was 0.84, the period of time between the first judgment of category from the transcripts and the second judgment being two months. The figure was the result of dividing the number of agreements by the total number of responses over

the two observations. The necessity of finding a second judge who knew the books well and also had time to study the category system made the finding of a second judge difficult.

Differentiation of the three high-level categories proved an exacting task. It is generally realized (Bloom, 1969; Sanders, 1966; Brown, 1975; Perrott, 1982) that the levels are hierarchical and so each succeeding level depends on or contains some element of the preceding one. The element of analytical thinking which characterizes convergent thinking, is also present in divergent and evaluative thinking, and the recognition of an operation of thinking beyond that level is sometimes difficult. One tends to take into consideration how text-based the answer to such a question would have to be, how much creative thinking would be involved, or how "judgmental" the pupil must be. An attempt was made to strengthen the difference between analysis and evaluation by looking at evaluation questions as requiring a judgment of the merit of something, rather than just an opinion. (This latter is also considered evaluation by some authors. Guilford, however, does define evaluation as decisions concerning the goodness, suitability or effectiveness of results of thinking.)

The selection of judges for statements on the attitude scale, the second instrument needing evaluation, was done in such a way that the items on the scale received a valuation in line with the second language usage.

Since the attitude scale used in the research is an original instrument, the reliability and validity of the

scores obtained are also important. The test-retest method was used to establish the reliability of the instrument. Spearman's Rank Correlation Coefficient with correction for ties was used to find the level of correlation between the scores on the first attitude measure and the second, done approximately three months later (Appendix C1). The coefficient was .77, which is significant at p=.01 and so shows a high level of score reliability for the 15 teachers who did the scale twice.

A second aspect which needs consideration is the validity of the instrument. At least three components of the teacher's attitude towards the text are represented - the teacher's actual like or dislike for the text, the teachability of the text and the value of the text for students. The first component is represented by two positive and two negative items, with an additional two which are negative but nearer neutral and one which is positive but almost neutral. The second component could have used more representation as there is only one positive item and one negative item. In the third component, there are three positive and two negative ones (Appendix C2a).

The amount of internal consistency in the scale becomes apparent when one looks at the teachers' item choices in each of the three components. The third shows complete consistency in that those who marked the positive items did not mark the negative ones. In the first group, those who marked positive items did not mark the radically negative ones. Five of them did, however, answer "yes" to both a

positive item and a slightly negative one. In this group, then, there is some degree of consistency. The second group, though, shows a high degree of inconsistency as one-third of the sample marked both the negative and the positive choice, saying on the one hand that "This text is easy to teach" and on the other that "One needs special notes from the Inspector to teach this text"(Appendix C2b).

This inconsistency in attitude which indicates a problem with construct validity could be attributed to several causes. Although for most of the teachers English is a second language, the widely different values (5.12 and 1.50) given to the two statements preclude the argument that the teachers understand the items as being of similar meaning. More likely is the interpretation that no matter how easy a text is, teachers are always grateful for notes from an authoritative source to help them teach it. Of the teachers who did the retest, three of the four teachers who first marked item 10 positively changed in the retest to a negative response on that item without changing the response on item 4. Two other teachers who gave the original inconsistent response did not return their retest forms. The remaining teacher, number eight, changed almost half his responses (six to be exact) on the retest but did not change the responses to items 4 and 10. It is possible that the changes noted for the three teachers arose from a more careful consideration of the items. At the time of the first administration of the scale, the teachers were given the scale and asked to complete it on the spot. Perhaps, then, they had little time

to really think about some of the items.

As far as overall consistency across the three components is concerned, there is high consistency among items 4, 5, 8, 12 and 14, which all have a very positive valence, while there is some consistency among items 6 and 10 which have negative values that are quite close. Items 2, 9 and 11, all of which have scale values below one, also show consistency in their total lack of positive response (Appendix C2c).

A greater number of items, possibly with an equal number of positive and negative items and an equal number for each component would improve this scale, as would an elimination of such double items as number one. (Curiously enough, only one teacher changed his response on this seemingly difficult item.) A greater number of items would allow for a more equal interval scale although it might also lead to more difficulty for teachers in completing the scale. With regard to the scores elicited by the scale, one may still conclude that they represent a measurement of the teachers' attitude because of the high reliability demonstrated, the few inconsistencies and the indicated intercorrelations among and between complementary items in the scale. In addition, no teacher verbally expressed an attitude toward his text which was in contradiction of the attitude scale results.

3.2 Data Presentation and Analysis

3.2.1 Teacher Questions

When the data for the entire sample is considered, it is apparent that the teachers used all five categories of questions - yes/no, memory, convergent, divergent and evaluative. However, the percentages for the categories vary both within Day 1 and Day 2, and from Day 1 to Day 2 (Appendix C3).

Day 1, the unstructured session day, shows an extremely large concentration of questions in the memory category, more than half the total number. The second largest category is that of convergency, which has more than one quarter of the total. Divergent and evaluative thinking questions, when combined, make up only 5 percent while yes/no questions comprise a full 16 percent.

On Day 2, the use of the memory category decreased, use of the divergent category remained almost the same and that of the yes/no, convergent and evaluative categories increased. When the differences in frequency per category over the two days were tested for significance by χ^2, the increases in the yes/no (χ^2=7.57), the convergent (χ^2=7.76) and the evaluative (χ^2=15) categories proved to be significant above the .01 level (df=1). However, the increase in total questions was not significant. On both Day 1 and Day 2, the differences between the number of high-level questions asked and the number of low-level questions asked is significant above the .01 level when tested using χ^2 (χ^2=7.93, df=1).

The above results imply that teachers use more of

particular kinds of questions in discussion lessons - i.e. yes/no, convergent and evaluative - although they do not significantly increase the total number of questions asked when requested to do this kind of lesson. The divergent category, which was uniformly used over the two days, received only minimal use at one percent. The wide disparities among category use from Day 1 to Day 2 as well as within each of the two days can be observed pictorially in the graph in Appendix C4.

The unattempted or teacher-answered (those which students did not try to answer or which were answered by the teacher) teacher questions provide interesting results on the two days. On Day 1, the percentage of these questions is 7 percent, while the percentage on Day 2 is 8 percent, almost the same. Examined more closely, however, the data reveals that the percentage of high-level questions among the unattempted/teacher-answered group on Day 1 was 57 percent as compared to 32 percent on Day 2. As teachers generally shifted to more use of high-level questions on Day 2, this is an interesting reversal. It is possible that as the teachers encouraged a higher level of thinking on Day 2, it became easier for pupils to answer this type of question. This would be in line with the research by Taba and by Aschner and Gallagher mentioned in Chapter 2.

Turning to the data for individual teachers, one may obtain a more detailed picture of the kinds of questions asked by the teachers on Day 1 and Day 2.

The high-level score of the teacher is a percentage reflecting the proportion of convergent, divergent and

evaluative thinking questions asked by the teacher on a particular day. The table in Appendix C5 shows the scores for the teachers on both days with an indication as to which categories seem to have been affected by an increase or decrease on Day 2. About two-thirds of the teachers increased their high-level questioning when asked to do discussion lessons, usually by increased usage of questions to stimulate convergent thinking. Over half of the scores which increased did so dramatically. The line graphs in appendices C6 to C10 give a pictorial representation of the numbers of questions asked, per category, by each of the teachers in the sample on the two days so that Day 1 and Day 2 can be easily compared.

Of the seventeen teachers who were observed on Day 1, eleven used the memory category more than any other, while four used the convergent category more. On Day 2, five used memory more than any other, whereas six used convergency more. Yes/no was used more than any other category by four teachers on Day 2. Five teachers employed no yes/no questions on Day 1 while only two did not ask this type on Day 2. Even on Day 2, then, the emphasis by half the teachers was on low-level questions, whereas one-third used convergency and the remainder used the same number of memory and convergency questions.

In the divergent and evaluative categories, four teachers had no questions on either of the two days. Ten teachers are not represented in those categories on the first day while eight teachers are not represented on the second day. Eight show no change in the use of these two categories over

the two days, or show a decrease in usage on the second day. On Day 2, six teachers who did not use divergent questions used evaluative ones. Only with five teachers does one find an increase in the evaluative category on the second day, and with two teachers, an increase in the divergent category as well (Appendix C11).

The data on individual teachers has several implications. Many of the teachers increased their use of productive thinking questions on the second day, while others decreasing their use of memory questions. This implies that they connect the technique of discussion with higher level questions, or that they might have put more effort into preparation for the second day's session. However, only six teachers used visible notes and only three of them show an increase in high-level score on the second day.

The negligible use of the evaluative category, even on the discussion day, implies either a lack of knowledge on the part of the teacher that this kind of question is necessary for the fulfillment of syllabus objectives, or a lack of the skill of asking evaluative questions. The almost total lack of use of divergent questions can be viewed in the same way.

