

University of Strathclyde
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Finding a Way Forward
***The Impact of Teachers Strategies, beliefs and
knowledge on teaching English as a Foreign
Language in Saudi Arabia***

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Dedication

*Dedicated with love to
the memory of my father Maneh Al-Johani
who taught me to seek and appreciate knowledge;
knowledge leads to faith;
faith leads to peace;
peace gives contentment.*

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Abstract

The low standard of achievement in English among students in Saudi public schools has been of concern to officials and parents alike for a number of years. Despite the fact that students receive in total six years of formal English teaching the majority graduate from high school unable to communicate or express themselves in English (Al-Nafisah, 2001). Researchers like Al-Mandil (1999), Bakarman (2004), have given some reasons for the students weakness in English. Some blamed the students others blamed the curriculum.

This study set out to investigate how well prepared the Saudi female teachers for their role as foreign language teachers. Existing literature helps in understanding what a foreign language teacher needs to know to become effective. To understand the knowledge and capability of the Saudi foreign language teacher a questionnaire for both teachers and students was developed and a field diary was kept. Female teachers and female students from schools in Riyadh, the capital city of Saudi Arabia, participated in this study. Students' responses were used to triangulate those of teachers.

The results showed that the problem is deeper than evident from current literature. There are social aspects: Saudi culture, authority and individualism that have a strong effect on teachers' and students' roles in schools, in addition to teachers training.

The study concluded that there is evidence that Saudi foreign language teachers have poor knowledge on theories and inadequate skills related to foreign language teaching, in addition to being behaviourist in their approach to teaching. The study highlights the need for serious examination of, and change in, programmes for teacher training. There needs to be reconsideration also of the role of teachers as trainers for other in-service teachers, and their role as reflective practitioners, to adopt solutions to the recurring problems, and to design their own methods for their language classes.

List of abbreviations

- CLT Communicative Language Teaching.
- EFL English as a Foreign Language.
- ESL English as a Second Language.
- FLA Foreign Language Acquisition.
- GPGE General Presidency for Girl's Education.
- MoE Ministry of Education.
- MoHE Ministry of Higher Education.
- SA Saudi Arabia.
- SFLT Saudi Foreign Language Teacher.
- SLA Second Language Acquisition.
- SLL Second Language Learning.
- SPSS Statistical Package for Social Science.

Chapter One

Introduction and Background Information

1.0 Introduction

As in the west, little is known about Saudi Arabia (SA), this chapter provides background information for the present study. It is divided into eight main sections. The first section is a profile of the enquiry area, SA. The second, third and fourth sections are concerned with the educational system in SA and the development of education through its historical stages. Sections five and six rationalize why English as a foreign language is taught in SA and describe the status of English as foreign language in SA. Section seven presents a rationale for conducting the research identifying the research objectives and what the present study aims to achieve. Section eight clarifies the boundaries of the study.

1.1 A Profile of Saudi Arabia

The Kingdom of SA enjoys a long and rich history that traces its roots back to the earliest civilization of the Arabian Peninsula. It is the birthplace of Islam and the home to Islam's two holiest shrines in Makkah and Medinah. The Saudi Arabian state was first established in the central region of the Arabian Peninsula in the early 18th century. Modern SA came into existence in 1932 when King Abdulaziz bin Abdurrahman Al-Saud, who was king of Hejaz and Sultan of Najid and its dependencies, united the two parts of his state under one unified administration and name. The King's official title is the Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques.

Throughout history, SA has enjoyed and continues to enjoy a special place in the Islamic world. It is towards Makkah that millions of Muslims throughout the world turn devoutly in prayers five times a day and annually come for pilgrimage. Accordingly, a thorough knowledge of Islamic history and culture is essential for a genuine understanding of SA and its people. Islam is the religion of all Saudi people, and it has a strong influence on their daily behaviour. The beliefs of Islam are an integral part of everyday life. Shari'a,

the Islamic code of law based on the Qur'an, is the basis of the legal system of SA. The Qur'an is considered the constitution of the land and provides the country with ethical values and guidance.

1.2 Saudis and Islam

As Saudis are all Muslims, it is understandable to think that Saudi society is Islamic society. Islamic society in general and Saudi society in particular, is a complex and frequently misunderstood. For that reason, it is important to highlight in brief some of the issues that relate to this study. Over 1420 years ago, the holy Qur'an (Muslim's holy book) gave women economic and social rights long before such rights were attained by western women. From the beginning of Islam, women were legally entitled to inherit and own property, and to hold their wealth in their own names even after marriage without obligation to contribute that wealth to their husband or family. The Qur'an is addressed to all Muslims, and for the most part it does not differentiate between male and female. Man and women, it says, "were created of one soul," and are moral equals in the sight of God. Women have the right to divorce, to inherit, to conduct business and to have equal access to knowledge.

According to Islamic teachings, one must respect and obey parents and elderly, but at the same time self-worth and self-development are encouraged. One (male/female) must have his/her own say in life and in making choices, simply because each person will be judged accordingly. Parents are forbidden from oppressing their children, and men from oppressing women.

1.3 Saudi culture

All Saudis are Arabs descended from indigenous tribes, and they share a common cultural background. They speak dialects of Arabic that can be understood throughout the country. Traditionally, the people of SA belong to tribes consisting of several families. These tribes represent the basic social and political unit for their members. Tribal ties are strongest in the rural areas. The tribal leader is generally one of the oldest and most judicious of the group, usually known as a 'Sheik'.

In many parts of SA, the customs of the people have remained the same as they were hundreds of years ago. Saudis are well known for their generosity, respect for family values and their strong faith. However, great changes are taking place throughout the country, largely because of the government's rapid modernization policy. The expansion of education is of immediate importance in SA.

An understanding of the styles of interaction accepted in the Saudi culture can help explain the behaviour of teachers and students in the classroom. The role of transmitter of knowledge and information is assigned to Saudi teachers by tradition and cultural values. Krasnick (1988) emphasizes that although cultural and interactional forces may not draw attention to themselves that does not mean they do not exist. It may simply mean that we do not perceive their existence. Therefore, it is helpful to appreciate the effect of cultural forces on teachers' and learners' beliefs and assumptions about authority, individualism, belonging to a community, and the distribution of roles and responsibilities in society at large and in the classroom in particular. In examining the Saudi culture, three major categories are considered: authority, individualism, and face saving.

1.3.1 Authority

This looks at how teachers are socialised into their roles as teachers, the source of their beliefs and assumptions about the nature of classroom interaction, and their rights and responsibilities as teachers. Considering the manner of interaction in social settings in Saudi society and analysing traditional forms of behaviour and interaction patterns in society can help in understanding why teachers in particular behave in the classroom as they do.

Saudi teachers are brought up in a society that believes in the importance of one voice, one thinker, one responsible person, and one speaker in every part of their lives. In other words, this society believes in a single authority figure, which is usually the male in the family, hence, the significance of the parent figure. The general method of interaction at home in the Saudi culture stresses that authority (parents, teachers and male members of the family) is external and imposed upon the individual, and that unquestioning obedience and loyalty are expected and considered the mark of good behaviour and

rated positively by society. This is expected more from females, rather than males who will grow up to be an authority figure.

In the family, the majority of parents view children as passive recipients whose role is to learn from the adults (parents, teachers or any adult who holds a high position in the family). For example, academic choices may actually be determined more by the father than by the student. Furthermore, if students fail at school, it is the parents who are blamed instead of their children. Similarly, if the child shows progress at school it is the parents who are praised for this success (Al-Nafisah, 2001).

In childhood, those who exercise authority over the individual are the father, mother, aunts, uncles, siblings, cousins, and other members of the extended family. A good child does not question the decisions and follows advice and commands from parents or teachers rather than resort to his/her individual preferred way of thinking and behaving. Failure to follow parents' advice is regarded as irresponsible behaviour and is criticised by other members of the family, friends, and society at large. Students have expressed that it is rude and disrespectful to question a teacher.

At school, the story goes on. Teachers form a similar relationship with their students to that described above. Teachers are the authority and students are the obedient followers. Teachers believe that learners, being low in status (like a child in a family), need explicit direction and help in order to learn. For example, teachers may attempt to control the thoughts, attitudes and emotions of the learner. Consequently, transmitting explicitly the importance or value of certain tasks to students and explaining the purpose of tackling a task or activity are not perceived to be part of the teacher's job. Teachers are more concerned with setting grounds for authority than building bases for interaction with the students that would establish relationships that could be viewed as powerful, rich and productive.

Teachers are provided with an authoritative book, the 'Teacher's Book' (Al-Ansari, 1995). In the Teacher's Book, the recommendations have been imposed on teachers, leaving them with no freedom to discuss or negotiate the methods they will adopt. In

addition, the yearly in-service they receive is an inspection of their work where the outcome affects their yearly grading (Al-Ansari, 1995).

In Saudi culture, the paternalistic familial pattern and its authoritative hierarchy extend throughout society. To give reasons and share them with children is considered by some parents to be a questionable practice, as children should view parents as authority figures. This is reflected in the educational system, which emphasizes an imitative rather than a creative approach to learning. Traditionally, students have learned primarily by memorization and imitation rather than by independent research and original work (Parker, 1992). At the same time, learners are expected to be passive recipients of information. For this reason, students in Saudi schools are not keen to ask why they are learning. As a result, the reasons for learning certain subjects or items of knowledge are rarely articulated by teachers and rarely raised by students (Al-Ansari 1995).

1.3.2 Individualism and development

In Saudi culture, it is unlikely that parents and teachers appreciate that each individual is unique (Al-Mandil 1999). Individuals are discouraged from being intellectually independent and from using their minds to form their own opinions. At home and at school, children reproduce ideas and opinions of others without integrating their thinking or questioning what they have been told (Parker, 1992).

Social morality in the Middle East (including Saudi society) prevails over personal morality; thus, concepts of right and wrong, sin, and shame, derive not from an individual's determination of appropriate behaviour, but from what society in general dictates as the social norm. In such society, an individual will suffer if s/he goes against the family or the tribe. The individual's sense of morality is collectivist and applies within their group.

Therefore, as classroom interaction reflects what goes on in society at large, the rights of the learner to be an independent individual who can develop and make decisions for herself/himself is not yet considered important. SFLT's do not place much faith in learners' abilities to take responsibility for their own learning or to make any meaningful

contribution to the process of creating knowledge in the classroom. How can they, if they are not encouraged and trained to do so?

From a SFLT perspective, if learners intervene in evaluating their own progress in learning the language, teachers will lose their credibility and control of the class (Al-Osaimi, 2001). Again, in the Saudi language classroom, it is the teachers who take responsibility for evaluating the learner's progress, as part of asserting authority and domination over the class. Thus, teaching students how to assess and monitor their own changes and its importance in developing their learning ability in the learning process do not receive sufficient attention from teachers. The lack of individualism and the perception of students as passive figures who take no responsibility in any interaction prevent students from looking at themselves as equal partners with teachers in a learning classroom.

Arguably, Saudi pupils believe that it is their duty not to argue, discuss, generate ideas, negotiate, plan or monitor changes in themselves (Al-Mandil, 1999). Helping learners to monitor changes and evaluate their progress in learning the language and to be independent and lifelong learners is not yet recognized as important in the Saudi context.

As mentioned above, because of the lack of individualism, learners have not been given opportunities to prove that they are capable of making decisions about the world and their place in it, about personal relationships, and about life goals and values. It is unhelpful if no attention is paid when students try to put these thoughts into words, or worse still, if the adults in their lives show clearly that they themselves suffer from an inability to produce such thoughts. This will cause children to feel incompetent and hesitant, and they may develop a negative self-image that discourages them from tackling any tasks, whether inside or outside the classroom.

The majority of Saudi children and adults have limited ability in expressing themselves or even determining what they want or need. In Saudi society, no individual responsibility is attached to control of behaviour. Individuals behave according to the rules and regulations of external instruction, without self-initiating and independent controlled behaviour. In some sense, students, no matter how old they are remain as

children, obeying and complying only when authority is physically present and when their superior is closely supervising them.

1.3.3 Face saving

Another cultural influence that may play some role in affecting language proficiency is face saving. From the Arabic perspective, one should observe and think carefully before responding, show modesty and reservation in expressing opinions, and keep silent and listen attentively if unsure about the correct answer and the topic discussed. These communication habits are deeply rooted in Arabic culture, which lays emphasis on harmonious human relationships, the hierarchy existing in relationships, and harmony-maintaining and face-saving behaviours. However, Arabic communicative style and behaviour such as hesitation and careful calculations and modesty in expressing one's opinions, may be interpreted as rude, slow, or insincere by native speakers of English, many of whom are not comfortable with silence and hesitation and are quick to express their opinions. Moreover, these harmony-maintaining and face-saving strategies may discourage students from taking the initiative to answer or to ask questions, from making alternative suggestions to the teacher, from expressing opinions in public, and from taking risks in learning.

Arabic students are educated and socialized to behave modestly and properly according to social practices and social norms. Basically, they are sensitive to harsh words and criticism and often feel shame when aware of their mistakes, for making errors indicates lack of intelligence and knowledge and may cause them to lose face. Saving face is an Arabic obsession and part of Arabic culture. In this cultural context, risk-taking is discouraged and being cautious and wise is encouraged. Socialized into this face-saving and shame culture, students in SA tend to be afraid of making mistakes when speaking English in front of native speakers; they are unwilling to start an English conversation for fear that they may make mistakes or behave abnormally and incur laughter and ridicule and lose face.

However, according to Al-Mandil (1999) many of the successful students sense the importance of spoken English and regret the lack of opportunities to practice speaking

English. To improve their speaking skills, many of them, feeling that formal English classes had failed to provide them with much opportunity to practice speaking English, attended special language courses and sought native speakers with whom to talk. They made many efforts to create opportunities to use English for communicative, functional purposes, feeling that it was important for them to improve and sharpen their speaking skills, so that they would be better qualified for jobs in the future.

1.4 The Educational Background

The roots of education in SA go deep into the Islamic heritage, which started fourteen centuries ago at the time of Prophet Mohammed (peace be upon him) who exhorted his followers “to seek knowledge from the cradle to the grave”. As well as a religion, Islam is a system of social organization, law, culture and thought. It gave particular priority to education and used it as the main instrument to construct Arab society. Education was based on the study of the holy Qur’an, which gives education the status of religious duty. The importance of education was stressed in various verses of the Qur’an (all verses are found in Hilali and Khan, 1996, the translated version of the Qur’an) the first verse, as an example, urges, “Read! In the Name of your Lord Who has created. Who taught the use of the pen” (The Qur’an, V.1, 4:96). Many other verses encouraged Muslims to seek knowledge and praise the position of a learned man, “Are those who know equal to those who know not?” It is only men of understanding who will remember” (Qur’an V.9:39). Many other different verses of the Qur’an have affirmed that God has created mankind in different origins, colours and languages, so that people may get to recognize each other. The Qur’anic verses have been the starting point of implementing the learning of at least one foreign language in the education system in most Arab countries, so as to facilitate communication and develop relations. Arabic students are affected by these verses and sayings since it gives education the status of religious duty by which all Muslims are obliged to learn not only about their religion but also about all kinds of knowledge and languages. High on the list of the latter, for generations, has been English.

As Islamic civilization began to expand, some time in the 11 centuries Islamic rulers came to meet different civilizations and thus realized the need to learn foreign languages

and to develop their education system. Therefore, Arab educators devised a theory that would facilitate the process of learning foreign languages and indeed any other subjects. Their theory was that emphasis should be shifted from memorization to discussion and interaction between students and teachers and among themselves. In practice, this became the model for SA teachers and their approach to teaching English as a foreign language. They based their teaching on observation of the learner's interest and motivation. The topics introduced were compatible with the student's understanding and experience, using a simple level of language suitable for their age, before moving on to more complex concepts.

Students would start school at the same age and once they began to show differences in ability, they would be streamed accordingly. Individual differences in intelligence, abilities, and interests were all taken into consideration. Peer group teaching was applied as advanced students taught new students and worked as teacher's assistants and aided the teacher in giving individualized instructions to new learners (Al-Zaid, 1982). All of these were features of what is now called communicative language teaching (Brumfit, 1984; Johnson, 2001) which is lacking in SA at present, but educators are trying to re-apply it to the present teaching methods.

Throughout the centuries, as economic and political changes took place in SA, a consequence was the decline of education. During that era, education was not for all, and public, until the first quarter of the twentieth century it was considered a luxury for the wealthy upper classes. The majority never received any kind of education and did not expect their children to do so. The family was the main source of education through which a person learned about his country's history in detail and could recite the Qur'an, in addition to a great deal of folk poetry. Through this informal education, the sons inherited their fathers' careers, which passed to them from one generation to another. However, there were some types of education that were held in the mosques and a very few private schools.

In SA, the only kind of education, which existed from as early as the 7th century, was the teaching of Islam and the holy Qur'an. Religious education was provided in the Mosques

to male students only, in the form of groups called 'Al-Kuttab' (an expression derived from the Arabic verb for 'to write'). Students also learned arithmetic and received training in reading and writing. The teaching mainly focused on studies of the Koran and Hadith (the sayings of Prophet Mohammed). A similar form of education was provided to females, but conducted in private by female tutors.

In cooperation with some neighbouring Arab countries, Egypt in particular, a step towards formal education was taken in 1926 when King Abdulaziz established the Directorate of General Education. This Directorate was responsible for formal education in the country. With the discovery of oil in 1938 (Al-Baadi 1988), Saudi social life started to change. Since then education has become more formal, as a consequence of the government starting to plan for the country's growth. Demand to open schools everywhere in the country (in cities, towns, villages and among nomadic tribes) increased. People began to view education as a requirement, something that everybody should have. In 1953, the Directorate of General Education was replaced by the Ministry of Education (MoE) as the authority responsible for the educational policy, curriculum planning, and construction of boys' schools. It runs boys' schools of free, general and vocational education at the three levels primary, intermediate and secondary, including special and adult education as well as teacher training, to date.

The first girls' school established in SA was in 1944 in Makkah, and it was a private one. Dar Al-Hanan, in Jeddah, which was also a private school for girls, was established in the 1950s by the late king Faisal Al-Saud who led a movement for educating women. His initiative led to the establishment of the General Presidency for Girl's Education (GPGE) in 1960, which marked the beginning of girls' education in state schools. It was set up under the supervision of the leader of the supreme board of Islamic scholars, the 'Mufti', who decided upon the acceptable moral and physical conditions under which girls were to receive their education. The GPGE protects girls' educational interests at the three levels of free general education, namely primary, intermediate and secondary, including adult education. Vocational education is limited to certain disciplines at the tertiary level specifically medicine, nursing, and education. The GPGE also supervises female special

education, tailoring centres, nursing, literacy programmes, and university-level girls' colleges.

Since 2003, the Ministry of Education (MoE) has been responsible for both boys' and girls' education. At present, the responsibility for education lies in two authorities that are supervised by the Higher Committee for Educational Policy headed by the King: The Ministry of Education, which is the principal authority for boys and girls education to the end of the secondary stage; and The Ministry of Higher Education which was founded in 1976 and which is responsible for universities and junior colleges.

Education is free of charge for everybody at all levels, and there has never been any need to make it compulsory. Students are encouraged to continue their higher education by receiving financial help at university level only, free housing, free meals and books. The material and social objectives of the education curriculum in the Kingdom are based on the Islamic values and cultural heritage of Saudi society that form the cornerstone of long-term-development.

1.4.1 Educational Structure

The educational structure of SA is similar in many respects to that of other Arab countries and perhaps to that of other countries of the world. These involve six major stages: pre-elementary stage (kindergarten); elementary stage; intermediate stage; secondary stage; university stage; and postgraduate study stage.

Pre-elementary stage: (Kindergarten and nursery stage). This stage of education is mostly operated by the private sector, but the MoE also operates a few of these schools. The MoE regards this type of education as an informal educational stage. Children between the ages of 3-5 years usually attend these schools. This type of education is found only in the main cities and not everybody can afford to enrol their children into these schools because of the high fees charged.

Elementary stage: Students enter this level at the age of six. This stage consists of six grades. At the end of the sixth grade at the age of 11, the students have to pass a general examination to enter the intermediate level.

Intermediate stage: The intermediate stage consists of three grades. Students enter this level at the age of 12. At the start of the first grade, English language is introduced to the students on an average of four periods (each period is 45 minutes) a week. At the end of each grade, students have to take a written exam in order to progress to the following grade. Students are expected to complete this stage at the age of 15.

Secondary stage: This stage is considered to represent the final stage of general education in SA. Students enter this level at the age of 15. It consists of three grades. The first grade is concerned with general studies. After finishing an exam for the first grade, students have to specialise either in scientific or literary studies. The study of science allows students to apply to study science or literary subjects at university level, whereas literary studies allow students to go on to study literary subjects only. Students in this stage continue to study English language for four periods a week (each period is 45 minutes). At the end of the third grade, students have to take a general examination (General Secondary Certificate). Passing this examination makes students eligible for admission to enter undergraduate programmes at college or university. English as a subject is considered to be more important than other subjects, especially for those who intend to join a university in which the instruction medium is English, such as, King Fahed University for Mineral and Petroleum, located in Dahrán. Furthermore, for some students, English may be considered as an obstacle to obtaining a secondary certificate. For those going into higher education, English becomes more than simply an acquired foreign language. It is a second language, required for the rigours of higher academic learning.

Higher education: At the present time, there are eight universities in SA offering undergraduate and postgraduate studies. Each university comprises several colleges and major departments. Students can join these universities when they have the secondary certificate, or its equivalent, at the age of 18. Each university is established in a different

region to serve specific educational purposes and to meet the special needs of that region. The oldest and largest university is King Saud University, and it was founded in 1957 (Al-Nafisa, 2001). The other seven universities were established gradually, according to educational development plans, to overcome the severe shortage in qualified and experienced labour in all fields. Each university is, for the most part, independent in planning its educational policies, regulations and budgets. However, all the universities in the country have links with the Ministry of Higher Education (MoHE).

Technical education: In 1964 the Saudi government has recognised the importance of technical education. Technical education is divided into two stages, namely secondary and the post secondary stages. The secondary stage comprises industrial, commercial, agricultural and medical health schools. Students are admitted to these schools after completing intermediate school and at the age of 15. The duration of study at these schools is three years, during which time the students study for the Secondary Technical Certificate, which entitles them either to work or to pursue an undergraduate programme of studies.

The other level of technical education is the post-secondary stage. In this stage, students are admitted to post-secondary schools after completing secondary technical schools at the age of 18. Recently, the Saudi government established more colleges of technology. These colleges admit students after either completing secondary school or technical secondary school. The duration of studies in these colleges is three years, after which students are awarded a diploma in one of the technical majors.

Vocational training: The Saudi government has also established vocational training centres. These centres are connected to the General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training. Students are admitted to these centres after completing the elementary stage of education at the age of 12. However, students who have completed up to fourth and fifth grade of the elementary stage by the age of 11 can be admitted to these centres. These centres offer a training course to prepare entrants as semi-skilled labour (MoE).

Special education: This type of education is offered to physically and mentally disabled persons. It consists of different types of schools operating at different levels, from pre-elementary school to secondary school. However, special education is independent from the elementary to the secondary stage. Students who have completed the secondary stage can enrol at the university. It is worth mentioning that special education in SA is still in its infancy. Much more needs to be done (MoE).

Religious education: Students can enrol for this type of education after completing the intermediate school, finishing at the age of 15. These 'religious institutes' are connected to the Imam Mohammed Bin Saud Islamic University. Students who pass through these institutes are entitled to study programmes in one of the Islamic major colleges, and they are also entitled to enrol at any university in the country (MoE).

Adult education: This type of education is directed at those who are illiterate. It is organised in two stages: the preliminary stage, which lasts for 16 months; and then there is the follow-up stage, which lasts another 16 months. The students are given intensive courses in reading, writing, arithmetic and religion (MoE).

In addition to the above mentioned types of education, there are other schools and institutes connected for instance to the military establishments, or other ministries, such as the Health Ministry. These schools and institutes enrol students from different stages.

1.4.2 Female Education

It is essential to introduce some background information about female education, in particular, because all subjects participating in this study are females at intermediate and secondary stages. Prior to the establishment of formal education in 1960, Saudi Arabian females had limited access to any type of schooling. Education was denied to women, based on traditional values combined with ignorance and what many believe to be the misinterpretation of Islamic teaching. According to Islam, education is a duty for both male and female (Sami and Sajjad, 1983). The Kuttab, or female tutors, were one of the very few tutorial channels available to females. Women who had been taught to read and write the holy Qur'an would open their own houses to teach reading, pronunciation and

understanding the meaning of the holy Qur'an. In addition, their teaching included mathematics and general reading. Private education played a vital role in the absence of government provision.

The beginning of girls' education in SA dates from 1960. Since then the government has offered an opportunity for every girl to study at school. The system for girls' education is very similar to that of the boys in terms of the stages of schooling, the number of years in each stage, and the curriculum, but with minor variations to meet the needs of the two sexes. It is worth mentioning that education in SA is not co-educational. The two sexes are segregated, but both receive the same quality and educational materials. There are elementary, intermediate, secondary schools, colleges and universities run by the girls' education administration; in addition, there are many other programmes related to female education. This study looks at English teaching in intermediate and secondary girls schools.

1.5 English in Saudi Arabia

English language was introduced into SA with the discovery of oil in the thirties. At that time, most of the oil production was dominated by foreign companies. This fact drew attention to the importance of English language as a medium of communication. English as a second language is used in everyday life as a common language between foreigners of different native language groups and between foreigners and Arab speakers. Equally significant is the extent to which English is used in business, commerce, technology, and as a medium of instruction in some colleges. The teaching of English was implemented in all state schools to meet the needs imposed by modern technology and communications, and to enhance contact with non-Arabic speaking people.

English is major international language of communication in the world. The need to be able to use English was felt both by the government and by the public, because SA allows non-Arabic speaking foreigners (experts, scientists, professors, doctors, domestic helpers, etc) to visit and work in the country. Moreover, as the heartland of Islam, millions of Muslim pilgrims of different nationalities come to SA every year to perform Hajj (a

religious requirement, to be performed once in a lifetime if the person is physically and financially able). Therefore, an increasing number of Saudis are expected to hold positions requiring them to deal with the English-speaking world. Consequently, they need to reach a good level of competence in English.

Due to the developing phase in SA, particularly in the oil sectors, petrochemicals and other industries, proficiency in English has played a distinctive role not only in developing the industries and marketing the products, but also in training the labour to staff the technical positions created by these industries.

English is taught to female and male Saudi students in Saudi schools as a compulsory subject. There are several reasons why this is so. SA was never colonized, so there are no feelings of hostility or hatred towards English as the language of the colonist. Moreover, in SA there is no conflict between learning a foreign language and the native traditions and religion. On the contrary, according to Islamic teachings it is a Muslim's duty to learn a foreign language. From another perspective, a foreign language such as English stands for modernization, civilization and freedom, that that makes it very attractive to some young Saudi students (Al-Majed, 2000).

English plays a very distinctive role in SA as a means for achieving academic and educational targets. At university level, it is the medium of instruction in science, engineering and medicine. English is taught to students to enable them both to continue their education at university level and to use it as a medium of communication with the international community.

The rapid growth in the Saudi Arabian economy, the investment of oil revenues in domestic economic development, and the increase in the personal income, all led to a reliance on foreign workers from across the world. This created a need to use English as a mutual language for communication. For this group of Saudis, English becomes a second language more than simply a foreign language.

In addition to the above, English is prevalent in Saudi society. English is used in different places at airports, hospitals, in businesses, shops, supermarkets, travel agents and

restaurants. Some local newspapers (*Arab News, Riyadh Daily and the Saudi Gazette*) are written in English, and two local radio stations and a TV channel are broadcast in English.

1.6 Current Status of foreign language teaching in Saudi Arabia

English language was first introduced in SA in the late 1950s in the secondary curriculum, as a subject alongside French, but with no definite syllabus. In 1958, English became compulsory at intermediate and secondary level. Whereas French was revoked in 1970 (Al-Majed, 2000). In 1959, the Saudi MoE formulated a complete English language curriculum for intermediate-level schools (grades 7-9). This curriculum had specific objectives and incorporated government policies and a syllabus. In 1960, the MoE formulated a similar curriculum for secondary-level schools (grades 10-12) (Arishi, 1984).

English is the only foreign language taught in Saudi state schools. The teaching of English in these schools begins in the first year of the intermediate level (7th grade) and continues until the student finishes her/his last year of the secondary school (12th grade). Students in both intermediate and secondary-level schools receive four lessons per week, and each lesson lasts for forty-five minutes. In this period, the teacher must cover the four skills, speaking, listening, reading and writing.

English is acknowledged as the leading language of science, technology, education and politics, as well as business and commerce. Much scientific research is written in English or translated into English, and technical terms are frequently of English origin. Understanding the culture of other people requires an understanding of the language, which reflects a culture's thoughts and values (Gardner, 1985).

In spite of the need for students to have competence in the English language, levels of competence in schools and after graduation are poor and remain unsatisfactory in terms of the government's objectives. Although a large amount of instruction time in the

curriculum is devoted to teaching English, students entering university are poorly prepared to start their higher education (Al-Nafisah, 2001).

Inside the Saudi classroom, the physical layout is identical for all lessons, the teacher's desk at the front facing rows of students who sit behind desks. Teaching in general still follows the traditional behaviourist approach. Classes are teacher-centred, keeping students as part of the background. The teacher is the focus of attention, occupying the centre stage and playing a dominant role in all classroom activities. Any English language lesson is rote-learned and fact-based.

Once the lesson has started the teacher spends most of the time explaining and illustrating new language items, sometimes orally, sometimes writing on the board, while students listen, read, or copy from the board. New language learned is restricted to asking students to make questions using those points; the majority of students (Emara, 1994) regard this task as very difficult. Occasionally, one or two students are invited to explain grammatical points at the board. Finally, a few comprehension questions on a reading passage are answered before the lesson is over.

The teaching atmosphere tends to reflect traditional practice whereby importance is given to grammar by explicit explanation at the expense of student participation and opportunities for engagement in dialogue (Emara, 1994; Bakarman, 2004). Although such a procedure can be demotivating and not helpful to learning, most teachers view it as a normal way of teaching given the time constraints and other difficulties under which they work. However, there is a lack of genuine opportunity to participate and interact in class, or to employ even a minimum use of English as far as the students are concerned.

Moreover, all the linguistic messages included, in terms of language structure and vocabulary, are controlled and practised through a variety of exercises. These often serve to reinforce the messages presented by means of set patterns, which have to be followed.

At present, English language classes are facing a number of difficulties, and these have affected English education (Emara, 1994; Al-Mandil, 1999). Necessary teaching aids such as tapes and posters, which should come as part of the instructional package (Emara,

1994), are not available. Although half the schools are equipped with language laboratories, they are not used because of the poor quality of recordings and lack of female technicians to operate and maintain them. This restricts opportunities for more participative learning on the part of students.

Several factors may contribute to the inadequacy of foreign language teaching at intermediate and secondary level in state schools. Factors such as over-crowded classroom (Emara, 1994), overloaded schedules for teachers, a shortage of instructional materials and supplies, traditional methods and poor textbooks are all at fault (Al-Nafisah, 2001). In addition, as the testing system does not require oral proficiency, only a written test is given. The opportunity to practise the spoken language is limited (Bakarman, 2004). It would seem that the main incentive for students to study the English language is to pass exams (Al-Mandil, 1999; Bakarman, 2004). This may relate little to the reality of English usage in Saudi life and work.

The EFL teaching deficiencies in SA schools are the result of many factors (Al-Nafisah, 2001). These deficiencies, however, are rooted in the learning process. Teachers, materials and learners work in a very basic, traditionalist-learning environment and may not get broader experience. The most serious and important factor for the learning process is teachers as they play the main role and can contribute to the success or failure of the learning process.

Many specialists and educators feel that the teacher of English in SA is the most important factor in accounting for the lack of language proficiency of intermediate and secondary students in English. Al-Gaeed (1983), Arishi (1984) and Abu-Ras (2002) have drawn the same conclusions: the teacher does most of the talking in the language class. While explaining the text, the teachers do not try to give examples from the real world. The teachers do not praise students or use encouraging phrases and they tend to correct the student's mistakes immediately. There is constant criticism of students' attempts. Student participation and the ideas provided by students are never encouraged, most of the knowledge transmitted in the classroom is delivered to the students in the form of lectures. The audio-lingual method is all about given students a set of sentences and

expecting them to present the same response through repetition and mastering the building structure of the language (Freeman, 2000). This method is favoured by the foreign language teachers in SA (Al-Mandil, 1999; Al-Nafisah, 2001). Newer methods of foreign language teaching, such as communicative approaches, are never tried by the teachers (Abu-Ras, 2002; Bakarman, 2004). The culture of the native speakers of the language is never mentioned or considered. These confirm the claim of the educators in SA that SFLT are failing in the skills necessary to teach effectively in the classroom.

1.7 Statement of the Problem/Purpose of the Study

Standards of achievement in English among students in Saudi schools are unsatisfactory and disappointingly low (Emara, 1994; Al-Nafisah, 2001). For years, officials and educators have expressed their concern and dissatisfaction regarding students' low achievement in English. In spite of the fact that the students study English for six years at school, and for an average of four hours a week, most of them go to university with very little skill in expressing themselves in English.

This issue was raised as early as 1984 in one of the Saudis' major newspapers. In April 1984, *Al-Riyadh*, the principal daily newspaper in the capital, stated that students' low achievement level in English was a major problem that needed a solution. The *University Mirror* (17 April 1995), a newspaper published by Imam Muhammad Bin Saud Islamic University in Riyadh, presented a report entitled, "Students' Weakness in English-Why?" In this report, a number of English teachers and students were interviewed and asked about the difficulties that students encounter in learning English and how to find solutions to these problems and difficulties.

Different views were expressed regarding the causes of the weakness in English among students. Some blamed the curriculum, saying that it mainly concentrates on learning a number of grammatical rules and a list of words just to pass the exams; it does not encourage the students to practise English inside or outside the classroom. Some blamed it on the teaching method adopted in schools. Another group attributed the problem to the limited time devoted to teaching English in schools. Others blamed the teachers, claiming

that they were not suitably qualified and they were not willing to make an effort to improve their teaching skills (Emara, 1994).

Studies conducted by Saudi researchers on Saudi students (Al-Shammary, 1984; Al-Majed, 2000; Al-Nafisah, 2001) reported problems related to teaching and learning English in Saudi schools. They also reported weakness and low achievement among Saudi students. In addition, these studies reported that English teaching is strongly influenced by the approach employed in teaching the Arabic language; that is memorization of written forms, formal instruction and academic analysis, rather than an emphasis on communicative competence and communicative pedagogies. Chomsky's (1975) term 'communicative competence' is to represent the use of language in social context. He defined it as everything the speaker knows in order to communicate adequately in a speech community. The traditional approach shares many features with the grammar-translation method (Freeman, 2000). It develops the competence of the student in English knowledge rather than performance. The student is assessed with reference to his competence in knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary rather than his performance in the actual use of the language. As for language skills, reading and writing are dealt with separately and are focused upon at the expense of listening and speaking, which are wholly ignored.

Techniques used for instruction are chorus work, answering questions, correction, and individualizing learning, behaviourist approach (Brown, 2007). Games and role-play are rarely used (constructivist approach). The audiovisual aids designed for the syllabuses are wall charts, flash cards and in some schools, cassettes. Although the MoE permits the use of different teaching methods, language teachers tend to favour the traditional method.

The primary problem is that most Saudi students persistently complain of the difficulties they face in learning English in Saudi schools (Al-Nafisah, 2001). Personal experience of a Saudi education presented me with the opportunity to witness these difficulties among peers at the secondary level. Early immersion in the USA education system meant that English was never a hard subject. This placed me in the position of an observer of the difficulties experienced by my classmates, which they tried to solve by memorising as

much as they could before the exams, simply to gain a pass. The difference was that my peers were learning English as a foreign language through outdated methods lacking interaction, while I had had the benefit of being immersed in learning the subject as a second language, complementing Arabic, using English, speaking English, and learning English in context. That knowledge and experience will be apparent in my involvement as a participant and researcher in this study.

Personal experience led to questions about understanding why Saudi students face difficulties in learning English. Having viewed with frustration and despair the efforts of my peers in learning English, and as the issue is still prevalent since the new studies (Al-Nafisah, 2001; Abu-Ras, 2002) revealed the same conclusions as previous studies (Al-Shammary, 1984), the intention in this study is to investigate how well prepared is the Saudi Foreign Language Teacher (SFLT) to teach English. As the learning environment is SA, the issues emerging will be viewed in the context of teaching English as a foreign language, rather than as a second language, within the Saudi school system. When learning a language in an environment where it is not used it is known as learning a foreign language, tutored setting. As for a second language it is where the language is learned from the native speakers in a natural environment (Ellis, 1985).

The difficulties students face in learning a foreign language, or any other subject for that matter, is in some ways related to the teachers' capability (Al-Ansari, 1995; Abu-Ras, 2002; Bakarman, 2004). In the learning process, the teacher plays a major role and can contribute to its success or failure. Many specialists and educators feel that the teacher of the English language in SA is the most important factor in accounting for the lack of language proficiency in students. This needs to be probed.

The minimum requirement set by the MoE for English language teachers is a degree in English, but previous training and experience, and higher qualifications, though taken into consideration, are not required. No regular in-service programmes are provided for English language teachers. Training sessions are run only when major changes are introduced into the English language programme. Most teachers do not have an adequate

command of English, nor receive guidance and enough attention in terms of updating their knowledge in the field of English as a foreign language (EFL) (Al-Ansari, 1995).

A number of studies have revealed many problems related to SFLT (Arishi, 1984; Jan, 1984; Al-Majed, 2000). Teachers dominate the talk in class at the expense of student participation and practice of English. Some of the teachers use Arabic language in explaining English patterns or vocabulary. They use translation to make their job easier. The use of translation impedes students' progress in developing their communicative competence of a foreign language (Emara, 1994). Some teachers spend too much time correcting students' grammatical and phonetic mistakes. In other words, teachers seem to be more concerned with accuracy than fluency; the culture underpinning English language is rarely mentioned or considered by teachers; teachers encourage memorization among students; new methods, such as communicative approaches, are never tried by the teachers (Abu- Ras, 2002; Bakarman, 2004).

To investigate a teacher's ability to teach a foreign language it is necessary to understand what enables a teacher to engage learners with a foreign language (Oxford, 1990). Existing literature explains theories and practice related to the development of English teaching in Saudi schools. However, before going into detail on the literature review, it is essential to shed some light on the scope and limitation of this study.

1.8 Scope and Limitation

The research for this study was conducted in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia's capital and largest port. The study was limited to fourteen schools (intermediate and secondary), and it was carried out with female teachers and students only. No male teachers or male students were involved in this study, because data collections procedures in SA are only permitted with members of the same sex in accordance with religious principles.

The findings of this study are limited to the study population from which the sample was taken from with no attempt to make generalization concerning the opposite sex.

However, conditions in Riyadh are assumed to be similar to those in other parts of the Kingdom, because the education system is centralized, thus it is likely that the

implications will have general relevance to both female and male teachers and students all over the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Literature on the teaching of English in SA is very limited. No official statistics are published. Therefore, the literature involving SA is limited to the theses written by Saudi researchers on the status of foreign language teaching in SA. Since the study is primarily restricted to the consideration of issues relevant to the Saudi education system, these theses provide important detail on old and current trends and practices in Saudi schools and any theories that underpin them. The majority of these studies are over 25 years old and a few are up to date. SA may not be unique in the terms of reference that dictate its education system, but investigation of issues related to the teaching of English in Saudi schools needs to focus on its idiosyncrasies.

Work conducted in the USA and UK was also considered, because in comparison to SA they are more developed in the field of foreign language teaching.

1.9 Chapter Summaries

The present study consists of seven chapters. Chapter one is an opening chapter which dealt with the background information. It outlines the enquiring area and gives background information concerning culture and education. It described the problem and dealt with the purpose and motivation of the present study. The chapter has also highlighted the scope and limitation of the study.

Chapter two focuses on the areas that are essential for a FLT as it appears in the literature. It highlights the theoretical and practical areas related to foreign language teaching, as well as, the importance of reflective practice in a FLT profession. It points out the importance of a well developed pre-service and in-service training programme. It presents findings of some studies related to the present study. In addition, this chapter presents the research questions.

Chapter three is on the research methodology. It presents a view of the nature of research with its two modes, quantitative and qualitative. Types of research methods used in the

study are discussed. The results of a pilot study are given. The sample and methods of data collection are described and explained.

Chapter four presents and describes the data used in the analysis and discussion in chapter five. It gives the possible reasons for the contradictions between the results of the questionnaires and interviews.

Chapter five gives an analysis and discussion of the resulting data of the study. It describes the use of quantitative and qualitative analysis to answer the research questions.

Chapter six is a critical analysis of the teacher education system in Saudi Arabia and its limitation in equipping the SFLT in what they need to be effective in their profession.

Chapter seven depicts the conclusion of the study and their implication for the teachers. It presents teachers needs in relation to their profession. Finally, it presents recommendations for improvement in pre-service and in-service training along with suggestions for future research.

Chapter Two

Review of Related Literature

2.0 Introduction

Foreign language teaching is unique and complex. It includes three major dimensions (Finocchiaro and Bonomo, 1973: 242; Roberts, 1998: 3). First, teachers must be given a firm theoretical foundation so that, throughout their professional careers, they can make intelligent pedagogical decisions based on knowledge of results of scientific research in related studies. The knowledge base drawn from linguistics and theories of second/foreign language acquisition enables teachers to better understand the nature of language and language learning and to gain an insight into the theoretical background of current practices. Second, they must have a systematic, practical knowledge of the factors and processes involved in teaching, so that they can develop confidence in themselves to perform their day-to-day tasks. This is based on language teaching methodology and acquiring knowledge about appropriate teaching strategies and learning variables among students. Third, they must be helped to be reflective and to develop intellectual curiosity and enquiring minds, so that they will continue to not only study throughout their lives but also question and examine their techniques and approaches to teaching a foreign language. Teachers, novice and experienced, raise awareness about their own and other teachers' practices and create their own teaching theories through reflection on their teaching methods (Roberts, 1998: 47). This will be fully discussed in this chapter.

2.1 Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Acquisition

Ellis defines second language acquisition as “the subconscious or conscious processes by which a language other than the mother tongue is learnt in a natural or a tutored setting” Ellis (1985: 6). He argues that second language acquisition (SLA) is not intended to contrast with foreign language acquisition (FLA); what applies to one applies to the other.

Ellis also mentions that SLA is sometimes contrasted with second language learning (SLL) on the assumption that these are different processes. The term ‘acquisition’ is used to refer to picking up a foreign language through exposure, such as when one goes to live in the target language country, whereas, the term ‘learning’ is used to refer to the conscious study of a second language, such as in a classroom. However, Ellis does not think this is a real distinction, and therefore, he uses ‘acquisition’ and ‘learning’ interchangeably.

One of the problems in literature related to this area is the sometimes conflated terms of reference under which arguments are developed. Some of these are worth considering as potential constitutors to what foreign language teachers think their role is about.

Johnson (2001: 111), in contrast to Ellis, for example, describes acquisition and learning as two pathways that lead to the same place, but following different routes.

Krashen (1982: 10-31) explores SLA in more detail. Krashen’s theory of second language acquisition consists of five main hypotheses: the acquisition-learning hypothesis; the monitor hypothesis; the natural order hypothesis; the input hypothesis; and the affective hypothesis.

The acquisition-learning distinction is the most fundamental of all the hypotheses in Krashen’s theory. According to Krashen acquisition and learning are two independent systems. The acquisition is the product of a subconscious process very similar to the process children undergo when acquiring their first language. Teaching involves real interaction between people where the learner is an active participant, involving natural communication, in which speakers are grouped not according to the form of their utterances but through the communicative act.

The acquisition approach praises the communicative act and develops self-confidence in the learner. A classic example of language acquisition involves adults who live for a period of time in the homeland of the foreign language, attaining near-native fluency, while knowing little about the grammatical rules of that language. Such individuals gain a

second language for communication, but acquisition raises issues about learning a foreign language in traditional terms.

Learning is the product of formal instruction and it comprises a conscious process that results in conscious knowledge about language, for example, and its grammatical rules. The concept of language learning is linked to the behaviourist approach to the study of languages, which is still generally practised in the majority of the Saudi schools. Attention is focused on the language in its written form and the objective is for the students to understand the structure and rules of the language through the application of intellect and logical deductive reasoning. The form is of greater importance than communication. The teacher is an authority figure and the participation of the students is predominantly passive (Bakarman, 2004).

Krashen's monitor hypothesis explains the relation between acquisition and learning and defines the influence of the latter on the former. According to Krashen, acquisition is the utterance initiator, while learning performs the role of monitor or editor. The monitor acts in a planning, editing and correcting function when three specific conditions are met: viz. the second language learner has sufficient time available is able to focus on form or think about correctness, and knows and understands the rule.

The natural order hypothesis suggests that the acquisition of grammatical structures follows a natural order. For a given language, some grammatical structures tend to be acquired early, while others are acquired late. Krashen however, rejects grammatical sequencing when the goal is language acquisition.

The input hypothesis, according to Krashen explains how second language acquisition takes place. The input hypothesis is concerned only with acquisition not learning. According to this hypothesis, the learner improves and progresses along the natural order when receiving second language input that is one step beyond his/her current stage of linguistic competence. Since not all learners can be at the same level of linguistic competence at the same time, Krashen suggests that natural communicative input is the key to designing a syllabus, ensuring that each learner will receive input that is appropriate for his/her current stage of linguistic competence.

Finally, the affective filter hypothesis embodies Krashen's view that a number of affective variables play a facilitative, but non-causal, role in second language acquisition. These variables include motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. Krashen claims that learners with high motivation, self-confidence, a good self-image, and a low level of anxiety are better equipped for success in second language acquisition. Low motivation, low self-esteem, and debilitating anxiety can combine to raise the affective filter and form a mental block that prevents comprehensible input from being used for acquisition.

FLA occurs in one's native culture with few opportunities to use the language within the environment of that culture; for example, Saudis learning English in SA. Krashen, argues that, in such classrooms, the settings are not conducive to language acquisition, only to the learning of rules. Krashen views successful acquisition as being very bound up with the nature of the language input, which the students receive input referring to what the students hear or read.

Krashen's suggestions are that Saudi students can acquire a foreign language in an educational setting if they are provided with a great deal of comprehensible input. This means input containing language that is already known to students as well as language that they have not seen before. The input should be a slightly higher level than the students are capable of using, but at a level they are capable of understanding.

There can be no doubt of the value of comprehensible input, and the fact that students are hearing or reading language that they more or less understand must help them to acquire that language. If they are exposed to a foreign language enough they will almost certainly be able to use some or even all of it themselves. It may be that one of the teacher's main functions when talking informally to the class is to provide just that kind of comprehensible input. Similar to the suggestions of constructivism, this will be discussed further in the following section.

English in SA is taught as a foreign language, and not as a second language, the focus throughout this study is on FLA/FLT. The field of FLA has attracted linguists and psychologists alike. Although various and different views have been expressed, they tend

to be grouped under two fundamentally contrasting theories of learning: behaviourism and constructivism.

Acquisition and learning are related to behaviourism and constructivism theories. Acquisition happens in a natural setting with the learner having an effective role in his/her learning. Within the behaviourist approach learning may be thought to happen in a formal setting where learners receive inputs from the teacher and respond to the input.

2.2 Teaching and Learning Theories

Answering questions related to how people acquire a foreign language, the nature of foreign language learning, the role of cognitive and learning differences and what type of methods and techniques employed, inevitably requires viewing the theoretical foundations on which foreign language learning is based.

How do we learn? This is the question that has been constantly on the minds of educators, psychologists and philosophers, past and present, which led to the development of different theoretical approaches, most prominently the psychoanalytic approach, humanistic psychology, the neurobiological approach, the behaviourist approach and the constructivist approach (Cotton, 1995). The focus in this study is on behaviourism, constructivism and reflective practice, because behaviourism and constructivism are the most practised theories in presenting information to a learner and reflective practice is significant in the development of foreign language teaching (Richards and Lockhart, 1994).

2.2.1 Behaviourism

Behaviourism was the dominant learning theory in the 19th century. It was a movement in psychology and philosophy that emphasised the outward behavioural aspects of thought and dismissed the inward experiential and sometimes the inner procedural aspects.

Behaviourist theory is based on direct instruction. Also known as explicit teaching, this is a systematic method for presenting material in small steps, pausing to check for student's understanding and eliciting successful participation from all students (Rosenshine, 1986).

According to this theory, teachers can have a dramatic impact through reward and punishment upon the way students perform academically and behave socially in the classroom. It is what B.F. Skinner, (1904-90, considered to be the grandfather of behaviourism) called 'shaping'. Educators, by controlling reinforcement and punishment, can shape the behaviour of their students.

Positive reinforcement is a stimulus that, when presented, increases the probability of the response or behaviour it follows. Such stimuli are often called 'rewards' and are often associated with pleasure. Some examples of positive reinforcers are food, water and shelter (primary reinforcers) or praise, affection and approval (secondary reinforcers). Positive reinforcers in the classroom might include teacher praise, a smile or good grades. A teacher can encourage students to behave in an appropriate way, such as completing an assignment, by rewarding them. Rewarding is actively encouraging the student by repeatedly following the appropriate behaviour with something the student likes. So, if the student likes praise, then praising him after the completion of an assignment is reinforcing.

Negative reinforcers also strengthen behaviour. A negative reinforcement is an aversive stimulus (something unpleasant) that, when removed, increases the probability of the response it follows. A teacher can remove inappropriate behaviour by withholding rewards or by using punishment. Punishment is actively discouraging inappropriate behaviour by repeatedly following it with something the student dislikes.

Behaviourists view punishment as an aversive stimulus that weakens behaviour. Skinner describes a number of reasons why punishment does not work. If a teacher uses punishment, the student may learn how to behave appropriately in order not to be punished. It teaches students not to be caught; they learn to hide their wrongdoing. It creates feelings of bitterness, tension and stress between the students and the teacher; the students will simply grow to hate the teacher and learning (Fox, 1993). Because of these difficulties with using punishments, rewards are more effective. The teacher can teach students ways of behaving by rewarding them to encourage desired behaviour and by withholding rewards to remove undesired behaviour.

This method has been shown to be particularly effective in the teaching of mathematical procedures and computations, reading, decoding, explicit reading procedures such as distinguishing fact from opinion, science facts and concepts, social science facts and concepts, map skills, and foreign language vocabulary (Von Glasersfeld, 1995). It is less effective in teaching composition, reading comprehension, and analysing literature or historical trends.

Skinner (1957) explained a theory of learning applicable to language learning. His elements of stimulus, response and reinforcement were easily tailored to language learning through the audio-lingual method, i.e. a set of phrases is given to the learner who has to make the same response, or the same manipulation. The student is encouraged to produce repetitively a suitable sound in his own language and is rewarded each time there is a phonetic variation in the direction of the foreign language sound until gradually only productions of the new sounds are rewarded (McDonough, 1986). This stresses the importance of the language structure. Mastering the elements of building a language and learning the rules by which these elements are combined (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). This, undoubtedly, has echoes for EFL teaching in SA.

The audio-lingual method, founded on both behavioural psychology and structural linguistics, emphasized habit formation, repetitive drills, avoidance of errors, mimicry and memorization and it depended on a central and active role for the teacher (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 62). Given that an important tenet of structural linguistics is that the primary medium of a language is oral, the primary goal within the method was oral proficiency, not the study of grammar or literature. Reading and writing were introduced only after students mastered the structures orally. The tightly structured approach of the dialogues and drills attempted to minimize errors. The learner was not encouraged to initiate interaction, because it might result in a mistake. Lack of understanding of meaning was less important than the ability to effectively imitate, memorize and respond to model dialogues; therefore, grammatical explanation was minimized (Brooks, 1964). This approach, in all its aspects, rhymes with the way in which Saudi teachers still approach the teaching of English (Al-Mandil, 1999; Al-Nafisah, 2001; Bakarman, 2004).

The behavioural view of both language and language learning dominated foreign-language teaching methodology for several decades, resulting in a classroom emphasis of controlled practice with careful reinforcement (Brown, 2007: 17-18). However, audio-lingualism had become what Stern (1992) refers to as the whipping boy for all that was wrong with language teaching. Not only did practical results of the approach fall short of expectations, but also changes in linguistic theory challenged the structural view of language as well as the behaviourist view of language learning.

Chomsky's (1959) theory of transformational grammar argued that language learning was not a process of habit formation. According to Chomsky, innovation and the formation of new sentences and patterns allow for the generation or creation of new utterances from the learner's underlying knowledge of abstract rules. Chomsky's references to natural aspects of the mind contrasted and conflicted with Skinner's emphasis on observable behaviours, pattern practice, drilling, and memorization. The audio-lingual method was called into question. The dissatisfaction with the audio-lingual method was one of a number of factors that would set the stage for yet another shift in approaches to the teaching of second and foreign languages.

Behaviourism over-simplifies human behaviour and that it sees the human being as an automaton instead of a creature of will and purpose (Chomsky, 1959). There is little scope for dealing with individual learner differences; it does not account for all kinds of learning since it disregards the activities of the mind; it does not explain some learning such as the recognition of new language patterns by young children for which there is no reinforcement mechanism; and rewarding people works in the sense that it gets temporary compliance in the short term, but it can lower the quality of performance over time (Chomsky, 1959).

Regardless of what critics say, the behaviourist approach has exerted a strong influence on psychology. It has triggered scientific experiments and the use of statistical procedures. Most importantly, it has turned the attention of psychology to solving behaviour problems. Since learning is a form of behaviour change, the behaviour modification procedures developed by behaviourists have proven useful to many teachers

(Fontana, 1984: 109-111). Nevertheless, the behaviourist approach has its advantages and disadvantages, like any other theory, but what has weakened its place is a new view of learning that values the mind of the learner.

2.2.2 Constructivism

Constructivism is not a new concept. It has its roots in philosophy and has been applied to sociology and anthropology as well as cognitive psychology and education.

Nevertheless, there is a new widespread application of this old set of ideas (Brown, 2007: 12). Constructivism is often associated with pedagogic approaches that promote active learning, or learning by doing. However, it is not a pedagogy but a theory of knowledge.

Constructivism is a theory based on observation and scientific study about how people learn. It proposes that people construct their own understanding and knowledge of the world through experiencing things and reflecting on those experiences. When we encounter something new, we have to relate it our previous ideas and experience, maybe changing what we believe, or maybe discarding the new information as irrelevant. In any case, we are active creators of our own knowledge. To do this we must ask questions, and explore and assess what we learn and know (Brown, 2007).

Focusing on a more educational description of constructivism, meaning is intimately connected with experience. Students come into a classroom with their own experiences and a cognitive structure based on those experiences. These preconceived structures are valid, invalid or incomplete. The learner will reformulate existing structures only if new information or experiences are connected to knowledge already in memory. Inferences, elaborations and relationships between old perceptions and new ideas must be personally drawn by the student in order for the new idea to become an integrated, useful part of her/his memory. Memorized facts or information that has not been connected with the learner's prior experiences will be quickly forgotten. In short, the learner must as Piaget said "actively construct" new information onto his/her existing mental framework for meaningful learning to occur (cited in Brown, 2007). This forms a stark contrast with behaviourism.

Constructivism has four major faces that reflect points of view and perspectives defined by a collection of writers summarised by Dougiamas (1998). Trivial Constructivism is considered the simplest idea in constructivism and the root of all other shades of constructivism. Jean Piaget, 1896–1980, one of the leading individuals in the constructivism field presented the principle that knowledge is actively constructed by the learner and not passively received from the environment. Radical Constructivism adds a second principle to Trivial Constructivism, which is a process of dynamic adaptation towards viable interpretations of experience. Social Constructivism focuses on the individual, it introduces the social world of the learner, which includes the people that directly affect the learner; it includes teachers, friends, students, administrators and participants in all forms of activity. Cultural Constructivism has to do with the cultural influence that includes customs, religion, biology tools and language.

What are the underpinnings for a constructivist learning setting and how do they differ from a classroom based on the behaviourist model? The current Saudi classroom, whether grade school or college level, tends to resemble a one-person show with a captive audience, corresponding to a behaviourist environment. Classes are usually driven by ‘teacher-talk’ and depend heavily on textbooks for the structure of the course. There is the idea that there is a fixed world of knowledge that the student must come to know. Information is divided into parts and built into a whole concept. Teachers serve as transmission of knowledge and seek to transfer their thoughts and meanings to the passive student. There is little room for student-initiated questions, independent thought, or interaction between students. The goal of the learner is to regurgitate the accepted explanation or methodology expostulated by the teacher (Al-Ansari, 1995; Abu Ras, 2002; Appendix 2).

In a constructivist setting, knowledge is not objective; mathematics and science are viewed as systems with models that describe how the world might be rather than how it is. These models derive their validity not from their accuracy in describing the real world, but from the accuracy of any predictions that might be based on them (Von-Glasersfeld, 1995). The role of the teacher is to organize information around conceptual clusters of problems, questions and discrepant situations in order to engage the student's interest.

Teachers assist students in developing new insights and connecting them with their previous learning. Ideas are presented as a whole concept and then broken down into parts. The activities are student-centred and students are encouraged to ask their own questions, carry out their own experiments, make their own analogies and come to their own conclusions.

Williams and Burden (1997) consider how a constructivist approach applies to language learning. They use a social-interactions framework, which they describe as a much-needed theoretical underpinning to a communicative approach to language teaching, where it is maintained that we learn a language through using the language to interact meaningfully with other people. They describe learning languages as a process of making sense of the world within a social context and through social interactions where the personal constructions and subjective realities of teacher and pupil converge.

Since the early 20th century, the emphasis in the era of language learning is on construction as opposed to transmission of knowledge. While the dominant psychology of the preceding era was that of behaviourism, constructivist psychology or philosophy has emerged as the alternative to instructional theory and the behaviourist approach to education. Fosnot (1996: 29-30) explains that, although constructivism is not a theory of teaching, it suggests taking a radically different approach to instruction from that used in schools in some education systems.

The constructivist view argues that knowledge and reality do not have an objective or absolute value or that we have no way of knowing this reality. Von Glasersfeld (1995: 7) indicates in relation to the concept of reality that it is made up of the network of things and relationships that we rely on in our living. The knower interprets and constructs a reality based on his experiences and interactions with his environment. Rather than thinking of truth in terms of a match to reality, von Glasersfeld focuses on the notion of possibility, i.e. to the constructivist, concepts, models, theories, and so on are possible if they prove adequate in the contexts in which they were created.

Such a conception of knowledge leads to a conception of learning that contrasts sharply with the behaviourist view. Learning is no longer a stimulus-response phenomenon.

Instead, it requires self-regulation and the building of conceptual structures through reflection and abstraction (von Glasersfeld, 1995: 14). According to von Glasersfeld, learning is a process of constructing meaningful representations, of making sense of one's experiential world. The focus of concern is not just the learner's cognitions, but also the learner's beliefs, and conceptions of knowledge (Ernest, 1995). It is the realities of others along with our own realities that we want to understand, but we can never take any of these realities as fixed (Ernest, 1995).

Based on this view of learning, the teacher's role is transformed into that of a coach and analyser of the strategies used to solve problems. Von Glasersfeld (1995: 383) compares the role of the constructivist teacher with that of a midwife at a birth understanding that the job is, not to dispense knowledge but to provide opportunities and incentives for knowledge to be accumulated. Teachers serve as guides and learners operate as sense makers (Mayer, 1996). Teachers are coordinators, facilitators, resource advisors, tutors or coaches (Gergen, 1995). Most importantly, teachers themselves become learners along with students, as teaching becomes a learning process for the teacher.

According to constructivism, teachers must adopt to the role of facilitators and not teachers. As teachers give a lecture, which covers the subject, a facilitator helps the learner to reach his/her own understanding of the content. In teachers classroom the learner plays a passive role unlike in a facilitator classroom where the learner plays an active role in the process of learning. The emphasis is on the learner not the instructor. This shift suggests that the facilitator needs to display a very different set of skills than a teacher. Teacher tells, gives answers according to a set curriculum, lecture from the front. This gives a similar picture to the SFLT in the classroom. A facilitator asks questions provides guidelines and creates the environment for the learner to arrive at his/her own conclusions. The critical goal in a constructivism setting is to support the learner in becoming an effective thinker (Fosnot, 1996).

Whereas behaviourism emphasizes observable, external behaviours and, as such, avoids reference to meaning, representation and thought, constructivism takes a cognitive approach. This subtle difference has profound implications for all aspects of a theory of

learning. The way in which knowledge is conceived and acquired, the types of knowledge, skills and activities emphasized, the role of the learner and the teacher, and how goals are established are factors that are articulated differently in the constructivist perspective.

Constructivism at first glance appears to be valid if not indeed obvious. However, the theory has been criticised, as it is said that constructivism dismisses the role of the teacher. However, according to Brooks and Brooks (1999) constructivism does not dismiss the active role of the teacher or the value of expert knowledge. Constructivism modifies that role, so that teachers help students to construct knowledge rather than to reproduce a series of facts. The constructivist ‘enquiry based’ learning activities with which students formulate and test their ideas draw conclusions, inferences, and pool and convey their knowledge in a collaborative learning environment (Brooks and Brooks, 1999). Constructivism transforms the students from passive recipients of information to active participants in the learning process. Always guided by the teacher, students construct their knowledge actively rather than just mechanically ingesting knowledge from the teacher or a textbook.

Constructivism is also often misconstrued as a learning theory suggesting that students ‘reinvent the wheel’. In fact, constructivism taps into and triggers the student’s curiosity about the world and how things work. Students do not reinvent the wheel but, rather, attempt to understand how it turns, how it functions (Brown, 2007). They become engaged by applying their existing knowledge and real-world experience, learning to hypothesise, testing their theories and ultimately drawing conclusions from their findings.

Clearly, a lesson based on constructivism differs greatly from one based on the behaviourist methods. The goal is for the learner to play an active role in assimilating knowledge into his/her existing mental framework. The ability of students to apply their school-learned knowledge to the real world is valued over memorising bits and pieces of knowledge that may seem unrelated to them. The constructivist approach requires the teacher to relinquish his/her role as sole information dispenser and instead to continually analyse his/her curriculum planning and instructional methodologies (Richards and

Lockhart, 1994). Constructivist teacher who continuously questions his/her methods and plan according to the classes situation is practicing what is referred to as “reflective practice”, this is discussed in a different subsection.

In the literature, one finds that researchers will prefer one theory to the other. However, researchers like Brown (2007) and Ellis (1985) strongly emphasise the need for the teacher to develop personal theory with regard to FLA. The literature should only provide the necessary background knowledge on which to base this theory. They encourage viewing both theories as important in creating a balanced description of human linguistic behaviour. In the study of FLA, multiple tools and vantage points are needed in order to establish the whole picture. There is no right or wrong theory, and some truth can be found virtually in every theory (Brown, 2007). It seems that the literature does not give a straight answer but instead provides knowledge that will help to make sense of what to teach and how.

According to Al-Saadat (1985) and Al-Ansari (1995), Saudi teachers lack such knowledge. Teachers receive no background on the different theories during their undergraduate studies or their in-service period. They are only taught English language at their own level in order to be able to teach it in schools. For example, my personal education to become an English teacher involved undergraduate studies on English literature. There was no input on language learning or teaching, no pedagogical training.

2.2.2.1 Constructivism in the Classroom

The hopeful outcome of a classroom is to prepare students to become good ‘adaptive learners’ (Brooks and Brooks, 1999). That is, students should be able to apply what they learn in school to the various and unpredictable situations that they might encounter over the course of their working lives. Obviously, the traditional (behaviourist) teacher who acts as information giver, in a textbook guided classroom, fails to bring about the desired outcome of producing thinking students. A constructivist approach is needed to change the focus in the classroom from teacher dominated to student-centred.

Generally, in a constructivist setting, the teacher may structure a lesson through engaging students' interest on a topic that has a broad concept. This may be accomplished by doing a demonstration, presenting data or showing a short film, and probing students' preconceptions on the topic; then allow students to formulate their own hypotheses and experiments that will reconcile their previous understanding with the discrepant information (Brown, 2007). The role of the teacher during the small group interaction time is to circulate around the classroom to be a resource or to ask probing questions that aid the students in coming to an understanding of the subject being studied (Fox, 2001). After sufficient time for experimentation, the small groups share their ideas and conclusions with the rest of the class, which will try to come to a consensus about what they learned.

Becoming a constructivist teacher may prove a difficult transformation, since most curricula were prepared for teaching in the behaviourist manner. Most teachers prefer the constructivism approach, but are bound by the curricula and administrators (Brooks and Brooks, 1999: 101). However, some teachers resist constructivist pedagogy. They usually do so for one of three reasons: commitment to their present instructional approach, concern about student learning, or concern about classroom control. Others see no reason to change because their current approaches seem to work well for their students (Brooks and Brooks, 1999).

Brooks and Brooks (1999: 103) offer twelve characteristics of a constructivist teacher (see Appendix 2, p. 202) that are based on their own interactions with students and observations in the classrooms of many other teachers. These twelve suggestions highlight teacher practices that help students search for their own understandings rather than follow other people's logic. Brooks and Brooks suggest that a constructivist teacher encourages students input, analysis, and engagement in dialogue, encourages students to question by asking thoughtful, open-ended questions that would generate discussions, and challenge students present conceptions on a phenomena. Constructivist teacher allows students time to understand the questions posed through forming small groups to consider the enquiry and then invites the groups to report and to discuss the groups response with the whole class. The suggestions can serve as guides that may help other educators forge

personal interpretations of what it means to become a constructivist teacher (Brooks and Brooks, 1999).

On the same notion, Williams and Burden (1997: 204) offer ten steps to help teachers to become constructive in their language classroom (see Appendix 3, p. 208). These ten guidelines provide language teachers with ways in which to conceptualise language learning and teaching from a constructivist perspective. Certainly, the focal point in their guidelines is the position of the learner at the centre of the learning process. Individual meaning, individualized learning contexts, learners' control and goals, self-concept, and self-awareness are all elements that play a crucial role in the learning process. The emphasis on the social context for learning highlights the social-constructivist underpinning in their approach. This is appropriate to the Saudi context because of the strong effect of the Saudi cultural values on the learning experience (discussed in chapter one). The contexts and situations in which language learning occurs are portrayed as instrumental in determining the learning that takes place. It is also the interaction with others who are a part of the situation or context that plays a major role in determining the success of the learning experience. The role of the teacher is also central in their approach. This role is described as one in which the teacher is acutely aware of and attuned to the needs of the learner, the context for learning, and the teacher's own beliefs about learning and languages.

Teachers seek students' points of view in order to understand present conceptions for use in subsequent lessons. Assessment of student learning is interwoven with teaching and occurs through teacher observations of students at work and through student exhibition and portfolios. Students primarily work in groups (Brooks and Brooks, 1999).

In a constructivist setting, assessment can be performed the traditional way by using a standard paper and pencil test, or each small group can study and review together for an evaluation, but one student is chosen at random from a group to take the quiz for the entire group. The idea is that peer interaction is paramount when learners are constructing meaning for themselves; hence, each individual in the group receives the same input. The teacher also can evaluate each small group as a unit to assess what they have learned.

The principle of learning as articulated by constructivism provides the basis for a new era of language learning. Replacing the behaviourist framework, which has guided language teaching for much of the last century, is a highly student-centred approach to learning - that of constructivism and more specifically social-constructivism as described by Williams and Burden (1997). While Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) presents a seemingly viable approach, arguably it lacks grounding in educational theory, as it was not developed in relation to a certain theory. Many aspects of CLT can be related to constructivism but the approach is nothing more than that - an approach. As Stern (1983) argues, what is needed is not a method or approach but a more deliberate interpretation of language teaching in terms of educational theory. Constructivism offers to language teaching a basis from which to derive approaches and methods.

In order to make sense, and achieve a deep understanding, of theory and practice, teachers need to relate new information to existing knowledge and experiences.

2.2.3 Reflective Practice

Often when something does not go right or as planned in our lives, we ask ourselves what happened, if we could have done something to prevent it, and how it might affect our future. This act helps us to mature, and to be prepared if we face similar situations in future. This introspection is called 'reflection'. Professionals have adopted reflection to improve their practice (Richards and Lockhart, 1994). For educators reflection involves 'critical thinking' about past and current experiences that occur or are occurring in classroom settings. Professional educators can react, examine and evaluate their teaching to make decisions on necessary changes to improve attitudes, beliefs and teaching practices.

Reflective thinking is not an innovation in teaching. It has its roots in a number of educational theories. Constructivism, for example, views learning as an active process where learners reflect upon their current and past knowledge and experiences to generate new ideas and concepts (Roberts, 1998: 23). Being a constructivist teacher, you reflect continuously on your way of teaching and function in the classroom and students development. Dewey (1933) who is known as a key originator of the concept of

reflection in the twentieth century. He considered teachers to be reflective practitioners. According to Dewey, the process of reflection for teachers begins when they face a difficulty, troublesome event, or experience that cannot be immediately resolved. He referred to this as a 'forked road', where then teachers step back to analyse their experience.

Dewey wrote about reflective teaching in several of his books, particularly in *How We Think* (1933). In this book, Dewey makes a distinction between action that is routine and action that is reflective. According to Dewey, routine action is guided primarily by impulse, tradition, and authority (Zeichner and Liston, 1996), where there is no room for reflection but only following what is accepted without disturbing the routine, as it is in a Saudi contexts. Dewey argues that teaching is not just a series of predetermined and pre-sequenced procedures but contains sensitive actions grounded in intellectual thought. In his view teachers are problem-solvers possessing the ability to look back critically, and analyse and find solutions; they are not passive transmitters of received knowledge.

Dewey defines reflective action as active, persistent, and careful consideration of any practice in the light of knowledge and beliefs that support it and the further consequences to which it leads; it is characterised by attitudes of open-mindedness, responsibility, and wholeheartedness. Dewey indicated that reflection does not consist of a series of procedures to be used by teachers. Rather, it is a holistic way of meeting and responding to problems. Reflective action is also a process that involves more than logical and rational problem-solving processes; it also involves intuition, emotion, and passion and is not something that can be neatly packaged as a set of techniques for teachers to use.

In the 1980s, Donald Schon extended Dewey's foundational aspects on reflection. Schon focused his studies on John Dewey's theory of inquiry and this provided him with the pragmatist framework that runs through most of his work. In his widely cited book, *The Reflective Practitioner*, Schon (1983) expands Dewey's concept of reflection. He shows how teachers, through their knowledge of the principles, practices and processes of classroom instruction, can bring about fresh and fruitful perspectives to the complexities of teaching that cannot be matched by experts who are far removed from classroom

realities. He distinguished between two reflections: reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action.

One of Schon's great contributions was to bring 'reflection' into the centre of an understanding of what professionals do. Reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action are central to his efforts in this area. Reflection-on-action can occur before and after a lesson, as teachers plan for a lesson and then evaluate the effectiveness of their teaching acts afterwards. Reflection-in-action, on the other hand, happens during the teaching act, when teachers monitor their ongoing performance, attempting to locate unexpected problems on the spot and then adjusting their teaching accordingly. Schon argues that it is the teachers' own reflection-in/on-action, and not an undue reliance on professional experts, that will help them identify and meet the challenges they face in their everyday practice of teaching.

Because the term 'reflective teaching' is widely used, Kenneth Zeichner and Daniel Liston (1996), concerned that the concept might lose its essence, saw fit to talk about what it is that will make a teacher a reflective practitioner. They stressed that to engage in reflective teaching one must constantly question personal assumptions, goals, and values that guide his/her work.

They further explain what they consider to be the role of a reflective practitioner. According to them, a reflective practitioner examines and attempts to solve the dilemmas of a classroom; is aware of and questions the assumptions and values s/he brings to teaching; considers the institutional and cultural contexts in which s/he teaches; takes part in curriculum development; and takes responsibility for her/his own professional development.

Zeichner and Liston highlight an essential point: they make it clear that learning to teach does not end with obtaining a degree in teacher education but is an ongoing process throughout one's teaching career. Reflective teachers constantly attempt to maximize their learning potential and that of their learners through classroom-oriented action research and problem-solving activities.

Although the concept of teachers as reflective practitioners has been around for some time in the field of general education, it has only recently started to gain importance in the field of language teaching. Wallace (1991) offers ways in which a reflective approach could be applied to many areas of teacher development, including classroom observation, microteaching, and teacher education. Richards and Lockhart (1994) have introduced second language teachers to ways of exploring and reflecting upon their classroom experiences, using a carefully structured approach to self-observation and self-evaluation.

These initial efforts to spread the values of reflective teaching among second and foreign language teachers have been further strengthened by Donald Freeman (1998). He demonstrates how practising teachers can transform their classroom work by doing what he calls teacher research. In a similar manner, Johnson (1999) examines how reasoning represents the complex ways in which teachers construct explanations and respond to the social interactions and shared meanings that exist among teachers, students, parents, and administrators, both inside and outside the classroom. These acts help teachers to develop suitable methods for their classroom.

Becoming a reflective practitioner in a Saudi classroom might prove to be a challenge to the SFLT with the current restriction on developing their own way of teaching for they are required to follow an authoritative book that tells them what and how to teach (Al-Ansari, 1995).

2.3 Theory and Practice

Teachers have different views about whether theory is more important than practice or vice versa. Some would argue that in order to be able to teach effectively teachers must possess rich background knowledge on theories; others say that theory does not guarantee a good performance, that knowledge is acquired by doing. However, this does not in anyway undermine the significance of having a solid background on theories. The answer to effective teaching is a balance between theory and practice (Schon, 1983). Theories, even if perfect, become insignificant if not practised.

Classroom practice is directly or indirectly based on one theory or another, whether or not it is explicitly articulated. Teachers may have gained this crucial theoretical knowledge either through professional education, personal experience, common sense, or a combination of these sources. In fact, it has been suggested that there is no real difference between common sense and theory, particularly in the field of education (Kumaravadivelu, 2003: 17).

Traditionally, there has been a clear separation between theory and practice. Theory is generally seen to represent a set of insights and concepts, and practice is seen to represent a set of teaching and learning strategies. Thus, the relationship between the theorist and the teacher is that the theorist conceives and constructs knowledge and the teacher understands and applies. Aware of the harmful effects of this division, especially viewing teachers as merely implementers of theories, theory and practice should be treated as a whole.

The link between theory and practice means that theory is grounded in practice; and practice is not seen as thoughtless acts that occur separately from theory. Practice is formed by experience, by the way we make sense of what we do. If we try out a certain way of teaching, the results will help us decide whether or not to use that method in the future. We develop knowledge that can be called practical knowledge (Hillier, 2005: 10). By focusing on knowledge that is practically derived from solving problems, the gap between theory and practice is bridged and reflection practise could be recognised as the link between theory and practice.

Reflective inquiry brings flexibility in instructional settings by helping practitioners examine success and failure in a constructivist environment and promote self-awareness and knowledge through personal experience. Thus opportunity to explore and reflect on ideas and approaches forms part of the reflective process and an immediate link between theory and practice. In addition, linking theory and practice brings professionalism as a matter of promoting deliberate actions in planning, and as a way of implementing instructions and ongoing engagement with theory by assessing, revising and implementing new theories and practices.

Schon's views on reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action are based on a view of knowledge and an understanding of theory and practice that are very different from the traditional ones. In the traditional view of technical rationality, there is a separation between theory and practice, where the belief is that theories are generated exclusively in universities and research and practice exists in schools (Roberts, 1998). The job of the teachers, according to this view, is to apply the theory of the university to their practice in schools. Little recognition is given here to the knowledge that is embedded in the teachers' practices. Teachers continually create knowledge as they think about their teaching and as they teach. The practice of every teacher is the result of some theory or other, whether acknowledged or not. Teachers are theorizing all of the time as they are confronted with problems in the classroom. Schon stresses the importance of reflection practice as teachers are always framing and reframing problems in light of information gained from the settings in which they work. Schon stated that reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action are the mechanisms that reflective practitioners use to permit them to continually develop and learn from their experience.

In reflective practice, practitioners are involved in a continuous cycle of self-observation and self-evaluation in order to understand their actions and the actions they cause in themselves and in learners (Brookfield, 1990: 196). The goal is not necessarily to address a certain problem, but to refine practice in general on an ongoing basis. Observation and self-evaluation for improvement can take place by following certain steps: collecting data which can be obtained by keeping a diary on one's experiences as learners and teachers, understanding how learners and peers evaluate one's teaching, and by existing theoretical literature. After data have been collected, they can be analyzed in terms of the attitudes, assumptions, beliefs, goals, power relations, and consequences that they reveal. What happened that was expected or surprising? What theories about teaching or personal experiences with learning are revealed in the data? How do these theories relate to the practitioners' stated beliefs and attitudes? What is revealed about the relationships among the participants? What are the consequences of the practitioners' actions? These questions can be asked when analysing the data collected consider how the situation or activity could have been different by asking questions such as 'why' 'what if' and 'how'; take action by creating and implementing a plan that incorporates new insights. Because

reflection is conducted not for its own sake but to improve instructional practice, practitioners must link information and insights gained from the reflective process to changes they are making in the classroom. Changes do not have to be large - small changes can have an impact on teaching and learning. The important thing is that practitioners incorporate their new insights in their ongoing planning and decision making, observe the impact, and continue the reflective cycle (Zeichner and Liston, 1996; Ghaye and Ghaye, 1998; Hillier, 2005).

Reflective practice can enable teachers as individuals to investigate, probe, and potentially change the nature of their work. It can help teachers to make sense of their purpose. Part of that sense making is achieved through collecting data, examining assumptions and beliefs, and using the information obtained as the basis of improvement (Richards and Lockhart, 1994). The results can be interesting, challenging, and energizing. Reflective teaching makes the work more rewarding. In terms of SFLT it may also prove a strong motivator for student learning. As the methods employed in the Saudi classroom, which is devised by an authority figure who has little to do with the classroom, has proven to be demotivating to students, teachers might be able to design methods and activities that capture students motivations and interest (Al-Shammary, 1984; Al-Ansari, 1995; Al-Mandil, 1999).

2.4 Individual Learning Differences

Learning a foreign language presupposes a complex characteristics and qualities, which should qualify the learner's personal targets and influence his approach towards learning. Individuals approach learning differently and are motivated differently. Theories of foreign language learning, that do not provide a central place for individual differences among learners, cannot be acceptable. Recent studies dealing with individual differences in the learning process have focused on questions such as what makes a good language learner and why do some students develop proficiency more quickly and easily than others (Dulay, 1982; Johnson, 2001; Brown, 2007). The potential to answer such questions may lie in an analysis of the foreign language learner's variables and learner's strategies.

2.4.1 Learning Variables

Even within the same language environment, some learners acquire a foreign language better or faster than others. The reason could be related to the applied method, teacher's enthusiasm or individual ability or differences. Researchers have been trying to pinpoint the characteristic differences that have an effect on language learning development and why they have such an effect. If it is understood why, for example, self-confident people are good foreign language learners, why motivated people are better at learning a foreign language, why children are ultimately more successful than adults in learning to speak a new language, and why the attitude of the learner towards the target language affects the development of learning the target language, it may be possible to develop foreign language learning programmes to become more successful (Johnson, 2001).

2.4.1.1 Self-Confidence

It is not surprising that self-confidence has a positive effect on language learning (Dulay, 1982: p 75). Nearly all the available literature suggests that self-confidence is very much related to foreign language development. The self-confident, secure person is a more successful language learner. Two measures of self-confidence are anxiety level and extroversion. Nearly all the studies conducted to determine the personality characteristics associated with successful foreign language learning show that lower anxiety levels and a tendency to be outgoing were connected with successful foreign language acquisition (Johnson, 2001).

Learners who are eager to try new and unpredictable experiences, and who are willing to guess before knowing for sure, are likely to seek out situations that require real communication in the new language. These people have been observed to use a large range of forms in the target language and to find language learning relatively painless and they learn fairly quickly (Johnson, 2001: 139-58). With the present routine in the Saudi classroom, where the teacher dominates it, it is hard to picture students as being motivated.

Studies that led to such conclusions do not show precisely how self-confidence and successful language learning interrelate, but they do demonstrate the existence of the relationship. It may be because these learners do not fear rejection as much as those with high anxiety levels, and therefore they are more likely to put themselves in learning situations and to do so repeatedly. If these learners make mistakes, they do not take it personally. They view their mistakes as part of learning, unlike those who are self-conscious.

2.4.1.2 Motivation

Motivation is considered one of the most important affective variables in language learning. Studies and experiments (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Brown, 2007) in human learning have shown that motivation is a key to learning. Because of its importance in second language learning, it is significant to point out the different views or definitions on motivation.

From a behaviouristic perspective, motivation is seen in matter-of-fact terms (Brown, 2007: p 168). It is quite simply the anticipation of reward. Driven to acquire positive reinforcement, and driven by previous experiences of reward for behaviour, we act accordingly to achieve further reinforcement. In this view, our acts are likely to be at the mercy of external forces. Teaching to the test and getting answers right bring rewards.

From a cognitive perspective, motivation places much more emphasis on the individual's decisions the choices people make and the degree of effort they will use in that respect. Some cognitive psychologists see underlying needs or drives as the compelling force behind our decisions. A constructivist view of motivation places emphasis on social context as well as individual choices (Williams and Burden, 1997: 120). Each person is motivated differently and will therefore act in his or her environment in ways that are unique. However, these acts are always carried out within a cultural and social milieu and cannot be completely separated from that context. Abraham Maslow (1970) viewed motivation as a construct in which ultimate attainment of goals was possible only by passing through a hierarchy of needs, three of which were solidly grounded in community, belonging and social status. He also saw motivation as dependent on the

satisfaction first of fundamental physical necessities (air, food, water), then of community, security, identity and self-esteem, the fulfilment of which leads to self-actualisation.

Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert in their work (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985) divide motivation into 'integrative' and 'instrumental' motivation. Integrative motivation is learning the language in order to take part in the culture of its people, to integrate more within the target language society. Instrumental motivation is learning the language for a career goal or other practical reasons. For example, if one learns English because s/he will get a better job if they speak that language, then getting a better job is the motivation to learning English. This would be the case for a number of Saudi students, as they learn English to pass the exam (Al-Mandil, 1999).

Motivation also works in both directions. High motivation is one factor that causes successful learning; in return, successful learning causes high motivation. The process of creating successful learning, which can produce high motivation, may be under the teachers control. The teacher must give the students clear and detailed information about the aims of their learning and relate the aims to their needs. H/she should explain to them how this knowledge of the foreign language will be useful to them in their future careers.

Classroom activities play an essential part in motivating students and developing the learning of a foreign language. They can reduce the strain of formality in the classroom and make learning more student-centred and less teacher-centred (Brooks and Brooks, 1999). Activities carried out in groups where students exchange personally relevant information may help to motivate and encourage the more diffident students. Activities that can motivate the students include role-playing, problem solving, mock interviews, classroom debates, contests in writing stories and learning and presenting playlets (Brooks and Brooks, 1999). The learning situation and the teachers' imagination can suggest many other activities that can be stimulating for the students. Teachers cannot depend completely on the students' interests and desires for learning a foreign language. A teacher's effort in teaching a foreign language and the external motives for learning that language go hand in hand for a successful learning development of that language.

In many Saudi studies, the role of motivation was emphasized in students' English language learning. Al-Shammary (1984) conducted a study of motivation in the learning of English as a foreign language among intermediate and secondary stage students in SA and concluded that motivation towards learning English is generally favourable, though it fluctuates in degree between intermediate and secondary stages (Al-Shammary, 1984). He also found that motivation reaches its zenith with the second grade students, which led him to conclude that the older the students grow the more able they are to realize their needs. Nevertheless, Al-Shammary does not differentiate in his study between instrumental and integrative motivation because he believes that anyone who wants to integrate himself into a second or foreign language community has a utilitarian purpose of some kind for his integration.