The third set of implications concerns the categories used most by the teachers on Day 2, as opposed to their increases from Day 1 to Day 2 or their neglect of particular categories. While about one-third used the convergent category most, approximately two-thirds emphasized the lower level categories of memory or yes/no questions. It is

possible that some teachers, especially those in the larger (two-thirds) groups used yes/no or memory questions to facilitate discussion by moving pupils gradually towards higher level questions, that teachers found pupils unable to answer higher level questions or that some of the other variables looked at in the study exercised an influence here.

3.2.2 Pattern of Teacher Questions

In view of the above observations, it is necessary to examine in more detail the pattern of questioning of the teachers before going on to other variables which might affect the teacher's use of particular categories. The table in Appendix C12 shows the pattern of questioning by the teachers on Day 2, the teachers being grouped according to which question category they used most.

The pattern expected would be indicated by a series of Ms (memory questions) or Ys (yes/no questions) followed by a C (convergent), a D (divergent) or an E (evaluative), all within one set of brackets, or possibly an unanswered C, D or E followed by a series of Ys or Ms and possibly finished off with a C, D or E, again within one set of brackets. There seems to be no pattern regarding the use of either yes/no or memory questions, no consistent evidence of the teacher going to a lower level question. However, in the sixteen cases where questions are not attempted, in seven (50 percent) the unanswered question was followed by a lower level question. In four cases (25 percent), the unanswered question was followed by a higher level question, while in

five (25 percent) it was followed by a question on the same level. Although the percentages are suggestive, the actual numbers involved are too small to draw definite conclusions.

When considering the other teachers (those in the group using convergent and memory questions equally) in order to verify the lack of a clear pattern, one finds once again that there seems to be no clear pattern of question category use, even following the ten unattempted questions. There are four cases (40 percent) in which the question is followed by one of a higher category, four (40 percent) in which it is followed by a question in the same category, one (10 percent) followed by a question in a lower category and one (10 percent) which is at the end of the question series. In the overall picture of questioning, this group of teachers has followed no definite pattern. The teachers' indifference to, or ignorance of, the value of the different question types seems also to apply to the value of hierarchical questioning.

A look at the content of the unattempted questions and at the questions which follow them, though, shows that with seven teachers out of the nine involved (or in 18 cases of questioning), the subsequent question is a prompting one, giving the pupil a clue to the way in which he should direct his thinking, as in the examples below:

1. On the text Houseboy:

   a) Looking at the whites themselves, now in the novel, now would you say all the whites in Tangani were cruel?

      Not attempted. Category 3

b) If not, then can you give an example of one who had a change of mind, who was quite different from other whites?
Category 5

2 On the text No Longer at Ease:

a) "You know, Okonkwo, I have lived in your country for 15 years and yet I cannot begin to understand the mentality of the so-called 'educated' Nigerian." So why do you think Mr. Green is saying this to Obi?
Not attempted. Category 5

b) What has he found so difficult to these educated Nigerians? Category 4

The existence of a hierarchical use of questions is not apparent, but the teachers did follow up unattempted questions with prompting questions in at least half the cases.

One interesting pattern appeared when the material on unattempted questions and teacher-answered questions was tabulated (Appendix C13). In the table, the higher the level of thinking, the fewer the unattempted questions per teacher. If one eliminates the yes/no-type unattempted questions, which may have been reflex verbalization on the part of the teachers, the pattern goes from 2 questions per teacher for those using the yes/no category most frequently to 0.5 per teacher for those using the convergent category most frequently. The significance of this pattern would need to be determined by further research, but it ties in with the earlier mentioned decrease in unanswered questions on Day 2, as does the fact that the divergent and evaluative questions are all attempted by the pupils. The implication, which agrees with the literature on this area, is that pupils used to answering higher level questions

leave fewer questions unattempted. Meanwhile it is evident that teachers do not have to lower the level of the thinking tasks in the classroom just because a second language situation prevails.

A further examination of the yes/no category as used by the teachers on Day 2 revealed that 27 percent of the questions asked were answered by chorus response, 35 percent of the individual answers were followed immediately by teacher talk, 18 percent were unanswered and 20 percent were answered by extended pupil talk. Of these last questions, 7 were answered in such a way that would put them into a higher level category. However, this only adds 2 percent to the total high-level question percentage for Day 2. So, in order to shed more light on the variations in high-level question scores of the teachers, one must consider the teachers' perceptions of the purpose of literature study and also look for co-variations between the scores and teacher variables or text-based variables.

3.2.3 Purpose of Literature Study as Expressed by Teachers

Of the eighteen teachers, approximately two-thirds voiced the realization that literature is 'relevant to the circumstances and needs of today' and that it is an 'expression of human problems' as purposes for the study of literature (Appendix C14). These two objectives are listed in the Interim Syllabus, as are the first and second items, which were expressed respectively by two and seven teachers. Another syllabus-related response, that of gaining a deeper understanding of or improvement in language was also given

by about one-third of the teachers. Teachers seem to have some idea of what the Interim Syllabus dictates, but do not express the objective which most definitely supports critical thinking, that is, 'the discussion of ideas in books and their implications'. As the realization of this objective should involve systematic questioning to the high-order level, a teacher's failure to see it as important might also lead to a neglect of high-level questioning.

3.2 4 Teacher Variables

The teacher variables considered in the research were sex of the teacher, his/her education and his/her literature teaching experience. There was no significant difference between the male and the female scores when the Fisher Exact Probability Test (Siegel, 1956), a test which has relaxed assumptions, uses dichotomus data and caters for small samples, wasused (Appendix C15). In this sample, the sex of the teacher seems to have made no difference to the use of high-level questions.

Using the second variable, teacher education, the researcher put the teachers' high-level scores in three groups, the ED1/ED2 group, the ED3/MEd/MAAL group and the foreign graduate group, and tested by using χ^2 to find out if the differences among the average scores of the three groups was significant. (There were no teachers in the ED1, the MEd, the MAAL or the foreign MA categories.) The test showed no significance at the 0.05 level (χ^2=5.89,p.10. df=2). When the Zambian graduates' scores and those of the foreign graduates were subjected to the Fisher test,

the differences did not reach significance at the 0.05 level, nor did the differences between the two groups of Zambian graduates, ED2 and ED3. The data can be examined more closely when the teachers are divided according to their most frequently used category on Day 2, with teacher education indicated (Appendix C16).

Several points must be noted. Two of the three teachers with foreign training are in the group which used convergent questions most on Day 2, while ED2 teachers do not appear at all in the yes/no-most frequently-used category. Whereas these are details worth noting, the implication remains that teacher training does not touch on the importance of questions or questioning technique, which ties in with the findings on lack of pattern in use of questioning categories.

The last variable to be considered under teacher variables is that of teaching experience in literature. Due to the scarcity of teachers in some groups, the 6-8 years and the 9-11 years groups were combined, and the 12-14 one with that of 15 or more (Appendix C17) in order to do the Kruskal-Wallis One-Way Analysis of Variance (Siegel, 1956). No significance was found in the differences among the high-level scores per group.

But it is suggestive to find that of the five teachers with six or more years of experience 80 percent (four) have Day 2 scores of 50 or above whereas of those twelve who have less than six years of experience, 33 percent (four) have scores of 50 or above. The small number of

teachers with experience of six or more years in teaching literature again prevents one from drawing conclusions. An additional fact that is interesting, though, is the position of these teachers on the table of Appendix C16. Four of the five fall into the group of those using convergent questions most or that of those using convergent and memory questions equally.

In concluding this section, it is apparent that sex of the teacher, training and experience in teaching literature have no significant effect on the teacher high-level score However the data does show some patterns which need to be investigated by way of a larger, more balanced (if possible) sample

3.2.5 Text-related Variables

Other variables which might be expected to influence the teacher in selection of question types are the attitude of the teacher towards the text, the text itself and the time spent on it.

The highest score obtainable on the attitude scale was 5.90, which would signify a highly favourable attitude towards the text under study, and the lowest was 0.05. The mean score for the teachers was 4.68 and the standard deviation 0.59. Generally speaking, the teachers were favourably inclined toward the texts they were teaching, the lowest score being 3.02.

There is no high-level score for Teacher 12 because she was not observed on Day 2. When the Day 2 high-level question scores and the attitude scores of the other teachers are tested for correlation using Spearman's Rank Correlation Coefficient with correction for ties (Siegel, 1956), there is no correlation at the .05 level of significance. The scores appear in Appendix C13. One would expect to find a higher question level score with teachers who have a more positive attitude score but the results do not support this supposition when the data is tested without reference to the text being taught. In addition, when each score is categorized in terms of the category used most by the teacher on Day 2, the average scores for attitude per category are almost the same, except in the category for equal use of memory and convergent questions. There the average score is lower:

yes no category	4.59
memory category	4.81
convergent/memory category	3.82
convergent category	4.82

The teacher's attitude does not appear to influence his use of different types of questions.