Another study of Saudi students' motivation in intermediate and secondary stage by Al-Ahaydib (1986) shows that the students had a very high motivation to learn English when they entered the programme, but after some time their motivation lessened. Features of motivation might be suspended and frustrated, in some respects leading to failure to learn, whereas successful language learner is motivated and understands the fact that he is learning something which has some relevance to his future.

2.4.1.3 Age

The belief that children are better at language learning than adults is supported by both scientific and anecdotal evidence. Children receiving a second language in natural environments are more likely eventually to sound like native speakers than adults are. Adults may appear to make greater progress initially, but children nearly always surpass them. Children under ten who experience enough natural communication in the target language nearly always succeed in attaining native-like proficiency, while those over fifteen rarely do, although they often come very close. Foreign language acquisition is the same process and just as successful, whether the learner begins as a child or an adult, and adults are better learners because they start off faster (Ellis, 1985: 10).

A recent study conducted by Poole (1999) set out to examine the beliefs about learning a foreign language at an early age and to investigate whether 'younger is better'. It is

argued that the literature on age in second language learning does not provide convincing evidence for this belief. It discussed the findings of two case studies carried out in two primary schools in England where French is taught. Data was collected from classroom observations, interviews and questionnaires. In both schools children seemed to experience similar problems. The data suggested that many children did not find the learning of a foreign language easy and some appeared confused by the experience. It also suggested considerable differences both cognitive and affective between individual children. These findings suggest that many of the problems the young children encountered are also shared with older beginning learners of French. The study suggested that children of the same age can vary greatly in the degree of language awareness they have attained, in their application of learning strategies, their previous experiences, their motivation, attentiveness and their attitude towards the learning process as well as the language its speakers and its culture. Data from the two case studies indicate that 'younger' might not necessarily be 'better' for all children in all contexts and under all circumstances. It suggested that learning success and outcomes are likely to be the result of a complex interplay between a host of factors, psychological, cognitive, affective, social and pedagogical. The study proposed that such variables are crucial and should be taken into consideration in any research concerning the age factor.

The reasons for child-adult differences in learning a foreign language are not understood. The assumption has been that adults do not learn language as well as children because they are not able to. Children can learn a foreign language as part of growing up, whereas adults learn it with realisation; they are aware of the learning process. Chomsky (1959) stated that children have an innate faculty that guides them in their learning of language. Given a body of speech, children are programmed to discover its rules and are guided in doing that by an innate knowledge of what the rules should look like.

Based on Genesee's (1980) review of two main arguments in favour of learning a foreign language at a younger age, the first in the cognitive argument is that language learning is an innate ability, one that dissipates with age (Chomsky, 1975). The second is the neurological argument that one's neural plasticity decreases with age, thus affecting language-learning ability. Genesee also notes the opposite: older learners attain higher

level of foreign language learning than their younger counterparts, both in natural and in formal or school settings. Tying together many strands of foreign language age research, Scarcella and Oxford (1992) argue that older learners have an advantage in terms of rate of acquisition of syntax and morphology however, ultimate fluency and native like pronunciation in a new language are acquired better among those who start learning it as children.

Oyama (1976), for example, studied a group of Italian born immigrants who lived in the United States and had learned English as a second language. Each subject was asked to read a paragraph and tell a story in English. The speech samples were recorded and played to a panel of native speaker judges (linguistics). The results showed that age of arrival had the greatest effect on the degree of accent. Youngest arrivals had the least foreign accent.

Seligar, Krashen and Ladefoged (1975) have presented results that agree with Oyama concerning the relationship of age of arrival and pronunciation proficiency. These studies emphasise that age of arrival in the host country is a powerful determinant of ultimate success in accent acquisition which can be a result of physical factors such as the loss of plasticity in the brain and lateralisation of the brain. Social factors such as the different situations and relationships that children encounter compared to adults may also be significant.

It is important to mention that age has an effect on the level of proficiency in pronunciation only. A child and an adult learning English will both have good command of the language but the child have the benefit of a native-like accent. For example, my late father, Dr. Maneh Al-Johani, learned English in his twenties. His major studies were in linguistics. In his lifetime, he wrote and translated several books in English (*The Truth about Jesus, Islam and World Peace and The Muslim's Belief*) but never gained a native-like accent, unlike his children. Therefore, it is said that formal methods are best for older learners; for younger learners, the informal methods in a natural situation are best for second/foreign language development.

2.4.1.4 Attitude

Like all aspects of the development of cognition and their effect in human beings, attitudes develop early in childhood and result from the attitudes of parents, society and peers. These attitudes form a part of one's perception of self, of others and of the culture in which one is living.

John Oller and his colleagues (1977/1978) conducted several studies on the relationship between attitudes and language success. They examined the relationship between Chinese, Japanese and Mexican students' achievement in English and their attitudes towards self, the native language group, the target language group, their reasons for learning English, and their reasons for travelling to the United States. The researchers were able to identify a few meaningful groups of attitudinal variables that correlated positively with attained proficiency. Each study reached slightly different conclusions, but for the most part positive attitudes toward self, the native language group and the target language group enhanced language learning development (cited in Brown, 2007: 193).

It seems clear that foreign language learners benefit from positive attitudes and that negative attitudes may lead to low motivation. Yet, the teacher needs to be aware that everyone has positive and negative attitudes. The negative attitudes can be changed often by exposure to reality, for example by interacting with actual persons from other cultures. Negative attitudes usually emerge from one's indirect exposure to a culture or group through television, movies, news media, books and other sources that may be less than reliable or simply involve bad experiences with the members of that culture. Teachers can aid in dispelling what are often myths about cultures and replace those myths with an accurate understanding of the other culture as one that is different from one's own, yet should be respected and valued (Byram, 2004).

2.4.2 Learning Strategies

Language learning is still an elusive process for educators. No one can precisely depict what happens inside the learner's mind when approaching new language input. What

takes place in the course of assimilation is beyond the reach of our knowledge as various cognitive operations are involved. For a long time educators were trapped in the belief that imitation and repetition were evident characteristics of learning (Brooks and Brooks, 1999), but these proved to be undesirable techniques in modern language classes for their neglect of the role of intellect, i.e. the making of a language response is not much of a step towards learning (Chomsky, 1975).

Saudi foreign language teachers pay little attention to the techniques and methods adopted by their learners. They have little awareness of how learners approach new language instruction. Their concern is with finishing ready designed curricula. Teachers do not ask questions about what can be learned from the good language learner, or what techniques or strategies does the good language learner use (Al-Mandil, 1999).

The term ‘strategy’ is from Greek *strategos*, a root that originally meant ‘trick’ or ‘deception’. In broad modern usage, a strategy is a plan that is consciously aimed at meeting a goal. Learning strategies are “specific actions, behaviours, steps, techniques or thoughts – such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task – used by students to enhance their own learning” (Scarcella and Oxford, 1992: 63). Learning strategies can help learners improve their own perception, reception, storage, retention, and retrieval of language information.

A learning strategy cannot be categorized as either good or bad. What makes a strategy positive for a given person? A strategy is useful if the following conditions are present: the strategy relates well to the task at hand; a student employs the strategy effectively and links it with other relevant strategies for doing the task; and the strategy coordinates with the student’s general learning style preference to some extent. Strategies that fit these conditions make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations (Oxford, 1990).

Many scholars have classified language-learning strategies, Oxford divides language-learning strategies into two main classes, direct and indirect, which are further subdivided into six groups. In Oxford’s system, metacognitive strategies improve organization of learning time, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation. Affective strategies are concerned

with the learner's emotional requirements such as confidence, while social strategies lead to increased interaction with the target language. Cognitive strategies are the mental strategies learners use to make sense of their learning, memory strategies are those used for storage of information, and compensation strategies help learners to overcome knowledge gaps to continue the communication (Oxford, 1990).

Since the amount of information to be processed by language learners is high in the language classroom, learners use different language learning strategies in performing the tasks and processing the new input they face. Language learning strategies are good indicators of how learners approach tasks or problems encountered during the process of language learning. In other words, language learning strategies, while nonobservable or unconsciously used in some cases, give language teachers valuable clues about how their students assess the situation, plan, select appropriate skills so as to understand, learn, or remember new input presented in the language classroom.

According to Fedderholdt (1998), the language learner capable of using a wide variety of language learning strategies appropriately can improve his language skills in a better way. Metacognitive strategies help learners to regulate their learning. Cognitive strategies include using previous knowledge to help solve new problems. Socioaffective strategies include asking native speakers to correct their pronunciation, or asking a classmate to work together on a particular language problem. Developing skills in three areas, such as metacognitive, cognitive, and socioaffective can help the language learner build up learner independence and autonomy whereby he can take control of his own learning.

Lessard-Clouston (1997) states that language learning strategies contribute to the development of the communicative competence of the students. Being a broad concept, language learning strategies are used to refer to all strategies foreign language learners use in learning the target language and communication strategies are one type of language learning strategies. It follows from this that language teachers aiming at developing the communicative competence of the students and language learning should be familiar with language learning strategies. As Oxford states, language learning strategies "... are especially important for language learning because they are tools for

active, self-directed movement, which is essential for developing communicative competence” (Oxford, 1990: 1). Besides developing the communicative competence of the students, teachers who train students to use language learning strategies can help them become better language learners. Helping students understand good language learning strategies and training them to develop and use such good language learning strategies can be considered to be the appreciated characteristics of a good language teacher (Lessard-Clouston, 1997). Research into the good language learning strategies revealed a number of positive strategies so that such strategies could also be used by bad language learners trying to become more successful in language learning. However, there is always the possibility that bad language learners can also use the same good language learning strategies while becoming unsuccessful because of other reasons. At this point, it should be stressed that using the same good language learning strategies does not guarantee that bad learners will also become successful in language learning since other factors may also play role in success.

2.4.2.1 The Teacher’s Role in Strategy Training

The language teacher aiming at training her/his students in using language learning strategies should learn about the students, their interests, motivations, and learning styles (Lessard-Clouston, 1997). The teacher can learn what language learning strategies students already appear to be using, observing their behaviour in class. Do they ask for clarification, verification or correction? Do they cooperate with their peers or seem to have much contact outside of class with proficient foreign language users? Besides observing their behaviour in class, the teacher can prepare a short questionnaire which students can fill in at the beginning of a course to describe themselves and their language learning. Thus, the teacher can learn their purpose in learning a language, their favourite / least favourite kinds of class activities.

Lessard-Clouston (1997) stated that the teacher can have adequate knowledge about the students, their goals, motivations, language learning strategies, and their understanding of the course to be taught. Learners within the same classroom may have different learning styles and varied awareness of the use of strategies. The teacher cannot attribute

importance to only one group and support the analytical approach or only give input by using the auditory mode. Lessard-Clouston said the language teacher should provide a wide range of learning strategies in order to meet the needs and expectations of his/her students possessing different learning styles, motivations and strategy preferences. Therefore, it can be stated that the most important teacher role in foreign language teaching is the provision of a range of tasks to match varied learning styles.

In addition to the students, the language teacher could also analyze the textbook to see whether the textbook already includes language learning strategies or language learning strategies training. The language teacher could look for new texts or other teaching materials if language-learning strategies are not already included within his/her materials.

Lessard-Clouston adds that the language teacher could also study one's own teaching method and overall classroom style. Analyzing one's lesson plans, the language teacher can determine whether or not the lesson plans give learners the chance to use a variety of learning styles and strategies or not. The teacher can see whether or not his/her teaching allows learners to approach the task at hand in different ways. The language teacher can also be aware of whether one's strategy training is implicit, explicit, or both. It should be emphasized that, though questioning oneself about what plans to do before each lesson and evaluating one's lesson plan after the lesson in terms of strategy training, the teacher can become better prepared to focus on language learning strategies and strategy training during the process of teaching (Lessard-Clouston, 1997).

According to Al-Mandil (1999), in a Saudi classroom there is no room for strategy training and teachers do not consider learning abilities among students. This could be because of the large number of students in one classroom or that the teachers lack training in such elements. Most probably could be because teachers are expected to follow the Teachers' Book which does not cover the strategies used by students. Al-Mandil concluded that teachers would find it useful to consider strategy training in their classrooms.

2.5 Foreign Language Teaching Methods

By the 19th and 20th centuries, grammaticalism predominated. This means languages were taught through the systematic learning of paradigms, tables, declensions and conjugations. Oral work was reduced to a minimum and conversational drills were abandoned. Students spent their time translating written texts line by line. This tradition is called the grammar-translation method (Howatt, 1984).

There were educators and researchers who rejected the grammar-translation method. One of them was George Tickner (1833 cited in McLaughlin, 1985: 5 & 253), an American educator who emphasised the need to learn a language by speaking it, if possible in the country where it is spoken. He argued that no single method was suitable for all learners and that the language teacher must adapt methods to individual needs. Nor should individuals of different ages be taught a language in the same way. He thought that the oral approach and the inductive method were more suitable for younger learners; he also believed older students generally prefer to learn by analysis of the particular from general principles.

According to McLaughlin (1985: 5) others, such as Heness, Marcel and Gouin, shared the idea of the importance of oral exercises in the target language. Gouin encouraged teachers to dramatise sentences in a series of exercises based on actual classroom situations. To him, the text for written and reading exercises should be anchored in real life situations rather than made up of fragments of speech detached from the living context.

These theories and ideas in the 19th and 20th centuries were in the minds of the few. The dominant theory was behaviourism. In the behaviourist view (Bloomfield, 1933; Skinner, 1957; Thorndike, 1932; Watson, 1924 cited in Johnson, 2001: 41 & 49; Howatt, 1984), language learning is seen, like any other kind of learning, as the formation of habits (Johnson, 2001: 42). It stems from work in psychology, which saw the learning of any kind of behaviour as being based on the notions of 'stimulus' and 'response'. This view sees human beings as being exposed to numerous stimuli in their environment. The

response they give to such stimuli will be reinforced if successful, that is if some desired outcome is obtained. Through repeated reinforcement, a certain stimulus will elicit the same response time and again, which will then become a habit. Applying this to language learning, a certain situation will call for a certain response, for example meeting someone will call for some kind of greeting, and the response will be reinforced if the desired outcome is obtained, that is if the greeting is understood; in the case of communication breakdown, the particular response will not be reinforced and the learner will abandon it in favour of a response which is successful and therefore reinforced.

When learning a first language, it is simple: all we do is learn a set of new habits as we learn to respond to stimuli in our environment. However, in learning a second language, we face problems: we already have a set of well-established responses in our first language. Therefore, the second language learning process involves replacing those habits by a set of new ones. The complication is that the first language habits interfere with the process of learning a second language, either helping or inhibiting it. If the structures in the second language are similar to those of the first language, then learning will take place easily; if they are different, then learning will be difficult (Brown, 2007: 70-73).

From a teaching point of view, the implications of this approach were too great. First, it was strongly believed that practice makes perfect meaning that learning would take place by imitating and repeating the same structures time after time. Secondly, teachers needed to focus their teaching on structures, which were believed to be difficult. Third, the logical outcome of such beliefs would concentrate on areas of difference; in other words, pinpoint the differences between both languages, then only those differences are to be put in a teaching structure.

Towards the end of the 19th century, a group of linguists with an interest in language teaching formed a society with the express aim of reforming second language teaching practice. The society was called *Quousque Tandem*, a Latin phrase meaning “how long is all this going to go on for?” - ‘all this’ referred to the methods that were used for teaching a second language (Johnson, 2001: 166). The reforms that took place around this time

resulted in various groups of methods which, although they differ from each other, also have much in common.

2.5.1 Grammar Translation Method

One of the most widely used methods in the mid-nineteenth century was called the grammar translation method, also known as the indirect method. Some of its characteristics are still present in foreign language classrooms. This method was originally used to teach Latin and Greek. Latin is a dead language, taught to be used in reading and writing, not in everyday communication. However, the method was gradually generalised to teach living or modern languages such as English. Teachers of English have used it for over a hundred years. This method aims at mastery of general rules governing the written language and translation from and into the target language. Classes are taught in the mother tongue with little active use of the target language. Vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words, long elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given, reading difficult classical text is presented early, and the only drills are exercises in translating sentences from the target language to the mother tongue with little or no attention given to pronunciation (Brown, 2007: 16). Noticeably, it does nothing to enhance a student's communicative ability in the language.

Two of the best-known figures associated with the grammar translation method are Karl Plötz (1819-81), a German who wrote textbooks for the teaching of French, and Heinrich Ollendorff (1803-65), who initially wrote courses teaching German to French speakers (Johnson, 2001: 165).

An emphasis on grammar is also reflected in a Saudi classroom. English teachers emphasize the importance of grammar and spend considerable time providing tips for choosing correct answers without the need to understand the meaning of a question (Al-Nafisah, 2001). They teach grammatical points and sentence patterns like formulas, encourage students to memorize beautiful sentences and grammatical rules, and instruct students on how to find the right answer, even though they have no idea what the main point is (Emara, 1994). Instead of providing students with a solid foundation in English and developing their language skills for communicative purposes, they teach for the

purpose of answering questions for examinations and focus on techniques for answering those questions (Al-Mandil, 1999). When a teacher emphasizes accuracy over fluency and evaluates students' work based mainly on whether they have composed correct sentences rather than on whether they have come up with an essay rich in content, students tend to pay great attention to sentence structure, grammar, and word usage. When they have to choose between expressing their ideas and composing correct sentences, they tend to sacrifice meaning to some degree to construct sentences without grammatical mistakes, although some try their best to provide for both meaning and grammar (Johnson, 2001).

Howatt (1984: 136) describes grammar translation at its worst as “a jungle of obscure rules, endless lists of gender classes and gender class exceptions, self-conscious ‘literary’ archaisms, snippets of philology and a total loss of genuine feeling for the language.”

2.5.2 Direct Method

A second method for teaching a foreign language is the direct method. There is more than one direct method, but the best known is associated with a German who went to live in America in the 1870s. His name was Maximilian Delphinius Berlitz, and his method is still used in many places today (Johnson, 2001: 168). It has become popular throughout the early years of the twentieth century. ‘Direct’ refers to teaching in the foreign language without the use of the mother tongue. The theory of this direct method was based on the assumption that learning a foreign language is very much like learning one’s mother tongue. It is said that this belief proved false because learning a native language in childhood does not assure the acquisition of a foreign language adequately in adulthood. Moreover, language acquisition in childhood comes easily while language learning in adulthood requires skill. Brown (2007: 58) mentioned that it is stated that unless the first language is acquired by early childhood, the capacity to acquire any human language will become meagre and limited. He adds that such assumption must be viewed in the light of accent as a component of success.

Nonetheless, foreign language teachers in Europe and the United States received the direct method with enthusiasm. The direct method gives priority to speech and oral skills,

and it rejects memorisation of conjugations, declensions and rules of grammar. At the same time, it rejects the student's mother tongue as it considers translation a useless activity in teaching a foreign language. The meaning of concrete or abstract words and sentences is given through dramatisation, demonstration or pointing at objects without the use of the mother tongue.

Grammatical rules are not taught in the direct method, they are learned unconsciously through practical use (learning through intensive listening and imitation), and rule generalisation comes after experience. The new material is presented orally, and words and patterns are taught through direct association with actions, dialogues, situations, objects or pictures. Students memorise selected foreign language sentences, short dialogues, expressions and songs by imitation. The mother tongue is never used in these activities. The preferred type of exercise is a series of questions based on these activities and answered in the target language. Reading and writing are deferred for months. Reading aloud is performed in the early stages with an emphasis on pronunciation. Literary texts are not analysed grammatically. In addition, the culture of the target language is taught inductively.

The direct method has been criticised for being time consuming and language activities are related to the classroom and not connected with real life situations. In other words, they do not prepare the learners to use the foreign language for communication.

2.5.3 Audio-Lingual Method

The third method is the Audio-lingual, or the Aural-Oral Approach. This method first started in America in the 1940s; it was a reaction to the grammar translation method and modification of the Direct Method (Cook, 2001). It aims at developing listening and speaking skills first, as the foundation on which to build the skills of reading and writing. In other words, the foreign language student is brought to proficiency in oral and aural use of structures before being taught how to read and write. The advocates of this method claim that language is essentially acquired through habits, and response must be drilled until they become automatic and natural.

This method gives priority to the spoken language, which the student needs as an instrument of communication, so it emphasises listening and speaking and considers them more important than reading and writing. Accordingly, teaching the foreign language should follow the order of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Language teaching courses should reflect this sequence and should teach the language of daily usage.

The Audio-lingual method gives great importance to pronunciation with special attention to intonation. This objective is realised by intensive pattern practice, substantial use of tapes and language laboratory, and by the memorisation of dialogues regardless of the lexical meaning, which is unimportant beside perfect pronunciation. The method presents language units in terms of sentence patterns. New material is usually presented orally in pattern drills or dialogue form or with actions or pictures. Dialogues and sentence pattern drills form the activity of every language lesson. Moreover, dialogues are used as one way of creating situations: buying tickets at the cinema, mailing a letter, booking a room in a hotel, etc. A great deal of language activity is expected from the students. There is little or no grammatical explanation in this method. Rules of grammar are taught by inductive analogy rather than by deductive explanation. Structures are sequenced and taught one at a time. Structural patterns are taught by using pattern practice. The drills of pattern practice require the learner to transform, substitute, replace, expand and integrate.

Although the audio-lingual method is the most widespread method for teaching a foreign language among SFLT's (Al-Nafisah, 2001), it was criticised by Wilga Rivers (cited in Brown, 2007: 112) on more than one ground. It is said that it emphasises speech at the expense of other language skills; the method takes no account of the creative use of language and cognition, as it emphasises mechanical repetition through the use of oral drills; and it focuses on the form rather than on the content or meaning. Therefore, the method fails to prepare the learner to use the foreign language for meaningful communication. The method requires small classes, carefully prepared materials and a lot of time; and above all, it requires a well trained teacher who knows 'what to teach' and 'how to teach' adequately.

The previous three methods tend to relate to the behaviourist theory, as the focus is on drills, repetition and memorization (Freeman, 2001).

2.5.4 Communicative Method

The Communicative Method is referred to as an umbrella term and was originally closely related to the functional-notional approach. It emerged in the early 1970s because of the work of experts from the Council of Europe experts. The method was primarily designed to meet the needs of adult learners, tourists and people who are engaged in academic, cultural, technical or economic activities. The method is traced to the work of Chomsky in the 1960s when he advanced the two notions of ‘competence’ and ‘performance’ as a reaction against the prevalent audio-lingual method and its views on language learning. These two concepts were later developed by Hymes (1970), into a ‘communicative competence; which refers to the psychological, cultural and social rules that discipline the use of speech. To Hymes, such competency is “fed by social experience, needs and motives, and issues in action that is itself a renewed source of motives, needs and experience”.

This concept of communicative competence has been expanded by a number of writers including Richterich and Chancevel (1980) who proposed seven categories of communicative functions as follows: requesting and giving information, expressing thought processes, expressing opinions, moral discipline and evaluation, modifying people’s behaviour, expressing personal feelings and interacting socially. Under each category, there are many notions or purposes. Other categories have been identified to serve the learner’s immediate communicative purposes and to facilitate interaction between speakers from the first lesson of learning a foreign language. These notion lists have not been universally adopted as a compact syllabus on the part of teachers and educators. The emphasis of the approach on communication and conversation has rapidly gained popularity. The student learns from the beginning that language is communication that it is to be used in real life. The stress is on what people do with language rather than what they know of it. This communicative methodology tries to gear language teaching to

the rules we need for communicating appropriately in social situations rather than to the grammatical rules, we need for producing correct sentences.

The theory of language learning that could underly the communicative method is constructivist rather than behaviourist. Language acquisition is seen as a creative process not as habit formation, and the idea of language learning by a stimulus response process is totally rejected (Johnson, 2001: 183-184). The method implies knowledge of the grammatical system of the language as well as performance; it includes both the usage and the use of the language. It also does not deny the importance of mastering grammatical forms as long as they are taught as a means of carrying out meaningful communication. That is, grammar is a language tool, not a language's aim. Students learn the grammatical form through meaning and not the other way around. This new strategy helps the learner apply what he has learned of the linguistic knowledge he has learned, without any difficulty, to real life situations.

One aspect of the communicative method is interaction between speakers. It provides communicative functions and notions. These functions reflect real life use of the language, as they are usually connected with real situations and with students' needs and interests. Students learn to manipulate language varieties that differ according to the degree of formality or informality of the situation, the topic or activity undertaken and the mode of the discourse, whether oral or written. They must recognise when communicating with others which language variety is appropriate for different people in different situations, for example employer-employee, teacher-student, student-student, doctor-patient, and parent-child.

The method sets realistic learning tasks and activities that create situations in which questions must be asked, information recorded, information recovered from text, knowledge, ideas, reminiscences exchanged, and emotions and attitudes expressed in one way or another, in which the student has the opportunity to participate and observe language rules. Such procedures and techniques will help students, who become the centre of the learning process, to develop their communicative competence as they provide them with the potential ability and motivation to discover the answers for

themselves in groups, pairs or individually. However, this strategy requires the teacher to relinquish his/her role as a model to be imitated or the giver of knowledge. S/he must be seen as the guide or manager of the class, encouraging the students to communicate their thoughts and ideas. The communicative method does not assume that the teacher is the centre of all classroom activities. S/he is no longer the prime mover or the instructor with the students acting as listeners or respondents. Instead, the focus shifts to the pupils and their interests, abilities and everyday life concerns. In other words, the method is a student-centred approach to foreign language learning. Learners are not only receivers but also active participants. The teacher is the organiser of activities. These echo constructivism principles.

Like all methods, the communicative method has been criticised (Cook, 2001; Johnson, 2001; Brown, 2007). The method relies extensively on the functional notional syllabus, which places heavy demands on the student. This is especially true at the initial stages of learning because of their lack of speaking rules and cultural insights. The various categories of language functions are overlapping and not systematically graded like the structures of the language, which creates some confusion and makes it difficult to teach the functions properly.

One of the major principles of the communicative method is the 'rules of use' or rules of communication. They determine the understanding or interpretation of various utterances. However, there has been no precise definition of what form such rules might take, and it is left to the ability of the teacher. Utterances acquire their communicative value from the context or the situation they are used in, not from the supposed rules of communication.

Despite these limitations, the communicative method has contributed many ideas and strategies to foreign language teaching. It has helped in the analysis of teaching the language for interaction, brought into focus the communicative purpose of language learning, and shifted attention to students' needs and interests. Above all, it has transformed the traditional role of the teacher as the sole giver of knowledge to that of a receiver of information, from the dominant figure in the classroom to the manager and co-ordinator of the class.

The preceding paragraphs have shown that there is no single method that can accommodate all the requirements of foreign language teaching. The reason for this limitation is that the process of teaching and learning involves other factors that must be taken into consideration in each methodology. They are the individual differences between students, the teacher, objectives of instruction, psychology of learning, time available, classroom situation and the nature of the foreign language.

It should not be forgotten that a given method approved at one point in time does not necessarily entail continuous suitability at all times, as formerly assumed in the case of the audio-lingual method. There is always the possibility of new ideas coming to the fore to challenge its credibility. Learning theories on which teaching methods are based are only assumptions and propositions, which in turn do not guarantee successful application. A theory could be logically acceptable but not feasible in practice. If one were to define the best method, it would be one that sets out to capitalise on the best elements taken from various methods. One should never tip the scale against the old fashioned for the sake of the new ideas. Keith Johnson (2001: 162) has presented seven questions (see Appendix 4, p. 211) to appraise a method that one may encounter or even predict.

The seven questions cover the ideas that a method presents. What is the theoretical background behind the method? Is mind engagement expected through that method (behaviourism or constructivism)? Are rules given first then set into practise or examples are given and the learner works out the rules for himself (deductive or inductive)? Is the use of the first language allowed in the method? Which of the four skills does the method emphasis (listening, speaking, reading and writing)? In addition, how important is it in the method to expose the learner to a realistic foreign language use (authenticity)? Certainly, the answers to these questions help in assessing its usefulness.

In addition, a teacher should question his/her own ability in using a certain method. S/he should have full knowledge of the method used. A second language teacher should be a role model for the students. Having the right skills is very important. For example, an English teacher who has difficulty in speaking English will not succeed in giving his pupils a good command of spoken language or be able to teach communicatively. An

English teacher must have a sound command of English skills, speaking, understanding, reading, and writing; a good knowledge of English culture and literature; and a good knowledge of the grammatical skills.

The literature offers several methods and techniques for teaching a foreign language, in addition to individual learning differences and their effect on the process of acquiring a foreign language. There is a general agreement that teachers, in addition to having a firm theoretical foundation, they must have a solid knowledge of individual learning differences and the methods available to be effective teachers and self-sustaining life long learners. Such knowledge can give teachers strong tools and skills with which to think critically about their own practice in an ongoing developmental manner.

Brown (2007: 308-9) draws teachers' attention to the importance of building bridges between theories and practice. To do so teachers must realise that language teaching is not easily categorised into methods. Instead, each teacher is called on to develop a sound overall approach to various language classrooms. There are no instant recipes; no quick and easy method is guaranteed to provide success. The teachers task is to use her/his knowledge to create her or his own approach to teaching a foreign language.

Cajkler and Addelman (2000), on the other hand, focus on one method for teaching a foreign language. This is presented in three stages: the presentation stage - getting the language in; the practice stage - keeping it there; and the production stage - getting the language out. Nevertheless, Cajkler encourages teachers to evaluate what and how they teach through asking themselves questions related to students/students as well as teachers/students interaction and the overall atmosphere in the classroom. They should also understand the students' learning differences, in order to enhance any method used to teach a foreign language.

Unlike Cajkler (2000), Cook (2001) and Johnson (2001) emphasise the importance of examining the different methods of teaching a foreign language in a classroom setting. They rightfully point out that the diversity of teaching styles should not be viewed as confusing, but should be viewed as reflecting the complexity of language learning processes. Guided by F/SLA research findings, teachers should carefully examine their

individual situations and adjust their teaching styles accordingly, which is more or less similar to Brown's suggestions to teachers.

In addition, Cook (2001) and Johnson (2001) look at learners as individuals and how they progress in learning a foreign language, and how factors like motivation, age, aptitude, cognitive style and personality may create difficulties that will get in the way of the learning processes if the teacher does not appreciate these individual differences. Learners learn in different ways; in order to teach effectively it is important to learn as much as possible about these differences.

In view of the previous texts and others, the Saudi teacher has a long way to go. According to Saudi researchers such as Al-Mandil (1999), Al-Majed (2000), and Al-Nafisah (2001), Saudi teachers use a mixture of traditional methods, the Grammar, the direct and the Audio-Lingual method, in their teaching of English as a foreign language, but they have little knowledge of the availability of other methods and no clear distinction between the three traditional methods. That is understandable, because they teach according to the knowledge they possess. Language teachers in SA do not undergo training that qualifies them to teach a foreign language.

The literature on the development of teaching English as a foreign language in SA is limited. In fact, there does not seem to be one piece of literature that discussed the development of English as a foreign language in SA. Therefore, the literature is limited to research performed by Saudi students. Saudi PhD and MA researchers in SA, UK and USA have conducted these studies, each of which probes a part or branch of the English curriculum or syllabus. Some of the important studies are summarised below according to the dates of occurrence.

Al-Kamookh (1981) conducted a study on the perception of English language teachers regarding methods of teaching English in Saudi schools. The researcher selected 144 SFLT's from two educational zones in SA- Dammam and Alahsa - as study samples. He applied a questionnaire that consisted of 35 statements. The questionnaire dealt with language teaching and learning techniques and methods. The study concluded that

teachers preferred the audio-lingual method followed by the direct method and finally by the grammar translation method.

Al-Shammary (1984) looked at the motivation to learn English as a foreign language across several age groups, using the students themselves as the source of the data. The researcher chose questionnaire for his method of inquiry. The 600 students who participated in this study were drawn from six grades of intermediate and secondary schools of three different areas in SA, and students were selected randomly. The study attempted to clarify the relationship between motivation and attitudes, and the role each of these plays in learning English. The results of the study indicate that the overall motivation of the Saudi students to learn English was moderately high. It was highest in the first grade intermediate but declines in the second grade where it reaches its lowest level. However, there is an upward shift in motivation by the third grade intermediate and first grade secondary, but it declines again in the second grade secondary. One of the implications of the study is the positive role of age and level of education in the development of motivation to learn English from first grade intermediate to first grade secondary. Although, Al-Shammary's study is not current it is still accurate in describing the students motivation (Al-Nafisah, 2001).

Al-Saadat (1985) and Al-Ansari (1995), conducted separate studies using different tools and methodologies to investigating in-service training and education of EFL teachers in SA. The researchers reported that supervision is the only form of in-service training available on a regular basis. The inspectors' interest usually lies in the business of detecting teachers' linguistic errors. They concluded that adequate pre-service and in-service programmes are needed in order to improve the competence and performance of the Saudi English teacher, and in turn to improve the teaching quality.

Al-Mandil (1999) conducted a study that compares the use of the learning strategies by Arab learners of English with learners of English as a second language in other studies conducted in the US and Europe. The sample of the study was 40 students selected from the first year of college of English as a foreign language. The three research instruments employed comprised a questionnaire, interviews, and a series of tests as measures of

achievement in various skills. In general, the results of the study agreed with the conclusions of other studies that emphasised the relationship between language proficiency and the use of learning strategies. Even so, there were areas of difference that seemed to indicate that the findings, based on specific individual variables of Arabic learners affected by their own background factors and culture, do not always coincide with the results of other studies based on different background factors in other cultural contexts.

Al-Nafisah (2001) investigated the teaching and learning of English language at intermediate and secondary levels in Saudi public schools for boys, and he explored the difficulties and problems that students encounter in learning English. To achieve this he identified students' and teachers' perceptions of the factors which could cause these learning difficulties. He considered the attitudes, expectations and motivation of students, teachers and parents in relation to the teaching and learning of English. He also determined the strengths and weaknesses of the English language curriculum and presented recommendations for its improvement. His sample consisted of 658 students, 149 parents and 74 teachers. His investigation tools included questionnaires and interviews with teachers and students, questionnaires for the parents, and classroom observation.

The study revealed that almost all participants indicated that they recognised the importance of English in their daily life and for their future career and study. The study pointed out that almost all of them agreed that the current situation of teaching and learning English did not help students to acquire the language effectively. The majority of teachers and students agreed that there were a number of English learning difficulties, such as a shortage of teaching aids available to deliver the English syllabus, insufficient time for learning the language effectively, and the fact that topics of the English syllabus and related activities were not centred upon the students' interests and concerns. In general, it was found that achievement in English among students in Saudi schools was low and unsatisfactory. Students graduated from secondary schools with deficient standards of language competence.

Most studies, including those previously presented, discussed the methodology of English language programmes: supervision; teacher training; methods of teaching; methods of learning; attitudes and motivation of students towards English. These studies recommend and suggest that the curriculum of English as a foreign language must be evaluated.

Although each study was concerned with different aspects, all research so far has reached the conclusion that the English language programme delivered in Saudi schools needs modification and continuous revision if it is to meet students differentiated needs and interests.

There have been studies that investigated one or two of the individual learning differences in isolation from each other. Johnson (2001) emphasises the importance of remembering that within a real learner many variables, if not all, will be present. They exist in different strengths; sometimes one will be so strong as to dominate all the others; sometimes they will be of equal strength.

The focus of this study is to understand the knowledge, beliefs and practise of the SFLT.

2.6 Teacher Training: Pre-service and In-service

In the previous sections of this chapter, the focus was on what the foreign language teacher needs to know to teach the foreign language effectively. This section deals with the importance of a well developed teacher training programme that incorporate discussion from the previous sections. Beattie (1995) stated the importance of bringing pre-service and in-service programmes together and to reconceptualise teacher education within the context of the continuum of teacher careers. Therefore, pre-service is viewed together with in-service, because the two concepts are two phases of the global English foreign language teacher education programmes.

The training of teachers is crucial to any educational institution. Even more important is the actual context of the training programmes. In foreign language programmes, teachers must be trained towards possessing an acceptable linguistic competence in the target language, in addition to the importance of theoretical and practical training.

Studies of foreign language teacher education (Freeman, 1996) indicate that pre-service and in-service training help teachers transform their knowledge of language teaching and learning to practical settings. Moreover, practical sessions helped pre-service and in-service teachers become reflectively critical of their teaching beliefs and practices. It also helped in identifying their strengths and weaknesses as language teachers (Richards and Giblin, 1996).

To compensate for the inconsistency between theoretical bases and classroom reality, language teacher educators began to search for an alternative to better prepare pre-service teachers. As a result, more than one study began to critically examine the conventional view of second/foreign language teacher education, calling for a reconceptualization of the field (Freeman, 1996; Johnson, 2001).

The field of foreign language teacher education must not only acquaint teachers with classroom techniques and skills, but also to help them develop their own philosophy of foreign language teaching through reflecting on their own learning to teach processes. For a reflective model to be effective, it needs to offer opportunities for student teachers to acquire the theoretical underpinning of the field as well as the analytical and reflective tools necessary to link theory and practice (Farrell, 1999).

At present in a Saudi setting pre-service training is more based on knowledge of the English literature (Appendix 8, p. 253). There are no practical sessions on how to teach. In-service is more of a yearly assessment of teachers work in addition to introducing teachers to new regulations and materials from the MoE (Al-Ansari, 1995).

2.7 Research Questions

The literature review addressed very important points. As the teacher is constantly faced with a great number of decisions to be made at every moment of classroom instruction, it is vitally important that teachers of modern foreign languages be adequately prepared for their task.

The role of the teacher in the classroom has changed from the traditional view as a figure of authority, instructor or controller to another role as facilitator, adviser, helper or consultant. In order for the teacher to carry out this role successfully, he/she should be highly trained and exposed to the theoretical as well as practical bases of foreign language pedagogy. S/he should be able to encourage students to be more self-directed and use learning strategies. S/he should create and set up activities in which learners can participate and play an active role. In creating such activities, the teacher should pay equal attention to form and meaning, and take into consideration the differences in linguistic level between the learners, as well as individual differences. She/he should also adopt communicative techniques geared towards classroom interaction rather than an exercise centred technique aimed at mastering the linguistic aspect of the language. Materials might have a vital role in the learning process and the communicative teacher is required to choose materials that promote the exchange of information and discourse about everyday life such as newspapers, maps or magazines. It is important for the teacher to understand that making errors is normal in the communicative process of learning and that emphasizing accuracy is more likely to inhibit than to promote communication.

In a classroom, the teacher is expected to create situations that stimulate learners to communicate and experiment with the language. The teacher should encourage the learners to build up self-confidence in conversing. This happens by convincing them that difficulty in communicating affects everyone, and perfection is not necessary in communicating in a second language.

One way of helping the learners might be by encouraging them to use strategies to overcome difficulties in communication. The teacher should create a rich variety of communication opportunities and foster an environment that encourages students to communicate among themselves using a greater variety of learning strategies. It is important for the teacher to be aware of all the strategies that their students employ as this helps in predicting the consequences in the long run. Teachers may be able to improve the performance of less successful language students by showing them how to use some

of the strategic approaches of good language learners. Such as communicating with native speakers, reading aloud, using diary or even memorization.

In order to accomplish any major changes in the quality of teaching in SA, to meet determined economic, cultural and individual needs, attention must be paid to the teachers, as they are the key factor in the teaching process. They must be supplied with knowledge related to theories on teaching and learning a foreign language, methods and techniques on teaching a foreign language, and the understanding of individual differences and their effect on language learning. Such knowledge should enable the teacher to make the right decision on what and how to teach. In addition, teachers must be aware of the importance of treating knowledge on theories and practice as inseparable; they go hand in hand.

As the literature has emphasized the importance of having good knowledge on aspects of theories and practice, and the importance of having a constructive approach to teaching, the research questions must be:

- 1- What knowledge does the Saudi foreign language teacher have on theories underlying the teaching and learning of a foreign language?
- 2- To what extent is the Saudi foreign language teacher professionally prepared, equipped with appropriate skills to teach English as a foreign language?
- 3- To what extent is a behaviourist or constructivist approach to teaching and learning more dominant in current Saudi practice in the classroom?

Chapter Three

Methodology and Research Design

3.0 Introduction

Conducting any type of research should be governed by a well-defined research methodology based on scientific principles. Such methodologies are considered to be systems of explicit rules and procedures, upon which research is based, and against which claims for knowledge are evaluated. The rules and procedures for research constantly change as scientists look for new methods and techniques of observation, inference, generalisation and analysis. Kaplan (1964: 23-24) suggests that a well-developed research methodology can provide an understanding of the products and processes of scientific enquiry. A methodology also serves as a set of rules for reasoning, whereby the evaluation of facts can be used to draw inferences. However, a methodology must not, regardless of all other conditions, dominate the research procedure (Quinn, 1988).

Generally, research refers to finding information. For example, when buying a computer, it would be sensible to find out which would be the best buy for the money that one could afford. This puts one in a position where it is possible to make an informed judgment; in other words, it means that one can decide after taking into account all the available information and evidence. Most of our daily decision-making is based on this kind of finding-out research.

Professional research has much in common with personal research, but it is carried out in a broader and more public context, and so it is expected to conform to standards that are understood and recognised by others in the professional field. Such research is characterised by being rigorous and systematic. Kumar (2005) describes six characteristics that must, as far as possible, be present in a research.

A piece of research must be *controlled*, implying that in exploring causality in relation to two variables a study is set up in a way that minimises the effects of other factors

affecting the relationship. This can be achieved to a large extent in the physical sciences, as most of the research is performed in a laboratory. However, in the social sciences it is extremely difficult, as research may be carried out on issues relating to human beings living in society, where such controls are impossible. Therefore, in the social sciences, as it is not possible to control external factors, the objective is to quantify their impact.

Procedures to find out answers to research questions must also be *rigorous* to test that they are relevant, appropriate and justified.