Due to the irregularities in the number of teachers teaching each text (some having been covered by only one teacher while others were covered by three or more), it was not possible to test the differences among average scores of the teachers of the various texts for significance. However, when one links text with attitude score and high-level score, a meaningful picture emerges. Each text shows a range of high-level question scores (Appendix C19) with a

concentration of higher scores for both high-level questions and attitude in The Government Inspector group. When the averages are taken for all high-level scores and for all attitude scores for each text, and the two sets of scores are tested for correlation using Spearman's Rank Correlation Coefficient, the result is a correlation of .6, which is quite high. The rankings for three out of the five pairs of scores are the same, the highest average high-level question score and the best average attitude score going in both cases to The Government Inspector.

Although this is below the .05 level of significance, it seems to indicate that there is some connection between the teacher's attitude towards a text and the proportion of high-level questions that the teacher asks when these factors are considered text by text. This supports Bennet et al.'s contention, reported in Chapter 2, that teacher attitude is important. One cannot say which is dependent upon the other, if indeed this is the case. The Government Inspector for example, may influence the teacher to ask higher level questions because he/she likes the play, or the teacher, finding it easy to formulate higher level questions on the text, might for that reason feel more favourably inclined toward that text. Or both attitude and question score might be influenced by the pupils' reaction to the book, or some other variable not considered in this research.

The next variable under consideration, the time spent on the text in weeks, was tabled against the high-level score of the teacher (Appendix C20) and the Spearman Coefficient

with correction for ties was done. It was expected that a teacher who had been working for a longer time on a text would also ask more high-level questions and so have a higher score. Once again, however, the result did not reach the .05 level of significance. So, despite the advice of the syllabus, time made no difference to the kind of questions asked. Teachers did not noticeably select less cognitively demanding questions for the early stages of the study of a text.

Finally, the technique used by the teacher was considered to determine whether particular techniques or strategies of teaching were related to particular usages of question categories. The categorization of teaching techniques, however, proved extremely difficult as many teachers lectured and asked questions of the class for feedback on day 1. Some teachers had the book read around the class, or perhaps read it themselves and then asked questions to check on comprehension or to point up implications. Some lectured and read. The researcher could not settle upon any system which would accomodate this very mixed situation not encountered in the pilot testing stage. As teachers are encouraged to be eclectic, suiting techniques to the learning task, one cannot blame them for this failure on the part of the researcher. Here, particularly, observation on a far wider scale is needed. At least some patterns of teacher strategy would thus be revealed and question types common to them could be examined.

3.2.6 The Examination

In looking at the questions on the examination, the researcher interpreted them strictly according to the wording of the question and her knowledge of the texts, taking no cognizance of pupil answers. The data from the 46 questions analyzed is recorded in Appendix C21. The questions were abstracted from the sections of the examination paper which make up 80 percent of the examination, the other 20 percent being devoted to shorter answer questions.

From the question type analysis, it is apparent that the overwhelming emphasis (78.3 percent) of this section of the examination is on productive thinking, even though some of the questions do require recall (Mwape's narration) in order to back up statements. If only the questions from Section B were considered, as was the case in Mwape's research, the percentage of convergence would be 77.8 and the high-level percentage 88.9. The above is higher than Mwape's figure. But then his category system was different and his question sample larger. It is impossible, in this limited study, to ascertain whether or not the teachers gave notes to cover all these questions, as Mwape implied. The least used category is divergency, with only 2.2 percent, followed by evaluation with 10.9 percent.

3.3 Discussion of Results

This study has approached the problem of poor cognitive performance on the part of many students by a study of the

questioning behaviour of the teacher alone in the belief that the teacher has the primary responsibility for guiding the development of the pupil's productive thinking capabilities. The sample is representative of the literature teachers in three provinces of Zambia and analysis of the research data revealed several findings concerning that population:

1. The teachers as a group ask significantly more memory-type questions than they do productive thinking questions, even when guiding a discussion.

2. Teachers ask far fewer divergent-type questions than they do any other type.

3. Teachers also ask few evaluative questions, although they ask more of this type than of the divergent type.

4. When asked to present a characterization discussion lesson, teachers as a group increased significantly the number of yes/no, convergent and evaluative questions.

5. There was no significant co-variation on Day 2 of teacher high-level question scores and teacher sex, teacher education, teacher experience, or time spent on the text, nor was there any consistent pattern of question type usage.

6. The positive correlation of average attitude scores with average high-level question scores for each text was suggestive of some relationship in variation.

7. The teachers' perception of the purpose of literature study corresponded only partially with the purpose stated in the interim syllabus.

8. The majority of the questions set for Section A2 and Section B of the "Literature in English" examination (1981-1985) on the texts covered by teachers in the study were in the higher level cognitive categories, although many required some narration in the answer.

9. The predominant category for the examination questions was the convergent thinking category.

10. The proportion of divergent thinking and evaluative thinking questions asked by the teachers on

Day 2 was similar to the proportion of these types of questions appearing on the examination.

The general hypothesis of the study was:

The class and homework questions asked by the "Literature in English" teacher call for more use of low-level than high-level, or productive, thinking skills.

On both the first and the second days of observation, the teachers as a group asked a significantly higher number of low-level questions than high-level questions, thus confirming the general hypothesis. This result is in accord with other studies cited in the literature review, although the percentages of memory questions on neither Day 1 nor Day 2 reached the 60 percent which the studies report, the highest being 52 percent on Day 1.

In the light of this general result, it seems that the four-fold purpose of literature study at the senior level, as set out in the Interim English Syllabus Supplement, might be difficult to achieve. When one puts aside the affective considerations, one is still faced with the cognitive demands of the subject. The mind must be able to think on higher levels than just memory in order to assimilate what the course is supposed to provide. Convergency, divergency and evaluation must be employed. The teachers' view of the purpose of literature study is an important factor here and it has been shown that their expressed views do not cover all the objectives stated in the syllabus. It is, however, possible that this document did not reach some of the schools, or got lost in the files once it did reach them.

Teachers seemed to realize that a discussion lesson required more high-level thinking tasks, as they used a

significantly higher percentage of convergent and evaluative questions on Day 2. This increase could equally, of course, be due to the fact that the teachers were asked to prepare a particular type of lesson for this day, whereas they were told to "just proceed with their usual routine on Day 1." Looking at the teachers who asked yes/no questions most on Day 2, those who used memory questions most and those who employed convergent questions most, no clear pattern of usage was discernible within the groups, nor from group to group, which seems to indicate that the teachers are generally not familiar with the real value of the different types of questions or with hierarchical questioning. The above is also indicated by the lack of correlation between the number of weeks spent on the text and the high-level score of the teacher.

The independent variables, those of sex, extent of teacher training and experience in literature teaching, which one might expect would have an effect on teachers' question selection, also proved to have no significant relationship to teacher high-level scores or predominant use of one category. It would seem, then, that the importance of questions has not been emphasized in training programmes and that teachers do not develop an awareness of the desirability of more cognitively demanding questioning in the course of their teaching career. These results must, however, be considered with a great deal of caution due to the contra-indications mentioned earlier concerning teacher training and experience. Further research using a sample with equal

and larger numbers of teachers in each of the groups (years of experience and teacher training) could clear up any doubt concerning the role, singly or in combination, of these variables.

The combination of text, teacher attitude toward the text and teacher high-level score brought out an interesting co-variation of the latter two variables which seems to indicate that attitude does have some relationship with the proportion of high-level questions asked although exactly what it is cannot be determined by this research.

The classification of techniques of the first day lessons was considered to be beyond the scope of this study so the co-variation of teacher technique with high-level score was not considered.

The examination questions seem to emphasize higher level thinking, although largely in the convergent thinking category. Divergent and evaluative questions, which require the pupil to go beyond the text, expressing the implications of the ideas from the text and relating them to his or her life, are few. This could be due to the fact that such questions are difficult to mark. Curiously enough, the percentages of divergent and of evaluative questions asked by teachers on Day 2, respectively 1 percent and 7 percent, are quite close to those percentages, 2.2 and 10.9, tabulated for the examination questions.

The examination itself stands as a model towards which the teachers might aim their teaching and the above-mentioned

similarity in use of the divergent and evaluative categories suggests that teachers may actually study the types of questions on the examination though possibly without cognizance of the theoretical constructs involved. The narrative aspect of some of the convergent-type questions may conceal for them the other, more important higher level aspects, again because of the reason given above. Two kinds of thinking are involved, with the one depending on the other.

Evans (1974:55) claimed that 'the present literature examination methods do not encourage creativity'. Realizing that his statistical instrument was not able to measure creativity, he based his statement on unstructured interviews with teachers of English at six secondary schools and the emphasis on recall which he found in his analysis of the examination.

The present researcher has arrived at the same conclusion through slightly different evidence. The low percentage of those cognitive questions which require a creative response is a hidden message to both teachers and pupils about the kind of thinking being encouraged in the subject "Literature in English".

Research has revealed that the thinking level of pupils is shaped by the cognitive level of the tasks set them: an emphasis on recall questions inculcates the belief that rote learning is the goal of education, whereas questions which require the higher levels of thinking reinforce critical and creative thinking in the pupils. If thinking skills are developed in the literature class, they will most probably

be used in the pupils' everyday life as well, since literature is a mirror of life.

The teacher of 'Literature in English' has an enormous task, promoting cognitive growth through questioning in a language which is probably not the mother tongue of either teacher or pupil, and doing so in the face of the average Gambian's lack of exposure to the habit of reading for general pleasure and enlightenment. The teachers of whom the sample of this study is representative seem not to have fully grasped the power of good questioning for moving students to explore ideas, to analyze outcomes and to think beyond present facts and situations, creating new images and knowledge. Thus the pupils face difficulty on the examination in exercising higher level cognitive skills.

The findings from this study are suggestive for several areas of further research and for various interim measures which will be discussed in the concluding chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR : CONCLUSION

The results of the study, reported in the preceding chapter, have implications for training and inservice training of teachers, for curriculum development and textbook preparation in all subject areas, as well as for the literature examination setting panel. Duplication of the study with literature teachers and with teachers of other subjects using a larger sample would therefore be desirable. The factor of English being a teacher's first, second or other language could be considered, and multivariate analysis might uncover clusters of variables influencing teacher question type selection where the present study found no one-way co-variance.

Far more provocative though, are a series of questions which grow out of the study; again many of them concerning not only literature teachers, but all teachers and pupils.

Of the many questions which remain unanswered in the area of teacher questioning, perhaps the first is: What do teachers know about the role their questioning behaviour plays in the pupil's cognitive development? One doubts if teachers are aware that they can stimulate different levels of cognitive activity with different types of questions, whether they are actually aware of the various types they can ask, whether they consciously strive to use them

appropriately and finally, one wonders what kind of answers they expect from their pupils. This question can only be answered by sympathetic investigation within the schools, observing in classrooms and then interviewing teachers and finding out their question-formation strategies. Although such research would necessitate very tactful implimentation, the results would b invaluable.

A second question which could be asked as a result of the findings is: What are future teachers being taught in teacher-training colleges and at the university concerning the importance of the different question types for making the pupil think productively? The study (which concentrated on university graduates) indicates that although the teachers had various types of training, it seems to have made no significant difference to their question performance. Perhaps this component was not covered, or there was not sufficient time to explore all its implications in the programmes under which these teachers were trained. Analysis of the syllabuses of the methods courses, and interviews with the course instructors would reveal the amount of emphasis they place on the skills of question formulation and questioning.

Another area, and possibly the largest and most important one, has to do with the pupils. The questioning process involves both a teacher and a pupil and so one must ask: How does the Zambian pupil react to questioning? In a country with such a wide range of cultural practices and where English is a second language, so many factors affect the pupil's performance in the classroom. It is possible that, for example, in some settings children are expected to

listen and obey and are considered rude if they answer or ask questions. Some subsidiary points could be investigated:

1. Are there any cultural constraints on answering, or volunteering to answer, questions?
2. What does the pupil see as his/her role in the classroom?
3. What are the presage or process variables which influence his/her answering performance?

The answers to these questions should (and probably do) influence teacher questioning behaviour and might demand the development of special skills to deal with the situation in Zambia.

The final consideration is whether anything can, or indeed should, be done now. Duplication of this study has been mentioned above. However, in view of the teachers' seemingly unstructured or loosely structured use of questions, and in view of the constant need for citizens who think critically and creatively, several measures would be immediately helpful.

The literature course is already under review and this would imply that the examination is also being evaluated. Specific attention might be paid to the constructs which underlie the examination to find out if it really tests whether the objectives of "making literature relevant to the circumstances and needs of today" and " discussing the implications of the ideas in books" are being achieved.

The ministry has already set out detailed guidelines for the literature teacher in the Interim Syllabus mentioned above. It would seem, then, that it is the responsibility of the

Inspectors for English to assure implementation of that syllabus in the schools, and possibly arrange some regional workshops on this topic in cooperation with inspectors from other subject areas. Heads of departments would concern themselves with the way in which teachers formulated questions and the levels of those questions, if they were reminded of, or made aware of, the importance of these teaching skills by the Inspectorate. Follow-up would, of course, be special attention to this component of teaching in the inspector's visits to schools.

Perrott (1982) cited two studies, Borg et al., 1970 and Perrott et al., 1975, in which teachers who received training involving the study and practice of question skills increased dramatically in their use of higher order questions. In the latter study, the increase in the percentage of teachers' higher level cognitive questions was accompanied by an equally dramatic increase in pupil higher level responses. Teacher trainers, with their awareness that pupil thinking depends on the cognitive level of the tasks which they are asked to perform and mindful of the results of research into training of teachers in questioning skills, could review their programmes to see if this component has been catered for. In the event of its absence, some experimental units could be set up.

In concluding, two points which are often given as cautionary notes for high-level question usage deserve some comment. Firstly, there is no definitive proof that high-level questions asked by the teacher promote academic

achievement, although this has been shown to be true in the case of examinations which test higher cognitive performance. But academic achievement is not the only goal of education. Teachers are preparing pupils for life, which demands that they be capable of employing all the productive thinking skills they possess. No milieu for cognitive training is more suitable than the formal education system.

Secondly, pupils who are not used to thinking at higher levels are often uncomfortable when initially asked to do so (Brown, 1975; Taba, 1966; McNamara, 1971), especially if there are cultural constraints, including language, involved. Those who advocate the use of more higher level questions also emphasize the necessity for careful formulation of those questions and the use of appropriate techniques to help pupils answer well. In this way, pupils become comfortable with their more demanding cognitive tasks and adept at completing them.

This brings the investigation back to that cognitive task which is the study of literature. H. B. Moody's defense (1971: 9) of literature as an appropriate subject for the training of the intellect will serve as a conclusion. He pointed out that in developing societies as much as in more developed ones, the very greatest need is for 'the application of logical and rational methods to vast ranges of nonscientific problems' and asserted that in those fields the study of literature, if properly handled, can provide excellent training.

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APPENDIX A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

APPENDIX A

Teacher Code Number	Secondary School	Sex	Highest Level of Education	Literature Teaching Experience
1	Kabwe	M	BAED3	0-2 yrs.
2	Kalonga	M	"	" "
3	Mumbwa	M	"	" "
4	Kaoma	M	"	6-8 "
5	St. John's	M	BA(For)	15 or more "
6	St Edmund's	M	BAED3	3-5 "
7	St Joseph's	F	"	" "
8	Namwala	M	BAED2	6-8 "
9	St Mark's	F	"	0-2 "
10	St Mark's	M	BAED3	9-11 "
11	St Mark's	M	BAED2	3-5 "
12	Njase	F	BAED3	0-2 "
13	Choma	F	BA(For)	3-5 "
14	St Mary's	M	"	11-14 "
15	St. Mary's	F	BAED3	3-5 "
16	Linda	M	BAED3	" "
17	Hillcrest	M	"	0-2 "
18	Hillcrest	M	"	" "

1 Teacher Characteristics

School	Province	Rural/Urban	Female		Male		Teachers in Study
			Day	Board	Day	Board	
+ Choma	S	R	51	355	40	395	1
Hillcrest	S	U	-	-	39	546	2
Kabwe	C	U	523	-	844	-	1
Kalonga	C	U	523	-	847	-	1
Kaoma	W	R	278	292	440	445	1
Linda	S	U	436	-	775	-	1
Mumbwa	C	R	168	298	260	502	1
Namwala	S	R	34	421	36	644	1
+ Njase	S	U	56	896	-	-	1
+ St Edmond's	S	U	-	-	522	102	1
+ St. John's	W	R	-	-	285	212	1
+ St Joseph's	S	R	-	610	-	-	1
+ St. Mark's	S	R	-	-	95	680	3
+ St Mary's	S	U	162	392	-	-	2