Research has to be *systematic*, with procedures adopted to undertake an investigation following a certain logical sequence. The stages of research cannot be undertaken in a haphazard way. Some procedures must follow others.

Procedures and tests must be *valid* and *verifiable*. The results and conclusion from the research must ensure that whatever you conclude on the basis of your findings is correct and can be verified.

The *empirical nature* of research in the social sciences means that any conclusions drawn are based upon *hard evidence* gathered from information collected from real life experiences or observations.

Critical scrutiny of the procedures used and the methods employed is crucial to a research enquiry. The process of investigation must be foolproof and free from any weaknesses. The process adopted and the procedures used must be able to withstand critical scrutiny.

This study includes a quantitative and a qualitative approach to investigate the actual knowledge, beliefs and practise of the Saudi foreign language teacher (SFLT) and a quantitative and a qualitative analysis to refine the understanding of the issues involved. These two stances can be used separately or together according to the type of study. In the scientific arena these two stances are often classified as independent in terms of theory and practice, each with its own ideologies and underpinning tools concentrating on their corresponding weaknesses.

The research design for this study involves quantitative and qualitative strategies, which requires some discussion.

3.1 Two Modes of Research Approach

Texts on quantitative and qualitative research design tend to focus mainly on the mechanical procedures of data collection and data analysis. The difference between the quantitative approach and the qualitative approach is not simply the difference between multivariate statistics and in-depth interview, between Likert-scale questionnaire and open-ended questionnaire, or between survey and case study (Lee, 1992: 2). They are two different research approaches. Research is not just a question of methodology. The selection of method implies some view of the situation being studied. How it is being studied carries certain assumptions about what is being studied.

3.1.1 Quantitative Research

Quantitative research typically has a logical and linear structure in which hypotheses take the form of expectations about likely causal links between the constituent concepts identified in the hypotheses. Thus, the determination of the causal links specified by the hypotheses will result in the acceptance or rejection of the theoretical proposition. Hence, quantitative research places emphasis on methodology, procedure and statistical measures of validity.

Quantitative research is mostly about quantifying relationships between variables. Variables may be things such as weight, performance, time, and treatment. Variables are measured on a sample of subjects, which can be tissues, cells, animals, or humans. Relations between variables are expressed through using effect statistics, such as correlations, relative frequencies, or differences between means.

Quantitative research methods rely on the measurement and analysis of statistical data to determine relationships between one set of data and another. The measurement of these variables may produce quantifiable conclusions. Bryman (2004: 76) identifies a number

of preoccupations in using quantitative research methods and argues that those who subscribe to this objective stance tend to adopt the following concepts:

1- “Measurement. The concepts in each hypothesis need to be observed so that they can be measured and therefore either accepted or rejected. In social sciences research, quantitative data collection often involves the use of a questionnaire as a source of measurement.

2- Causality. This is the concern with establishing the causal relationship between concepts. Techniques used include either experimental or cross-case analysis. Experimental approaches use the random assignment of control and experimental groups, whereas cross-case analysis collects data at a single point in time from multiple sources.

3- Generalisation is the process of applying the results of a study beyond the confines of the research. Hence, researchers attempt to collect data from a smaller group, or subset of the population, in such a way that the knowledge gained is representative of the total population under study. By studying a representative sample of organisations, a quantitative survey approach seeks to identify relationships that are common across organisations, and hence provide a general statement, or theory, about the phenomenon being researched. Thus, from a study such as this, which uses questionnaires, it should be possible to make a generalisation about the knowledge and capability of the SFLT to teach a foreign language from the data gathered.

4- Replication. Experiments performed under the same conditions should lead to the same results. Therefore, replication is a means of checking researcher bias and the applicability of research findings to other contexts.

5- Individualism. Quantitative research instruments focus on the individual. A survey questionnaire given to individuals forms a discrete object of enquiry. The responses can then be analysed, even though the respondents often do not know each other” (Bryman, 2004: 76).

3.1.1.1 Weaknesses in Quantitative Research

Bryman (2004: 78) criticises quantitative research methods for their apparent orderliness and linearity and their lack of concern about the influence of resource constraints. Gable (1994) suggests that for quantitative research to succeed in elucidating causal relationships or in providing descriptive statistics, the survey instrument must ask the right questions in the right way. Gable also considers quantitative research to be relatively weak when used with the objective of wanting an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under study, especially if it is discovered during the data collection. This is because once the research is underway, there is little an investigator can do upon realising that a crucial item has been omitted from the questionnaire, or discovering that a question is ambiguous, or is being misinterpreted. Therefore, the researcher should have a good idea of the answers sought before starting the survey. Hence, traditional quantitative survey research would appear to serve as a methodology of verification rather than discovery.

Chadwick (1984) has identified a number of weaknesses in using scientific observation, which forms the basis of many quantitative research methods. These weaknesses include the inability of researchers to observe something without changing it, knowingly or unknowingly. In this case, observable changes in those being studied are attributed to the subjects' awareness that they are part of an experimental group rather than to any variation in the conditions that were the intended factors under investigation. In quantitative research, researchers can also never be sure whether the interviewee is giving a true factual insight to the phenomenon under investigation, or being given answers that the interviewee perceives the investigator wants.

Bryman (2004: 79) questions quantitative research instruments such as structured interviews and questionnaires, as they do not indicate if the respondents have the required knowledge to answer a question or have similar senses of the importance of a question in their daily life; are they equally aware, to each other, of what it is and of its importance to everyday life? He goes further to ask how well their answers relate to their daily lives. People's actual behaviour may be different to their answers to the questions. Researchers

are also unable to observe something with complete consistency and therefore often misinterpret it, as human perception is selective: you cannot interpret an observation without misrepresenting it; you cannot communicate an interpretation of an observation without an additional misrepresentation.

Quantitative research demands an absolute level of generalisation. It also relies on measurable evidence and therefore influences a high degree of control over the phenomenon. However, social sciences are concerned with human beings, and any quantitative methodology used in this domain must recognise the variability that is inherent in human behaviour. Situations such as these demand the use of approaches that take account of these factors. Allison (1993) suggests that events that form a phenomenon are conditioned by interacting variables, such as time and culture, and as a result no two situations are identical.

Therefore, this cannot form the basis of a wider generalisation. This controversy over external validity and generalisation has led to questioning of the appropriateness of quantitative research methods in the social sciences (Bryman, 2004: 79). Furthermore, quantitative research is considered unable to take account of the differences between people and the objects of the natural sciences. Thus, the principle of applying a scientific method to the study of people is questioned.

3.1.2 Qualitative Research

Qualitative researchers consider that it is not possible to assign meaning to a phenomenon without describing the context and understanding the position of the people who affect, or are affected by, the phenomenon. Consequently, a qualitative investigation is interested in distilling meaning and understanding a phenomenon. However, qualitative research is not concerned with the measurement and quantification of the phenomenon, but instead with acquiring an understanding of the natural setting of the phenomenon through observation (Weick, 1984: 111-129). Qualitative research is concerned with developing explanations of social phenomena. That is to say, it aims to help understand the world in which we live and why things are the way they are. It is concerned with the social aspects of our world and seeks to answer questions such as 'why' and 'how'.

Burns (2000: 388) stated that only qualitative methods give access to individual meaning related to on going life. Hence, direct and in-depth knowledge of a research setting is necessary to achieve contextual understanding. As a result, qualitative research methods are associated with 'face-to-face' contact with people in the research setting, together with verbal data and observations. Miles (1979) identifies the essence of qualitative data as being rich, full, holistic and real with unimpeachable validity.

Marshall and Rossman (2006: 54-55) have identified the premises that form the underlying rationale for qualitative research. Human behaviour is significantly influenced by the setting in which it occurs, therefore it is necessary to study this behaviour in these settings. The physical setting and inter-normalised norms, roles and values are crucial, and the researcher must operate in a setting where these variables exist. Qualitative research therefore provides a systematic, empirical strategy for answering questions about people in their own social context, with the researcher interfering as little as possible during the enquiry. In this circumstance, people make sense of their own experiences and create their own reality. Unlike some techniques associated with experimental or quantitative research that often influence the finding of the study. An example would be when the participant chooses the answer that s/he thinks is the required answer, not what s/he really thinks, so the outcome of the research is influenced. The subject's behaviour is affected and as a result may not allow the measurement of the variables that the researcher is interested in. This is often the case because the subject may not be able to articulate feelings, interaction and behaviour through the research condition, because it is a controlled research setting where feeling and behaviour do not come across. Finally, a researcher cannot understand human behaviour without understanding the framework in which subjects interpret thoughts, feelings and actions.

Qualitative research emphasises getting close to the subjects of study and that experience is a good way to understand social behaviour. The objective, therefore, is to describe social reality from the perspective of the subject, not the observer (Burns, 2000: 388). This has the advantage of viewing behaviour in its social setting providing a greater depth of understanding and allowing greater flexibility Bryman (2004: 266) describes qualitative research as an approach that studies the social world and seeks to describe and

analyse the culture and behaviour of people and their groups, from the point of view of those being studied. Such approaches are based on: a commitment to viewing actions and values from the perspective of the people being studied; providing a detailed description of the social setting they investigate; understanding events and their behaviour in their context; viewing social life as a process rather than static, i.e. longitudinal; the use of a relatively flexible research approach; an appreciation of the impact of biases on the research findings; and the formulation and testing of theories in tandem with data collection.

The most basic insight in qualitative research is that the researcher is always part of the study. The qualitative researcher brings with him/her valuable ingredients to the process and also continuously reflects upon the phenomenon under study while generating understanding.

Qualitative research has special value for investigating complex and sensitive issues. For example, if investigating topics such as God, religion, human beliefs and so on, quantitative methodology would do nothing more than summarise a few key positions on these issues. While this does have its place in the research arena, some in-depth interviewing is necessary to achieve a deep understanding of how people think about these topics. In other words, qualitative research could offer a richness and depth of understanding unlikely to be achieved with quantitative research.

In qualitative research, the researcher is at the core of the research, and the things he/she sees, hears and participates in are central to the data collection and analyses, in which the researcher is the main instrument in the study. This leads to two important elements in qualitative research: reflexivity and voice.

Qualitative research methods encourage reflexivity to enable the researcher to understand how his/her social background influences and shapes his/her beliefs and how this self awareness pertains to what and how he/she observes, attributes meanings, interprets action and dialogues with participants. While engaging in fieldwork researchers become more aware and produce a better representation that is more in tune with the reality encountered (Wasserfall 1996: 152).

In the reflexive process, the researcher becomes part of the world that is being studied and cannot avoid being affected by it. Therefore, finding the right distance between him/herself and the group being studied is a constant dilemma and involves conscious work. Bolak (1996) stated that native researchers face a difficult task in creating enough distance between themselves and their own culture. Bolak adds that while a foreign researcher runs the risk of being culture blind, the native researcher runs the risk of being blinded by the familiar. Whatever the right distance is, the reflexive researcher produces a combination of insider and outsider views, which assists the interpretation of what is happening in a particular setting.

Hammersley and Atkinson (1995) argue that all social research is founded on the human capacity for participant observation. Researchers act in the social world and yet are able to reflect upon themselves and their actions as objects in that world. For them, this reflexivity provides the basis for a reconstructed logic of inquiry, including their own role within the research.

Voice is the researcher's thoughts on and experiences in social research. Charmaz and Mitchell (1996: 193) said, "Researchers have long been admonished to work silently on the sidelines, to keep their voices out of the reports they produce". Writers differ in their views about the practical implications of replacing the self in social research. There are arguments that say the main requirement is for an acknowledgment of self in both the research process and the presentation of data. Other arguments say that the self should not only be acknowledged but may legitimately be used as an additional source of knowledge by the researcher (Denzin, 1997: 227). The research process and the generation of knowledge can be enriched when the researcher has similar experiences to those being studied. Charmaz and Mitchell (1996: 208) stated that voice is a source of insight into the area researched.

Voice is not a technical feature of writing, like style, to be refined with practice, nor is voice a quality that improves as research progresses. Voice can be improved, but only as writers become more sensitive to communicating the fullness of fieldwork phenomena (Charmaz and Mitchell, 1996: 195).

There are different forms of qualitative research (Burns, 2000: 390; Byrman, 2004: 267) such as ethnography, case study, action research and evaluation which often combine and overlap. There are also many schools of thought which interpret qualitative research in different ways, such as empiricism, Marxism, phenomenology, ethnomethodology, symbolic interactionism, feminism and structuralism. A fuller understanding of these perspectives enables researchers to reflect upon their own perceptions, collect data in a different way and enhance their analyses of the data collected.

Qualitative data can also be collected in a number of forms, with methods ranging from the collection of evidence through interviews which describe observed events, but not in a structured or rigorous manner. Qualitative data can also be derived from written documents and diaries. For the purpose of this study, the focus will be only on diaries as a means of collecting data in qualitative research.

Diary study is a method that has its roots in both psychological and anthropological research. For the past two decades, diaries have secured an important place among research tools, and Nunan (1992: 118) expressed the importance of diaries as tools in language research. Bailey (1991: 87) makes a strong claim for the significance of diaries in advancing understanding of classroom learning. She stated that diaries are an unrefined tool, but if properly prepared the diary can provide very important insight into the subject studied which may not be accessible by any other means. Long (1980: 23) mentioned that diary studies have been particularly interesting because of the insightful information that they give on personal learning variables in language learning. Furthermore, Bailey (1991: 69-70) stated that diaries have moved on to provide vital data for the researcher when keeping a research diary.

Diary study can take many different forms. In its simplest form, it consists of a representative sample of subjects recording information about their daily lives for a given period. Diaries can be restricted to a certain form, or the writer simply notes down everything that comes to mind (Bailey, 1991: 80).

In this study, the diarist and the researcher are the same person. In addition, the diary was restricted to the field period only. So the field diary that I kept was intended to give an

ethnographic picture of what was an otherwise quantitative study, and the field diary will also be used as evidence. This is discussed in a further subsection.

The data captured through diaries can be analysed in a variety of ways depending upon its nature. Bailey (1991: 81-82) recommends editing the data as a first step then either quantifying the diary entries through grouping them in recurring patterns and significant events or just simply presenting them as they appear in the diary. Bailey also makes a distinction between those in which the diarist and the analyst are the same person and those in which the researcher analyses diaries kept by others. The diarist/researcher will not face problems in understanding in-depth all the entries, but when the researcher analyses a diary kept by another, he/she will always question the entries and their meanings.

3.1.2.1 Weaknesses of Qualitative Research

Qualitative approaches have questionable weaknesses. The collection and analysis of data are time consuming because many types of data are collected. Hence, the sheer volume of data obtained may overwhelm the researcher and thus inhibit data analysis. Qualitative data analysis techniques are also considered to be difficult, as such methods are not well established. However, the difficulty of analysing qualitative data does not invalidate the data or the conclusions drawn. This is because rules of logic applied to the verbal data enable the researcher to make sense of the evidence and to analyse the data appropriately.

Bryman (2004: 284) has identified a number of contentious issues regarding the use of qualitative research approaches. The ability of the researcher to be unbiased when interpreting events from the participant's point of view is questioned. Thus, a multi-method approach to data gathering can address this issue to a certain degree. The relationship between theory and research can be weak, and qualitative research approaches are criticised for not instilling theoretical elements. Marshall and Rossman (2006: 13) suggest that, to overcome this scenario, the researcher must show how s/he is studying the case of a larger phenomenon. The linking of specific research issues to a larger theoretical construct shows that the research study illuminates a larger issue and is therefore of significance. The extent to which qualitative research can be generalised

beyond the confines of a particular case is questioned, i.e. there may be limited external validity. Bell (2005: 115-116) suggests that researchers can address this issue through demonstrating that the study was conducted within a structured methodology, which is guided by theoretical concepts and models and the use of a number of data gathering methods and processes. Qualitative research, however, does not offer the pretence of replication, as controlling the research setting destroys the interaction of variables and therefore affects the underlying philosophy of these research approaches.

In considering a research design, the impact of Saudi culture was a restriction on possible approaches. Interviews are most effective and reliable if the participants give an honest response that is not influenced by authority or by simply being courteous. Saudi society is a courteous society that fears authority; teachers and students are no exception. Teachers and students would be civil and careful in their responses even if they were assured confidentiality, and they would be unlikely to deviate from the assumed 'proper' responses (Al-Ansari, 1995; Abu-Ras, 2002; Bakarman, 2004).

Classroom observation was another consideration, realizing that only long-term observation would have been appropriate. When individuals become aware that they are being observed they may change their behaviour. Depending on the situation, this change could be positive or negative. Short-term observation might lead to the teacher giving her best performance instead of the actual everyday teaching. To overcome this problem a long-term observation would be required. This was not appropriate for this study because of time limitation as the field research was under taken in another country. Under these circumstances, a survey and a field diary became the best option.

3.2 Quantitative Approaches in the Design of the Study

3.2.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires offer an efficient use of time, as they can be distributed to a large sample in a relatively short time. Munn (1990: 3) points out that in using a questionnaire, most time is spent on designing the questions thinking through the categories of response to

each question piloting the questionnaire and administering, collecting and analysing the data.

Questionnaires are an instrument that could serve as a means of collecting a considerable amount of data requiring a minimum of time and effort. Not only is it easy to administer, but it also provides a general view of the investigated problem which is difficult to obtain by other means. Anderson (1990) pointed out that a questionnaire, if well developed, allows the gathering of reliable and valid data relatively simply and cheaply and in a short space of time.

The significance of questionnaires is that they give confidence to the respondents because they know that they can remain anonymous. One of the difficulties in using questionnaires is that one might get a low response rate, especially if administered through the post or email. Self-administered questionnaires give a much better response rate.

In the present study, two sets of questionnaire were developed, one set for the teachers and another for the students. The questionnaires were translated into Arabic, the official spoken language in SA. Students and teachers received the English/Arabic version of the questionnaire, to save time and eliminate confusion.

The questionnaires were self-administered to students and teachers. The research objectives were explained, as well as why the survey was being carried out and, who would see it. They were not pressured to respond if they do not want to participate.

The researcher's preconception of the Saudi system and teachers' performance did influence the formation of the questionnaire. The teacher's questionnaire (Appendix 5) and the student's questionnaire (Appendix 6) were designed after consulting the literature on questionnaires, such as Munn (1990) and Bell (2005), examining several questionnaires used in different studies, such as Al-Mandil (1999) and Al-Nafisah (2001), and consulting Saudi teachers to obtain an initial insight into their educational background and the methods practised in their schools.

As the study was carried out in another country, it was important to maximise the data returned. Therefore, the questionnaires were designed as relatively easy for participants to fill in, and for coded numerical analysis.

The teacher's questionnaire was designed to gather a large variety of data on their beliefs and attitude towards teaching English as a foreign language and to assess their knowledge of the language teacher on theories and skills. It comprised a covering letter and questions divided into three sections. The covering letter was in Arabic (Appendix 1, p. 193) and attached to each questionnaire. The covering letter was an introduction explaining the purpose of the research and its importance in improving the quality of language teaching and learning. In addition, it emphasised the importance of each individual participant, and it assured confidentiality.

The first part of the questionnaire was designed to seek personal information from participants. It consisted of one closed question about the teacher's experience. The second and third part formed the major portion of the questionnaire. The second part was mostly on teachers' beliefs and knowledge about language teaching and learning theories, skills of teaching a foreign language. In addition, there were questions designed to establish the educational background of the teacher in relation to language teaching and questions to gain a clear picture on the methods used in teaching English as a foreign language in Saudi schools. This part consisted of 42 statements. Teachers were asked to circle how strongly they agreed with each statement on a four point scale ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. All the issues had been raised in the literature researched, as described in the following section. An objective here was to discover any new data which could shed light on the research questions posed.

Questions related to learning and teaching theories (1-14) were included to help understand how knowledgeable the Saudi teacher was on these aspects, and to test their responses against what the literature offered. Questions related to desirable methods (15-29) gained from the literature were also included. In addition, there were questions related to the teachers' recognition of the importance of the different learning variables (30-34), and lastly, there were questions to establish the teachers' educational

background and to understand the effectiveness of the methods used in their schools (35-42). Analysis of this data would provide an argument in response to the research questions posed.

The third part of the teacher's questionnaire (Appendix 5, p. 214) was included to examine how often the English language teacher practises a constructivist approach to teaching or a behaviourist approach. Again, the participant was asked to respond on a four-point scale ranging from 'very often' to 'never'.

The student's questionnaire (Appendix 6, p. 224), was designed to triangulate literature evidence and as a triangulation to the teacher's questionnaire. It was intended to compare what they had to say, about the teaching they received with what the teacher had to say, and to examine both views. The students received the same questions as Part 3 in the teacher's questionnaire. They were asked to indicate if they agreed with statements about classroom practice on a four-point scale ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'never'.

The student's and teacher's questionnaire were translated into Arabic, the official language of SA, to make it clearer and easier to answer and less time consuming. It was also hoped that by translating the questionnaire, misunderstandings and misinterpretation of the meaning of key terms would be minimized. Both the Arabic and the English version of the questionnaire were checked by a professional translator. Teachers and students all received Arabic and English versions of the questionnaire, to minimise any criticism on the validity of the language chosen and its possible impact on the relevance and reliability of the resulting data.

The final version of the teacher's and student's questionnaire was reached following a pilot study carried out with a small number of teachers and students in Saudi schools.

3.2.2 Pilot study

Small-scale piloting is essential for checking the consistency of the questionnaire items and their validity, to ensure that the items described what they supposed to describe, to pinpoint any ambiguities in the questions, and to ascertain the clarity of the questionnaire

for the Saudi teachers and students. Munn (1990: 31) mentions that when you have lived with a questionnaire for some time, you come to know exactly what you mean by every question. It is very difficult for someone so closely involved to imagine how respondents might interpret it differently when they encounter it for the first time.

Other writers, including Borg and Gall (1989), reported that it is important to examine the quality of the procedures when it is still possible to make any necessary changes or revisions, i.e. before they are administered in the actual research.

A pilot study was completed for the questionnaires to gain an insight into the clarity of the questions for both students and teachers. The questionnaires were piloted among teachers and students in SA. The number of teachers and students was limited to 14 teachers and 20 students because of the time constraint. The piloting took place in November 2005 during an annual visit to SA.

The pilot study was conducted in order to test the questionnaires. The questionnaires were answered by Saudi female language teachers and Saudi female intermediate and secondary students. All students and teachers in this sample go to public schools in Riyadh.

Both teachers and students were given English and Arabic versions of the questionnaires, and were asked to answer them. They were also asked to comment on the time they needed to complete the questionnaire, the clarity and comprehensibility of the items on the questionnaires, and any suggestions for improving the questionnaire. All the selected respondents answered and returned the questionnaire, indicating support and interest in the study, and provided valuable feedback related to some aspects being changed.

The piloting study showed that the teachers needed from 10-30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. All teachers agreed that the questionnaire was clear regarding the instructions and items which served their stated objectives.

However, some teachers made significant comments and suggestions on Part 1 of the teacher's questionnaire. They suggested eliminating questions 1 and 3. Question 1 was

about age; they thought that it was possible to determine the age of the respondent from question 2 (How long have you been a language teacher?).

Question 3 raised the issue that all language teachers in SA must hold a Bachelor degree, and that it is very rare that a MA or PhD holder would teach in the intermediate or secondary stage.

The students, on the other hand, reported that the time needed to complete the questionnaire ranged from 5-10 minutes. They also reported that they understood the questionnaire, except for the students in the first and second intermediate stage who were either too young or did not have enough experience with the language teacher to be able to answer the questionnaire.

Based on the comments and suggestions from the respondents, and the close observation by the researcher while administering the questionnaire, no major changes were made to the content. However, question 1 and question 3 about age and qualification were removed as discussed above, meaning that Part 1 of the teacher's questionnaire consisted of one question, "How long have you been a language teacher?"

No changes were made to the student questionnaire, but the decision was taken to present it only to grade three of the intermediate stage and all three grades of the secondary stage.

3.2.3 Sample

The full study was conducted in Riyadh the capital city of Saudi Arabia. 14 schools from all over Riyadh were involved in this study: comprising seven intermediate and seven secondary, since English is taught only in intermediate and secondary stage. In 2004, English was introduced in the elementary stage, but it was not included in this study.

A number of classes from the 14 schools were selected randomly. One class from each grade level was considered sufficient. However, with second and third grade secondary, two classes in each grade were selected because of the scientific/literary division. After the first year of the secondary stage, the students have the choice to have two years of mostly science subjects or two years of literary subjects. The intermediate and secondary

stages both consist of three grades, only the third grade from the intermediate stage has been included in this study, because although foreign language teaching starts in the first grade of the intermediate stage, students of the first and second grade do not have enough experience with the foreign language teacher to be able to evaluate their teaching accurately, as revealed in the pilot study. All the foreign language teachers of the selected schools participated in this study.

As education in SA is segregated, this study was conducted only with female students and female teachers. In order to conduct research related to both male and female students and teachers, a second set of procedures would need to be carried out which would make the research overly complicated. In addition, due to religious and cultural reasons, personal access to male students and teachers was not possible. Therefore, the sample had to be restricted to females.

The students participating in this study were of the same sex (female), religion, first language, nationality, educational background, and age (14-18); the teachers were of the same sex, nationality, religion, and first language, and all involved were Saudi. Schools were chosen from all over Riyadh, including east, west, south and north. A wide range of schools was appropriate to obtain a wide range of data from a range of schools.

The educational system in SA is centralised. All the teachers work under the same conditions, and there is a national English syllabus for intermediate and secondary schools. Almost all the foreign language teachers receive the same pre-service training, and they have unified in-service training opportunities. In addition, since the sample was all Saudis it may be said that they could be expected to exhibit similar beliefs and values.

3.3 Qualitative Approaches in the Design of the Study

3.3.1 Field Diary

A diary was kept on all of the field work. The field work here is the time spent in schools and the conversations with teachers and students while administering and collecting the questionnaires. Most situations were recorded in the diary, as were events and

conversations with students and teachers, and the behaviour observed while collecting the data. A field diary was meant to overcome the risk that the teachers might choose what they think is required not what they actually think and believe (Bryman, 2004: 79).

The diary entries were informal and descriptive but insightful. After each visit to the chosen schools, notes were made on conversations with the teachers, what they thought and believed about teaching, students' positions as learners, and the education system as a whole. The conversations with the teachers, which lasted approximately thirty minutes, were related to the study and the teachers had an understanding that their responses would be used as evidence, but with no names or recording devices. All of the conversations took place before they had completed the questionnaires. As for the students, my conversations with them took place after they had completed the questionnaire. In addition, the interaction between teachers and students allowed an impression of such interaction and the meaning it held for this study. For example, the students did not seem as comfortable around teachers, as they did when in conversation within their own peer group. This gave a sense that students feared to be themselves around teachers or any authority figure in the school.

This study was designed as a purely a quantitative study, but when I got into the field, I recognised the need for more than a quantitative approach. The conversations and observations recorded in the field diary were very enlightening and completely changed the direction of the data and its later analysis from being quantitative to being both quantitative and qualitative.

These informal interviews and observations are evidence, because of their richness and insightfulness, but they are perhaps less valid and reliable than the structured questionnaire, as their data depended partly on memory.

3.3.2 Observations and Informal Interviews

During the data collection, there were friendly conversations with teachers and students. On every visit to a school, hours were spent gaining access to distribute the questionnaires, and then in collecting them from teachers and students. Not every teacher

was willing to allow 10-15 minutes of her class time, so I had to wait until the end of the class. In addition, I had to wait for some of the foreign language teachers to finish their lessons to answer one of the teacher's questionnaire.

Teachers' lounges were a perfect venue, offering the opportunity to have conversations with the foreign language teachers and teachers of other subjects. These conversations formed the data for the informal interviews.

Understanding the cultural norms in SA, it was quite easy to start and engage in conversations with both students and teachers alike. These unstructured interviews were more friendly conversations over coffee and dates. They asked about the study and personal life. During the conversations it was possible to ask questions related to the study and most responded with enthusiasm. It was very motivating to have the teachers actually engaging with the study and answering questions in details. No notes were taken on site. After each visit to a school, the field diary was updated with details from these conversations. This was not as reliable as making notes, but the informal, unthreatening atmosphere of the conversations was a priority for eliciting realistic responses.

During the wait at each school, it was possible to be an observer, watching teachers and students in their own settings, students interacting with teachers, and students interacting with each other. These observations helped in forming better understanding of the teacher/student relationship in Saudi schools.

3.3.3 Personal Knowledge and Personal Experience

Hertz (1996: viii) stated that to be reflexive is to have a continuous conversation with oneself about experience, while simultaneously living in the moment. The reflexive researcher does not simply report facts, but constructs interpretations of his or her experiences and then questions how those interpretations were concluded.

While doing the research, my status was simultaneously that of an insider and an outsider. As an insider, I share similarities with the participants, in the sense that I am a Saudi female who lived and studied in Saudi schools. As an outsider, I am different in

some ways. Being bilingual from a young age, as my early years were spent in the USA I learned English as a second language. When returning to SA at the age of sixteen, I was taught English in Saudi schools as a foreign language. Developing with English as a second language let me be an observer of the difficulties faced by my friends in learning or trying to learn the English language, in addition to witnessing the method of teaching employed in Saudi schools.

Being bi-cultural, spending years in other societies, namely the USA and the UK, made me aware of the cultural differences and their impact on individuals and groups alike. Being bilingual and bi-cultural from an early age helped me to notice the difficulties that the students face in learning a foreign language, and to appreciate cultural differences. This was part of the drive for this study.

In this study, I am a participant as well as a researcher, using my reflective commentary as data. Knowledge and personal experience is a strength of this work, because of my insight as an insider, yet I am slightly different from the teachers and students in this study. I align myself with them and at the same time step back and observe and collect data from them. Reflexivity provided me with a strong tool to understand and judge beyond the Saudi classroom. The objectivity of the data from the questionnaires, the informality of the lounge interviews, the reflexive personal data, and the evidence from the literature review were intended to combine and provide an analysis of the data to inform and address the research questions.

3.4 Data collection

Permission was obtained to conduct this study from the sponsoring agency, the Ministry of Higher Education. The Saudi Cultural Bureau in London received my request, accompanied by a letter from the research tutor approving and explaining the research topic and my need to conduct the research in SA. The Cultural Bureau forwarded this to the Ministry of Higher Education, where action was taken to gain permission from the Ministry of Education to proceed with the research.

Permission was granted on December 2005. This was only to allow the research to take place and a different permission was required to actually carry out the field study (administering the questionnaires to the selected schools). To obtain such permission, the research department in the Ministry of Education requested a copy of the questionnaire. A copy was sent by fax with a covering letter explaining the research topic and the need to conduct such a study. The copy of the questionnaire and the covering letter travelled from one department to another with no reply.

As I had permission to travel to SA to carry out my research, it was important to travel and tackle the situation directly. Three weeks of the research time for the field study were spent trying to obtain permission to visit the selected schools.

In March 2006, permission was granted to start the field work. Fourteen letters were issued to the principals of the selected schools. A copy of the questionnaire with a letter of introduction asked the principals of each school to help in collecting data. These lengthy processes, involving formal written correspondence, took a long time and considerable effort and emotional stress. Nevertheless, approval was obtained finally from the Ministry of Education to conduct the field study in the schools. Appendix 1 (p. 193) presents all the correspondents' letters that helped to obtain permission to administer the questionnaires. Although the discussion of these procedures might have been condensed, because the data collection in the Saudi cultural context involved some specific difficulties, especially for a female researcher, the story should be told in full.

After official arrangements had been made, the next step was to distribute the questionnaires to the sample groups. Administering the questionnaires by mail was not an option because postal services in SA are not reliable. In addition, Saudi foreign language teachers and students could not be relied upon to fill in the questionnaires and return them.

It was important to ensure that the respondents understood each item of the questionnaire and to obtain as clear and fast a response as possible. Oppenheim (1992: p 103) stated that personal administration of the questionnaires ensures a high response rate and

accurate sampling. It was possible to deal directly with the sample groups and ensure that they fully understood the questionnaire items.

Classes were selected randomly sometimes by the principal of the school. The principal introduced the researcher to the students. The questionnaires were distributed by the researcher to the students, and the purpose of the questionnaire was explained, including the importance of their participation and how they could make a difference to the way English is taught in their schools. The importance of honest responses was emphasised, and that there were no right or wrong responses. Also, students were assured that their responses would be seen only by myself and my tutor in the UK. At this point, it is important to mention that the foreign language teacher was not present in any of the selected classes while the students were answering the questionnaire. The questionnaires were collected personally. It took 7-10 minutes for the students to answer the questionnaire. The situation was, more or less, the same in every classroom of the selected schools.

The teacher's questionnaire were administered personally. This gave the advantage of meeting the teachers and explaining the purpose of the study. Some teachers completed and returned the questionnaire on the same day; others brought them back a few days later.

The greatest advantage was the flow of conversations with the teachers of English as a foreign language and the teachers of other subjects. These formed my informal interviews. Teachers tended to speak freely in a friendly social setting, so it was possible to gain relevant information that respondents may not have revealed in any other setting. This information helped to widen and deepen the perception of the Saudi classroom and social context. It also turned the data collection and analysis from being quantitative only to being both quantitative and qualitative.

Every participant filled in the questionnaire, but not all were suitable to be analysed because some were incomplete. In total 61 out of 66 were suitable amongst the teacher's questionnaire, and 1575 out of 1660 were suitable in the student's questionnaire. This produced a very high rate of response. This was of course largely as a result of meeting

them face-to-face. Although meeting respondents in person was costly and troublesome, it was even more difficult for a female researcher in SA. Because of the restriction on women's driving, my husband together with our daughter had to drive me to each and every school and to wait until I had finished. Bless them, they both lived and experienced the agony of self-administering and collecting questionnaires.

3.5 Ethical Issues

At this point before discussing the data it is important to highlight that during the distribution of the questionnaire to the students, they were assured of confidentiality and that the only people who would have access to the questionnaires were me and my tutor in the UK. They were also asked not to write their names on the questionnaire. I had explained to them the purpose and importance of the study. In addition, they were told that they were under no pressure to participate unless they were willing.

For the teachers, a covering letter accompanied each questionnaire. A letter of introduction explained why I was conducting this study, assured confidentiality, and provided post and email addresses, and phone numbers in case they wanted access to the findings of this study.

The same teachers and students who answered the questionnaires participated in the conversations recorded in the field diary. They all understood that their responses would be used as evidence in the study. No names were given and recording devices were not used, because this would have discouraged them from participating.

Chapter Four

The Data

4.0 Introduction

This chapter explains the data in this study (teacher's questionnaire Appendix 5; students' questionnaire Appendix 6; field diary Appendix 7; tables Appendix 9). It is divided into two sections. The first section explains the teacher's and student's questionnaire. Section two relates to the data obtained from the field diary.

There was a very high response rate to the questionnaires used, (see appendices 5 & 6), largely because they were personally administered and collected. Two questionnaires were developed, one for the teachers and one for the students. The teacher's questionnaire consisted of three parts: teachers' work experience, teachers' beliefs with statements relating to teaching theories, and methods, and what the teacher implemented in her classroom in relation to the statements in part two. The student's questionnaire was planned as a triangulation to the teacher's questionnaire. It had 22 statements which were identical to the statements in part three of the teacher's questionnaire.

There was a 100% response to the two surveys, but not all of these were fully completed. Just under 95% of the student returns were completed (1575 out of 1660, comprising 411 intermediate and 1164 secondary). From each of the 14 schools, one class per grade was randomly selected. However, with second and third grade secondary, two classes per grade level were selected because of the scientific and literary division. Just over 92% of the teachers' returns were completed (61 out of 66). The analysis in both cases was drawn only from the percentage of survey fully completed questionnaires.

A field diary was kept on all the events, observations and conversations that took place with students and teachers. These were recorded in the diary after each visit to each school.

Through the use of the computer and with the help of one of the statisticians at King Saud University in Riyadh, the rough data was transferred to the computer database. SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) was used in analysing the research data. Statistical commands for SPSS and qualitative interpretation were used to analyse the data (Appendix 9).

4.1 Section One: Questionnaires - Teacher's Questionnaire

The questionnaire was in three parts. The first part related to teachers' experience. Teachers' experiences vary from less than a year to over ten years. The majority of the teachers have experience between 2 to 10 years, only a few have a year or more than 10 years of teaching experience. However, there was no significant effect. Therefore, part one of the teacher's questionnaire was not included in the discussion. The second part focused on the beliefs and background of the Saudi foreign language teacher (SFLT), and the third on teachers' practice. The categories used in part two teacher's questionnaire were 'strongly agree', 'agree', 'disagree', and 'strongly disagree' in part three of the teacher's questionnaire were 'often', 'quite often', 'hardly ever' and 'never'. In the tables, all categories appear as they actually are.

Statistics are not easily understood unless one is statistically oriented; therefore, the only type of graphics used here are tables, because they are easily to read by the majority of people. Tables provide a more detailed presentation of the responses. They give the number and percentage of participants to each category (Appendix 9).

4.1.1 Teacher's Questionnaire part 2 Beliefs and Background

This part attempts to interpret the SFLT background on the different theories and practices available in the literature. It was initially hypothesized that SFLT will have an understanding and appreciation of the importance of having a solid knowledge on theories and practice. The data show that SFLT are well aware of the significance that theory and practice hold in their profession and they also show that SFLTs believe and prefer the constructivist methods of teaching. These are contradicted to the data from the interviews with the same teachers. In addition, the tables give a clear picture of the

SFLT's educational background and their dissatisfaction with the methods employed in the Saudi schools to teach a foreign language.

Part two of the teacher's questionnaire was developed to establish the SFLT's perception, beliefs and background related to theories (language acquisition theories, Tables 7,2,1,4, and 5, Appendix 9), methods and skills (language teaching methods), learning variables, strategies (Tables 15,17, 22, 18, 38, 30, and 26, Appendix 9) the status of current foreign language teaching practised in Saudi schools, and her own education (Tables 37, 36, 41 and 42, Appendix 9).

4.1.2 Teacher's Questionnaire part 3 Practices

Here, the focus is on what the SFLT practises in the classroom. The questions are a set of practices that a constructivist language teacher would employ in her classroom (Brooks and Brooks, 1999). The aim was to understand what kind of role the SFLT plays in the classroom, with a preconception that the Saudi teacher employs a behaviourist strategy when teaching a foreign language and that learners act as receivers with no output of their own, this is fully discussed in chapter five.

This part was intended to investigate whether the Saudi teacher is more of a constructivist teacher, or not. All the questions here are related to a constructivist way of teaching. Most of the questions in this part are addressed in the analysis in the following chapter.

4.1.3 Student's Questionnaire

The student's questionnaire works as a triangulation to the teacher's questionnaire. Therefore, the questions in the student's questionnaire are identical to the teachers' questions presented in the previous section.

4.3 Section Two: Field Diary

A diary was kept on all of the fieldwork (Appendix 7). Fieldwork refers to the time spent in schools and the conversations with teachers and students while administering and collecting the questionnaires. Conversations with students and teachers were entered in the field diary. Most situations were recorded, as were events and behaviour observed while collecting the data. The diary entries were informal and descriptive but insightful.

After each visit to the chosen schools notes were made on conversations with the teachers, what they thought and believed about teaching, students positions as learners, and the education system as a whole. The conversations with the teachers and students are related to the study. Teachers had understood that their responses would be used as evidence but with no names or recording devices.

The interviews were in groups during the midmorning break, which was for 30 minutes. The smallest group consisted of three teachers and the largest of seven teachers. Total number of teachers that participated in the interviews were 65 teachers out of 66, one teacher at school D was absent on the day of the interview at that school. The questionnaire was distributed to the teachers after the interviews. Some answered the questionnaire the same day others brought it back days later.

These informal interviews and observations were useful and enlightening. They are evidence, because of their richness and insightfulness, but are perhaps less valid and reliable than the structured questionnaire, as their data depended partly on memory.

However, before continuing it is significant at this point to explain the possible reasons behind the contradiction between the questionnaire and the informal interviews and the appropriateness and effectiveness of questionnaire as a method of data collection in the Saudi society.

4.4 Questionnaires versus Informal Interviews in the Study

Much of the literature on teaching (Oxford, 1990; Roberts, 1998; Johnson, 2001; Brown, 2007) indicates that teacher beliefs about language teaching and learning a foreign

language emerge as the critical factor influencing the types of decisions teachers make this does not appear to be the case according to my data. As noted there is a contradiction between the questionnaire results and the teacher's informal interviews. The appropriateness of questionnaires as data collection method in Saudi schools might be questionable.

The written responses in the questionnaire that reveal the teachers actual practice in the classroom might well have been considered to be threatening for the SFLT. This is one reason for the contradiction between the questionnaire results and the informal interviews I conducted. This is evident through their response they chose what they thought they should not what they really thought. Unlike in the informal interviews they seem to be more open and direct (Appendix 7, p. 227). Al-Ansari (1995) and Al-Mandil (1999) have stated that participants are not comfortable in answering questionnaires and do look at it as a document that might be used against them.

It is possible that the notion of authority and the lack of sense of individualism in Saudi society has a negative impact on the use of a questionnaire as a data collection method. This notion of authority is clearly visible in the education system. Therefore, it is possible that the teachers informally interviewed in girls schools considered the questionnaire as an official written document, and treated it with the suspicion and distrust they normally reserve for such things. Parker (1992) noticed that the Middle Easterner in the USA (which applies to Saudis as well) shows suspicion in matters as simple as completing a university application form. He advises Western researchers to take note of that when conducting research in those regions.

The education system in SA is highly authoritative, and teachers are supervised by inspectors in the case of girls' schools to ensure they comply with the rules and regulations of the Ministry of Education (MoE). Therefore, anyone coming to a school and conducting a questionnaire will be treated with suspicion. This is in spite of the fact that the teachers and students in my sample were assured that their responses would be confidential and would not be used for any other purpose except for the research work. The teachers who responded to the questionnaire in this study may believe that their

responses will be reported to their inspectors and supervisors, and that this will affect their grades and promotion.