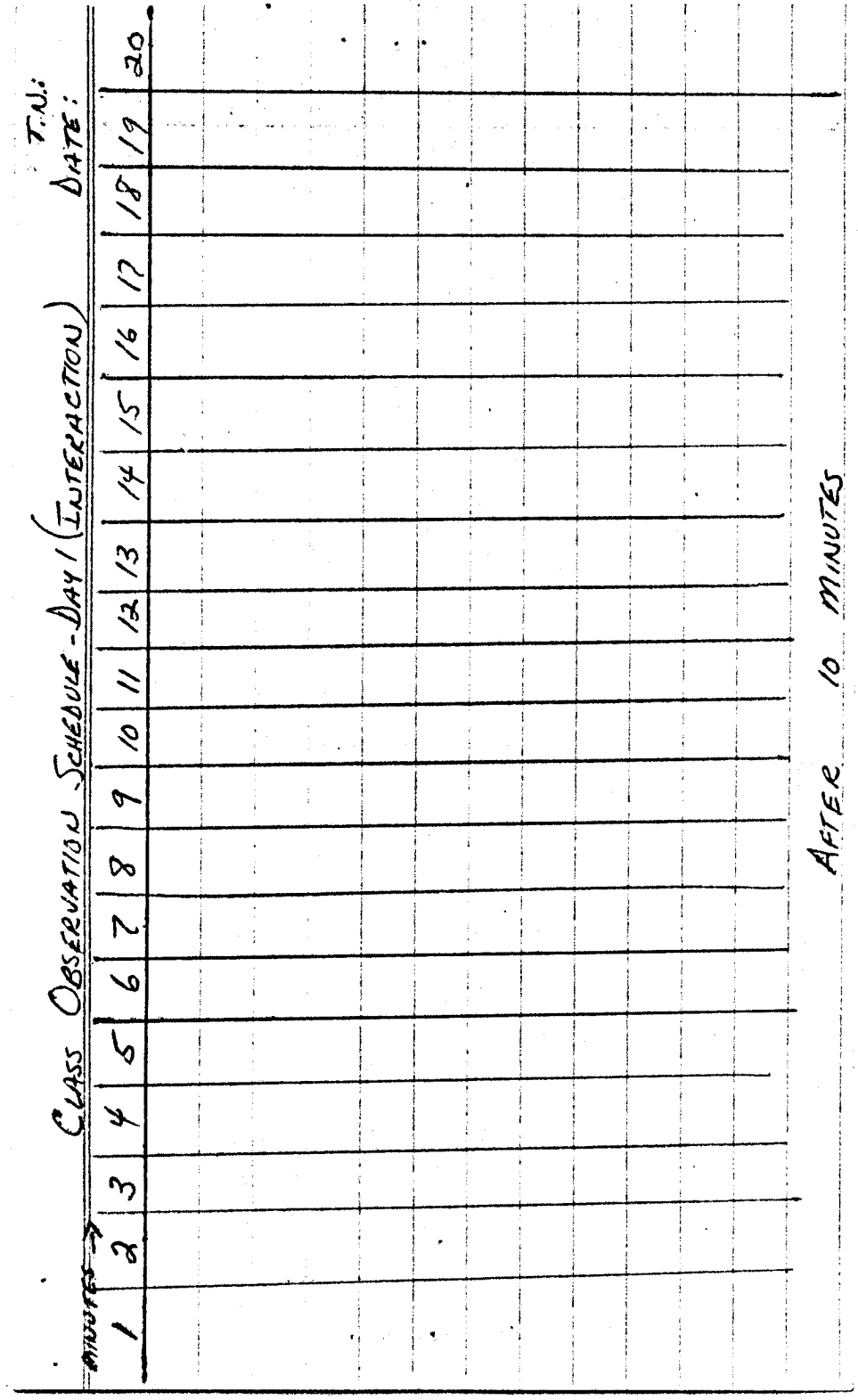
+ denotes aided schools
C=Central, S=Southern, W=Western
Statistics from Ministry of General Education and Culture files for first term and third term of 1986.

2 School Characteristics

APPENDIX 1: RESEARCH SCHEDULES AND INSTRUMENTS

APPENDIX B

1. Class Observation Schedule (Interaction)



2. Class Observation Schedule (General)

CLASS OBSERVATION SCHEDULE - DAY 1 (GENERAL)

T. No.:
DATE:

TIME	TECHNIQUE	CLASS ORGANIZATION

HOMEWORK:

SP___ DP___

3. THE TEACHER AND THE TEXT

Teacher No._____ Text under study:_____

All of the statements below are talking about the text which you are teaching at the present time.

Please read each of the statements carefully.

Write yes in the bracket after the statement if you agree with the statement.

Write no in the bracket after the statement if you do not agree with the statement.

1. I like this text but I don't understand it. ( )

2. This text is boring. ( )

3. This text is my favourite of all the ones on the set book list. ( )

4. This text is easy to teach. ( )

5. This book teaches something about the way people think and act. ( )

6. The author uses more detail than he needs. ( )

7. This text is disgusting. ( )

8. I love this text. ( )

9. There is no reason why students should read this book. ( )

10. One needs special notes from the Inspector to teach this text. ( )

11. The setting of the book is very strange. ( )

12. The students can learn something from this text. ( )

13. I do not think students profit from reading it. ( )

14. This text has a worthwhile theme. ( )

TEACHER CHARACTERISTICS

Teacher No.:_____ School:_____ Date:_____

1. Sex: M_____
   F_____

2. Training: Zambian: BAEd1_____
   BAEd2_____
   BAEd3_____
   MEd _____
   MAAL _____

   Foreign (country):_____
   BA_____
   MA_____
   Other _____

3. Total teaching experience:

   0-2 yrs _____
   3-5 yrs _____
   6-8 yrs _____
   9-11 yrs _____
   12-14 yrs _____
   15 or more yrs_____

4. Literature teaching experience:

   0-2 yrs _____
   3-5 yrs _____
   6-8 yrs _____
   9-11 yrs _____
   15 or more _____

Note: BAEd1 = 1 year of English teaching methods, no literature course.
BAEd2 = 1 year of English teaching methods with literature course.
BAEd3 = 2 years of English teaching methods with literature course(s)

5

GENERAL INFORMATION SHEET

Teacher No.:_____ School:_____ Date:_____

School characteristics:

1. Type: Boarding_____
   Day: _____
   Mixed _____

2. Funding/support:
   Government_____
   Aided _____

3. Location: Urban_____ Rural_____

Class information

1. Number of pupils _____

2. Seating arrangement:
   Assigned _____
   Unassigned _____

3. No. of students by sex: Male _____
   Female _____

4. Ages of students
   (As derived from attitude scale): 20 yrs or above _____
   19 yrs _____
   18 yrs _____
   17 yrs _____
   16 yrs _____
   15 yrs or below _____

5. Entrance to literature course: Choice _____
   Assignment _____

6. No. of literature texts available: _____

7. Time spent on text to date:_____

8. Text under study at present:_____

6 TEACHER INTERVIEW

Teacher No.____ School_____ Date_____

1. What techniques do you use in teaching literature?

2. Do you have a set procedure for studying texts? What is it?

3. In what way(s) do you think that the literature course could be improved?

4. In what way(s) could the examination in Literature in English be improved?

5. In what way(s) could the training in literature teaching at UNZA be improved?

6. Do you enjoy teaching literature? Would you prefer to teach another subject?

7. What do you consider to be the purpose of literature study?

Additional comments:

APPENDIX C: DATA IN TABLES, GRAPHS AND DESCRIPTION SHEETS

APPENDIX C

Teacher Code No	Test	Retest	Teacher Code No	Test	Retest
1	5 14	5 14	10	4 53	5 14
2	4 83	5 21	11	5 14	5 22
3	4 53	5 14	12	5.22	-
4	5 14	5 22	13	5.12	5 12
5	5 22	5 22	14	4.77	4 35
6	4.17	4 95	15	4 62	4.76
7	3 78	3 78	16	5.14	5 14
8	3 02	4.68	17	4 17	-
9	4 51	-	18	5.14	5 14

1 Attitude test and retest scores

Component:	Teacher Like or Dislike of Text		Teachability of Text		Value for Pupils	
Valence:	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative	Positive	Neg
	3(5 6) 8(5 9) 1(3 25)	2(0 25) 7(0.05) 6(2 0) 11(2 50)	4(5 12)	10(1 5)	5(4 67) 12(4 73) 14(5 08)	9(0 13(0

2a Components of attitude and values(in brackets) of items in the attitude scale

Teacher Code No	Like or Dislike: Inconsistent Items Chosen	Teacher Code No.	Teachability of Text: Inconsistent Items Chosen
2	8 and 11	3	4 and 10
6	8 and 6	6	4 and 10
7	8 and 6	8	4 and 10
15	8 and 11	9	4 and 10
17	3 and 6, 8 and 6	10	4 and 10

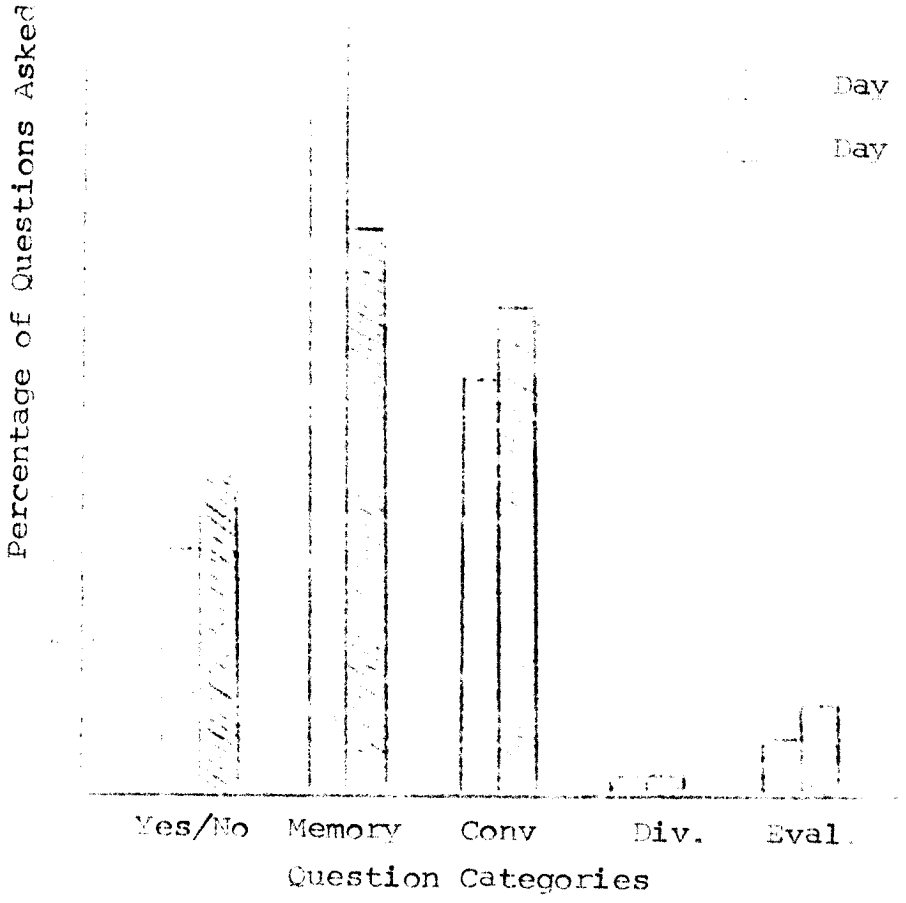
2b Inconsistent items answered affirmatively by teachers.

Items:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Teacher Code Numbers				1	1			1				1		1
			2	2	2			2			2	2		2
					3			3		3		3		3
				4	4			4				4		4
			5	5	5			5				5		5
				6	6	6		6		6		6		6
				7	7	7		7				7		7
				8		8	8			8	8	8		8
	9		9	9	9			9		9		9		9
				10	10			10		10		10		10
				11	11			11				11		11
			12	12	12			12				12		12
				13	13			13				13		13
					14			14				14		14
					15			15			15	15		15
				16	16			16				16		16
			17	17	17	17		17				17		17
				18	18			18				18		18

2c Items marked affirmatively in attitude scale (test 1) by the teachers

Question Category	Day 1	Day 2
Yes/No	48 (16)	79 (21)
Memory	158 (52)	136 (37)
Low-level Totals	206 (68)	215 (58)
Convergent	83 (27)	123 (33)
Divergent	4 (1)	3 (1)
Evaluative	11 (4)	26 (7)
High-level Totals	98 (32)	152 (41)
Totals	304 (100)	367 (99)

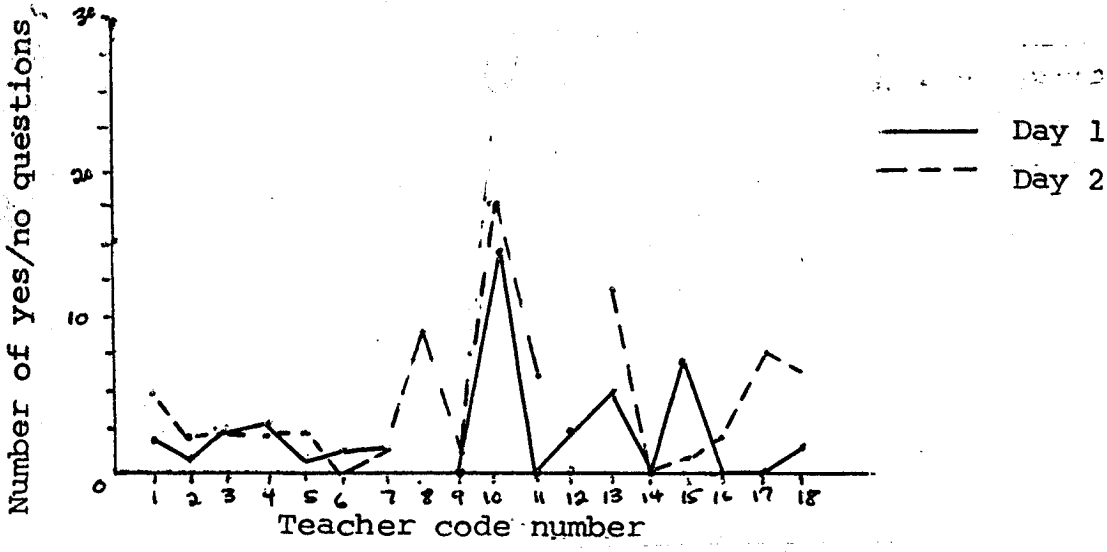
3 Number of questions asked on Day 1 and Day 2 per category (percentages in brackets)



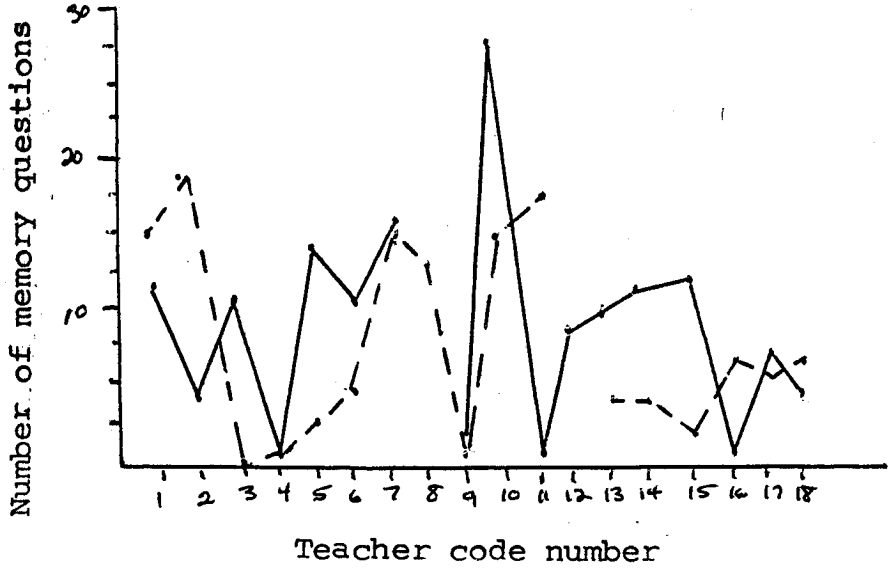
4 Percentages of total teacher questions asked in each category on Day 1 and Day 2.

Teacher Code No	Increase in score from Day 1 to Day 2 D 1	D 2	Categories Responsible for Change
1	13	26	Increase in M, C
5	17	79	Decrease in M, Increase in C,E
6	35	77	Decrease in M, Increase in C
9	62	75	Decrease in M
10	19	24	Decrease in M, Increase in C
13	30	33	Decrease in M, Increase in E.
14	37	71	Decrease in M, Increase in C
15	17	50	Decrease in M
16	50	58	Increase in C, E
17	33	38	Increase in C, D, E
	Decrease in score from Day 1 to Day 2		
	D 1	D 2	Categories Responsible for Change
2	50	37	Increase in M, Decrease in C
3	30	0	Decrease in C.
4	62	50	Decrease in C
7	28	19	Decrease in C
11	66	18	Great use of M
18	69	28	Decrease in C

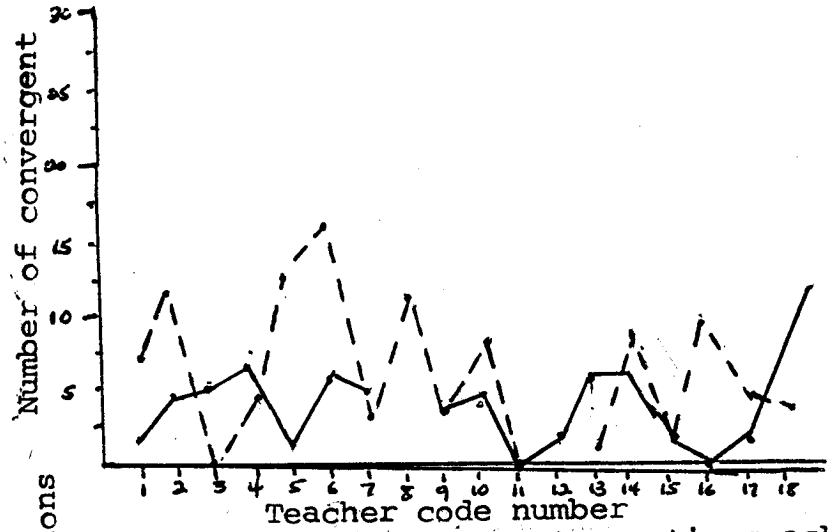
5 Increase or decrease in teacher high-level score from Day 1 to Day 2 with changes in category usage shown.