Another reason, for the contradiction between questionnaire and interviews, it was very important for the teachers to present themselves in a good and positive light and to conform to the group expectations and not to stand out as individuals in the way they respond to the questionnaire. It is evidence that the majority of the teachers choose the response that they ought to, not what they were actually practising. This applies to the students as well. Respondents often write what they think is acceptable not what they do (Bryman, 2004). Realizing this limitation in the questionnaire a field diary was kept.

Personal relationships are important in Arab culture. Parker (1992) draws attention to the importance of family and friendships in the Middle Easterner's life, and observes that to talk, listen, and share words is important to the Arabs. An attempt was made to duplicate these conditions in informal interviews by conducting them in a friendly and relaxed atmosphere, designed to encourage the teachers to react to the questions more openly and freely, and to discourage feelings of hesitancy or suspicion. In addition, teachers were not asked to write their answers or sign a paper and no notes were taken during the interviews. They answered questions orally. They were open and direct. In hindsight, formal interviews could have taken place, however it is questionable whether they would have been as rich and insightful if they were formal, and perhaps they would have been treated like the questionnaires in this study. That remains to be answered through further research.

The questionnaire was used as a data collection method in order to reach as large a number of teachers and students as possible.

Chapter Five

Data Analysis

5.0 Introduction

The aim of the survey and the field diary was to describe, understand and explore the current practice and knowledge of the foreign language teacher in SA. It was designed to provide answers to the research questions. This ultimately led to scrutinising the teacher's education in SA. However, it is not only restricted to identifying the current knowledge and capability of the SFLT in relation to pre-service education but also attempts to produce grounds and recommendations for policy makers to consider.

The main concerns to be addressed were the existing conditions (current teaching practice), opinions (teachers', beliefs and understandings), processes and evident effects (on students learning) that are evident.

The analysis sought to identify common patterns and differences and discuss any surprises in the accumulated data. Both quantitative and qualitative analyses were employed in this task, with the results from one method intended to enhance, illustrate, or clarify results from the other. While both are concerned with providing descriptions of phenomena that occur naturally, they approach research from different perspectives.

The quantitative method provides tables, graphs, frequencies and percentages. These types of data can be subjected to any statistical procedures based on the purpose of the study. Quantitative research begins with a preconceived notion about the investigated phenomena. That is, the research begins with a question or a theory, which narrows the focus of the research and allows a phenomenon to be investigated systematically. The qualitative method, on the other hand, may involve the use of statistics, but its purpose is to draw implications from the data to form a hypothesis. In that sense, qualitative research questions are suggested by the recurring patterns which emerge from the data. While qualitative analysis allows close study of individual performance, it may or may

not represent the behaviour of others, and therefore, it is questionable when it comes to generalization, in contrast to the quantitative analysis where generalization is more reliable.

The questionnaires were not analyzed question by question, but grouped according to their relation to each other. The following three broad categories were utilised: learning and teaching theories; skills (methods, learning variables and learning strategies); and current teaching methods employed in Saudi schools in a group. Key questions were selected and subjected to statistical analysis.

5.1 Teachers' Beliefs and Knowledge about Language Teaching and Learning Theories

In this part the analysis is devoted to answering question one of the research questions, which is “what knowledge does the SFLT have on theories underlying the teaching and learning of a foreign language?”

To date no one knows with absolute certainty how a second/foreign language is acquired. All we have are theories. Brown (2007: 99) said that theories do not capture all the elements and principles of human learning. Instead they are a starting point for understanding how humans learn a second/foreign language. Theories are generally seen to represent sets of insights and concepts that form grounds for formulating teaching methods.

Understanding how people acquire a foreign language the nature of foreign language learning the role of the learning differences and the type of methods and techniques involved inevitably requires viewing the theoretical foundation on which foreign language learning is based.

Classroom practice is directly or indirectly based on theory. Teachers gain theoretical knowledge either through professional education, personal experience, common sense, or a combination of these factors. In practice, it has been suggested that there is no real difference between common sense and theory, particularly in the field of education (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Theories form a solid background for the language teacher to

establish what should be given priority in teaching a foreign language and what may undermine the learning process. Theories must be viewed as guidance in selecting what to teach and how to teach a foreign language and to developing the necessary skills.

In the literature researchers prefer different theories to the other. However, researchers such as, Brown (2007) and Ellis (1985) strongly emphasise that the literature should only provide the necessary background knowledge on which the teacher can base her/his own theories. There is no right or wrong theory, as truth can be found virtually in every theory.

According to Al-Saadat (1985) and Al-Ansari (1995), Saudi teachers lack such knowledge. Teachers receive no background on the different theories (humanistic theory, psychoanalytic theory, reflective theory, behaviourism theory, and constructivism theory) related to foreign language teaching during their undergraduate studies or their in-service.

The results highlight that the SFLT understands and appreciates the importance of having a good theoretical background. 52.5% agreed and 27.9% strongly agreed (Table 7) that Learning and Teaching Theories (LTT) would form a solid base for improving their ability to teach effectively. Also, 47.5% agreed and 21.3% strongly agreed (Table 2) that LTT helped them in choosing their teaching methods effectively.

Table 7: Question 7- I think learning and teaching theories would form a base for improving my teaching ability.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	1	1.6
Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	11	18.0
Agree	32	52.5
Strongly agree	17	27.9
Total	61	100.0

Table 2: Question 2- Learning and teaching theories enable me as a language teacher to choose the right method for my language classroom.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	1	1.6
Strongly disagree	1	1.6
Disagree	17	27.9
Agree	29	47.5
Strongly agree	13	21.3
Total	61	100.0

However, only 42.6% agreed and 6.6% strongly agreed (Table 1) on that the SFLT does not have a reasonable knowledge on LTT. 34.4% agreed and 21.3% strongly agreed (Table 4) that LTT were not part of their education and 42.6% agreed and 34.4% strongly agreed (Table 5) on that they have gained knowledge through their own personal research on LTT. This could mean that the 42.6% agreed and 6.6% strongly agreed (Table 1) who indicated a reasonable knowledge on LTT may have gained this knowledge through their own research.

Table 1: Question 1- Language teachers have a reasonable knowledge on learning and teaching theories.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	1	1.6
Strongly disagree	2	3.3
Disagree	28	45.9
Agree	26	42.6
Strongly agree	4	6.6
Total	61	100.0

Table 4: Question 4- Learning and teaching theories were not part of my education.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	8	13.1
Disagree	19	31.1
Agree	21	34.4
Strongly agree	13	21.3
Total	61	100.0

Table 5: Question 5- I gained knowledge on learning and teaching theories through my own research.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	1	1.6
Strongly disagree	4	6.6
Disagree	9	14.8
Agree	26	42.6
Strongly agree	21	34.4
Total	61	100.0

During the informal interviews with the same teachers, they have stated that LTT had not formed part of their education training (Appendix 7, p. 227; evidence throughout the diary). Teachers who were familiar with teaching theories said that the theories were not related to teaching a foreign language but to teaching in general (Appendix 7, point no. 5, 16, 37, 113 & 124):

Quotation Q So foreign language teaching theories were not part of your education?

Only one teacher said that it was part of her education. She added that it was only on teaching theories with no workshops. Teachers said that they were not even introduced to the textbooks until they were actually teaching the foreign language.

Quotation Q Were foreign language teaching and learning theories part of your education?

Teachers said yes. So I asked if they remembered any of the theories or methods, they said no. Was it related to foreign language teaching? No, it was on teaching theories in general.

Roberts (1998: 3) has stated the importance of having knowledge of the available theories on FLT as have Finocchiaro and Bonomo (1973: introduction & 27) emphasising the importance of having a solid knowledge on FLT theories in helping teachers to function and develop in their context. In addition, they have highlighted the significance of practical knowledge involved in teaching a foreign language.

These results logically lead to questioning the SFLT pre-service and in-service, and this is fully discussed in the following chapter, especially since 29.5% agreed and 41% strongly agreed (Table 37) on their need to attend training courses to improve their skills in using different strategies and teaching methods.

Table 37: Question 37- I need to attend a training course in order to improve my skills in using different strategies and new teaching methods to teach a foreign language.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	6	9.8
Disagree	12	19.7
Agree	18	29.5
Strongly agree	25	41.0
Total	61	100.0

5.2 Skills of Teaching a Foreign Language (methods, learning variables and learning strategies)

A good theoretical foundation is weak if not provided with an equal practical knowledge of the essential tools involved in teaching, so that foreign language teachers can develop confidence as they perform their day-to-day tasks (Finocchiaro and Bonomo 1973: 27, 242). This brings us to research question number two, “To what extent is the SFLT

professionally prepared, equipped with the appropriate skills to teaching English as a foreign language?”

The skills that enhance an individual’s teaching include, knowing and understanding the different methods involved in teaching a foreign language, different variables among students, the different strategies they employ in learning a foreign language, and realising the effect it has on the teacher/student relationship. These tools open different routes to investigate new ways of presenting suitable methods to the class and new practices that can stimulate interest in the subject and perhaps motivate student-learning.

5.2.1 Methods

There are various methods in teaching a foreign language (as discussed in chapter two) and no single method can accommodate all the requirements. The reason for this limitation is that the process of teaching and learning involves other factors that must be taken into consideration, and there are individual differences between students, the teacher’s objectives, and the nature of the classroom context and culture.

Brown (2007) draws teachers’ attention to the fact that language teaching is not easily categorised into one method. Instead, teachers are encouraged to develop an understanding of the available methods and to build on this in her/his own teaching practice.

The SFLT seems to appreciate that there is more than one method to teaching a foreign language, as 26.2% agreed and 70.5% strongly agreed (Table 15). However, the majority of those surveyed agreed on the effectiveness of the audio-lingual method (37.7% agreed and 52.5% strongly agreed, see Table 17) and at the same time the majority of the same teachers also agreed on the effectiveness of the communicative method (41% agreed and 47.5% strongly agreed, see Table 22). As these two methods are fundamentally different to each other, they again raise first research question, about the awareness of the different theories underlying methods and approaches to foreign language teaching.

Table 15: Question 15- There are several methods to teaching a foreign language.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	1	1.6
Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	1	1.6
Agree	16	26.2
Strongly agree	43	70.5
Total	61	100.0

Table 17: Question 17- The audio-lingual method is quite effective for teaching English as a foreign language.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	2	3.3
Strongly disagree	1	1.6
Disagree	3	4.9
agree	23	37.7
Strongly agree	32	52.5
Total	61	100.0

Table 22: Question 22- The communicative method helps students to communicate effectively inside and outside the classroom.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	4	6.6
Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	3	4.9
Agree	25	41.0
Strongly agree	29	47.5
Total	61	100.0

During the informal interviews, the same teachers stated that they followed the Teacher's Book. However, they were unsure on which method or theory the instructions in the Teacher's Book were based (Appendix 7, point no. 2, 3, 15, 17, 27, 58, 67, 78, 90, 101, 111 & 134).

Quotation Q Can you tell me what theory or method you apply to your way of teaching?

All have indicated that they do not follow a certain theory or method. So I asked do you know what theory or method the Teachers' Book follow. One teacher said that it concentrates on teaching grammar rules and repetition the others said they did not know.

Quotation Q What approach or name of method do you use in teaching English?

Teachers seemed to be not sure, they agreed that they follow the instructions in the Teacher Book.

This highlights that the SFLT's may be aware that there are different methods in teaching a foreign language, but they have no background on the methods, their characteristics, or their affect on teaching a foreign language. And they do not know the basis of the method that they presently follow from the Teacher's Book. Again this leads to questioning the pre-service and in-service offered to the SFLT in SA.

5.2.2 Learning Variables

It has been proven that students demonstrate differences in their degree of proficiency in learning a foreign language, despite the fact that they are exposed to the same conditions (Johnson, 2001: 116-117). They bring with them different profiles related to motivation, attitude and goals, which most certainly affect the outcome of their learning. Learners variables cannot be categorized as either good or bad. What makes them positive is when they are recognized to help students to become better foreign language learners.

The self-confident person is more successful in learning a foreign language. Learners who are eager to try new unpredictable experiences are likely to seek out situations that

require real communication in the new language. They have been observed to learn the foreign language fairly quickly (Johnson, 2001: 139-58).

The results indicate that teachers help students to develop a feeling of confidence in their ability to learn, 26.2% quite often and 73.8% very often (Table 44).

Table 44: practice 2: Help students to develop a feeling of confidence in their ability to learn.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	0	0.0
Quite often	16	26.2
Very often	45	73.8
Total	61	100.0

However, in relation to the informal interviews (Appendix 7, point no. 7, 18, 39, 50, 69, 91, 105, 117, & 142) teachers do not employ this practice.

Quotation Q Do you help your students to develop confidence, monitor their own changes and set their own goals?

Teachers said that the time allowed per class does not give room for such. And even if students do good we encourage them but at the same time we tell them that they need to work harder and not to take too much pride in their work because teachers think that if they become over confident they might end up doing bad in their exams. We encourage them to follow their parents' advices.

Quotation Q Do you prefer a confident student?

Only in relation to their progress in their study they are better than the others, but most of them are arrogant and think that they have the right to misbehave because of their confidence. Such students feel that they do not need us and that they are allowed to pick on our mistakes. We prefer a D student who is well behaved.

On one hand, a large number of the teachers said that they give little positive feedback or no feedback at all. Some of the teachers think that positive feedback can make students become arrogant and proud of their accomplishment, which might affect their studies make them lazy. Teachers assume that students work better with negative feedback. On the other hand, a few teachers expressed the view that they lack the means to foster a feeling of confidence in their students.

Students agreed that teachers help them to feel confident in their ability to learn, 23.9% quite often and 42.9% very often (Table 66).

Table 66: Question 2: The teacher helps me to feel confident in my ability to learn.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	6	.4
Never	300	19.0
Hardly ever	217	13.8
Quite often	377	23.9
Very often	675	42.9
Total	1575	100.0

From the informal interviews with the students it is apparent that they have no confidence to use or to attempt to use the language. One student (Appendix 7, point no. 25) said that the foreign language teacher had made fun of her when she made a mistake. From that time on, she said that she stopped using the English language (the taught foreign language in Saudi Arabia is English).

Quotation One girl said I would never even use English outside the classroom. She said that she tried to speak English in class she made mistakes and the teacher embarrassed her in front of her friends. Other students said we try to get good grades in English so we can study science.

The students also stressed that without confidence they cannot learn anything. Brooks and Brooks (1999: 85) mentioned that when a students are told that their answer is wrong it makes them feel invalidated and foolish.

Motivation is another variable that has a positive or negative affect on foreign language learning, in fact, it is considered one of the most affective variables (Brown, 2007). Each student is motivated differently. For example, if one student needs to learn English to go to a high-prestige university, then that forms her/his motivation. Saudi students learn English to pass the exams (Al-Mandil, 1999).

Classroom activities play an essential role in building confidence and motivating students. They can reduce the strain of formality in the classroom and make learning more student-centred than teacher-centred. Activities carried out in groups where students exchange personal and relevant information can encourage the less confident and less motivated. Teachers cannot depend on the students' desire and interest in learning a foreign language, but must find ways to build their confidence and motivate them to learn.

Teachers are expected to understand and to teach accommodating these differences. The SFLT's stated that in order to teach effectively, it is crucial to learn and understand the different variables among students (23% agreed and 77% strongly agreed, see Table 30).

Table 30: Question 30- Realising and understanding the importance of the different variables between students helps in improving the quality of teaching.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	0	0.0
Agree	14	23.0
Strongly agree	47	77.0
Total	61	100.0

The same teachers indicated in the informal interviews that the difference among students is that an 'A' student is not like a 'D' student, and a well-behaved student is not like a badly behaved student, and consequently they treat them accordingly (Appendix 7, point no. 29, 63, 82, & 107).

Quotation Q Do you notice the difference between your students?

Teachers said yes the A student is not like the D student and the well behaved student is not like the badly behaved student.

Quotation Q Do you notice the differences among your students?

Yes, some are well behaved and others are not. They added, there is only a few of the students that are good at studying English.

This could be that teachers are not familiar with the different variables highlighted in the literature, another limitation of the SFLT education in SA.

5.2.3 Learning Strategies

Helping students understand good language learning strategies and training them to develop and use those strategies are considered to be characteristics of a good language teacher (Lessard-Clouston, 1997). Since the amount of information to be processed is high, learners use different language-learning strategies in performing the tasks and processing the new input they face. Language-learning strategies are good indicators of how learners approach tasks or problems encountered during the process of language learning. In other words, language-learning strategies, while non-observable or unconsciously used in some cases, give language teachers valuable clues about how their students assess the situation, plan, and select appropriate skills so as to understand, learn, or remember new input presented in the language classroom.

Teachers have stated that they help their students in setting challenges for themselves and developing strategies to meet those challenges (54.1% quite often and 32.88% very often,

see Table 45) and they claimed to practise strategy training (26.2% quite often and 63.9% very often, see Table 46).

Table 45: practice 3: Help students to set challenges for themselves and develop strategies to meet them.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	2	3.3
Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	6	9.8
Quite often	33	54.1
Very often	20	32.8
Total	61	100.0

Table 46: practice 4: Teach students the strategies they need to learn effectively.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	6	9.8
Quite often	16	26.2
Very often	39	63.9
Total	61	100.0

The impression from the informal interviews (Appendix 7, point no. 6, 10, 19, 32, 42, 52, 62, 71, 83, 94, 106, 140 & 153) with the teachers and students tells a different story.

Quotation Q Do you train your students in the strategies they need to improve their ability to study English?

We encourage them to work hard. Strategy training is the responsibility of the textbooks not teachers.

Teachers think that setting challenges and meeting those challenges are the responsibility of the authors of the textbooks and syllabus. They stated that the textbooks are designed in a way that does not allow students to think productively. Instead they encourage memorizing and repeating what the teacher says in the classroom (Appendix 7, point no. 22 & 97). Brooks and Brooks (1999: 8) stated that most teachers depend heavily on textbooks and that everything they say is aligned with the information offered in the textbooks.

According to Al-Mandil (1999), in Saudi classrooms, there is no room for strategy training and teachers do not consider learning abilities among students, as they lack training in such elements.

Students agreed that the teachers help them in setting challenges for themselves and help them to gain and develop strategies to meet those challenges, 27.9% quite often and 26.2% very often (Table 67); and they stated that teachers teach them the strategies they need to learn effectively, 21.5% quite often and 46.4% very often (Table 68). I think that the students might have not understood these questions because in the informal interviews they said that the teachers encourage them to study hard to pass their exams.

Table 67: Question 3: The teacher helps me to set challenges for myself and to develop strategies to meet those challenges.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	13	.8
Never	426	27.0
Hardly ever	284	18.0
Quite often	440	27.9
Very often	412	26.2
Total	1575	100.0

Table 68: Question 4: The teacher teaches me the strategies I need to learn effectively.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	.00	7	.4
	Never	225	14.3
	Hardly ever	273	17.3
	Quite often	339	21.5
	Very often	731	46.4
	Total	1575	100.0

An exam-oriented syllabus may confound the practice of setting challenges and strategy teaching, as teachers are required to provide learners with easy and simple tasks that duplicate those found in the exams (Brooks and Brooks, 1999: 15) and which learners can tackle quickly in order to gain good grades. In a behaviourist language classroom, where it is exam-oriented and textbook-dependent, there is little integrative thinking on the part of the students. Most of the teachers agreed that since the methodology of teaching the foreign language depends on memorization, drills and patterns, teachers do not need to spend a great deal of time on teaching strategies for learning because the students can follow the instructions of the textbooks.

Such comments are difficult to justify from the constructivist point of view (discussed in chapter two) with its emphasis on developing independent and self-directed learners involving the application of learning strategies and teachers working as coaches (Brown, 2007: 12). However, certain aspects in the Saudi culture might work against this (discussed in chapter one).

From the results, it seems that the SFLT lacks knowledge on the different theories and methods related to FLT. Not only did the majority of them agree on the effectiveness of the audio-lingual method and the effectiveness of the communicative method, the majority also agreed on the importance of mastering the grammatical rules (34.4% agreed and 57.4% strongly agreed, see Table 18), which is related to the grammatical method. This not only stresses that the SFLT is confused when it comes to the underlying characteristics and theories for each method, but it also suggests that the majority of

SFLT's are more behaviourist in their way of teaching because mastering grammar and audio-lingual principles are associated with behaviourism.

Table 18: Question 18- Students must master the grammatical rules to be able to use the language correctly.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	5	8.2
Agree	21	34.4
Strongly agree	35	57.4
Total	61	100.0

The audio-lingual method is strongly related to the behaviourist approach to teaching. Freeman (2000: 35) stated that the audio-lingual method drills students in the use of grammatical sentence patterns. She continues that the audio-lingual method draws its principles from the behavioural psychology of Skinner. Richards and Rodgers (2001: 28) stated that teachers of the audio-lingual method are regarded as the primary source of language and language-learning.

5.3 Behaviourism or Constructivism

My preconception was that the Saudi foreign language teacher (SFLT) would understand and realize the importance and effectiveness of having a good knowledge on theories and different practices and the significance of realizing the different variables among students and the effectiveness of strategy-training among students. However, when it comes to practice it is a different matter. Another preconception was that the SFLT is more of a behaviourist in her approach to teaching than a constructivist. This section relates to question three of the research questions, “To what extent is a behaviourist or constructivist approach to teaching and learning more dominant in the current Saudi practice in the classroom?”

According to the behaviourism theory, teachers can have a dramatic impact on the way students perform academically and behave socially in the classroom through rewarding and punishment. This is what Skinner (1957) called ‘shaping’.

Positive reinforcement is a stimulus that, when presented, increases the probability of the response or behaviour it follows. Such stimuli are called rewards, and they can be praise, affection and approval. A negative reinforcement is an aversive stimulus something unpleasant that students dislike.

Skinner’s stimuli and response and reinforcement were tailored to language-learning through the audio-lingual method. A set of phrases is given to the learner who has to make the same response or the same manipulation. The method emphasised habit formation, repetitive drills, avoidance of errors, mimicry and memorization, and reliance on a central and active role for the teacher (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

The behaviourist views of both language and language-learning dominated foreign language-teaching methodology for several decades (Brown, 2007). However, behaviourist views had come to represent all that was wrong with language teaching (Stern, 1992).

As for constructivism, it proposes that people construct their own understanding and knowledge of the world through experiencing things and reflecting on those experiences. When we encounter something new, we relate it to our previous ideas and experiences, perhaps resulting in changing what we believe or discarding the new information as irrelevant. In either case we are active creators of our knowledge, therefore, we must ask questions to explore and assess what and how we learn.

Students come to a classroom with their own experiences and knowledge. Students will reformulate existing knowledge only if the new information is connected to knowledge already in memory. Inferences, elaborations and relationships between old perceptions and new ideas must be drawn by the student in order for the new idea to become a useful part of his/her memory. Memorised information that has not been connected with the learner’s prior experiences are quickly forgotten. In short, the student must actively

construct new information onto his/her existing framework for meaningful learning to occur (Brooks and Brooks, 1999).

5.4 Current Practice in the Saudi Foreign Language Classroom

A classroom is not just a learning area, but it is also a development point for both teachers and students. Being a constructivist teacher creates an interactive classroom through applying the communicative approach to teaching, which is based on the constructivist theory (Roberts, 1998). An interactive classroom is where a communicative nature of language teaching and learning is present. Thus, it is recognized that the process of interaction can determine the language-learning opportunities made available for learners, and that certain patterns of language interaction promote more language acquisition (Ellis, 1994). The most productive patterns of interaction are seen to be those in which teachers help create conditions which will facilitate learning, and these are seen to be conditions that lead to patterns of interaction which are not action and reaction but more a two-way process involving recognition between meaning and students' understanding. An interactive classroom is one where teachers and learners have an equal opportunity to interact. That has a vital role in motivating learners in their language acquisition and in their learning process. In addition, through interaction, learners may develop their cognitive ability by increasing their language capacity as they read or listen to authentic material, exchange ideas in discussions with teachers and peers, and share ideas and information in problem-solving tasks. This will lead to a logical outcome where learners can later transfer what they have learned inside the classroom to the real world when communicating with others in different kinds of situations.

In Saudi classrooms such interactions do not exist. Teachers in Saudi schools play the dominant role (Table 61). Interaction and communication among students and between students and teachers seldom take place in a foreign-language classes.

Table 61: practice 19: You play the dominant role in your classroom.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Never	5	8.2
	Hardly ever	8	13.1
	Quite often	28	45.9
	Very often	20	32.8
	Total	61	100.0

This means that Saudi students have little chance to use the foreign language for communicative purposes. Although, some teachers at university level try to interact with the students to help them have an active role in their learning, many of them still use lecturing as their major teaching method. As a result, little interaction generally takes place in the foreign-language classroom, and silence on the part of the student is a very common phenomenon.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, for a long time, teachers were trapped in the belief that imitation and repetition were evident characteristics of learning, but these proved to be undesirable techniques in the modern language classes for their neglect of the role of the intellect, i.e. making a language response is not much of a step towards learning.

Learners in an constructivist classroom are considered to play an active role in the learning process, whereas in a behaviourist learning environment learners often have a passive role (Brooks & Brooks, 1999: 15). Thus, a constructivist classroom is one in which learners are allowed to express their ideas and to speak or act freely not only in response to the teacher (Brooks and Brooks, 1999: 60). Classroom interaction provides conditions for learning and developing. Creating such conditions is considered to be the teacher's job, with the ultimate goal of enabling the students to move gradually from their role of total dependence to one of total independence. In other words, this is designed to help students assume an active role in their own learning.

In a constructivist approach, teachers help their students to develop as individuals and to monitor their own development in learning. They should provide clear instruction,

encourage pair and group work, and give clear and detailed information about the aims of their learning and how to relate the aims to their needs. He/She should explain to the students how such knowledge would be useful to them in their future careers.

Although, 87% of the teachers stated that they employ a constructivist way of teaching (discussed in chapter two), observation and informal interviews (Appendix 7; evident throughout the field diary) suggest that is not the case.

The results show that the teachers claimed to make their instructions clear when they delivered a lesson to their students, 8.2% quite often and 91.8% very often, see Table 43).

Table 43: practice 1: Make your instructions clear when you give a lesson to your students.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Never	0	0.0
	Hardly ever	0	0.0
	Quite often	5	8.2
	Very often	56	91.8
	Total	61	100.0

However, the teachers' survey answers are somewhat contradicted by the informal interviews recorded in the field diary with the same teachers (Appendix 7, point no. 49, 70, 92 & 149).

Quotation Q Do you make your instructions clear when you give a task?

Teachers said that they do not need to do that because the textbooks explain fully what the students need to know.

In the informal interviews, most of the teachers stated that they did not need to elaborate instructions when giving a lesson, because they believed that the textbooks explained everything that the students needed to know about the lesson. Teachers generally seem to agree that the textbooks explain the instructions clearly and that students should stop being lazy and start reading those instructions.

In a Saudi language classroom, the teacher usually reads the instructions in a loud voice in order to be sure that all students hear what she is reading, and then she explains the difficult words. Alternatively, this can be achieved by giving the students a chance to read the instructions silently, after which the teacher asks the students if they have any questions. Then they are asked to follow the instructions in the textbook, telling them not to waste time in reading these instructions during class time in order to proceed to the next task or activity. In other words, teachers believe that textbooks already explain everything students need to know about the tasks, and accordingly, they assume that they do not have to make any effort in modifying any difficulty or ambiguity that tasks might hold. Such situations create poor interaction in a classroom. Teachers think that students should stop depending on the teachers so much (Emara, 1994).

In addition, although the students stated that the foreign language teacher was clear when giving a lesson, 30.6% quite often and 52.1% very often (Table 65),

Table 65: Question 1: The teacher is clear and comprehensible in lessons.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	9	.6
Never	126	8.0
Hardly ever	138	8.8
Quite often	482	30.6
Very often	820	52.1
Total	1575	100.0

from the informal interviews with the students (Appendix 7, point no. 24 & 99) I question whether students fully understand what is required of them.

Quotation Students did not like studying English. They said we memorise to pass the exams. Teachers do not encourage us to use the language in class it is only the A students that interact with the teacher, when the teacher asks a question they answer, especially when the principal attends the class. Again only a few of the students answered my questions but the whole class seemed to agree. We are always asked to behave and not to waste the classes time.

Students stressed that they are usually urged to complete the lesson and not to waste time in asking further questions. Al-Nafisah (2001) stated that students seem to be always confused when it comes to language classes, so they employ memorization as their strategy for learning (Al-Mandil, 1999).

Teachers stated that they do encourage students to work in groups and pairs, 32.8% quite often and 59% very often (Table 47) and that they encourage teacher-student interaction in the classroom as well as interaction between students, 21.3% quite often and 77% very often (Table 64).

Table 47: practice 5: Encourage students to work in pairs or small groups in the classroom.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	3	4.9
Hardly ever	2	3.3
Quite often	20	32.8
Very often	36	59.0
Total	61	100.0

Table 64: practice 22: You encourage students to interact with you and with their peers.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	1	1.6
Quite often	13	21.3
Very often	47	77.0
Total	61	100.0

Again, a different picture is presented by the observations and informal interviews (Appendix 7, point no. 8, 21, 33, 41, 44, 53, 59, 72, 81, 95, 104, 116, 125, 141 & 150). The layout of each classroom I visited does not encourage pair or group work at all. The physical layout in the classroom is identical for all lessons i.e. the teacher's desk is at the front facing rows of students who sit behind movable desks. Students are not allowed to

turn right nor left or to speak to each other unless given permission. From the beginning to the end of the lesson, the students sit, listen and copy what the teacher writes on the board. They speak only in response to the teacher, even though, the Teachers Book encourages teachers to use pair work to give students a chance to practise the language.

Some teachers have expressed the opinion that the large number of students in one classroom hinders pair or group working (Appendix 7, point no. 8, 21, 33, 44, 72 & 95), stating that it might disturb their management and control of the classroom.

Quotation Q Do you encourage pair and group work?

No, because we have no time and it could cause us to lose control of the class.

Quotation Q Do you encourage students to work in pairs and groups?

No, classes are too crowded and no time.

The lack of group work may be associated with the influence of different social values, as social norms inside and outside the classroom may force teachers into being dominant in the classroom (highlighted in chapter one).

Johnson (2001: 207) stated that pair or group work shifts the centre of power away from the teacher, and it involves learners more in their learning. Johnson continues that some cultures are hostile to pair and group work because it involves teachers/students relations. Shamim (1996: 124 cited in Johnson, 2001: 207) said that teachers' insecurity and culture conditioning prevents them from employing pair and group work. Teachers are traditionally viewed as authority figures and are given respect and superiority because they deliver knowledge.

Students said that they were encouraged to work in pairs and groups in the classroom, 24.3% quite often and 49.1% very often (Table 69), and that they were encouraged to interact in the classroom, 15.9% quite often and 60.3% very often (Table 86).

Table 69: Question 5: Students are encouraged to work in pairs or groups in the classroom.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	11	.7
Never	215	13.7
Hardly ever	194	12.3
Quite often	382	24.3
Very often	773	49.1
Total	1575	100.0

Table 86: Question 22: The teacher encourages me to interact with her and my peers.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	6	.4
Never	209	13.3
Hardly ever	160	10.2
Quite often	250	15.9
Very often	950	60.3
Total	1575	100.0

During my conversations with the students, they do not appear to have much of an interaction. They stated that they only answer the teachers' questions when asked and that only the A students interact with the teacher (Appendix 7, point no. 24, 25, 76, 87 & 99).

Teachers stated that they explain to their students how carrying out a learning activity will help them in the future, 32.8% quite often and 62.3% very often (Table 51) and they said that they help their students to realize that every problem has a solution and that they must keep trying, 19.7% quite often and 77% very often (Table 52). Students stated that teachers do explain that carrying out activities will help them in the future, 25.1% quite often and 33.1% very often (Table 73), and that the teacher does stress the importance of trying, 23.5% quite often and 38.9% very often (Table 74).

Tables 51: practice 9: Explain to the students how carrying out a learning activity will help them in the future.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	1	1.6
Hardly ever	2	3.3
Quite often	20	32.8
Very often	38	62.3
Total	61	100.0

Table 52: practice 10: Help students to realise that if they keep on trying to solve a problem they will find a solution.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	2	3.3
Quite often	12	19.7
Very often	47	77.0
Total	61	100.0

Table 73: Question 9: The teacher explains to me how carrying out learning activities will help me in the future.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	32	2.0
Never	339	21.5
Hardly ever	287	18.2
Quite often	396	25.1
Very often	521	33.1
Total	1575	100.0

Table 74: Question 10: The teacher helps me to realize that if I keep on trying I will find a solution to the problem.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	10	.6
Never	330	21.0
Hardly ever	252	16.0
Quite often	370	23.5
Very often	613	38.9
Total	1575	100.0

From the informal interviews (Appendix 7, point no. 9, 20, 31, 43, 84, 93, 115, 126, 139 & 152) with students and teachers involved in this study, it is apparent that teachers are not concerned with giving reasons or explaining why a certain task is carried out or what impact it may have on the student's future.

Quotation Q Do you explain the importance of carrying out a task?

No, it is the responsibility of the textbooks.

Quotation Q Do you explain to the students the importance of doing a task?

No, this could undermine us if we explain everything.

This implies that teachers may not be keen on helping students to expand their experience of learning English for its use in the future. The teachers made the point that they are not motivated or interested in teaching anything beyond the information in the textbooks. This is the material on which the students will be tested and their comprehension of this will determine whether they succeed or fail.

Teachers confirmed that when explaining issues not related to textbooks, this opens a door of negotiation with the students that will take up time in the class and give students the opportunity to be disrespectful to their teachers.

Teachers stated that they help students monitor their own development, 32.8% quite often and 60.7% very often (Table 50), and that they teach their students to check their own progress in learning the foreign language, 45.9% quite often and 49.2% very often (Table 58).

Table 50: practice 8: Help students to monitor their own development.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Never	1	1.6
	Hardly ever	3	4.9
	Quite often	20	32.8
	Very often	37	60.7
	Total	61	100.0

Table 58: practice 16: Teach your students to check their own progress in their language learning.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	.00	2	3.3
	Never	0	0.0
	Hardly ever	1	1.6
	Quite often	28	45.9
	Very often	30	49.2
	Total	61	100.0

The notion of learners monitoring changes in themselves is new to Saudi teachers. During informal interviews with the teachers, they agreed that giving students the opportunity to monitor their own changes and development will result in teachers losing their respect as good teachers (Appendix 7, point no 9, 73, 138 & 151).

Quotation Q Do you encourage students to monitor their own changes and development?

Teachers monitor students changes and development. Students monitoring their own changes could under mine us as teachers.

When students intervene in evaluating their own progress in learning the language, teachers will lose credibility as well as their control of the class.

Students agreed that teachers help them to monitor their own development, 27.9% quite often and 37% very often (Table 72), and that they help them to check their language progress, 27.2% quite often and 28.3% very often (Table 80). Here, again, I think the students did not understand the questions during my conversation (Appendix 7), as some students stated that the teacher always encourages them to work hard to be able to do well in their exams.

Table 72: Question 8: The teacher helps me monitor my own development.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	32	2.0
Never	296	18.8
Hardly ever	225	14.3
Quite often	439	27.9
Very often	583	37.0
Total	1575	100.0

Table 80: Question 16: The teacher teaches me how to check my own progress.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	30	1.9
Never	365	23.2
Hardly ever	306	19.4
Quite often	428	27.2
Very often	446	28.3
Total	1575	100.0

The results suggest that teachers encourage students to develop as individuals, 39.3% quite often and 55.7% very often (Table 59), and to set their own goals, 39.3% quite often and 42.6% very often (Table 60).

Table 59: practice 17: Help your students to develop as individuals.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	3	4.9
Quite often	24	39.3
Very often	34	55.7
Total	61	100.0

Table 60: practice 18: Teach students to set their own goals in learning.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	1	1.6
Hardly ever	10	16.4
Quite often	24	39.3
Very often	26	42.6
Total	61	100.0

However, teachers do not seem to encourage students to develop as individuals nor do they encourage them to set their own goals. The social norms in Saudi society do not encourage such matters, especially in females. During the informal interviews teachers affirmed that they are brought up in families where there are very strong ideas of rights and obligations. They mentioned that it is the responsibility of the parents to advise, plan and direct the life of the students regardless of their age (Appendix 7, point no. 7, 18, 39, 50, 60, 69, 80, 91, 105, 117, 127 & 151),

Quotation Q Do you help your students to develop confidence in their ability, set their own goals, challenges and help them to develop as individuals?

Teachers seem to think that it is not their job to do any of that and that it is the responsibility of the textbooks and students parents. They said their job is to give the lessons help them to pass their exams. They added that families have strong ideas on right and wrong and a sense of obligation we encourage students to obey their parents.

Quotation Q Do you help your students to develop confidence, set goals and develop as individuals?

Teachers seem to be not interested in doing any. They said our job is to give lessons to help them pass the exams anything else is the responsibility of the parents.

It follows from this that it is the right of the parents to deprive their children from setting their own goals, making decisions, and using strategies to achieve those goals, which is all part of individual development. Teachers seem to view these ideas as acceptable.

Students said that they are helped to develop as individuals, 23% quite often and 29.1% very often (Table 81), and also that they are helped with setting their own goals in learning, 25.5% quite often and 26% very often (Table 82).

Table 81: Question 17: The teacher helps me to develop as an individual.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	42	2.7
Never	407	25.8
Hardly ever	305	19.4
Quite often	362	23.0
Very often	459	29.1
Total	1575	100.0

Table 82: Question 18: The teacher teaches me how to set my own goals in learning.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	26	1.7
Never	431	27.4
Hardly ever	307	19.5
Quite often	402	25.5
Very often	409	26.0
Total	1575	100.0

During the informal interviews, students mentioned that they are asked to behave and respect the teacher. When I asked them what they want from learning English, a few replied to be able to study science (Appendix 7, point no. 25). Others wished that they did not have to study English (Appendix 7, point no. 47, 56, 65, & 99).

Quotation One student asked if it was possible to remove, she named one of the English teachers. They also said that they do not like to study English and that they memorise to pass the exams

At school, teachers assume a parental role, and it is considered to be the duty of the teacher to act on behalf of the students in decision-making. This suggest that helping students to be independent learners who can decide for themselves and have the freedom

to plan, choose and find ways to reach their goals is not given much importance in the Saudi schools and in society at large.

Richards and Rodgers (2001: 28) explained that the teacher/student relationship is determined by the teacher's function and way of teaching. They continue that the teachers methods are related to (a) the types of functions teachers are expected to fulfil, (b) the degree of control the teacher has over how learning take place, and (c) the degree to which the teacher is responsible for determining the content of what is taught. In the Saudi context, teachers are directed through the Teacher's Book on how and what to teach, according to the Richards and Rodgers argument this has formed the current teacher/student relationship in the Saudi classroom (Appendix 7; evident throughout the field diary).

The results of the questionnaire suggest that the SFLT employs a constructivist approach to teaching a foreign language. However, the results from observations and informal interviews with the same teachers gave a different picture that suggests teachers employ the behaviourist approach to teaching. This indicates that the behaviourist approach to teaching and learning is more dominant in the Saudi foreign language classrooms.

The results of practices 13, teachers insist on mastering the grammatical rules, 15, give help when students seek help or advice and 19, play the dominant role in the classroom (Tables 55, 57, & 61) in the questionnaire strengthen the outcomes of the observations and informal interviews from the field diary. They also show that the SFLT practises the behaviourist approach to teaching a foreign language.

Teachers indicated that they insist that students master the grammatical rules to able to use the language correctly, 14.8% quite often and 80.3% very often (Table 55), and students agreed that teachers do insist on mastering the grammatical rules, 19.8% quite often and 57.7% very often (Table 77). Grammatical rule mastery is rooted in the formal teaching of Latin. However, grammatical rule mastery has gradually been generalized to the teaching of living or modern languages such as English.

Table 55: practice 13: The teacher insists on mastering the grammatical rules to be able to use the language correctly.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	3	4.9
Quite often	9	14.8
Very often	49	80.3
Total	61	100.0

Table 77: Question 13: The teacher insists on mastering the grammatical rules to be able to use the language correctly.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	8	.5
Never	162	10.3
Hardly ever	185	11.7
Quite often	312	19.8
Very often	908	57.7
Total	1575	100.0

SFLTs emphasize the importance of grammar and spend time on teaching grammatical points and sentence patterns, which are taught like formulae (Al-Nafisah, 2001). Students are encouraged to memorize grammatically correct sentences, even though they have no idea of the meaning, and grammatical rules, instead of being provided with a solid foundation in English and developing their language skills for communicative purposes.

Freeman (2000) stated that the audio-lingual method drills students in the use of grammatical sentences. She continues that it is related to the behaviourist approach to teaching a foreign language. If students master the grammatical rules, this does not mean that they are able to communicate in the new language.

In a classroom where there is a tendency to depend on grammatical rules to teach a foreign language, it is not surprising that there is little or no interaction with the students. It may be observed that, in the majority of the Saudi language classrooms, there is no pair or group work, and no strategy training, and students are not helped to develop as individuals. The following practice proves it even more.

Teachers stated that they play the dominant role in their language classroom, 45.9% quite often and 32.8% very often (Table 61), and students agreed with this statement, 21.3% quite often and 43.9% very often (Table 83). Teachers in a Saudi classroom symbolize knowledge, authority, and discipline. Students are expected to listen and obey but never to question or enter into a debate with the teacher, because teachers know better and they should not be questioned. In such a climate, there is no room for interaction that limits a positive relationship between teachers and students.

Table 61: practice 19: You play the dominant role in your classroom.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	5	8.2
Hardly ever	8	13.1
Quite often	28	45.9
Very often	20	32.8
Total	61	100.0

Table 83: Question 19: The teacher plays a dominant role in the language classroom.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	17	1.1
Never	272	17.3
Hardly ever	259	16.4
Quite often	336	21.3
Very often	691	43.9
Total	1575	100.0

The teacher/student relationship is important for a successful language-learning atmosphere. In a constructivist setting, teachers are expected to be coaches and consultants to the students (Brooks and Brooks, 1999). Teachers are not simply transmitters of knowledge and students are not passive learners. Students come to class with their own ideas and personality, and these should not be suppressed or ignored, but rather be helped by the teacher to develop or change to be the best they can be. This notion may prove to be hard to employ in Saudi schools because of some social factors that might intervene (chapter one).