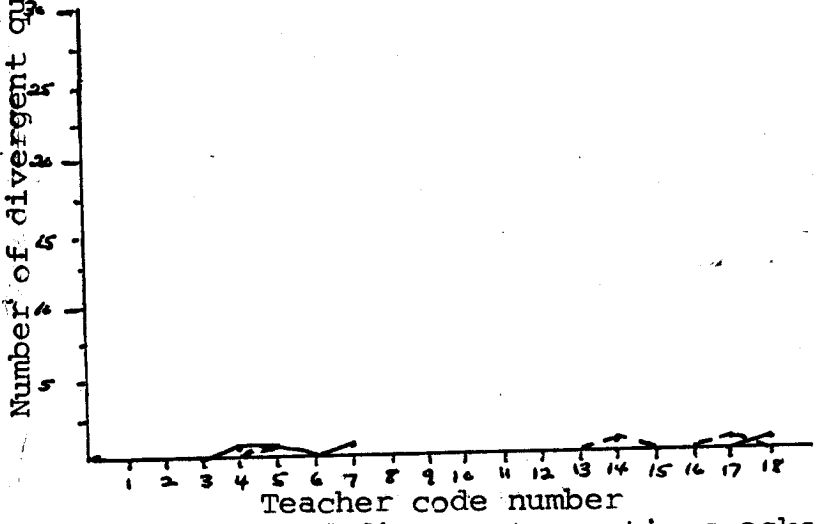
6 Number of yes/no questions asked by each teacher on Day 1 and Day 2



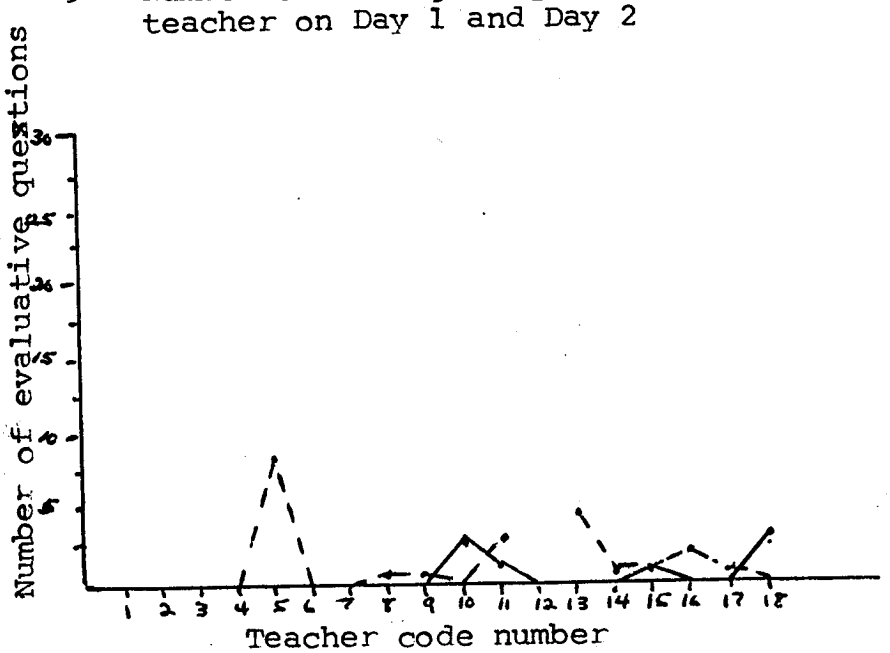
7 Number of memory questions asked by each teacher on Day 1 and Day 2



8 Number of convergent questions asked by each teacher on Day 1 and Day 2



9 Number of divergent questions asked by each teacher on Day 1 and Day 2



10 Number of evaluative questions asked by each teacher on Day 1 and Day 2

Day 1						Day 2				
Teacher Code No	Y/N	M	C	D	E	Y/N	M	C	D	E
1	2	12	2	0	0	5	15	7	0	0
2	1	4	5	0	0	2	19	12	0	0
3	3	11	6	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
4	4	1	7	1	0	3	1	4	0	0
5	1	14	2	1	0	3	3	14	1	8
6	2	11	7	0	0	0	5	17	0	0
7	2	16	6	1	0	2	15	4	0	0
8	Not observed.					9	13	13	0	1
9	0	3	5	0	0	1	1	5	0	1
10	15	27	6	0	4	17	14	9	0	0
11	0	1	0	0	2	6	17	1	0	4
12	3	8	3	0	0	Not observed.				
13	6	10	7	0	0	11	5	2	0	6
14	0	12	7	0	0	0	5	10	1	1
15	7	13	3	0	1	1	3	3	0	1
16	0	1	1	0	0	3	7	11	0	3
17	0	8	3	0	0	7	6	6	1	1
18	2	6	13	1	4	6	7	5	0	0

11. Number of questions per category asked by each teacher on Day 1 and Day 2

Yes/No Questions Used Most	
Teacher Code No	Pattern during 20 minutes coding period
3	YYY
10	(YY)(MM)MM(CYCYCYYMY)(CMYC)YYYY)(CYCYMY)MMMY(MMM)YM
13	MYYMCYYE(YYE)(EMY)EM(ECYYY)MYE
17	M(CCYC)MMYMC(YD)YYY(CMC)(MYE)

Memory Questions Used Most	
1	MMMY(MM)MM(CCM)(YM)MM(MYYMC)(MM)MM
2	MM(MC)(CCY)(MC)MMMMMMCM(MC)(MCC)MM(MCY)MM(MC)
7	MMMM(MY)(MMM)C(CMYM)(CM)
11	MYYMMMMMMMM(YYC)MMMMMMM(EY)EE(YE)
18	CMM(CM)(CYYM)MC(YC)Y(MMYY)

Continued on next page.....

Continued from previous page:

Teacher Code No	Pattern during 20 minutes coding period
Convergent Questions Used Most	
4	Y(CY)C
5	(DC)(CCM)C(CCMMC)CCCC(YEE)EE(EY)(CC)E(ECC)EY
6	(MM)(MM)CC(CC)(CC)(CCC)CCCC(CM)(CC)
9	YMC(CC)CCE
14	MCM(DCC)(CCE)C(CC)(MM)CCM
16	MC(CMMMM)C(CCECYC)CE(MM)(CCYY)(EC)
Equal Use of Memory and Convergent Questions	
8	(MM)MY(CMC)(CMMMC)(YC)C(MYC)(CY)(MMM)(YY)(MM)(ECY)C(CYMCC)
15	MMCCMECY

N B. Brackets show a series of related questions
Underlining shows questions not attempted or teacher answered
Homework not included.

12. Questioning patterns of teachers on Day 2

Category Used Most	Number of Unattempted Questions (Category in Brackets)	Total Number of Teachers Using Category
Convergent	6 (3Y, 3C)	6
Convergent and Memory	4 (2Y, 2M)	2
Memory	5 (1Y, 2M, 2C)	5
Yes/No	11 (3Y, 4M, 4C)	4

13 Questions unattempted tabulated according to the categories teachers used most frequently on Day 2

Purposes Expressed by Teachers	Number of Teachers
+ Begin to discuss ideas in books and implications of these ideas.	2
+ Develop/increase enthusiasm for literature.	7
+ See literature as expression of human problems.	11
+ See relevance of literature to circumstances and needs of today. Moral training	11
Help qualify for further studies or for a career	2
+ Gain deeper understanding of/improvement in language.	5
Get through exam.	1
Improve study and reading habits.	1

N B. + denotes syllabus-related objective

14 Purposes of literature study as perceived by teachers.

Scores	F	M	
	A	B	
0-40	2	7	9
	C	D	
41-80	2	6	8
	4	13	17

15 2X2 table for testing significance of differences between male scores and female scores using the Fisher test.