The Saudi language teacher employs the behaviourist approach to teaching where students act as passive learners and teachers are the holder and transmitter of knowledge. This approach causes students to detach themselves from the teacher completely even if they face a problem or need help in their studies, as will be the illustrated. When asked by students for help or advice teachers said they do respond, 18% quite often and 80.3% very often (Table 57). However, students said that they would never ask the teacher for help or advice, even if they had difficulties with their studies, 45.5% never and 17.4% hardly ever (Table 79). Such a response from the students highlights and raises some issues.

Table 57: practice 15: Give help when students seek help or advice.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	1	1.6
Quite often	11	18.0
Very often	49	80.3
Total	61	100.0

Table 79: Question 15: If I have difficulties with my work or study I ask my teacher for help.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	31	2.0
Never	717	45.5
Hardly ever	274	17.4
Quite often	257	16.3
Very often	296	18.8
Total	1575	100.0

One of these issues is the student/teacher relationship. When students do not feel comfortable enough to ask their teachers for help with their studies, it implies that the teacher plays the authority role. Teachers do not appear to be friendly, they give orders, and they expect total obedience. In other words, teachers are not approachable. From my observation, I noticed that students were not comfortable when teachers were around. As previously mentioned, Richards and Rodgers (2001) stated that the choice of method affects the teacher/student relationship negatively or positively.

Teachers are apparently willing to help and to advise students on their studies, but students seem to prefer to find help elsewhere. The teacher's attitude and way of teaching does not encourage students to take such steps. This might be because of fear of rejection or fear of getting into trouble if the teacher concluded that they have not been listening in class or that they have not been studying hard enough.

Another issue is the development of students as individuals. When students do not ask for help or advice from their teachers, it suggests that there is no interaction between them. Teachers do not encourage students to engage in dialogue with them or with one another. Engaging in dialogue with the teacher and fellow students helps to create a good climate, where students could express their ideas as well as hearing and reflecting on the ideas of others. This, in return, helps them to develop their own thoughts and feelings on various issues.

Kolb (1984: 109, cited in Roberts, 1998: 35) tends to discuss learning in individualistic terms. He sees personal experiences as freeing the person from receiving knowledge in a teaching context. To him, the creation of knowledge is an attitude that appeals to our own knowledge that enables us to choose what to believe in and to chart our own destiny. What Kolb is saying is that one learns from experience not from received knowledge. This is not encouraged in Saudi schools or in Saudi society as a whole.

The questionnaire results highlighted that SFLT's do appreciate the constructivist approach to teaching. This includes encouraging interaction in the classroom (Tables 47 & 64), helping students to develop confidence in their ability to learn (Table 66), helping students to set challenges and develop strategies to meet those challenges (Tables 45 & 46), encouraging pair and group work (Table 69), and helping students to develop as individuals (Table 81). These are characteristics of a constructivist teacher in a constructivist environment. However, at the same time they encourage mastering the grammatical rules of a foreign language and do play a dominant role in the classroom, typical characteristics of the behaviorist approach.

Meanwhile, the results of the informal interviews suggest the SFLT do not help students to develop confidence in their learning and does not encourage pair or group work. In addition, teachers have poor knowledge on theories related to foreign language teaching and are lacking in their skills to teaching a foreign language.

Knowledge on different theories, methods, variables and strategies is insignificant if the teacher lacks the freedom to employ what is suitable for their language classroom. SFLT's lack the freedom to employ what they think is suitable for their classroom (Al-Mandil, 1999). Teachers are instructed through the Teacher's Book that tells them what and how to teach, following the audio-lingual method (Al-Nafisah, 2001).

SFLT's want to be free in choosing the method most suitable for their classroom (26.2% agreed and 72.1% strongly agreed, Table 38). In addition, they view the Teacher's Book as a limitation on their teaching ability (37.7% agreed and 19.7% strongly agreed, Table 36).

Table 38: Question 38- Teachers should be free to choose the best method for their language classroom.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	1	1.6
Disagree	0	0.0
agree	16	26.2
Strongly agree	44	72.1
Total	61	100.0

Table 36: Question 36- The Teacher's Book for English teaching limits my ability to teach a foreign language.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	7	11.5
Disagree	19	31.1
Agree	23	37.7
Strongly agree	12	19.7
Total	61	100.0

During the informal interviews, teachers confirmed that they are expected to follow the Teacher's Book (Appendix 7; evident throughout the field diary).

Quotation Q Do you know what method you follow to teaching the foreign language?

They said they follow the Teachers Book.

Quotation Q What approach or name of method do you use in teaching English?

Teachers seemed to be not sure, they agreed that they follow the instructions in the Teacher Book.

When teachers must use a generalized method, they often struggle in deciding when to treat students as special individuals, in contrast to when they are given the freedom to tailor their own methods according to their student's individual differences and strategy.

The interest of the majority lies in completing the uniform course books and seeing that students master the material within the time given. In other words, teachers are required to prepare students for the exams. Throughout the years, English language teachers have learned to occupy themselves with finishing the teaching units on time by following every step recommended in the Teachers' Book. Among the teacher population there is a limited number of ambitious teachers who do their best to involve their students in all classroom activities, and prepare extra, relevant materials to their lessons. The learning environment at present is old-fashioned, traditional and lacking in motivation for learners of EFL in SA.

The questionnaire results show that the understanding and beliefs of SFLT's are not oriented towards the behaviourist views, where the teacher dominates in the classroom and students are receivers. Nevertheless, they seem to be confused about the different methods and their aims, they appreciate the importance of individual differences among students and the effectiveness of strategy training to help students to become better learners. However, in comparison to their responses in the informal interviews, their practise does not correspond with their beliefs and understanding of what is important in a classroom. Individual differences to the SFLT is the difference between an A student and a D student, and a well behaved and a badly behaved. As for strategy training the SFLT thinks it the responsibility of the text books. Of course this highlights another limitation of the SFLT education. Teachers are not well oriented with the different learning variables among students and are not trained to notice and train their students on the different strategies they need to learn effectively.

Moreover, the questionnaire highlights the dissatisfaction among SFLT's with teaching methods currently practised in the Saudi schools and their dissatisfaction with their own pre-service and in-service. The majority of SFLT's agreed on their need to attend training

courses to improve their strategies and methods in teaching a foreign language (29.5% agreed and 41% strongly agreed, Table 37).

The SFLT's agree that teaching practice in Saudi schools needs to change to teaching foreign language for everyday use, not to create linguists. Teachers think that teaching in Saudi schools aims at teaching students language structure instead of language use (41% agreed and 39.3% strongly agreed, Table 41) and that current methods must be changed to maximize understanding and participation on the student's part (42.6% agreed and 45.9% strongly agreed, Table 42).

Table 41: Question 41- Teaching practiced in Saudi schools is intended to teach students language structure rather than language use.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	9	14.8
Disagree	3	4.9
Agree	25	41.0
Strongly agree	24	39.3
Total	61	100.0

Table 42: Question 42- The current methods of teaching need to be changed to maximize understanding and participation on the part of the student.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	5	8.2
Disagree	2	3.3
Agree	26	42.6
Strongly agree	28	45.9
Total	61	100.0

The views and perceptions of the SFLT are encouraging, but what is practised in the Saudi language classroom is of greatest importance. Considering the information presented in the previous paragraphs, it seems that the SFLT in three aspects of preparation to be a foreign language teacher (theories, skills, and up-to-date approach to teaching) that would enable effective teaching. This inadequacy is a direct result of the current Saudi system for the SFLTs.

Chapter Six

The Saudi Teacher Education System: A Critical Analysis

6.0 Introduction

In order to judge the effectiveness of the Saudi teacher as a foreign language teacher, it is important to question all aspects involved, including teachers' education, the status of foreign language teaching in Saudi schools (discussed in chapter one) and the Saudi social context (discussed in chapter one). The social context is relevant because society contributes significantly to one's beliefs that would affect education in different ways. This chapter aims to describe and examine teacher's education. Teacher's education including pre-service and In-service. It is important at this point to mention that this chapter is not evidence that came out of the data, however the data has led to questioning the teacher's education therefore, it is placed in this section. It is part of the contextual background of this study.

6.1 The Present Situation of the Saudi Female Foreign Language Teacher Education in Saudi Arabia: Pre-service and In-service

There are seven English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teacher training programmes currently operating in SA. Their main goals are to prepare EFL teachers for teaching in the intermediate and secondary schools. These teacher training programmes are four-year undergraduate courses in the colleges of education and arts in the cities of Riyadh, Jeddah, Medina, Ahsa, Taif, Abha, and Makkah. Student teachers who graduate from these programmes are awarded a bachelor's degree in either English and Education or English and Literature. Although, only one of the 4-year study plan programmes at King Saud University is described here, these programmes are almost identical (Appendix 8, p. 253).

In the BA programme, the Department of English seeks to equip its graduates with the ability to cope with academic as well as professional demands. With qualifications in

English language and literature, graduates, are expected to meet the needs for English language not only in the fields of teaching/translation, but also in hospitals, ministries, banks, print/electronic media, public/private institutions and schools, and various other jobs requiring proficiency in English.

An overview of the courses comprising the pre-service training programmes (Appendix 8) reveals that the content for EFL teachers consists of two main strands of study. The first includes areas relating to the subject taught such as language, linguistics and literature. The second relates to language teaching, such as language acquisition, applied linguistics and techniques of language teaching.

An examination of these programmes reveals that the trainees are expected to master the English language better than the native speakers. Unfortunately, that is not the case. Teachers struggle to express themselves or hold a conversation in English (Abu-Ras, 2002). One wonders how those SFLT's who are weak in speaking English can develop their students' abilities in spoken English. In the English language programme, the focus is on language skills, English literature, grammar, translation, advanced conversation, advanced writing, literature (e.g. drama, poetry, novels, literary criticism), and linguistics (e.g. applied linguistics, comparative linguistics semantics, syntax and teaching techniques). It can be seen from the programme courses (Appendix 8) that only three hours are related to teaching methodology. As a graduate of this programme, personal experience confirms that even this three hour course is theoretical in nature and does not involve any opportunity for real practice. Teaching techniques related more to general teaching not to FLT. 55.7% (Table 4) of the SFLT's stated that learning and teaching theories were not part of their studies.

Table 4: Question 4- Learning and teaching theories were not part of my education.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	8	13.1
Disagree	19	31.1
Agree	21	34.4
Strongly agree	13	21.3
Total	61	100.0

Furthermore, in some programmes, before graduation the student-teacher is required to teach one term of practicum in one of the public intermediate-level schools. The duration of this practicum varies between programmes. The King Saud University programme, for example, which only applies to the male students, requires the trainee to teach for one term (term being 14 weeks). Whereas in the Imam Moh'd Bin Saud Islamic University programme the student has to practise teaching for the duration of only one day in the last term. Al-Ansari (1995) stated that teaching practice should be viewed as a necessity for foreign language teachers, as it provides the opportunity for teachers to acquire important skills and experience of foreign language teaching. It can also serve to develop a teacher's confidence and allow him/her to put theoretical knowledge into practice through real teaching sessions.

The SFLT preparation programmes have some apparent weaknesses. If we look at the courses presented (Appendix 8), we find that they are mainly of a theoretical nature. Such overly theoretical courses, being mostly abstract, can give only little practical experience in the real world in the form of the practicum. Nevertheless, it would be a mistake to suppose that a teacher should have solely practical experience at the expense of the theoretical. A balance between theory and practice is needed in methods courses (Hillier, 2005). Another point that can be raised is that these programmes should place more emphasis on courses about education, since students need to cover more practical aspects, especially if they intend to work in the educational field.

However, let us consider what can be achieved realistically. Two studies have been conducted on the Saudi pre-service training programmes which portray these programmes empirically, by looking at how they work in practice. Despite the fact that these two studies are over three decades old, unfortunately, the present situation would seem to be unchanged. From the informal interviews (Appendix 7), teachers expressed the need for better pre-service programmes, because they do not feel qualified enough to teach the English language.

Quotation Q Do you attend any courses to improve your teaching skills?

No, we do not have such courses. We would like to be able to attend a course that is related to our teaching needs.

Quotation Q Do you think you need training courses that will help you improve your teaching skills?

Yes.

Two studies were conducted in order to investigate the quality of the pre-service programmes. The first study was conducted by Sheshesha (1982), who carried out research to identify the qualities of competent SFLT as perceived by 368 qualified teachers and 168 TESOL specialists. A major recommendation made was that SFLT training programmes in SA should consist of core subjects such as fluency improvement, development of ability to read and write, and input concerning teaching methods. Another recommendation was that the current programmes should be reorganized in terms of the major components as well as related areas. For example, areas of study such as the history of English literature should receive less emphasis, since they appear to be less directly concerned with developing component foreign language teachers. Motivated by the same concern, Al-Gaeed (1983), conducted a study to evaluate SFLT preparation programmes in SA. The subjects of the study were 58 advanced student-teachers on the previous programme (Appendix 8) and 38 in-service teachers who had graduated from the same programme. The results of this study were in the areas of communication skills, teaching, writing and listening comprehension skills, and knowledge of first-language

acquisition. The programme was deficient. Literature courses taught were not relevant in the context of SA. Instructors did not give opportunities to the students to participate in classroom discussion. Most of the students felt that they needed more instruction in EFL methodology. Throughout the programme lectures were most often employed as the method of instruction. There were no clear-cut written course objectives that the students could relate to and the students had no chance to evaluate the course content or the teaching they had received. Most of the students who participated felt that in-service programmes, professional meetings and conferences should be held more often.

Reflecting on the above conclusions of the studies conducted by Sheshesh and AlGaeed, it can be said that both point towards the general conclusion that the Saudi training programmes for SFLT need to be reorganised. Despite the fact that the training programmes in SA have many deficiencies, the most significant one related to my study is that the programmes place too much importance on the theoretical aspects and neglect the practical features. This is supported by Al-Gaeed's observation that most of the students felt they needed more instruction in foreign language methodology. The result of this over-emphasis on the theoretical side has been the production of graduates who are not adequately prepared to practise teaching the foreign language in intermediate and secondary-level schools.

However, the Ministry of Education (MoE) recognises that these programmes do not meet the demands of the state schools. Therefore, in order to overcome the shortcoming, the MoE did established a three-year programme to prepare high-school graduates to become foreign language teachers (males only). These students spend the first year in SA studying intensive English courses, and then the successfully qualified students are sent either to the UK or the United States for a further two-year intensive foreign language teacher training programme (Alam, 1988). This training programme has been found to prepare them as English teachers more adequately and fulfils the needs mentioned above. From my own experience with teachers who had the opportunity to spend sometime in a country where English is the spoken language, such as United Kingdom and the United States, it can be said that in some aspects of language teaching these teachers are more competent than those who graduate from the Saudi universities. At least they have better

mastery of the language. Their spoken language is more fluent with the result that they can function in the classroom more effectively. They have more practical experience and they are aware of the latest teaching methods and techniques. However, this programme was cancelled because the MoE felt that the pre-service training programmes could fulfil the needs of the intermediate and secondary levels in schools.

Despite the fact that the English language curriculum taught at schools imposed some changes in 1986, recent studies (Al-Ansari, 1995; Al-Nafisah, 2001; Bakarman, 2004) indicated that the curriculum of the pre-service training programmes has not been changed for more than three decades. Furthermore, the main goals of the pre-service programmes are to prepare teachers to teach the intermediate and secondary levels at school, yet there is little relation between these training programmes and the design of the curricula. Al-Ansari (1995) stated that all the heads of English departments reported that such cooperation does not exist. Furthermore, he stated that the School Book Project Department design the textbook without establishing any contact with the pre-service training programmes because they were not authorized by the MoE to do so. The lack of any link between the school textbook and the content of the training programmes is the result of too little cooperation between the MoE and the universities. The school textbook appears to focus on the four language skills, whereas the training programmes are deficient in providing student teachers with such skills. A grasp of the four language skills and the techniques to teach them are essential for foreign language teachers especially in a situation where the target language is taught as a foreign language, as is the case in SA.

There is also the problem that the training programmes do not introduce the textbooks to the teachers nor give them practice in using it or in considering how to communicate its content to students. The problem is partly that they are not given the techniques they need to teach it; and also that they are not familiarised with the textbook beforehand. What they receive in teacher training is far removed from the situation (the classroom) in which they have to apply all the theory. Much of the theory is not directly relevant to what they have to do. They need a course that is more directly relevant to what they have to do, so

there is no gap. The lack of a clear link between the pre-service training programmes and the taught textbook leads to inadequacy at the level of foreign language teaching.

Teacher training does not and should not end with pre-service education. In-service is the vital pipe line that keeps foreign language teachers linked with the most recent changes in the local education system, with the changing theories and practices to teaching a foreign language effectively, and with the means for developing their teacher practice. 70.5% (Table 37) of the teachers expressed their need to attend training courses to improve their skills in FLT.

Table 37: Question 37- I need to attend a training course in order to improve my skills in using different strategies and new teaching methods to teach a foreign language.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	6	9.8
Disagree	12	19.7
Agree	18	29.5
Strongly agree	25	41.0
Total	61	100.0

At the present, in SA, there is one type of in-service training programme for SFLT's. This takes the form of annual courses held by the MoE for the male teachers female teachers have limited access to in-service courses. These courses focus on the discussion of the textbooks, and inform the teachers about the MoE instructions and a few aspects of language teaching.

According to Al-Ansari (1995) there is no well-planned or organised in-service in SA which results in changes in teachers' performance in the classroom. The level of in-service training provided for FLT by the MoE is poor. He found that the current in-service provision involves a very limited consideration of some important aspects of language teaching such as those concerned with teaching language skills. It does not help teachers to deal with the demands of teaching the school textbook, mainly because what

the EFL teachers learn in the training sessions does not match the requirements of the textbook.

Saudi teachers are ill prepared by the pre-service programmes that fail to equip them with sufficient knowledge and skills to make them effective practitioners in their classrooms. Furthermore, they are disappointed with the in-service training opportunities offered by the MoE. They are also concerned that the MoE does not offer in-service courses that might help them to overcome some of their weaknesses resulting from the inadequate pre-service training. 70.5% (Table 37) agreed that they need to attend courses to improve their ability to teach effectively. The teachers also said that they are offered no in-service (Appendix 7, point no. 11, 22, 45, 75, 85, 96, 130, 145 & 158).

Quotation Q Do you attend regular courses to update and improve you teaching skills?

No, we do not have access to such courses.

There are many factors that might contribute to the weakness of the SFLT. One is the social context, and another is teachers' education (pre-service and in-service), which is considered to be the most important because it is the only means of keeping the teacher updated with the latest trends in foreign language teaching. The absence of in-service training is one of the main reasons for the teacher's deficiencies. Teachers' in-service training can serve as the main vehicle for improving teaching quality through teacher development.

The present study has already shed some light on issues related to teacher training situation in SA. Teachers in this study have expressed their need for training courses to improve their skills to teaching a foreign language (Table 37). In addition they mentioned that their theoretical education was related to teaching in general not to teaching a foreign language (Appendix 7). As the in-service is more of an inspection of teachers' performance as foreign language teachers, there seems to be a gap between what the teachers need and what the current in-service is providing. To bridge this gap and to provide a solution to the problem of the inadequate level of teachers in SA the pre-service and in-service training programmes must be examined and developed (Al-Ansari, 1995).

At the level of policymaking, teaching is a complex activity. Effecting change is not simply a matter of changing teachers' knowledge and beliefs into teachers' behaviour, or vice versa. Therefore, in the case of teacher change in SA, teacher training programmes can help to a certain extent to achieve changes in the quality of teaching and to enhance development in the classroom. However, the expectations of great change in teachers after training greatly depends on deep-rooted and interlinked social factors, such as authority, individualism, and face saving (chapter one).

Social factors have affected teachers behaviour and how education is handled (discussed in chapter one). Therefore, where educational reform is concerned the social context must be taken into consideration. Where change in teachers and in school is concerned, teachers' social factors, such as the influence of parental expectation, of other teachers, as well as personal factors, cannot be neglected.

Teachers' current situation in SA is a primary role, where authority comes from holding all the knowledge. The SFLT has the sole authority in the classroom and therefore should not be questioned, interrupted or challenged. It is a challenge to train SFLT's to become coaches and helpers to their students. The teacher's main aim is to teach grammar and vocabulary so that students successfully pass the exams.

Saudi classrooms are not designed to encourage interaction among students and teachers. Seats are set in rows where students all face one direction towards the blackboard. Group work cannot be carried out because students are not allowed to interact with each other during class time.

Taken into consideration, these constraints will be crucial in assessing what kind of knowledge and change is needed to help teachers to teach a foreign language effectively.

6.2 The Need for an Improved Teacher Training Programmes

The current teacher training programmes in SA seem to be inadequate and mainly focus on courses that seemingly have no relation with the school books or its content. The focus

of the current in-service programmes is on language skills over teaching skills (Al-Ansari, 1995).

As already discussed, in the English language programmes, the focus is on language skills, English literature, grammar, translation, advanced conversation, advanced writing, literature (e.g. drama, poetry, novels, literary criticism), and linguistics (e.g. applied linguistics, comparative linguistics semantics, syntax and teaching techniques). From the programme courses (Appendix 8), it is evident that there are only three hours related to teaching methodology. Personal experience confirms that even these three-hour courses are theoretical in nature and do not involve any opportunity for real practice. Moreover, some programmes do not require a practicum period before graduation. Others do, but only for a limited period of one term (three months). In the female education programmes, it is not always a requirement to have a field base training.

In the past, the MoE recognised the shortages in the pre-service programmes, and established a three-year programme for high school graduates to become EFL teachers. The first year was spent in SA studying intensive English courses, and then the successfully qualified students were sent either to the UK or to the US for a further two years on intensive English as a Foreign Language teaching programmes. Al-Ansari (1995) stated that the students trained on such programmes came back better prepared to teach EFL than those who were trained by the home programmes. The problem with such programmes in SA is that they are always for males, not for females.

The extent to which learners feel a need for foreign language is determined by the society they live in. In other words, being in the target language country, one could better understand the culture, and when that happens, it might assist in understanding the language. The need to communicate in the target language is vital when learners live in a country where that language is used. In addition, living in the target language community provides one with the opportunity to practise.

Teichler and Smith (1988) carried out research in four European countries (France, FRG, Sweden, and the UK) into the relationship between studying abroad and learning a foreign language. They looked at the results of study abroad programmes, where students

of various majors in each country studied in another country for a few months up to two years. The ages of the participants in the study ranged from 19 to 25. They identified three areas of outcomes: academic, foreign language, and culture outcomes. Among the findings is that studying abroad sharpened students' awareness of the learning process and increased their motivation to learn. Students reported that their academically related listening and reading comprehension improved with regard to everyday tasks, while their proficiency in speaking improved.

According to Al-Mandil (1999), the students who had the opportunity to live in English speaking countries had better command of the language and employed different strategies to learning the foreign language than those who had not lived abroad. Therefore, the recommendation here to the MoE is to bring back such programmes that give future SFLTs a better command of the foreign language in addition to experiencing different ways of teaching in the western classrooms.

In-service training is perceived as vital both for improving teachers and for improving teaching quality. In order to accomplish major changes in the quality of teaching, and to meet economic, cultural and individual needs, teachers must be given special attention. They must be supplied with knowledge, skills, resources and encouragement to develop approaches that are capable of accommodating changes in learning and teaching styles. If there is a perception that the teacher is a key factor in the teaching-learning process, then in-service training must be the vital means through which improvement can be made. Therefore, if we wish to continue promoting the teacher's capacity to adapt to changes and development, we have to teach our teachers how to be able to implement improvement and changes in their classrooms. Children are the most important asset of any country, therefore they must be provided with the best education. To do so, we must properly train those who will teach them. As indicated on page 151, it is not enough for teachers to be aware of changes and development in teaching and learning theory; they must also know how to act on such changes and developments and be able to implement them in the classroom. 70.5% of SFLTs (Table 37) agreed on their need for training courses to improve their ability to teach effectively.

As the known curriculum changes from time to time, in-service training has become an important tool in bringing such changes to teachers' attention and thereby assisting them to responding to those changes. Consequently, all teachers in the teaching profession need in-service training.

Curriculum change is not the only reason for in-service training. In some contexts, there may still be experienced teachers who remain badly in need of retraining or developing their teaching competence besides being informed about the curricula changes. This may occur because, although experienced foreign language teachers in some contexts have experience of what was taught during the first year of their career, they have repeated this year after year without progressing beyond a certain point. In other words, this comprises virtually one year's experience repeated over and over again. These are the teachers who teach under a very structured form of curriculum, as in the Saudi context.

Even the best pre-service training programmes cannot train teachers to be continually up-to-date in the dynamic educational setting. New materials, curricula and techniques make an in-service training programme necessary. Pre-service training helps teachers with specific immediate needs, whereas in-service training is aimed more at helping teachers grow, develop and exploit new ideas (Widdowson, 1990). The pre-service stage serves only to prepare teachers to begin their career.

Teachers may begin their teaching profession well if they are provided with sufficient knowledge and skills in an ideal pre-service programme. In a situation where the pre-service programme is not ideal and which does not give teachers sufficient knowledge and skill, to start teaching, they may not be able to commence their teaching career without problems. In an ideal pre-service programme teachers are provided with a sufficient range of necessary knowledge and skills that will serve them at the start of their careers. In this case, in-service in this case can serve as a contemporary agent in which its main function is to develop the teachers knowledge and skills. In a situation where the pre-service training is not ideal and teachers have some difficulties when initiating their teaching career in-service acts as a compensatory tool and functions as pre-service

training for in-service teachers who had poor pre-service training, therefore acting to cure the weaknesses of the pre-service training.

In a general sense, it seems that the purpose of in-service training is to develop the teacher's knowledge, skills and attitude through increased understanding of the subject taught. This development can be achieved by the transmission of relevant information, skills acquisition and changing teacher's behaviour. Joyce and Showers (2002) suggest that the training components for inclusion should be as follows: an exploration of theory through discussion, lectures, reading, and demonstrating skills in a simulated setting of the classroom; practising the skills and finally feedback from the trainers to the teachers in real classroom practice. Teachers of course need information to understand the rationale of the demonstrated skills, but there may be a large gap between viewing a demonstration and teacher's actual practice in the classroom. This gap may be filled by what has been described by Joyce and Showers as 'pre-classroom practice'. Teachers may need to feel secure before using the skill in the classroom. Thus, practice under simulated conditions may go some ways towards helping teachers acquire the skills before actual implementation in the classroom. Therefore, it could be said that the purposes of in-service are: to circulate and allow exploration of up-to-date information; to demonstrate skills; to provide opportunities for practice under simulated conditions; and to observe teachers in classroom practice and provide them with feedback. Each of these components can serve as an independent in-service activity. However, it would be more effective to combine the four areas into one process.

The Saudi context lacks literature on in-service for teachers in general and foreign language teachers in particular. It is rare to find a book in SA that is specifically concerned with in-service for foreign language teachers. An intensive investigation of the Saudi literature reveals that there is a shortage of empirical studies. The only reliable and available sources of in-service information for foreign language teachers are two studies by Al-Saadat (1985) and by Al-Ansari (1995). There is also a document from the MoE that is designed for all subject areas, the "Training Directory" but it has not been up dated since 1985. I was only able to obtain this document from Al-Ansari (1995).

The training directory highlights the aims of the in-service and the policy of the MoE for achieving these aims. The goals of in-service education in SA are outlined by the MoE as follows: to provide the teachers with an opportunity to keep abreast of developments in subject matter area, and to acquire new teaching skills and methodology; to increase the teaching learning process through teacher in-service training; to retrain and rehabilitate those teachers and school administrators in the schools and the Ministry of Education; to provide opportunities for public schools personnel to upgrade their skill levels and raise their standard; and to prepare Saudi teachers of all subject areas.

These objectives are designed for all subject area teachers; foreign language teachers are no exception. In SA, there are no specific in-service goals for each subject area and the Training Directory simply applies to all teachers of all teaching areas (Al-Ansari, 1995). The MoE sets out the procedures needed in order to achieve these goals. They are as follows: investigate the training requirements for the state schools, and cooperate with related agencies in order to plan, implement, evaluate and follow up; evaluate the existing training programmes; use different teaching methods in training sessions not only lecturing, but also practical training and field visits; train unqualified teachers already in the teaching field; implement the training programme inside and outside SA; provide varied training opportunities in order to qualify, develop, or prepare teachers for new and different jobs; cooperate with the Educational Counselling department in the MoE regarding planning, implementation, and evaluation and to follow up the training courses; develop new training courses that match the changing needs of the society; prepare Saudi staff for leadership positions in the educational district; cooperate with training agencies and institutions inside and outside SA and with international agencies; involve teachers and trainees in planning the training course and in discussing its contents and its evaluation; and focus the training courses on how teachers can be creative and to concentrate on the application of the training knowledge not only on imparting the knowledge to participants. Clearly, that the MoE is working towards an exemplary in-service training programme. The problem seems to lie in the actual implementation of the procedures to achieve the goals.

At the present time, there is one type of in-service activity training opportunity for foreign language teachers in SA. This takes the form of official in-service courses, held annually by the MoE. Mainly available for male foreign language teachers, female teachers in SA have less access to in-service training courses than males do. The following text describes the nature of the existing in-service courses.

According to Al-Ansari teachers (male or female) are not consulted about the planning of the in-service courses. He also states that the impression of SFLT's held by the public in SA is that these teachers are not capable of teaching students and thus they may not be competent teachers. This opinion of SFLT's is shared by others in the government. Officials in the MoE are among those people who doubt that teachers are capable of providing useful information on matters such as in-service provision, and they may therefore have chosen not to involve them for this reason. The present in-service courses are planned and designed by the officials in the MoE. Neither foreign language teachers nor inspectors are consulted prior to the running of the courses. In interviews carried out by Al-Ansari (1995), foreign language teachers and inspectors revealed that the planning of the present in-service courses is the sole responsibility of the officials in the MoE. They also stated that, even if they were consulted their views would not be taken into consideration. This phenomenon seems to occur in countries where there is no democratic accountability in matters concerning everyday life and education. People in these countries are generally not encouraged to give their views or express their opinions on many aspects of their lives. This is due to the nature of the governmental system employed. Working in a bureaucratic setting teaches everyone to be compliant, to be rule governed and not to ask questions, seek alternatives or deal with competing values. People are expected to follow orders from those at the top.

Thus, the planning of the present in-service courses is predominantly carried out by people other than teachers and inspectors. The officials who design the present in-service courses seem to have no idea about the actual teaching practice in schools or the problems faced by teachers in their classrooms. In Al-Ansari's interviews with foreign language teachers and inspectors, they reported that these officials never visit classrooms

or have meetings with the teachers or inspectors. This leads to in-service that is not designed to be beneficial to the teachers.

In informal interviews with teachers, they stated that although they have limited opportunities to attend in-service training courses, they are not enthusiastic about such courses because they do not find them beneficial.

Quotation Q Do you think you would benefit from teaching training courses?

Yes, if they are related to foreign language teaching.

One of the teachers expressed the need for workshops and demonstrations in a live classroom of how to implement the different theories. Teachers are not satisfied with the in-service education that has been prescribed for them. They want an in-service, but they want it to be relevant to their professional duties and responsive to their needs, and they want a voice in the decision-making. Thus, there seems to be a need for in-service that caters for the real needs of foreign language teachers, as opposed to needs perceived by officials.

The content of the present in-service course is focused on a discussion of the school textbooks in general, informing the teachers about the MoE instructions, and a few aspects of language teaching. However, the purpose of in-service should not only be to inform, but also to demonstrate and develop teaching skills (Joyce and Showers, 2002). The discussion of the textbook does not focus on the skills and knowledge that might help the teachers to teach the textbook or cope with changes. Instead, the discussion rather deals with administrative matters.

Teaching methods in the Saudi pre-service and in-service courses are as inadequate as the content. Despite the fact that the literature recommends using various procedures and activities on training courses (Wallace, 1991: 29), lecturing appears to be the dominant method in current training courses in SA, followed by free discussion (Al-Ansari, 1995). Lecturing might be one appropriate way of providing the trainees with the required input, but it would be more useful if it were followed by demonstration in order to show the trainees how the skill works (Wallace, 1991: 18-19). It would work best if the trainees

were given opportunities to practise the acquired skills before applying them in their classrooms, and this could be achieved through peer work, and workshops. Al-Ansari concluded that teachers perceived pair/group work as a desirable method followed by demonstration. In fact, they believe that they needed someone to tell them how, rather than what, to teach.

In their training sessions, teachers may be influenced by the methods through which they are taught. For instance, they may choose to teach their students using the same methods they were taught. This means that trainees to whom knowledge has been transmitted using the lecturing mode are likely to apply the same methods in teaching their own students, which will not provide opportunities to develop communicative skills. On the other hand, teachers or trainees who have been taught by various methods may subsequently use different activities in their own classroom. Getting SFLT's to engage in different learning modes, pair/group work and discussion may serve to improve their language proficiency if they communicate in the target language.

At present, supervision (or rather, inspection) is the one form of in-service training available for the SFLT on a regular basis. Inspectors usually go to the classroom solely as evaluators of a teacher's performance and in search of mistakes. In most cases, their mission ends with filling in an evaluation report concerning the performance of the teacher.

The only source of practical knowledge lies in teaching practice, whether it is 'simulated', or 'real' practice, in the classroom. In order to develop teachers' practical knowledge and skills, they should be taught to reflect on their knowledge and practice. The most popular idea to be currently utilised in teacher education is to encourage teachers to take the role of a 'reflective practitioner'. Teachers are asked to reflect critically on their theoretical and practical experience in order to develop as classroom teachers (Wallace, 1991: 13). This is achieved through training them on how to conduct research and seek answers to their questions. They are also presented with different sources of information highlighting the importance of the internet for its accessibility and capacity, and there is no official control on such matters, which means the teacher has the

freedom to explore. 77% of the SFLTs (Table 5) in this study stated that they have gained knowledge on learning and teaching theories through personal research, indicating, that SFLTs has already taken the first steps towards adopting reflective practice in their profession.

Table 5: Question 5- I gained knowledge on learning and teaching theories through my own research.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid .00	1	1.6
Strongly disagree	4	6.6
Disagree	9	14.8
Agree	26	42.6
Strongly agree	21	34.4
Total	61	100.0

With information readily available to the masses at the click of a mouse, society needs people who can search, select and discriminate between what is useful and what is potentially harmful information. Society needs people who can think on their feet and who learn from experiences, and reflection is a key element of this ability. Such a society needs effective teachers, meaning teachers who are trained to reflect and to develop accordingly.

My journey has led me to realise that the actual problem in language teaching is deeper than suspected. It is related to a way of life as much as to policy and policy makers, in addition to poor pre-service and in-service training. Change should focus not only on the training courses, but also seek to help the SFLT to develop as a constructivist in her approach to teaching. Every society has its advantages and disadvantages, and that is acceptable, as no society is perfect. But when the impact of the disadvantages moves into the classroom, that is when we must stop and think. If a classroom experiences is the beginning for a great doctor, brilliant engineer, or even a genius, then we want them to be even greater through self-confidence and respect for their individuality. It is to be hoped

that this environment would ultimately make them better judges and decision-makers in their personal lives.

6.3 Reflective Practice

Reflective practice is a way of getting teachers to realise that learning is about drawing on life experiences, not just something that takes place in a classroom. It enables teachers to think about what and how they learn and what and how they teach, and to understand that this impacts on how well they perform as teachers. Put simply, reflection is about maximising in-deep approaches to learning and teaching.

Reflective practice is not part of the SFLT profession. Although 98.3% of SFLTs (Table 38) have expressed that they should be free to design their own methods of teaching to suit their classroom, and 55.7% (Table 36) of them stated that the Teacher’s Book has limited their ability to teach effectively. They lack the skills needed and the freedom to employ those skills.

Table 38: Question 38- Teachers should be free to choose the best method for their language classroom.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	1	1.6
Disagree	0	0.0
agree	16	26.2
Strongly agree	44	72.1
Total	61	100.0

Table 36: Question 36- The Teacher’s Book for English teaching limits my ability to teach a foreign language.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	7	11.5
Disagree	19	31.1
Agree	23	37.7
Strongly agree	12	19.7
Total	61	100.0

In order to achieve a deep understanding of material experiences, teachers need to relate new information to existing knowledge and experiences. This is best achieved through a process of reflection. At this point, teachers can make use of feedback from students and peers, and engaging in a dialogue with others will help teachers to make sense of what they know. Relating the feedback given by others to their current understanding will help them to think about what and how they are teaching. Having made sense of new information and integrated it into an existing framework of understanding, teachers can then make informed choices about what to do next and how to develop their practice as teachers. In summary, reflection helps teachers to understand what they already know as individuals and teachers, to identify what they need to know and change in order to advance their teaching, and to make sense of new information and feedback in the context of their own experience.

Individuals often reflect on what they have achieved, but these are private and personal thoughts used to shape ideas and personalities. The main difference between this and formalised ‘reflective practice’ as a tool for supporting practice is that the teacher produces evidence of his/her reflection. This can be demonstrated in the form of a diary, personal development portfolio, critical incident journal or perhaps a video diary. Individuals engaged in this structured, evidence-based activity may be described as ‘reflective practitioners’.

Reflection involves teachers reflecting on their own teaching practice by keeping a diary or taken daily notes, having discussions with peers and students on their teaching, observing their own teaching through a videotape or tape recorder, then judging it all according to their experiences and stored knowledge with open-mindedness, responsibility, and wholeheartedness (Dewey, 1933).

In a professional manner, reflection can be employed through in-service as a way of helping teachers to take responsibility for their own development as professionals, and to identify ways in which they can advance their practice and professional conduct. In doing so, teachers are helped to become lifelong learners, and in return they help their students to understand and develop as lifelong learners. Claxton (1999: 14) argues that lifelong learning requires the ability to think strategically about one's learning path, and this needs self-awareness of one's goals, the means to pursue them, and to identify one's current strengths and weaknesses in that regard. Monitor one's progress, is also essential and if necessary it should be measured.

The primary benefit of reflective practice for teachers is a deeper style and ultimately greater effectiveness as a teacher. Reflective practice can be a beneficial form of professional development at both the pre-service and in-service levels of teaching. By gaining a better understanding of their own individual teaching styles through reflective practice, teachers can improve their effectiveness in the classroom.

It is understood that training programmes cannot give teachers all they need to teach effectively in this changing world. Therefore, teachers can be trained and encouraged to reflect and research on their practices to develop the best possible way of teaching for their classroom. Through the training programmes teachers can be introduced to the different sources for research improve their teaching ability, and make special use of the internet. Therefore, if we wish to continue promoting the teacher's capacity to adapt to changes and development, we must teach our teachers how to be able to solve problems related to their classes and implement improvement and changes in their classrooms.

The SFLT's in this study expressed their dissatisfaction with the way of teaching employed in the Saudi schools. 80.3% (Table 41) agreed that teaching in Saudi schools

aims to teach students language structure over language use, and 88.5% (Table 42) agreed that the current methods practised in Saudi schools must be changed. When reflecting on their own practice and on the methods and Teacher’s Book imposed on them from the MoE they recognise the weaknesses and the need for change.

Table 41: Question 41- Teaching practiced in Saudi schools is intended to teach students language structure rather than language use.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	9	14.8
Disagree	3	4.9
Agree	25	41.0
Strongly agree	24	39.3
Total	61	100.0

Table 42: Question 42- The current methods of teaching need to be changed to maximize understanding and participation on the part of the student.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	5	8.2
Disagree	2	3.3
Agree	26	42.6
Strongly agree	28	45.9
Total	61	100.0

Language teachers or any other teachers in the field of education cannot see themselves as transmitters of what is in the textbooks. Rather, they must view themselves as coaches, and teachers should be deeply involved in the process of helping students to develop their own learning. The only way to do this is by taking time to think and reflect on their practices to foster more effective learning properties in their students.

Teachers as students bring to the class personal beliefs; they bring personal styles for teaching, personal perceptions of students' needs and even personal assumptions of what constitutes good teaching. One of the objectives of the reflective process is to go deeper into what the teacher believes as good teaching, and to mirror the teaching/learning process through different perspectives. Thus, the reflective practitioner visualizes through different eyes a picture of the classroom environment and practices, and this awareness develops professional growth in one's own teaching to make appropriate judgments and decisions.

The process of reflection is not easy, as it requires a commitment to continuous self-development and the time to achieve it. Practitioners should be trained in reflective practice and given time to experiment and progress. Reflective practice may prove emotionally challenging. Some practitioners may not be ready to confront the uncertainty about their teaching philosophies and competence that can be a part of the process.

It is easy and perhaps convenient for behaviourists to ignore reflective practice as a new trend. They might hope that it will go away and that the time will come when behaviourist teaching methods become triumphant again. Given the ever-changing pace of present-day society, this is unlikely. Reflective practice is a realistic and achievable way of enhancing teachers' learning while developing the types of knowledge, skills and abilities that are expected of learners in today's society, and it is here to stay. It is also a way of ensuring that teachers/students gain the resilience and resourcefulness they need to continue to be lifelong learners and professionals.

Reflective practice seems to be unique and an answer to most shortcomings in most professions, therefore it is worth examining and researching in depth to recognise to what extent it might be applicable to the Saudi society.

This study has contributed in diagnosing some of the weaknesses in relation to the training of the SFLT and has suggested significant implications for the improvement of the current FLT training. Moreover, it has given the policymakers grounds for urgent implementation of the changes mentioned in this study.

Chapter Seven

Conclusion and Recommendations

7.0 Introduction

As previously mentioned (chapter one), a number of factors may contribute to the difficulties of foreign language learning and teaching in Saudi state schools. Different views were expressed on the reasons for the weakness in English among students. Some have attributed it to the teaching methods adopted in schools (Abu-Ras, 2002), whereas others have criticised the curriculum, saying that it concentrates mainly on learning a number of grammatical rules and a list of words to pass the exams (Al-Nafisah, 2001). Another group attributed the problem to the limited time devoted to teaching English in schools (Emara, 1994).

Many specialists and educators feel that the teacher of English in SA is the most important factor in accounting for the lack of language proficiency among students. Al-Gaeed (1983), Abu-Ras (2002) and Bakarman (2004) have drawn attention to the same factors: the teacher does most of the talking in the language classroom; there is constant criticism of students' efforts; student participation is never encouraged; and the audio-lingual method is favoured by the SFLT. These findings confirm that the Saudi teacher education is failing to equip teachers with the skills necessary to teach effectively in the classroom.

It was hypothesised earlier in this study (chapter one) that the SFLT's knowledge and capability to teach a foreign language contributes to the low standard among students. The aim of this study has been to reach a deeper understanding of how capable the SFLT is to teach a foreign language.

The present literature gives teachers firm ground to stand on in relation to the different theories regarding to foreign language teaching and learning. Some link the theories to every day classroom activities. For example, Brooks and Brooks (1999) link the constructivism theory to classroom activities and Freeman (2000) presented and

discussed examples based on the different methods available for teaching foreign languages. It can be confusing for a foreign language teacher who wants solely to improve her/his teaching ability to follow the extensive literature on foreign language teaching.

Nevertheless, the literature offers several areas on which the foreign language teacher can focus and it is crucial to treat these areas as a whole package - the focus can not be on one area alone (Brown, 2007; Johnson, 2001; Cook, 2001). Teachers must have a firm theoretical background, so that they can make intelligent decisions throughout their professional careers. They must have the practical knowledge and skills that enable them to perform their day-to-day tasks. They should reflect on their profession and improve their weaknesses. In addition, teachers must move on from the behaviourist ways of teaching where teachers dominate the classroom and students act as receivers.

The literature draws attention to the fact that there is no magical theory or method that is suitable for every foreign language classroom, no matter how diverse they are, and to the fact that foreign language teaching is continuously changing and being renewed. It offers knowledge on what is available in the foreign language teaching world, and teachers are expected to develop and articulate their own approaches to teaching that is suitable for the individual context.

The investigation of the present study was conducted through quantitative (questionnaire) and qualitative (field diary) methods, designed to collect information on the knowledge and practice of the SFLT. The focus was on the several areas mentioned in the previous paragraphs, which are related to the research questions (derived in chapter two).

7.1 What knowledge does the SFLT have on theories underlying the teaching and learning of a foreign language?

The study has provided useful insight into how well-prepared the SFLT is for teaching a foreign language. In relation to the first research question (discussed in chapter five), the questionnaire results highlighted that the SFLT realizes and understands the importance of having a good knowledge on the different theories related to foreign language

teaching. However, as discussed in Chapter 5, they do not have a reasonable knowledge on the different theories related to foreign language teaching.

Teachers come to the teaching profession with their own views on teaching; theories help them to make sense of what to practice. As there is literally some truth in every theory, teachers are encouraged to know as much as possible about the available theories to teach a foreign language. Finocchiaro and Bonomo (1973) and Roberts (1998) stressed that teachers with a good theoretical background have guidelines to develop their own theories and approaches to teaching a foreign language. SFLT do not have those guidelines.

Teachers stated that foreign language teaching and learning theories were not part of their education. The few teachers who were familiar with teaching theories observed that the teaching theories they received during their education were in relation to teaching in general, not to foreign language teaching. This is not surprising when looking back at the SFLT education, it is evident that little attention is given to theories related to foreign language teaching. When examining one of the teachers' pre-service programmes, it is apparent that the focus is on language skills and English literature, with only three hours related to teaching methodology. These three hours are related to theories on teaching in general with no relation to practice (Al-Ansari, 1995).

Furthermore, teachers do not receive regular in-service training to help them improve and keep up to date in their profession. Teachers in this study do not receive any in-service, and the majority want courses to improve their teaching skills.

As theories are significant for teachers to enable them to design their way of teaching and as the training provided for the SFLT in SA does not give attention to the theories related to foreign language teaching, the SFLT needs to be better oriented with the foreign language teaching and learning theories.

7.2 To what extent is the SFLT professionally prepared, equipped with the appropriate skills to teach English as a foreign language?

Skills are another area of importance that have an effect on the SFLT function in the classroom. Skills, such as methods and understanding the importance of the different variables and learning strategies among students, have a great deal of significance for the development of the teachers' ability to help students to acquire a foreign language (discussed in chapter 2).

Methods are not fixed formulas that can be applied to every foreign language classroom (Brown, 2007). Teachers are encouraged to take their knowledge and understanding of the different theories and methods and to formulate their own approaches to teaching.

Although SFLT's appreciate that there is more than one method to teaching a foreign language, they have no knowledge of the methods available. As mentioned previously in chapter five, teachers agreed on the effectiveness of both audio-lingual and communicative methods and as these two methods derive their ideas from two opposite theories it is clear that the SFLT is not familiar with the different methods or their underline theories.

Teachers are expected to notice the different variables among students and the strategies they employ towards learning, and they should develop their teaching accordingly. SFLT teachers believe that the difference among students is an A student and a D student a well behaved and the badly behaved. Rather than a confident student and the not so confident and the motivated student and the not so motivated. In addition, teachers believe that students strategies to learning a foreign language and strategy training is the responsibility of the textbooks. It is thought that the analysis of these differences will facilitate understanding of why some students develop proficiency in foreign languages more quickly than others (Johnson, 2001). Of course, teachers can only function as well as they are prepared, it seems the SFLT is not familiar with the different learning variables and strategies highlighted in the literature and their effect on helping students become better learners.

SFLT's realise that they need to improve their teaching skills, as the majority of them expressed their need to attend courses that would help them develop new teaching skills to teaching. The majority also highlighted that teaching practice Saudi schools must change to give the students a more active role in their learning.

7.3 To what extent is a behaviourist or constructivist approach to teaching and learning more dominant in the current Saudi practice in the classroom?

Constructivism said that learners come to the classroom with their own knowledge and experiences and they construct their own understanding of the world through reflecting on those experiences and knowledge, which gives them an active role in their learning not mere receivers. We are the creators of our knowledge, and therefore we ask questions, explore and assess what and how we learn. For such an approach to operate in a classroom the learners must be free to interact and develop as individuals.

In the traditional classroom (behaviourism), teachers have little room for students interaction. Teachers dominate the classroom and students are receivers of fixed information about the world passed on by the teacher. Students do not have the opportunity to construct their own learning but instead to accept what the teachers offer as absolute.

The physical layout or arrangement of the classroom in Saudi schools does not encourage interaction among students. Students sit in rows facing the teacher and the board. They respond to a question or when spoken to. Students do not have the opportunity to practice the target language in the language classroom or to interact with their peers and the teacher.

The SFLT dominates the classroom, which is a strong characteristic of the behaviourist approach to teaching. In the Saudi classroom, teachers symbolize knowledge, authority and discipline. Students are expected to obey and never question the teacher, because that is considered as not being well-behaved. No attention is given to the students' need to formulate their own understanding of the world.

Furthermore, the majority of the SFLT's insist on mastering the grammatical rules, which is related to the audio-lingual method based on the behaviourism theory. This theory gives the teacher a dominant role in the classroom and the students do not have an active role in their learning. As the teacher/student relationship is determined by the teacher's function in the classroom, it is not surprising that the majority of students in this study will not ask the teacher for help, even if they needed it. If the students will not ask their teachers for help, it suggests that the teacher/student relationship is that of a behaviourist teacher-centered approach that views the students as receivers with no active role in their learning process. Therefore, behaviourist approach is more dominant in the Saudi classroom.

The results reveal that the SFLT lacks in knowledge on the theories related to teaching a foreign language, is not equipped with the appropriate skills to teach a foreign language, is confused on the different methods and their underlying theories, and teaches according to the behaviourist approach.

Teachers Needs

In order to accomplish any major changes in the quality of teaching a foreign language in SA, attention must be paid to the teachers, as they are the key factor in the teaching and learning process. They must be supplied with knowledge related to theories on foreign language teaching and exposed to skills and techniques for teaching a foreign language through a regular in-service.

Teachers should take responsibility for making themselves aware of a wide variety of theories and different strategies related to teaching a foreign language. They should be aware of the several different variables mentioned in this study (chapter 2). In addition, they must appreciate the different strategies employed by the students to learn the foreign language, so that they can train the students to develop effective learning strategies.

Teachers must understand and appreciate the effect that the social context has on the teaching methods adopted in Saudi schools. Being educators, they must make a gradual not sudden, change from the behaviourist way of teaching recognising that a method that

worked in the western world may not be suitable to the Saudi culture. Therefore, the best way forward is to draw strength from each approach the behaviourist and the constructivist, taking into consideration the peculiarities of the Arabic culture, the learning behaviours of the Arabic students, as well as current social needs, and develop an eclectic method which suits our purposes.

Teachers must practice reflecting on their profession to improve their ways of teaching. This may prove to be a challenge for the SFLT, because they are required to follow a Teacher's Book that instructs them what, how and when to teach. The majority of the teachers have expressed their need to be free in choosing the methods to teach in their classrooms, they have also stated that the Teacher's Book limits their ability to teach effectively.

To sum up, it is clear that SFLT's need better preparation in terms of theories and skills related to teaching a foreign language. There is also the need to change their approach to teaching to give students a more active role in their learning. The questionnaire findings have highlighted that the teachers' beliefs and understanding are not oriented towards the behaviourist ways where the teacher dominates in the classroom and students receive knowledge with no active role in their learning process. However, what they practice is related to behaviourism. It has also heightened my awareness of the socio-cultural factors that impact on the classroom.

However, if teacher education programmes could build upon the findings in this study we would, I believe, be able to start a slow but sure process of positive change.

7.5 Recommendations

Reflecting on some of the issues raised in this study and their effect on the SFLT, I do realize and understand the difficulties and complications that might face policymakers in implementing change. Effecting change in teachers is not simply a matter of changing teachers' knowledge and beliefs into behaviour, or vice versa. Therefore, in the case of teacher change in SA, teacher training programmes can help, to a certain extent, to achieve changes in the quality of teaching and to enhance development at the classroom

level. However, the likelihood of great change in teachers after training greatly depends on deep rooted and interlinked social factors. Therefore, with regard to educational reform and changing in teachers social factors must be taken into consideration.

The teacher's current situation in SA is a primary role, whose authority comes from being considered as having all the knowledge. The SFLT has the sole authority in the classroom and therefore should not be questioned or interrupted (Al-Mandil, 1999; Abu-Ras, 2002; Bakarman, 2004). The teacher's main aim is to teach vocabulary and grammatical knowledge so that students successfully pass the exams. It is a challenge to train SFLTs to become coaches and helpers to their students.

Taken into consideration these constraints there are three areas that the policy makers can focus on first being the teachers training programmes. As the current teacher training programmes has been fully discussed in chapter six I shall only point out the areas in need of improvement in relation to this study.

The SFLTs are ill prepared by training courses that fail to equip them with the sufficient knowledge and skills to make them more effective in the classroom. Training programmes must have a balance between theories and practice that are actually related to teaching and learning a foreign language. Programmes must expose teachers to the different methods and views on teaching a foreign language. At present, although, the focus in the current Saudi training programmes are on theories, the majority of teachers in this study stated that they did not receive any education on theories in relation to foreign language teaching, and in some cases no theories related to teaching. Therefore, it is safe to say that there is a need to revise the content of the courses that the SFLT is receives during pre-service training.

Teacher training programmes must not end with the pre-service training. In-service is vital to keep the SFLTs up-to-date with the most recent theories and practice for teaching a foreign language and with the means to develop their teaching skills. At present, there is only one type of in-service programme for FLT, and this is an annual course held by the MoE for male teachers only female teachers have no access to in-service courses. These courses focus on textbooks, information on the MoE instructions, and some aspects

of language teaching. The only type of in-service available for female teachers is an annual inspection. The majority of teachers in this study indicated a need to attend training courses.

Teachers must have access to in-service programmes that can help them develop or even change their way of teaching to the best of their ability. For example, in-service programmes can have workshops where teachers attend an actual constructivist class then have a discussion on how it is different to their approach to teaching. Then devise steps for the teachers to become constructivist in their own classroom. Perhaps even looking at other models and materials that are based on a constructivist approach that could be adopted or modified to fit the Saudi setting. From my own experience, in studying in the US and the UK once one experiences constructivist approach to teaching and learning one will want to adopt new methods.

In-service can play a vital role in supporting and encouraging teachers on a regular bases towards change and improvement. Of course, further research is needed to plan and define a pre-service and in-service that addresses the needs of teachers and the issues raised in this study. In addition, in-service can help teachers to improve their command of the foreign language through focusing on reading spelling and pronunciation.

Furthermore, in-service can introduce them to ways of improving independently for example, reading or even chatting with native speakers over the internet.

Second being, training teachers to be more constructivist in their approach to teaching. SFLTs have been employing the behaviourist approach for a long time, and it has produced students that find foreign language learning a painful experience. This may prove to be a challenge for the policymakers and teachers. A set of rules that operate effectively in one classroom in a certain country with certain cultural rules does not mean it would have the same effect in other countries with different cultural backgrounds. Every context is unique, every teacher is unique, and every teacher/learner relationship is unique. Maybe the logical approach is to find a middle ground between the behaviourist approach and the constructivist approach and then train teachers accordingly. The

teachers themselves can reach a middle ground through in-service, here is another area of research where teachers can play a significant role.

Third being, training teachers to be reflective practitioners in their classrooms. It is understood that training programmes can not give teachers all they need, in this changing world, to teach effectively. Therefore, teachers can be trained and encouraged to reflect and research on their practices to develop the best possible way of teaching that is suitable for their classroom. Through the training programmes teachers can be introduced to the different sources of researching and improving their teaching ability and to make special use of the internet. Therefore, if we wish to continue promoting the teacher's capacity to adapt to changes and development, we must teach our teachers how to be able to solve problems related to their class, implement improvement and changes in their classrooms.

The final word that may be said is that, as the study has highlighted the importance of having a balanced knowledge and training of the different areas, mentioned in this study, related to teaching a foreign language it is equally important to treat those areas as inseparable and in relation to sociocultural factors that may have an effect on the classroom.

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Appendix 1

(letters of correspondents related to the study)

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

In the name of God the Merciful

His Excellency Deputy for girls,
Peace and mercy of God be upon you

سعادة النائب لشؤون البنات الموقر
السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

I am a doctoral student at the University of Strathclyde in the UK, the focus of my study is on the teachers' effectiveness in teaching a foreign language;

انا طالبة دكتوراة بجامعة سترينكلد في بريطانيا،
تتركز دراستي على مدى فعالية تدريس اللغة الاجنبية
من جهة معلم اللغة ؛ هذه الدراسة تتطلب استبانة
لتطبيقها على عدد من المدارس بمنطقة الرياض
(14 مدرسة حكومية)، استبانة خاصة بالمعلمات
واخرى بطالبات مرحلتي المتوسطة و الثانوي.

This study requires Questionnaire to be applied to a number of schools in Riyadh (14 Public schools), one for teachers and the other for students of intermediate and secondary schools.

وحيث ان تطبيق الاستبانة يشكل جزء اساسي ومهم
لاتمام متطلبات مرحلة الدكتوراة مما يستلزم معه
القيام برحلة علمية الى المملكة. وبما ان الملحقية
الثقافية في بريطانيا تشترط الحصول على موافقة
مسبقة من الجهة المختصة بموضوع الدراسة، ونظرا
لان وزارتك الموقرة تعتبر الجهة المختصة.

Since the implementation of Questionnaire is vital and important for the completion of my doctoral requirements, which requires to undertake a scientific journey to the Kingdom.

لذا؛ امل تكرم سعادتكم بالموافقة على توزيع الاستبانة
على عدد من المدارس الحكومية في منطقة الرياض.

Thus the cultural Bureau in the UK required to obtain prior approval from the authority related to the subject of study, and because of your ministry is distinguished the competent authority;

تقبلوا سعادتكم فائق الاحترام والتقدير،،،،

I hope Your Excellency will kindly approve the distribution of Questionnaires on a number of Public schools in the Riyadh region.

مقدمة الطلب
حنان بنت مانع الجهني

Accept my respect and appreciation,
Applicant
Hanan Al-Johani
UK phone numbers
H. Tel. 00441415863178
Mobil 00447814182957

هاتف بريطانيا
منزل 00441415863178
جوال 00447814182957

In the name of God the Merciful

His Excellency Deputy for girls,
peace and mercy of God be upon you.

Referring to my request of approval to distribute Questionnaires to teachers and students at intermediate and secondary levels at a number of public schools in Riyadh area, on letter number 13549 and dated 16/8/2005, which was transferred to the Department of Education in Riyadh.

And where you had previously transmitted it to the Department of Educational Research - according to my first letter over the internet - and returned to your office due to not attaching the questionnaires and then later a copy were faxed to the administration where they were studied.

His Excellency Deputy, as the time factor is very important because Saudi Cultural Bureau in London requires three months before the start of the application, which is scheduled with the university to begin with current term. Unfortunately, two months have passed since the first letter.

So; Please Your Excellency kindly provide me with what is needed to able me to give to the cultural Bureau office.

Accept my respect and appreciation,
Applicant
Hanan Al-Johani
University of Strathclyde
H. Tel. 00441415863178
Mobile 00447814182957

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

سعادة النائب لشؤون البنات الموقر
السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

اشارة الى طلبي على موافقة سعادتك توزيع استبانة خاصة بمعلمات وطالبات مرحلتي المتوسطة و الثانوي في عدد من المدارس الحكومية بمنطقة الرياض وذلك ضمن خطابي الوارد برقم 13549 وتاريخ 1426/7/11 هـ والذي احيل بذات الرقم الى ادارة تعليم الرياض.

وحيث انه قد سبق وان احلتم الموضوع الى ادارة البحوث التربوية - وفقا لخطابي الاول المرسل عبر الانترنت - وتم اعادته الى مكتبكم لعدم ارفاق الاستبانة من ثم ارسلت نسخة منها بالفاكس الى الادارة وتم دراستها .

سعادة النائب حيث ان عامل الوقت جد مهم اذ ان الملحقية السعودية في بريطانيا تتطلب التقدم قبل ثلاثة اشهر من بدء التطبيق الذي يفترض كما خطة الدراسة المقررة مع الملحقية والجامعة ان يبدأ مع الفصل الدراسي القائم، وحيث من المؤسف فقد مضى مايقارب الشهرين منذ اول خطاب.

لذا؛ امل تكرم سعادتك الشخصي بالتوجيه لتزويدي بما يلزم لاتمكن من تقديمه للملحقية.

تقبلوا سعادتك فائق الاحترام والتقدير،،،،

مقدمة الطلب

حنان بنت مانع الجهني
جامعة سترات كليد في بريطانيا
هاتف

منزل 00441415863178

جوال 00447814182957

Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia
Cultural Bureau in the
United Kingdom & Ireland
File No: GY003 / 2

سفارة المملكة العربية السعودية
الملحقية الثقافية
بالمملكة المتحدة وَايرلندا
رقم الملف: GY003 / 2

Respected Sister/ Hanan al-Johani
Peace and mercy of God be upon you,

الاخت الكريمة المبتعثة / حنان بنت مانع الجهني
السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ، وبعد

We would like to inform you of the receipt of a letter no.b/3/4/38636 and dated 26/11/2005, from Undersecretary of the Ministry of Higher Education for Cultural Relations included the approval of the Minister regarding your trip to the Kingdom for three months to gather your data starting from 1 / 1 / 2006.

نود افادتكم بورود رسالة وكيل وزارة التعليم العالي للعلاقات الثقافية المكلف الهاتفية رقم ب/3/4/38636 وتاريخ 1426/10/24 هـ المتضمنة موافقة معالي الوزير على قيامك برحلة علمية الى المملكة لجمع المادة العلمية ذات العلاقة ببحثك لمدة 3 اشهر اعتبارا من 2006/1/1م.

Please contact the Cultural Bureau to arrange for travelling tickets.
We hope that on your return, God willing, you provide us with a report from the MoE including the completion of data collection and start and date of the trip.
In addition to your passport so that we can exchange allowance allocated to your journey.

نامل الاتصال بالمكتب للتنسيق بشأن تذاكر السفر، كما نامل تزويدنا بتقرير من الوزارة او من الجهة ذات العلاقة بالمملكة بعد عودتك باذن الله متضمنا الانتهاء من جمع البيانات اللازمة، وتاريخ بداية ونهاية الرحلة وكذلك اصل جواز سفرك حتى نتمكن من صرف البديل المخصص للرحلة العلمية.

مع تمنياتنا لك بالتوفيق،،،

الملحق الثقافي في بريطانيا

We wish you luck,

عبدالله بن محمد الناصر

Cultural Bureau in London

Abdullah bin Mohammed Al-Nasser

Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia
Cultural Bureau
London

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم العالي
مكتب الملحق الثقافي في بريطانيا

Academic
File Number GY003 / 2

الأكاديمية
رقم الملف GY003/2

Testimony

افادة

According to the Saudi Cultural Bureau Office in London the student / Hanan al-Johani is sponsored by the Ministry of Higher Education to study teaching English as a foreign language at the University of Strathclyde, and she wants to visit a number of libraries to gather information and resources necessary to her research for a doctoral degree.

يفيد المكتب الثقافي السعودي في بريطانيا أن الطالبة /
حنان بنت مانع الجهني مبتعثة وزارة التعليم العالي
لدراسة تخصص تدريس اللغة الانجليزية للناطقين
بغيرها في جامعة استراتكلايد في بريطانيا، وانها
ترغب في زيارة بعض المكتبات لجمع المعلومات
والمراجع الضرورية لبحثها للحصول على درجة
الدكتوراة.
نأمل تسهيل اجراءات زيارتها للمكتبات التي ترغب
في مراجعتها.
تم تزويد المذكورة بهذه الافادة بناء على طلبها
لتقديمها لمن يهمه الامر.

We hope that this will help to facilitate the proceedings for her visits to the libraries.

This testimony was provided upon request of the researcher.

الملحق الثقافي في بريطانيا
عبدالله بن محمد الناصر

Cultural Bureau in London
Abdullah bin Mohammed Al-Nasser

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
Ministry of Education
265 / 2 B
11/10/2005
Assistance to the Educational development
General Administration of Educational Researches

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التربية والتعليم
ب2/265
1426/9/8 هـ

Subject: on facilitating the task of
researcher / Hanan al-Johani

الوكالة المساعدة للتطوير التربوي
الادارة العامة للبحوث التربوية

Director General of Education in Riyadh
Peace and mercy of God be upon you

الموضوع: بشأن تسهيل مهمة الباحثة / حنان الجهني

Referring to the letter of the Director of
Educational Supervision in Riyadh
No.1176/30 / x dated 3/10/2005, to
facilitate the task of a doctoral student
Hanan al-Johani at the University of
Strathclyde, Department of Education in
the UK; Which requires distributing the
research Questionnaire to teachers and
students from Intermediate and
Secondary levels in the Riyadh region.

سعادة مدير عام التربية والتعليم بمنطقة الرياض المحترم
السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

بناء على خطاب مديرة ادارة الاشراف التربوي بمنطقة الرياض
رقم 30/1176/خ وتاريخ 1426/8/29 هـ، بشأن تسهيل مهمة
طالبة دكتوراه بجامعة سترثكليد في بريطانيا قسم التربية حنان
الجهني- في تطبيق ادارة بحثها بعنوان (مدى فعالية تدريس
اللغة الانجليزية من جهة المعلم) والتي تتطلب تطبيق ادارة
البحث (استبانة) على معلمات وطالبات المرحلتين المتوسطة
والثانوية التابعة لشئون تعليم البنات في منطقة الرياض.
وفي ضوء دراسة ادوات البحث من قبل الادارة العامة للبحوث
التربوية لامانع لدينا من تسهيل مهمة الباحثة/ حنان الجهني في
تطبيق ادوات بحثها والمرفق صور منها معتمدة من الادارة كما
نرفق لكم بيان باعداد العينة المطلوبة للتطبيق عليها في
المدارس.
لاكمال اللازم.

In the light of assessment of the research
tools made by the General
Administration of Educational
Researches we have no objection to
facilitate the task of researcher / Hanan
al-Johani in applying her research tools.

وتقبلوا تحياتي،،،

A copy of the Questionnaires and sample
required for application.
To complete what is necessary.

المديرة العامة للبحوث التربوية

د. الجوهرية بنت سليمان السليم

Please accept my greetings,
Director-General for Educational Research
Dr Al Jawhara Bint Suleiman Asuleem

A sample preparation required by the application

First: Intermediate schools:

Name of schools	Intermediate Schools	Teachers
5,16,37,48 49,54,63,66	one class from the third grade for each school	All English language teachers in these schools

II: Secondary schools:

Name of schools	High School	Teachers
4,5,14,15	one class from the first grade	All English language teachers in these schools
20,21,23,44	And one class from the second grade in both division (scientific& literary), and one class of the third grade in both division (scientific& literary) for each school.	

بيان باعداد العينة المطلوب التطبيق عليها
اولا: المدارس المتوسطة:

معلمات	المرحلة المتوسطة	اسم المدرسة
جميع معلمات اللغة الانجليزية في هذه المدارس	فصل واحد من الصف الثالث متوسط لكل مدرسة	48,37,16,5
		63,54,49,66

ثانيا: المدارس الثانوية:

معلمات	المرحلة الثانوية	اسم المدرسة
جميع معلمات اللغة الانجليزية في هذه المدارس	فصل واحد من الصف الاول ثانوي	15,14,5,4
	وفصل واحد من الصف الثاني ثانوي بقسميه العلمي والادبي، وفصل واحد من الصف الثالث ثانوي بقسميه العلمي والادبي لكل مدرسة.	44,23,21,20

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
Ministry of Education
348/30 x
13/5/2006
General Administration of Education in Riyadh

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التربية والتعليم
30/348 خ
1427/4/15 هـ

الإدارة العامة للتربية والتعليم بمنطقة الرياض

To:
Secondary/ 4-5-14-15-20-21-23-44
Intermediate/ 5-16-37-48-49-54-63-66

الى:
الثانوية/4-5-14-15-20-21-23-44
المتوسطة/5-16-37-48-49-54-63-66

From: the Director of Educational
Supervision in Riyadh.
About facilitating the task of the researcher /
Hanan al-Johani.

من مديرة ادارة الاشراف التربوي بمنطقة الرياض
بشأن تسهيل مهمة الباحثة / حنان الجهني

Peace and mercy of God be upon you,

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته،،، وبعد

Referring to the letter of the Director-
General for Educational Research No.
265 / 2 b and dated 1/10/2006
about facilitating the task of a doctoral
student Hanan al-Johani.

اشارة الى خطاب المديرية العامة للبحوث التربوية رقم
2/265 وتاريخ 1427/9/8 هـ
بشأن تطبيق دراسة الباحثة / حنان الجهني
بعنوان (مدى فعالية تدريس اللغة الانجليزية من جهة
المعلم)
عليه نأمل تسهيل مهمة الباحثة بتعبئة الاستبانة
المرفقة من قبل المعلمات والطالبات
علما ان الباحثة سوف تقوم بتوزيع واستلام الاستبانة
بنفسها.

We hope you will facilitate the task of
mobilizing and filling in the researchers'
Questionnaire by teachers and students.

شاكرين تعاونكم ...
والله الموفق،،،

Note that the researcher will distribute
and receive the questionnaires herself.

Appreciate your cooperation ...
God bless,

د. البندري بنت عبدالله آل سعود

Dr. Albanderi Bint Abdullah Al Saud

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
Ministry of Education,
606/30 x
13/5/2006

General Administration of Education in Riyadh

To:
Secondary/ 9-70
Intermediate / 36-117-47-38-76

From the Director of Educational
Supervision in Riyadh
About facilitating the task of the
researcher / Hanan al-Johani

Peace and mercy of God be upon you

Referring to the letter of the Director-
General for Educational Researches No.
265 / 2 b and dated 1/10/2006;
About facilitating the task of a doctoral
student Hanan al-Johani.

We hope you will facilitate the task of
mobilizing and filling in the researcher's
Questionnaires by teachers and students.

Note that the researcher will distribute
and receive the questionnaires herself.

Appreciate your cooperation ...
God bless,,,

Dr. Albanderi Bint Abdullah Al Saud

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التربية والتعليم
30/606
1427/4/15 هـ

الإدارة العامة للتربية والتعليم بمنطقة الرياض

الى:

الثانوية/9-70
المتوسطة/ 36-117-47-38-76

من مديرة ادارة الاشراف التربوي بمنطقة الرياض
بشأن تسهيل مهمة الباحثة / حنان الجهني

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته،،، وبعد

اشارة الى خطاب المديرية العامة للبحوث التربوية رقم
265/2ب وتاريخ 1427/9/8 هـ
بشأن تطبيق دراسة الباحثة / حنان الجهني
بعنوان (مدى فعالية تدريس اللغة الانجليزية من جهة
المعلم)
عليه نأمل تسهيل مهمة الباحثة بتعبئة الاستبانة
المرفقة من قبل المعلمات والطالبات
علما ان الباحثة سوف تقوم بتوزيع واستلام الاستبانة
بنفسها.

شاكرين تعاونكم ...
والله الموفق،،،

د. البندري بنت عبدالله آل سعود

Appendix 2
(characteristics of a constructivist teacher)

The twelve characteristics of a constructivist teacher (Brooks and Brooks, 1999:103):

1. Constructivist teachers encourage and accept student autonomy and initiative. Autonomy and initiative prompt students' pursuit of connections among ideas and concepts. Students who frame questions and issues and then go about answering and analysing them take responsibility for their own learning and become problem solvers and, perhaps more importantly, problem finders. These students in pursuit of new understandings are led by their own ideas and informed by the ideas of others. They ask for the freedom to play with ideas, explore issues and encounter new information. The way a teacher frames an assignment usually determines the degree to which students may interact with the teacher and other students.
2. Constructivist teachers use raw data and primary sources, along with manipulative, interactive and physical materials. The constructivist approach to teaching presents these real world possibilities to students, and then helps the students generate the abstractions that bind these phenomena together.
3. Constructivist teachers, when framing tasks, use cognitive terminology such as "classify", "analyse", "predict" and "create". The words we hear and use in our everyday lives affect our way of thinking and, ultimately, our actions. The teacher asks students to analyse the relationships among the characters in a story or predict how the story might have proceeded had certain events not occurred. Analysing, interpreting, predicting and synthesising are mental activities that require students to make connections, delve deeply into texts and contexts, and create new understanding.
4. Constructivist teachers allow student responses to drive lessons, shift instructional strategies and alter content. This does not mean that students' initial interest, or lack of interest, in a topic determines whether the topic gets taught, nor does it mean that whole sections of the curriculum are to be jettisoned if students wish to discuss other issues. However, students' knowledge, experiences and interests occasionally do coalesce around an urgent theme. Such was the case during the Persian Gulf War.

Students at all grade levels were compelled by the images they saw, the reports they heard and the fears they experienced.

5. Constructivist teachers inquire about students' understanding of concepts before sharing their own understanding of these concepts. When teachers share their ideas and theories before students have an opportunity to develop their own, students' questioning of their own theories is essentially eliminated. Students assume that teachers know more than they do. Most students stop thinking about a concept or theory once they hear the correct answer from the teacher. Teachers are sometimes tempted to share the correct answer with the student for the sake of time or because the students are impatient.
6. Constructivist teachers encourage students to engage in dialogue, both with the teacher and with one another. One very powerful way students come to change or reinforce conceptions is through social discourse. Having an opportunity to present one's own ideas, as well as hearing and reflecting on the ideas of others, is an empowering experience. The benefit of discourse with others, particularly with peers, is progress.
7. Constructivist teachers encourage student inquiry by asking thoughtful, open-ended questions and encouraging students to ask questions of each other. If we want students to value inquiry, teachers must also value it. If teachers pose questions with the orientation that there is only one correct response, students will not develop interest or the analytic skills necessary for more diverse modes of inquiry. Complex, thoughtful questions challenge students to look beyond the apparent, to go deeply and broadly into issues, and to form their own understanding of events and phenomena.
8. Constructivist teachers seek elaboration of students' initial responses. Students' first thoughts about issues are not necessarily their final thoughts, or their best thoughts. Through elaboration, students often reconceptualise and assess their own errors. For example, one mathematics teacher assigned his class problems in a textbook. A student, looking quite confused, asked the teacher if her approach to solving one of

the problems was appropriate. The teacher asked the student to explain what she had done. As the student was explaining her approach in a step-by-step manner, she realised her own error. She said “I forgot to multiply both sides of the equation by ‘x’ “. This enabled the student to understand her mistake fully, which she will not repeat it in the future when she will be more cautious on revision. If the teacher had just pointed out the mistake, this learning would not have taken place. Student elaboration enables adults to understand more clearly how students do and do not think about a concept.

9. Constructivist teachers engage students in experiences that might engender contradictions to their initial hypotheses and then encourage discussion. Cognitive growth occurs when an individual revisits and reformulates a current perspective. Therefore, constructivist teachers engage students in experiences that might engender contradictions to students’ current hypotheses. They then encourage discussions of hypotheses and perspectives. Contradictions are constructed by learners. Teachers cannot know what will be perceived as a contradiction by students; it is an internal process. However, teachers can and must challenge students’ present conceptions, knowing that the challenge only exists if the students perceive a contradiction. Teachers must, therefore, use information about the students’ present conceptions, or points of view, to help them understand which notions students may accept or reject as contradictory.

Students of all ages develop ideas about phenomena and then tenaciously hold on to these ideas as eternal truths. Even in the face of authoritative intervention and hard data that challenge their views, students typically adhere staunchly to their original notions. Through experiences that might engender contradictions, the frameworks for these notions weaken, causing students to rethink their perspectives and form new understandings.

10. Constructivist teachers allow wait time after posing questions. In every classroom, there are students who, for a variety of reasons, are not prepared to respond to questions immediately. They process the world in different ways. Classroom

environments that require immediate responses prevent these students from thinking through issues and concepts thoroughly, forcing them to become spectators as their quicker peers react. They learn over time that there is no point in mentally engaging in teacher posed questions because the questions will have been answered before they have had the opportunity to develop hypotheses. Another reason why students need wait time is that the questions posed by teachers are not always the questions heard by the students; the understanding of a question is different between students. A successful way of posing questions is to encourage small groups of students to consider them before the whole group is invited back together to report on the deliberations. This allows the teacher to call on students to deliver the group's initial responses without putting anyone on the spot; any student in the group can submit a "minority report".

11. Constructivist teachers provide time for the student to construct relationships and create metaphors. Encouraging the use of metaphor is another important way to facilitate learning. People of all ages use metaphors to bolster their understanding of concepts. For example, in a second grade classroom, students were given magnets to explore, the activity took 45 minutes, the students discovered that one end of a magnet attracted the other magnet while the opposite end repelled it. Some students went beyond these initial relationships and joined forces with their peers to create magnetic trains, and to create patterns with iron filings. A great number of relationships, patterns and theories were generated during this activity and none of them came from the teacher. The teacher structured and mediated the activity and provided the necessary time and material for learning to occur, but the students constructed the relationships themselves.
12. Constructivist teachers nurture students' natural curiosity through frequent use of the learning cycle model. This can be achieved through a three-step cycle. First, the teacher provides an open-ended opportunity for students to interact with purposefully selected materials. The primary goal of this initial lesson is for students to generate questions and hypotheses from working with the materials. This step has historically been called "discovery". Second, the teacher provides the "concept introduction"

lessons aimed at focusing the students' questions, providing related new vocabulary, framing with students their proposed laboratory experiences, and so forth. Third, "concept application" completes the cycle after one or more iterations of the discovery-concept-introduction sequence. During concept application, students' work on new problems with the potential for evoking a fresh look at the concepts previously studied.

This cycle stands in contrast to the ways in which most curricula; syllabi and published materials present learning and the ways in which most teachers were taught to teach. In the behaviourist model, concept introduction comes first, followed by concept application activities. Discovery, when it occurs, usually takes place after introduction and application and with only the quicker students who are able to finish their application tasks before the rest of the class.

Appendix 3

***(guidelines for teaching and learning a
foreign language from a constructivist
perspective)***

The following ten guidelines are considered crucial for teaching and learning languages from a constructivist perspective (Williams and Burden, 1997: 204)

1. There is a difference between learning and education, which implies that in order to be of value, a learning experience should contribute to a person's whole education as well as to their learning of an aspect of the language.
2. Learners learn what is meaningful to them so that whatever language input is presented to them; we cannot predict what each individual will learn or how the learner's language system will develop. Teachers must therefore have a sound grasp of what their learners see as important and meaningful.
3. Learners learn in ways that are meaningful to them which means that teachers will need to provide a variety of language learning activities, which allow for different learning styles and individual preferences and personalities.
4. Learners learn better if they feel in control of what they are learning: learners need to be encouraged to talk about their aims and set goals for themselves regarding learning the language.
5. Learning is closely linked to how people feel about themselves. The individual's self-concept as a language learner will strongly influence the way in which he/she learns.
6. Learning takes place in a social context through interaction with other people. The nature of interaction in the target language will influence the quality of learning that language thus; teachers need to be aware of the interactions that occur in the classroom.
7. What teachers do in the classroom reflects their own beliefs and attitudes. Whatever methodology is used, it is the beliefs of teachers that will influence what goes on in the classroom.

8. There is a significant role for the teacher as mediator in the language classroom. The teacher fosters the right climate for individual respect, for confidence building, for appropriate learning strategies and for learner autonomy.
9. Learning tasks represent an interface between teachers and learners. Teachers' choice of learning activities reflects their beliefs and values and learners will interpret these activities in ways that are meaningful to them.
10. Learning is influenced by the situation in which it occurs. The broader social, educational and political context within which language learning experiences occur as well as the cultural background of the learners will influence the learning that takes place.

Appendix 4

***(Johnson's seven questions regarding
choosing a method)***

Johnson's (2001: 162) seven questions:

1. What are the method's Big Ideas? Many are based on a small number of central insights, which act as a guiding inspiration. If you can identify these Big Ideas, you are well on the way to understanding the method.
2. What are the theoretical underpinnings behind the method? It should be supported by a view both of language and of language learning. This rarely happens. Sometimes just one of these, a view either of language or of language learning, will be behind the method. As you read about various methods, try to relate them to the theories of language and language learning.
3. How much engagement of the mind does the method expect? Different learning theories have very different views about the role of the mind in learning. At one extreme is behaviourism, where the mind plays no part at all, and learning is viewed as habit formation. A useful way of characterising language teaching methods is to identify how they stand in relation to this factor.
4. Is the method deductive or inductive in approach? Deductive learning is where the learner is first given a rule, these rules are then demonstrated working in practice like when a set of grammatical rules are given first then they are set into practice. In inductive learning, examples are first given and the learner works out the rules for himself.
5. Does the method allow use of the first language in the classroom? Some methods do not allow this at all costs. In others, you may find a major part of each lesson is given in the learner's first language with the target language only making an occasional appearance.
6. Which of the four skills are given emphasis in the method? The four skills are listening and speaking (the "spoken" skills), reading and writing (the "written"

skills). Methods can differ dramatically as to where they stand. In some, learners do nothing but read and write, in others they do little other than listen and speak.

7. How much importance does the method give to “authenticity” of language?
There are methods, which take great pains to make the language the learner is exposed to as realistic as possible. In other methods, no effort at all is made.

Appendix 5

***(covering letter of teacher's questionnaire
and teacher's questionnaire, part 1, 2, and 3)***

Covering Letter of the Teachers Questionnaires

In the name of God the Merciful

Dear English Teacher,

I am a sponsored student by the Ministry of Higher Education to the UK for a doctorate degree in the field of teaching English as a foreign language. My research is focused on the preparation of foreign language Teachers.

This subject is believed to be significant to all parties concerned and related to teaching and learning of foreign language, especially teachers.

As a vital contribution from you to English language education in the Kingdom, and since the matter concerns you as a FLT;
I kindly ask you to answer this questionnaire with all frankness, clarity and accuracy.

Please be advised, that there is no right or wrong answer and all answers will be treated as strictly confidential and will be used for scientific research purposes only.

Note: If you want to know the results of research or any clarification, please do not hesitate to contact me on:

E-mail: HMJOHANI@YAHOO.COM
Tel 00447814182957

Thank you for your cooperation,
Researcher Hanan Al-Johani

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

عزيرتي مدرسة مادة اللغة الانجليزية

انني احد مبتعثي وزارة التعليم العالي الى بريطانيا للحصول على درجة الدكتوراه في مجال تعليم اللغة الانجليزية. ولقد ركزت بحثي على مدى استعداد مدرسة اللغة الانجليزية مهنيا لتدريس هذه المادة. لقد تم اختيار هذا الموضوع ايمانا مني باهميته لكل الجهات المعنية ذوي الصلة بالتعليم والتعلم وبالاخص المدرسة.

وحيث ان المسألة تخصك كمدرسة لمادة اللغة الانجليزية ارجو منك التفضل بالاجابة على هذه الاستبانة بكل صراحة ووضوح ودقة. وذلك كمساهمة حيوية منك في تطوير تعليم اللغة الانجليزية في المملكة. علما بانه لاتوجد اجابة صحيحة او خاطئة وان جميع اجاباتك سوف تكون سرية للغاية وستستخدم لاغراض البحث العلمي فقط.

ملاحظة

في حالة رغبتك في معرفة نتائج البحث او اي ايضاح يرجى عدم التردد في مراسلتي على العنوان التالي

حنان مانع الجهني
بريد الالكتروني

HMJOHANI@YAHOO.COM

هاتف 00447814182957

شاكراة لكن سلفا حسن تعاونكن
الباحثة

Teacher's questionnaire
استبيان المعلمات

Part 1

Please tick the appropriate.

القسم الاول

الرجاء وضع علامة عند الاجابه المناسبه

How long have you been a language teacher?