Yes/No		Memory		Memory/ Convergent		Convergent	
TCN	Training	TCN	Training	TCN	Training	TCN	Training
3	ED3	1	ED3	8	ED2	4	ED3
10	"	2	"	15	ED3	5	Foreign
13	Foreign	7	"			6	ED3
17	ED3	11	ED2			9	ED2
		18	ED3			14	Foreign

N'B' TCN=Teacher Code Number

16 Teachers categorized according to category used most on Day 2 with education given.

Literature Teaching Experience:	0-2	3-5	6-8	9-11	12-14	15 +
Teacher code number with high-level score in brackets	1 (26) 2 (37) 3 (0) 9 (75) 12 (--) 17 (38) 18 (28)	6(77) 7(19) 11(18) 13(33) 15(50) 16(56)	4(50) 8(64)	10(24)	14(71)	5(79)

17 Teachers categorized according to literature teaching experience.

TCN	H L Score	Attitude Score	TCN	H L Score	Attitude Score	TCN	H L Score	Attitude Score
1	26	5 14	7	19	3 78	13	33	5 12
2	37	4 83	8	64	3 02	14	71	4 77
3	0	4 53	9	75	4 51	15	50	4 62
4	50	5 14	10	24	4.53	16	58	5 14
5	79	5 22	11	18	5 14	17	38	4 17
6	77	4 17	12	-	5 22	18	28	5 14

18 Teachers' scores for high-level questions on Day 2 and for attitude toward the texts

Animal Farm			Lion and Jewel			No Longer at Ease		
TCN	H L Score	Attitude Score	TCN	H.L Score	Attitude Score	TCN	H.L Score	Attitude Score
2	37	4.83	17	38	4.17	7	19	3.78
15	50	4.62	18	28	5.14	11	18	5.04
						14	71	4.77
Mean:	43.5	4.73		33	4.65		36	4.56
Cry Beloved Country			Houseboy			Government Inspect.		
6	77	4.17	3	0	4.53	4	50	5.14
			8	64	3.02	5	79	5.22
Shaka Zulu			16	58	5.14	9	75	4.51
1	26	5.14				13	33	5.12
Old Man and Medal								
10	24	4.53	Mean:	40.6	4.23		59.25	5.00

19. High-Level question scores and attitude scores for each text.

TCN	Time	Score	TCN	Time	Score	TCN	Time	Score
1	5	26	7	6	19	14	8	71
2	5	37	8	4	64	15	5	50
3	4	0	9	5	75	16	4	58
4	1	50	10	1	24	17	3	38
5	2	79	11	7	18	18	5	28
6	3	77	13	4	33			

Teacher 12 not included because no Day 2 score.

N B. Time in weeks.

20 Time spent on the text in weeks with high-level score of the teacher.

Texts	Categories M	C	D	E	Totals
Animal Farm	1	5	0	0	6
Cry the Beloved Country	0	1	0	1	2
Government Inspector	2	4	1	1	8
Houseboy	1	5	0	0	6
Lion and the Jewel	3	5	0	0	8
No Longer at Ease	0	1	0	3	4
Old Man and the Medal	1	7	0	0	8
Shaka Zulu	2	2	0	0	4
All texts	10	30	1	5	46
All texts (percentages)	(21.7)	(65.2)	(2.2)	(10.9)	(100)

21 Categorization of the 46 questions from Section A2 and Section B of the Literature in English Examination (1981-1985).

22. Randomly selected questions from the Literature in English Examination (1980-1985) on the texts in the study (Section of examination given in brackets).

Text	Question Category
No Longer at Ease	
1. Compare the views of Christopher and Mr. Green concerning corruption and show how their attitudes influence Obi. (A2)	C
2. Trace the development of Obi's relationship with Clara. In your view, is Obi wise to pursue the relationship? Support your answer with evidence from the text. (A2)	D
Shaka Zulu	
1. Select two of the following characters which you find interesting and comment on what each of them contributes to the play: i. Nandi ii. Pampata iii. Mgobozi iv. Dingiswayo. (A2)	C
2. "Some kings are born as princes; not so with Shaka." Describe how Shaka rose to become one of the greatest kings Africa has ever known. (A2)	M
Cry the Beloved Country	
1. What does James Jarvis learn while in Johannesburg about his son Arthur's thoughts and activities? Show the effect this knowledge has on his own behaviour when he goes back to his home above Ndotsheni. (A2)	C
The Government Inspector	
1 The Government Inspector is a satire, which means that the author combines serious criticism with humour. Describe two major events which you feel illustrate satire most effectively in the play. (B)	C
2. Addressing his wife, the Mayor says, "Well, Anna, did you ever imagine this might happen? What a fine match!" With close reference to the play, explain how Hlestakov's proposal of marriage arose and show how this proposal had changed the Mayor's behaviour and attitude towards other people. (A2)	M
3. In his letter to Tryapitchkin, Hlestakov calls the Mayor and his subordinates 'generous, hospitable people'. Explain fully the reasons the Mayor and the other officials have for being generous and hospitable, and thus show why we are amused by Hlestakov's comments. (A2)	M

4. Select two of (i), (ii) and (iii) and write about them so as to show what they contribute to your enjoyment of the play: (i)Bobchinsky and Dobchinsky (ii) Anna, the Mayor's wife, and Marya, his daughter (iii) Josif, Khlestakov's servant. (A2) D

Houseboy

1. Just before he dies Toundi asks, "What are we blackmen who are called French?" Discuss the reasons why Toundi says this and its meaning with regard to his life and experiences. (A2) C

2 Give an account of Toundi's relationship with Sophie and Kalisia, showing how both characters influence his life. (A2) C

3. Describe two episodes in the novel which you find particularly amusing and discuss what they show about relationships between blacks and whites in colonial Africa. (A2) C

Animal Farm

1. "I do not understand it. I would not have believed that such things could happen in our farm. It must be due to some fault in ourselves." Tracing the development at Animal Farm from the time the animals rebelled to the time some animals were executed, say what had gone wrong at the farm and to what extent the animals were responsible. (A2) C

2. Give an account of the Battle of the Cowshed, making clear the role played by the pigeons and Boxer. (A2) M

3 Give an account of the part played by two of the following and comment briefly on your impressions of the animals you choose. What aspects of human behaviour do you consider that Orwell is criticising through them? Mollie Moses Boxer Benjamin. (A2) C

The Old Man and the Medal

1. The colonial administration's decision to award a medal is at first greeted with great rejoicing by the villagers. Choose any two characters and give an account of their reactions and activities that illustrate this pleasure. (B) M

2. When Meka returns home after his arrest he is greeted by his relatives and friends. By contrasting <u>this</u> meeting with their previous

rejoicing about the medal, show what changes have come about in their beliefs and values. (B) C

3. Meka replied to Gullet's interpreter: "Tell him I am a very great fool who yesterday still believed in the white man's friendship." Explain what reasons Meka had for expecting friendship from the white man, and give a concise account of two of the incidents involving white men that had occurred the previous day which prompted his words to Gullet's interpreter. (B) C

4. 'This book fiercely satirizes the French colonial situation as seen through African eyes.' Write about <u>at least two</u> of the French colonial officials in such a way as to show that this statement is true. (B) C

<u>The Lion and the Jewel</u>

1. Lakunle says Baroka is "sworn against our progress". Closely refering to the play, show how and why, according to Lakunle, Baroka has worked against progress in his land. Briefly show what progress has already been achieved. (A2) M

2. What do we learn about the character of Sadiku from her relationships with the three main characters in the play: (i) Baroka (ii) Lakunle (iii) Sidi? (A2) C

3. Select <u>either</u> Lakunle <u>or</u> Sidi and, supporting your answer by close reference to the text, show what you have learned about the character of your choice. Comment <u>briefly</u> on the ending of the play as far as it concerns each of them. (A2) C

4 What do you learn from the play about the old, the traditional way of life in Nigeria, and what evidence is also present that changes are taking place? (A2) C

23. Sample transcript of questions from classroom observation.

Teacher 16 - Day 2 - Transcription of Questions

Development of Toundi's character.

54 (1) We see the reaction of the Commandant when he asks him (Toundi) why he wouldn't steal. And he says - What was his answer to that?

64 (2) Later on however, how does he grow? What things contribute to his growth? 5

71 (3) What else does he observe that makes him stop fearing the whites so much and thinking that they are angels? 5

75 (4) How did they behave in church? 4

77 (5) What were they doing instead (of listening)? 4

79 (6) ' They were playing with each other.' What do you mean? 4

83 (7) 'They were not interested in what was going on in the service.' What were they doing instead? 4

90 (8) What else? (does he observe) 5

112 (Ø) If you analyze the character of Father Vandermeyer, what would you say about him? 5

114 (10) 'He was not a genuine Christian.' Why do you say that? 5

116 (11) 'He started shouting obscenities when he had malaria.' Why shouldn't that be the case? Why was it wrong? 7

132 (12) Again there is something which points to his not being a genuine Christian. What is it? 5

135 (13) But when you are strict does that mean you are not a genuine Christian? 3

143 (14) 'He used to punish Christians on Sundays.' Why should that be a point against him? 5

156 (15) 'He was a pretender' - at what? 5

182 (16) What else? The Commandant. What kind of human being do you think the Commandant is? 7

188 (17) (Pupil: When he quarrelled with his wife, Toundi was chased from the house by the wife, he - the Commandant - said "Leave him.") Ah, but what was the reason for doing that? 4

192 (18) He gives a reason himself. What reason does he give? 4