ماهي مدة عملك كمعلمة لغة انجليزية؟

1 year or less	2-5 years	6-10 years	more
سنة او اقل	5-2 سنوات	10-6 سنوات	اكثر

Part 2

Read the following statements carefully and respond by circling the appropriate number that expresses your opinion.

Give one answer only to each statement.

القسم الثاني

الرجاء قراءة العبارات التالية بتأن واختيار الاجابة المناسبة وذلك بوضع دائرة حول الرقم الذي يعبر عن وجهة نظرك . اعطي اجابة واحدة فقط لكل عبارة.

	Strongly agree لوافق بشدة 4	Agree وافق 3	Disagree لاوافق 2	Strongly disagree لاوافق بشدة 1
1. Language teachers have a reasonable knowledge on learning and teaching theories. تتمتع معلمات اللغة الانجليزية بمعرفة كافية عن نظريات التعلم والتعليم	4	3	2	1
2. Learning and teaching theories able me as a language teacher to choose the right method for my language classroom. نظريات التعلم والتعليم منحتني القدرة على اختيار الطريقة الصحيحة لتعليم اللغة في الصف	4	3	2	1
3. I am a constructive teacher. اؤيد التعليم وفق الطريقة البناءة.	4	3	2	1
4. Learning and teaching theories were not part of my education. لم تكن نظريات التعلم والتعليم جزء من تعليمي.	4	3	2	1
5. I gained knowledge on learning and teaching theories through my own research. رفعت من مستوى معرفتي بنظريات التعلم والتعليم من خلال بحثي الخاص.	4	3	2	1
6. My classroom is teacher centred. امتل الدور الميادي داخل الصف.	4	3	2	1
7. I think learning and teaching theories would form a base for improving my teaching ability. اعتقد ان نظريات التعلم والتعليم ستشكل الاساس في تطوير قدرتي على التعليم.	4	3	2	1
8. My classroom is student centred. تمثل الطلبة الدور الميادي داخل الصف.	4	3	2	1
9. Students must have an effective role in their learning. يجب ان يكون للطلبات دور فعال في تعلمهن.	4	3	2	1
10. Introducing pair and group work in classrooms will encourage personal involvement and interaction. عمل الطالبات بشكل زوجي او جماعي داخل الصف من شأنه تشجيع وتنمية التفاعل والتثبير	4	3	2	1

الشخصي لديهم.

11. Students must be taught to set their own goals in learning. يجب تعليم الطالبات كيف يحددن اهدافهن وغاياتهن من التعلم وبخاصة تعلم اللغة الانجليزية.	4	3	2	1
12. Teachers play an important role in the students' development as individuals. تمثل المعلمة دور مهم في التطور الذاتي لدى الطالبات.	4	3	2	1
13. Helping students to monitor changes in themselves improves their ability to learn effectively. مساعدة الطالبات على متابعة التغيرات بانفسهن تحسن قدرتهن للتعلم بشكل افضل.	4	3	2	1
14. It is beneficial to explain to the students how carrying out a learning activity will help them in the future. من المفيد شرح كيفية ان اجاز الاثشطة الدراسية سوف يساعدن مستقبلًا.	4	3	2	1
15. There are several methods to teaching a foreign language. هناك طرق عدة لتدريس اللغة الاجنبية.	4	3	2	1
16. I am familiar with the term audio-lingual method. لدي اطلاع ودرية بالمصطلح السمعي اللغوي (audio-lingual)	4	3	2	1
17. The audio-lingual method is quite effective for teaching English as a foreign language. يعد الاسلوب السمعي اللغوي فعالا الى حد بعيد لتدريس اللغة الانجليزية كلغة اجنبية.	4	3	2	1
18. Students must master the grammatical rules to be able to use the language correctly. يجب على الطالبات اجادة قواعد اللغة ليتمكن من استعمال اللغة بشكل سليم.	4	3	2	1
19. Teachers must play the dominant role in their language classroom. يجب على المعلمات ان يلعبن دور الهيمنة داخل الصف.	4	3	2	1
20. In the language classroom there should be little interaction between teachers and students and between students and their peers. يجب ان يقل التفاعل والمشاركة بين المعلمة والطالبات وبين الطالبات انفسهن داخل الصف.	4	3	2	1
21. I am familiar with the term communicative method. لدي اطلاع ودرية بمصطلح المشاركة الصريحة	4	3	2	1

(communicative method)

22. The communicative method helps students to communicate effectively inside and outside the classroom. اسلوب المشاركة الصريحة يساعد الطالبات على المشاركة بشكل فعال داخل وخارج الصف الدراسي.	4	3	2	1
23. Teachers must search for an effective method to teaching English as a foreign language. يجب على المعلمات ان يبحثن عن طرق فعالة لتدريس اللغة الانجليزية كلغة اجنبية.	4	3	2	1
24. I use the internet to help me gain knowledge on the different methods used to teaching a foreign language. استخدم الانترنت لاكتساب المعرفة عن الطرق المختلفة المستخدمة لتعليم اللغة الاجنبية.	4	3	2	1
25. Students have very few opportunities to use the target language in the classroom. لدى الطالبات فرص جدا لممارسة اللغة الاجنبية داخل الصف الدراسي.	4	3	2	1
26. Students are allowed to express their ideas, feelings and to speak or act freely and not only in response to immediate stimuli from the teacher. يسمح للطالبات ان يعبرن عن افكارهن ومشاعرهن والتصرف بحرية داخل الصف وليس فقط للاجابة الفورية على المعلمة.	4	3	2	1
27. Students should be given opportunities to interact in class in pairs and small groups. يجب اقامة الفرصة للطالبات للمشاركة مع فريزاتهن بشكل زوجي او جماعي.	4	3	2	1
28. Lesson instructions must be comprehensible to students. يجب ان يكون شرح الدرس واضحا للطالبات.	4	3	2	1
29. Students must be taught to work co-operatively. يجب تعليم الطالبات التعاون اثناء العمل.	4	3	2	1
30. Realising and understanding the importance of the different variables between students helps in improving the quality of teaching. ادراك وفهم اهمية الفروق التعليمية بين الطالبات يساعد على تحسين المستوى التعليمي.	4	3	2	1
31. Teaching students the strategies they need to learn effectively will help develop a feeling of confidence in their ability to learn. تعليم الطالبات الاساليب التي يحتاجنها للتعلم بفاعلية سوف يساعد على تطوير شعور الثقة في قدرتهن على التعلم.	4	3	2	1

32. Helping students to set challenges for themselves will help in developing strategies to meet those challenges. مساعدة الطالبات على وضع تحديات لانفسهن يساعدن على قضاء طرق لمواجهة تلك التحديات.	4	3	2	1
33. The different variables between students has a strong effect on their development in learning a foreign language. الفروق الفردية بين الطالبات له اثر قوي على تقدمهن في تعلم اللغة الاجنبية.	4	3	2	1
34. Keeping motivation alive helps students to learn smoothly. احياء شعور الحماس داخل الصف يساعد الطالبات على التعلم ببسر وسهولة.	4	3	2	1
35. My education has not qualified me enough to teach English as a foreign language. لم يؤهلني تعليمي بدرجة كافية لتدريس اللغة الانجليزية كلغة اجنبية	4	3	2	1
36. The teachers' book for English teaching limits my ability to teach a foreign language. كتاب المعلم للغة الانجليزية يحد من مقدرتي على تعليم اللغة بشكل فعال.	4	3	2	1
37. I need to attend a training course in order to improve my skills in using different strategies and new teaching methods to teach a foreign language. لحاج لحضور دورة تدريبية لتحسين مهاراتي في استخدام اساليب مختلفة وطرق تعليمية جديدة لتعليم اللغة الاجنبية.	4	3	2	1
38. Teachers should be free to choose the best method for their language classroom. يجب ان تتمتع المعلمات بحرية في اختيار افضل الطرق لتدريس اللغة في صفوفهن الدراسية.	4	3	2	1
39. Teaching methods adopted at school are adequate. طرق التعليم المعمارس في المدرسة كافية.	4	3	2	1
40. The present English instruction is fulfilling its objectives يحقق اسلوب تعليم اللغة الانجليزية الحالي اهدافه.	4	3	2	1
41. Teaching practised in Saudi schools is intended to teach students language structure rather than language use. التعليم المعمارس في مدارس المملكة يهدف الى تعليم الطالبات بناء اللغة وليس استعمالها.	4	3	2	1

42. The current method of teaching needs to be changed to maximise understanding and participation on the part of the student. 4 3 2 1

يجب ان تتغير الطرق الحالية للتدريس لرفع مستوى الفهم والمشاركة من قبل الطلبة.

Part 3

How often do you implement the following practices in your classroom? Give one answer only to each statement.

القسم الثالث

الى اي مدى تقومين بممارسة التالي داخل الصف الدراسي. الرجاء وضع دائرة حول الرقم الذي يعبر عن رايك . اعطى اجابة واحدة فقط لكل فقرة .

	Very often دائما	Quite often كثيرا	Hardly ever قليل	Never نادرا
1. Make your instructions clear when you give a lesson to your students. تجعلين توجيهاتك واضحة عند اعطاء ادرس للطلاب.	4	3	2	1
2. Help students to develop a feeling of confidence in their ability to learn. تعينين الطلاب على قماء شعور الثقة بمقدرتهن على التعلم.	4	3	2	1
3. Help students to set challenges for themselves and to develop strategies to meet those challenges. تعينين الطلاب على ان يضمن تحديات لانفسهن وان يطورن الاساليب لبلوغ تلك التحديات.	4	3	2	1
4. Teach students the strategies they need to learn effectively. تعينين للطلاب على تعلم الاساليب التي تعينهن على التعلم بشكل افضل.	4	3	2	1
5. Encourage students to work in pairs or small groups in the classroom. تشجعين للطلاب على ان يعملن بشكل زوجي او مجموعات صغيرة داخل الصف.	4	3	2	1
6. Take into account the different variables between students. تاخذين بعين الاعتبار الفروقات الفردية لمختلفة بين الطلاب.	4	3	2	1
7. Try to keep motivation alive in the classroom. تحاولين لحياء وبقاء شعور الحماس داخل الصف.	4	3	2	1
8. Help students to monitor their own development. تساعدن الطلاب على ملاحظة تقدمهن الدراسي.	4	3	2	1
9. Explain to the students how carrying out a learning activity will help them in the future. تشرحين للطلاب كيف ان اجاز الانشطة الدراسية سوف يساعدن مستقبلا.	4	3	2	1
10. Help students to realize that if they keep on trying to solve a problem they will find a solution. تساعدن الطلاب على ادراك ان تكرر المحاولة على حل مشكلة ما سيؤدي في النهاية الى معالجتها.	4	3	2	1

11. Foster in the students a sense of belonging to a classroom community. تعززين لدى الطلاب الشعور بالانتماء الى الصف الدراسي.	4	3	2	1
12. Give students opportunity to use the language freely. تسطين طلابك فرصة كافية لممارسة اللغة بحرية.	4	3	2	1
13. Insist that students master the grammatical rules to be able to use the language correctly. تحرصين على اجادة قواعد اللغة الانجليزية لتتمكن الطالبة من استعمال اللغة بشكل صحيح.	4	3	2	1
14. Provide constructive feedback to your students. تطمين طلابك نقد بناء.	4	3	2	1
15. Give help when students seek help or advise. تقدمين المساعدة النصيحة للطلاب عندما يطلبن او يبحثن عنا.	4	3	2	1
16. Teach your students to check their own progress in their language learning. تعلمين طلابك كيفية ملاحظة تقدمهن في تعلم اللغة الانجليزية.	4	3	2	1
17. Help your students to develop as individuals. تساعدن طلابك على التطور الذاتي .	4	3	2	1
18. Teach students to set their own goals in learning. تعينين طلابك على وضع اهدافهن الخاصة من تعلم اللغة الانجليزية.	4	3	2	1
19. You play the dominant role in your language classroom. تمثلين الدور المهيادي داخل الصف.	4	3	2	1
20. Help your students to have an effective role in their learning. تساعدن طلابك على ان يكون لهن دور فعال في تعلمهن.	4	3	2	1
21. Your students are allowed to express their ideas and feelings. تسمحين لطلابك بالتعبير عن ارائهن واحاسيسهن داخل الصف.	4	3	2	1
22. You encourage students to interact with you and with their peers. تشجعين طلابك على مشاركتي ومشاركات فريقتهن داخل الصف.	4	3	2	1

Appendix 6
(student's questionnaire)

Students' questionnaire

استبيان الطالبات

How often does the English teacher implement the following in a language classroom? Respond by circling the appropriate number that expresses your opinion. Give one answer only to each statement.

الى اي مدى تمارس معلمة اللغة الانجليزية الانشطة التالية داخل الصف الدراسي. الرجاء القراءة بتأني ووضع دائرة حول الرقم الذي يعبر عن رأيك. اعطي اجابة واحدة فقط لكل فقرة.

	Very often دائما	Quite often كثيرا	Hardly ever قليلًا	Never نادرا
1. The teacher is clear and comprehensible in lessons. المعلمة تشرح الدروس بطريقة واضحة ممكنة للفهم والادراك.	4	3	2	1
2. The teacher helps me to feel confident in my ability to learn. المعلمة تساعدني على الشعور بالثقة بمقدرتي على التعلم.	4	3	2	1
3. The teacher helps me to set challenges for myself and to develop strategies to meet those challenges. المعلمة تساعدني على وضع تحديات لنفسي ولقاء اساليب لمواجهة تلك التحديات.	4	3	2	1
4. The teacher teaches me the strategies I need to learn effectively. المعلمة تعلمني الاساليب التي احتاج اليها للتعلم بشكل افضل.	4	3	2	1
5. Students are encouraged to work in pairs or groups in the classroom. المعلمة تشجعني على العمل بشكل زوجي او جماعي داخل الصف.	4	3	2	1
6. The teacher understands my learning needs. المعلمة تفهم احتياجاتي التعليمية.	4	3	2	1
7. The teacher motivates me to learn English. المعلمة ترفع من مستوى حماسي لتعلم اللغة الانجليزية.	4	3	2	1
8. The teacher helps me to monitor my own development المعلمة تساعدني على ملاحظة تقدمي الدراسي.	4	3	2	1
9. The teacher explains to me how carrying out learning activities will help me in the future. المعلمة تشرح لي كيف ان اتجاز الانشطة الدراسية ممكن ان يساعدني مستقبلا.	4	3	2	1
10. The teacher helps me to realize that if I keep on trying I will find a solution to the problem. المعلمة تساعدني على ادراك ان تكرار المحاولات لحل مشكلة ما سوف يؤدي في النهاية الى حلها.	4	3	2	1
11. The teacher makes me feel that I belong to the classroom community. المعلمة تشعرني بالانتماء للصف الدراسي.	4	3	2	1

12. When given an exercise in class I am given opportunity to use the language freely. عندما تعطيني المعلمة تمرين داخل الصف تمنحني فرصة كافية لاستعمال اللغة بحرية.	4	3	2	1
13. The teacher insists on mastering the grammatical rules to be able to use the language correctly. المعلمة تصر على اجادة قواعد اللغة الانجليزية لكي تتمكن من استعمال اللغة بشكل صحيح.	4	3	2	1
14. The teacher provides constructive feedback to students. المعلمة تقدم انتقادات بنائة للطالبات.	4	3	2	1
15. If I have difficulties with my work or study I ask my teacher for help. اذا قبلتني مشكلة دراسية لاجاء للمعلمة للمساعدة.	4	3	2	1
16. The teacher teaches me how to check my own progress. المعلمة تعلمني كيف اتابع تقدمي الدراسي.	4	3	2	1
17. The teacher helps me to develop as an individual. المعلمة تعينني على التطور الذاتي.	4	3	2	1
18. The teacher teaches me how to set my own goals in learning. المعلمة تعلمني كيف احدد اهدافي الخاصة من التعليم.	4	3	2	1
19. The teacher plays a dominant role in the language classroom. المعلمة تمثل الدور السويدي اثناء الدرس.	4	3	2	1
20. The teacher encourages me to have an effective role in my learning. المعلمة تشجعني على ان يكون لي دور فعال في تعلمي.	4	3	2	1
21. I am encouraged to express my ideas and feelings in the classroom. المعلمة تشجعني على التعبير عن ارائي واحاسيسي داخل الصف.	4	3	2	1
22. The teacher encourages me to interact with her and my peers. المعلمة تشجعني على المشاركة معها ومع لقرائي.	4	3	2	1

Appendix 7
(field diary)

School A 28/03/06

1. The whole atmosphere at the school is the same as it was 20 years ago. The classes layout are the same. Students seated in rows in crowded classrooms. Teachers give orders and yell a lot. I had the same discomfort feeling that I used to have when coming school. I was asked to wait in the teachers' lounge before I was allowed to distribute my questionnaires to students and teachers. As I was waiting I had the opportunity to speak to some the teachers of other subjects and teachers of the foreign language. I asked questions related to the study.

2. Q How do you teach the foreign language?

Teachers said that they do not have a clear approach or method. They said they follow the Teachers' Book. I asked what if you do not find the answer in the Teachers' Book, they said we use our beliefs and values to guide our teaching practices.

3. Q Can you tell me what theory or method you apply to your way of teaching?

All have indicated that they do not follow a certain theory or method. So I asked do you know what theory or method the Teachers' Book follow. One teacher said that it concentrates on teaching grammar rules and repetition the others said they did not know.

4. Q Can you explain to me what is the Audio-lingual method, communicative method and the grammatical method?

Teachers were not familiar with these methods. One teacher thought that the method they use in their classes is the grammatical method, she said that the Teachers' Book emphasis's the teaching of grammatical rules.

5. Q What do you know about language teaching theories?

Teachers said we do not know much about these theories. One teacher said that she know about teaching theories but not language teaching theories and she was not sure if they were the same.

6. Q What kind of relationship do you have with your students?

Teachers said it is a teacher/student relationship. I asked them to elaborate they said teachers in control and students are supposed to listen and obey. We do not expect students to complain or object.

7. Q Do you help your students to develop confidence in their ability, set their own goals, challenges and help them to develop as individuals?

Teachers seem to think that it is not their job to do any of that and that it is the responsibility of the textbooks and students parents. They said their job is to give the lessons help them to pass their exams. They added that families have strong ideas on right and wrong and a sense of obligation we encourage students to obey their parents.

8. Q Do you encourage pair or group work in your classes?

Teachers said no. they said that there is no time during class time and it might cause disturbances and we could lose control of the class. Losing control of a classroom puts teacher under questioning and might affect their yearly grading. Yearly grading determines how much allowance a teacher is entitled to per year. For example, a grading of “poor” for three years in a row means no allowance.

9. Q Do you explain to the students the importance of carrying out a certain task and that if they keep trying they will reach a solution?

We encourage them to work hard to pass the exams. We do not try to explain anything that is not related to the text book because it could open a door for negotiation with the students which will effect the classes time and give students a chance to disrespectful.

10. Q Do you help your student to develop strategies to help them in studying English?

No, it is the responsibility of the textbooks.

11. Q Do you attend any courses to improve your teaching skills?

No, we do not have such courses. We would like to be able to attend a course that is related to our teaching needs.

12. Impression

Teachers play the dominant role in the classroom.

Teachers do not have good knowledge on the different methods to teaching a foreign language.

Teachers are not keen to help students to develop as individuals.

General atmosphere gives one the impression that the teacher is dominant and scary in every way.

13. Students

When meeting with the students at first they were very quiet. As I explained who I am, what I am doing and the importance of their participation they started to feel at ease. I asked them about their experience with learning English. Students said that they did not like studying English. They have no confidence in using the language and wish it would be removed from the curriculum or to have a better teacher. Some said that their teacher does not like it if we ask questions. Others said teachers are scary and they could make us look bad in front of our peers.

I did not have much time with the student as I would have liked to. From my brief encounter with the students I got the impression that students are not enthusiastic to learn English and they blame the teacher. Students seem to have no confidence to use the foreign language. Most students were not comfortable with me there but they seemed to agree with what the others were saying.

School B 08/04/06

14. The atmosphere is the same as in the previous school.

Again I was asked to wait in the teacher lounge. There was only an art teacher and she was not very talkative. It was only at the morning break that I had the chance to speak to the foreign language teacher.

15. Q Do you follow a certain theory or method in teaching English?

They said they follow the Teachers Book. I asked what method the Teachers Book follow they said that it gives importance to grammatical rules. They also did not know much about foreign language teaching theories or the different methods. One teacher said that she wishes she could attend courses with workshops that show how to teach according to the different theories and methods that are related to foreign language teaching.

16. Q So foreign language teaching theories were not part of your education?

Only one teacher said that it was part of her education. She added that it was only on teaching theories with no workshops. Teachers said that they were not even introduced to the textbooks until they were actually teaching the foreign language.

17. Q Do you know what method you follow to teaching the foreign language?

They said they follow the Teachers Book.

18. Q Do you help your students to develop confidence, monitor their own changes and set their own goals?

Teachers said that the time allowed per class does not give room for such. And even if students do good we encourage them but at the same time we tell them that they need to work harder and not to take too much pride in their work because teachers think that if they become over confident they might end up doing bad in their exams. We encourage them to follow their parents' advices.

19. Q Do you train your students in the strategies they need to improve their ability to study English?

We encourage them to work hard. Strategy training is the responsibility of the textbooks not teachers.

20. Q Do you explain to the students the importance of carrying out a certain task?

No, we should not have because students must do what their told without us given reasons. This could effect our status.

21. Q Do you encourage pair and group work?

No, because we have no time and it could cause us to lose control of the class.

22. Q What would you change if you can?

They said the teaching methods. The current methods are trying to create language masters...they laugh and said the students can not even put one sentence together, so they memorize as much as they can to pass the exams. We would have training course on a regular bases for teachers to improve their teaching skills.

23. Impressions

Teachers at this school were quite enthusiastic to answer my questions.

Teachers depend on the Teachers Book.

Teachers have little knowledge on foreign language teaching and learning theories.

Teachers do not encourage pair or group work.

24. Students

I was only able to have a few minutes with the students. Students did not like studying English. They said we memorise to pass the exams. Teachers do not encourage us to use the language in class it is only the A students that interact with the teacher, when the teacher asks a question they answer, especially when the principal attends the class. Again only a few of the students answered my questions but the whole class seemed to agree. We are always asked to behave and not to waste the classes time.

School C 12/04/06

25. Same atmosphere as in the previous schools, except this time it was the principal who was yelling at a classroom and unfortunately she was using improper language.

Here I had the opportunity to distribute the questionnaires first thing. The English teacher took me to each classroom and she was kind enough to leave when I asked her and explained why I needed to be alone with the students. The students thought I was journalist. I explained to them who I am, what I am doing, the importance of their participation and that it was confidential. They asked if I could change their English teacher. So I explained the effect my study with other studies might have on improving the way of teaching in our schools.

They said that they were not happy with the English teacher, she shouts a lot. I asked if they work in pairs and groups they said no. We listen to the lesson answer questions then we memorise to pass the exams. When I asked would you like to be a foreign language teacher the majority said “no”. One girl said I would never even use English outside the classroom. She said that she tried to speak English in class she made mistakes and the teacher embarrassed her in front of her friends. Other students said we try to get good grades in English so we can study science.

26. Teachers

The English teacher took me to the teachers lounge where I met the other English teachers.

27. Q What is the underlying theories for the methods applied in teaching English in your school?

Teacher did not reply immediately. One said we teach grammar, we ask the students to write essays and do comprehension. Another said we follow the Teachers Book.

28. Q Can you tell me the difference between the audio-lingual method and the communicative methods?

Teachers asked what do you mean. I explained that these are methods of teaching a foreign language. Teachers said we studied teaching methods at the university but they were not related to language teaching. Two teachers said that did not study teaching methods.

29. Q Do you notice the difference between your students?

Teachers said yes the A student is not like the D student and the well behaved student is not like the badly behaved student.

30. Q Do you explain the instruction for a task?

Teachers said we do not need to. The textbook explains everything.

31. Q Do you explain the importance of carrying out a task?

No, it is the responsibility of the textbooks.

32. Q Do you train your students in the strategy they need to improve their ability to study English?

No, we have no time and it is for the textbooks to train them.

33. Q Do you encourage students to work in pairs and groups?

No, because we do not have time and the classes are crowded.

34. Q Can you give me a brief description on your everyday teaching?

We revise in the first ten minutes then give the lesson ask if they understand last we give them their homework.

35. Impressions

Teachers seem to resent any hint for change.

Teacher seem to be proud with their teaching.

Teachers lack in knowledge on foreign language teaching and learning theories.

School D 22/04/06

36. The atmosphere is the same as the previous schools.

I was shown to the teachers lounge, it was empty. I waited until the morning break where I met the English teachers, one of the teachers was absent.

37. Q Were foreign language teaching and learning theories part of your education?

Teachers said yes. So I asked if they remembered any of the theories or methods, they said no. Was it related to foreign language teaching? No, it was on teaching theories in general.

38. Q What is the audio-lingual method?

None of the teachers knew.

39. Q Do you help your students to develop confidence and set their own goals?

They agreed on helping students to develop confidence to use the foreign language. As for setting goals they agreed that it was the responsibility of the parents and that they encourage them to listen to their parents.

40. Q Can you describe the type of relationship you have with your students.

Teachers stressed that the students must know their place they must not argue and do what they are told. They added we represent their parents at school.

41. Q Do students have chance to enteract in class?

They said yes if they know the answer to the questions we ask. They added most students do not.

42. Q D you train your students in strategies they need to improve their ability to study better?

No, it is for the textbooks.

43. Q Do you explain to the students the importance of doing a certain task?

No, and we should not have to. They must do what they are told.

44. Q Do you encourage students to work in pairs and groups?

No, classes are too crowded and no time.

45. Q Do you think you would benefit from teaching training courses?

Yes, if they are related to foreign language teaching.

46. Impressions

Teachers seem to use the behaviourist approach to teaching.

Teachers do not encourage teacher/student interaction.

Teachers lack in knowledge on foreign language teaching and learning theories.

Teachers do not encourage pair and group work.

47. Students

Students did not have much to say. One student asked if it was possible to remove, she named one of the English teachers. They also said that they do not like to study English and that they memorise to pass the exams. The students in this school brought to my attention that the students who do well have private lessons outside school. All students agreed.

School E 29/04/06

48. I waited 20 minutes until I was allowed to enter this school. The whole atmosphere is similar to the previous schools.

Again I waited in the teachers lounge. I met all the English teachers.

49. Q Do you make your instructions clear when you give a task?

Teachers said that they do not need to do that because the textbooks explain fully what the students need to know.

50. Q Do you help your students to develop confidence, set their own goals and develop as individuals?

We encourage students to work hard and anything else is the responsibility of their parents and textbooks. Our job is to help students to pass the exams.

51. Q Do you think you might benefit from training courses?

Two of the teachers said no, others said yes. They agreed on the methods used in schools are traditional and do need updating.

52. Q Do you train your student in strategies that would help them to study better?

No, it is the responsibility of the textbooks.

53. Q Do you encourage pair or group work?

No, no time.

54. Q Do you follow a certain method to teaching the foreign language?

We follow the instructions in the Teachers Book.

55. Impressions

Teachers do not know much about foreign language teaching and learning theories. Teacher/student relationship is formal, no meaningful interaction. Teachers are not keen to change.

56. Students

Again students are not happy with studying English. I asked if they have private lessons outside school, some said yes others said that their parents can not afford it.

they also expressed that the teachers do not teach well. They said that the teacher always tells them not to waste the class time and to work hard to pass the exams.

School F 06/05/06

57. Same atmosphere as the previous schools.

I waited in the teachers lounge. Met the teachers at the morning break.

58. Q Can you tell me how do you teach the foreign language?

Teachers said that they follow the instructions in the Teachers Book. I asked what was the underlying theories for the instructions in the Teachers Book, they did not know. They added that they teach grammar.

59. Q Do you encourage the students to work in pairs and groups?

Teachers said no. We have no time, and it could cause us to lose control of the class.

60. Q Do you help your students to develop confidence, set goals and develop as individuals?

Teachers seem to be not interested in doing any. They said our job is to give lessons to help them pass the exams anything else is the responsibility of the parents.

61. Q Do you explain to your students how their learning will help them in the future?

Teachers said no because it is clear if you work hard you succeed. It is their parents responsibility.

62. Q Do you train your students in the strategies the need to do better?

No, we have no time and it is for the textbooks.

63. Q Do you appreciate the differences among your students?

Of course the A student is not like the D students and the well behaved is not like the badly behaved students.

64. Impressions

Teachers follow a traditional way of teaching.

Teachers are rough and tough with students.

Teachers do not want to do extra work that might benefit the students.

Teacher did not seem to be interested in what I was saying.

Teachers lack in knowledge on foreign language teaching and learning theories.

65. Students

Students situation is the same as it was in the other schools. Students are enthusiastic to studying English and are not comfortable with the English teacher.

School G 09/05/06

66. Atmosphere is similar to the previous schools.

I waited in the teachers lounge. Met the teacher at the morning break.

67. Q Can you explain to me the underlying theories for the methods used in your school.

Teachers were not sure. One teacher said that she thinks it depends on grammar teaching. For students to do well they need to master these grammatical rules to pass the exams.

68. Q What is the audio-lingual method?

None of the teachers knew. When I asked about their education they said it did not include theories on foreign language teaching, it was on teaching theories in general.

69. Q Do you help your students to be confident, set goals and develop as individuals?

Teachers think that confident students are arrogant. We encourage students to work hard. Goal setting and development it is for their parents.

70. Q Do you bother to make your instructions clear when you give a task?

We do not have time. It is for the students to read the textbooks.

71. Q Do you train your students in strategies they need to do better?

No, it is for the textbooks.

72. Q Do you encourage students to work in pairs and groups?

No, because we do not have time and it may cause us to lose control of the class.

73. Q Do you encourage students to monitor their own changes and development?

Teachers monitor students changes and development. Students monitoring their own changes could under mine us as teachers.

74. Q Do you think you need training courses that will help you improve your teaching skills?

Yes.

75. Impressions

Teachers give lessons and tasks to students, that's as far as the teacher/student relationship goes.

Teachers do not do research to improve their teaching.

Methods used are traditional.

Teachers lack on foreign language teaching and learning theories.

76. Students

Students are not enthusiastic to study English. They fear the English teacher. They have little chance to use the language in class.

School H 13/05/06

77. Atmosphere is the same.

I waited in the teachers lounge. Met the teachers in the morning break.

78. Q Can you tell me how do you teach English and if you follow a certain method or theory?

We give the lesson then ask if they have questions then give them their homework. As for methods and theories they agreed on that they follow the Teachers Book instructions.

79. Q Do you know the audio-lingual method?

No answer. I felt that they were thinking that I was trying to embarrass them, so I changed the question.

80. Q Do you help your students to develop and set their own goals?

We only try to help them pass their exams. Teachers think that the relationship between students and teachers should be strict. Teachers have complete control and students to do what they are told. Goal setting and development is for the parents. Students when confident can be difficult and disrespectful.

81. Q Do you encourage group work?

No.

82. Q Do you notice the differences among your students?

Yes, some are well behaved and others are not. They added, there is only a few of the students that are good at studying English.

83. Q Do you train your students in the strategies they need to do better in English?

No, even if we wanted to we would not know how to.

84. Q Do you explain to the students the importance of doing a task?

No, this could undermine us if we explain everything.

85. Q Do you attend regular courses to update and improve you teaching skills?

No, we do not have access to such courses.

86. Impressions

Teacher have little knowledge on theories and methods related to foreign language teaching.

Teachers follow the Teachers Book.

Teachers received little training to teach the foreign language.

Teachers seem to think the individual differences lies in being an A student or an D student and a well behaved or not so well behaved student.

Teachers have no in-service.

87. Students

Students find it difficult to study English. They have little chance to practice English.

They have little faith in the English teacher.

School I 20/05/06

88. Atmosphere is the same as previous schools.

I waited in the teachers lounge. Met the teachers at midmorning break.

89. Q Can you name the method you use in teaching English?

We do not follow a specific method. I asked how do you teach you subject? We follow the Teachers Book and our experiences and the experiences of the older teachers.

90. Q What do you know about foreign language teaching and learning theories?

We know about teaching theories in general but not in relation to FLT. They added even if we had such knowledge we are not allowed to follow our way of teaching. We strictly have to follow the Teachers Book. They also added that the methods used in the teachers book are poor it does not teach students to use the language it teaches them to master the grammatical rules.

91. Q Do you foster in your students confidence, goal setting and to develop as individuals?

We try but our priority is to help students pass their exams.

92. Q When you give a task do you make your instructions clear?

Yes. If we have time. But students are responsible to read and understand the textbooks.

93. Q Do you explain why they need to carryout certain activities?

We do not need to because it is expected from students to do what they are told. And this could effect our credibility when we have to explain every thing we do and why we do it.

94. Q Do you train you students in the strategies they need to do better?

No.

95. Q Do students work in pairs and groups?

No, we have no time and it might cause us to lose control of the class.

96. Q Do you attend in-service courses?

No. I asked why, they said we do not have in-service courses. We would like to improve our teaching skills.

97. Q What would you change if you had the chance?

We would update the teaching methods. We would change the exams and give more time to each class.

98. Impressions

Teachers in this school seem to realize what they want and need.

Teacher are more pleasant in their interaction with me.

Teachers want change for the sake of the students.

99. Students

They do not like studying English. They have no chance to practice the language.

They like their foreign language teacher but they do not interact with the teacher in class, only when she asks a question.

School J 23/05/06

100. Atmosphere is the same as the previous schools. Met the teachers at midmorning break.

101. Q Do theories of foreign language learning and teaching form your way of teaching?

Yes. I asked can you tell me what theory or method you follow. They agreed that they follow the instructions outlined in the Teachers Book.

102. Q Can you tell me what is the audio-lingual method?

Teacher did not know.

103. Q Do you give instructions when you give a task?

No because all the tasks we give are in the textbook, students have to only read it.

104. Q Do you allow students to work in pairs and groups?

No, because we have no time and it may cause us to lose control of the class room.

105. Q Do you foster in your students confidence, goal setting and to develop as individuals?

We encourage them to work hard to pass the exams. As for goal setting and developing it is the parents job.

106. Q Do you train your students in the strategies they need to do better?

No, it is for the textbooks to do it.

107. Q Do you notice the differences in your students?

Of course, there are the good students and the bad students. Good students are the A students and are well behaved.

108. Impressions

Teachers seem to be dominant in relationship with the students. Teachers have little knowledge on foreign language teaching and learning theories.

109. Students

They have difficulties when trying to study English. They memorise most of the curriculum to pass the exams. They think it is the teachers fault that they are having difficulties.

School K 27/05/06

110. Atmosphere similar to the previous schools.

I waited in the teachers lounge, met with the teachers at midmorning break.

111. Q What approach or name of method do you use in teaching English?

Teachers seemed to be not sure, they agreed that they follow the instructions in the Teacher Book.

112. Q Do you know the audio-lingual method?

No.

113. Q Do you think you have enough knowledge on foreign language teaching and learning theories?

No, one teacher said that she had some courses related to teaching theories in her pre-service but it was not related to foreign language teaching and learning theories.

114. Q Do you do most of the talking in class?

Yes. Students do not have a chance to use the language in class because of the time.

115. Q Do you explain to your students the importance of do a task?

No, it is the responsibility of the textbooks.

116. Q Do you encourage students to work in pairs and groups?

No, we have little time. One teacher said I really would like to know how.

117. Q Do you help your students to develop their confidence and do you notice the difference between them?

Yes, we encourage them to work hard and if they do not they will fail. We treat the A student better and encourage the D student to work harder.

118. Q What do you teach?

Grammar and repetition of some passages, to help the students to pass exams.

119. Impressions

Teachers insist on mastering grammar rules.

Teachers do not realize individual differences.

Teachers know little on foreign language teaching and learning theories.

120. Students

Same as in the other schools.

School L 30/05/06

121. Atmosphere is the same.

I waited in the teachers lounge, met the teachers at midmorning break.

122. Q Have you heard of foreign language teaching and learning theories?

Yes/no we know teaching theories in general not in relation to foreign language teaching.

123. Q Do you follow a certain method?

We follow the methods designed in the Teachers Book.

124. Q Do you know what method the Teachers Book follow?

It teaches grammar.

125. Q Do you encourage students to work in pairs and groups?

No, no time.

126. Q Do you explain the importance of doing a task?

No, it should be should be clear to them.

127. Q Do you help your students to develop as individuals?

They looked puzzled at first, then they said we help them to do their best to pass the exams.

128. Q Do you help your students to develop confidence in their learning?

We encourage them to work hard. A confident student is an arrogant student and disrespectful to their teachers.

129. Q What do you think of the method used in the Teachers Book?

Teachers said that it was unproductive. It does not help the students to use the language and the lessons take so much time to get through.

130. Q Do you think you would benefit from training courses for teachers of a foreign language?

Yes.

131. Impressions

Teachers only form of interaction with the students is given lessons and pushing them to work hard to pass the exams.

Teachers helping students develop as individuals is strange to the Saudi society. Individual differences to teachers is being an A student or a D student and a well behaved and a badly behaved.

An confidence on the students part may make the student arrogant. Students are expected to treat the teachers with total abidance and respect.

132. Students

Similar to the students in the previous schools.

School M 03/06/06

133. Atmosphere is the same.

I waited in the teachers lounge, met the teachers at midmorning break.

134. Q Do you follow your own way of teaching?

No, we follow the Teachers Book it outlines how and what to teach.

135. Q What method does it follow?

No specific name was given. They said it gives vocabulary to memorise and grammar rules.

136. Q Do you know the audio-lingual method?

No.

137. Q Do you know enough about foreign language teaching and learning theories?

No, we were only taught the English language to be able to teach it.

138. Q Do you encourage students to monitor their own development and to set their own goals?

Yes, we tell them to judge their own progress on how well they do in the exams. Goal setting is for the parents we are not allowed to influence their ideas because we might get questioned for putting ideas in their heads by the parents.

139. Q Do you explain to your students the importance of doing a task?

No. explaining why a teacher does this and that can under mine their credibility and give students a chance to negotiate and they might become disrespectful.

140. Q Do you train your students in the strategies they need to do better in English?

No, it is the responsibility of the textbooks not the teachers.

141. Q Do you encourage pair and group work?

No, the syllabus does not make room for it, no time.

142. Q Do you prefer a confident student?

Only in relation to their progress in their study they are better than the others, but most of them are arrogant and think that they have the right to misbehave because of

their confidence. Such students feel that they do not need us and that they are allowed to pick on our mistakes. We prefer a D student who is well behaved.

145. Q Do you attend courses for developing your teaching skills?

No, we do not have such courses.

146. Impressions

Teachers do not foster confidence in their students.

Teachers prefer to criticize.

Teachers do not expect or accept any criticism from the students.

Teachers lack knowledge on foreign language teaching and learning theories.

147. Students

Same as students in the previous schools.

School N 10/06/06

148. Atmosphere is the same.

I waited in the teachers lounge, met the teachers at midmorning break.

149. Q Do you make your instructions clear when you give a task?

Not always because the textbook does that.

150. Q Do you encourage students to work in pairs and groups?

No, we have little time and this may cause us to lose control of the class.

151. Q Do you encourage students to feel confident, monitor their own changes and to develop as individuals?

We help them to work hard and pass the exams. They can monitor their own changes from their results on the exams.

152. Q Do you explain to the students why they are doing a task?

No.

153. Q Do you train your students in the strategies they need to do better?

No, it is for the textbooks to do that.

154. Q Do you know the audio-lingual, communicative and grammar methods?

No. they thought that the grammar method concentrates on grammatical rules.

155. Q Do you think that the methods used in the schools help students?

No. it teaches them to master the grammar. That is why even the students who are good in their writing can not speak the language well.

156. Q So would you like it to change?

Yes.

157. Q Do you think the teachers need to change?

Yes, they need training. Teachers way of teaching and their personalities is the same as when we were students. Some know what they are doing but most do not know any other way.

158. Q Do you have regular in-service?

No.

159. Impressions

Teachers here have a better understanding of their situation.

Teachers know their weaknesses and the weaknesses of the current methods used in schools.

The current pre-service and in-service does not prepare teacher to help students to develop as individuals.

Teachers want change.

Teachers have little knowledge on foreign language teaching and learning theories.

160. Students

Similar to the other schools.

Appendix 8
***(English language program at King Saud
University)***

1. Department Requirement

www.ksu.edu.sa/sites/colleges/english_program/document/level%200repdf (course description).

<u>Course Title</u>	<u>Hours</u>
Basic Language skills	3
Listening and Speaking	2
Reading Comprehension (1)	2
Composition (1)	3
Reading Comprehension (2)	3
Remedial Grammar	3
Translation (English/Arabic)	2
Vocabulary Building (1)	2
Listening and Speaking (2)	2
Introduction to Literary forms	3
Translation (1)	2
Composition (2)	2
Appreciating Drama	2
The Rise of the Novel	3
Essay Writing	2
Linguistics (1)	3
Linguistics (2)	2
Applied Linguistics	3

Pronunciation Skills	2
Language Acquisition	3
Romantic Poetry	3
Shakespeare (1)	3
19 th Century Novel	3
Criticism (1)	3
Introduction to American Literature	3
Techniques of Language Teaching	3
Language and Society	3
Translation (2)	2
Speech	2
Advanced Writing	3
Language Evaluation	2
History of the English Language	2
English Phonology	2
English Morphology and Syntax	3
Transformational Grammar	3
Linguistics (3)	2
Discourse Analysis	3
Victorian Poetry	3

Modern Poetry	3
Modern Drama	3
British Modern Novel	3
Criticism (2)	2

In this program, students (male/female) study in all 128 credit hours divided over 8 levels, including the compulsory courses in Arabic and Islamic studies (18 hrs).

Appendix 9
(all tables related to the study)

Teachers Questionnaire

Teacher's belief and knowledge

Teaching and learning theories

Table 1- Question 1: Language teachers have a reasonable knowledge on learning and teaching theories.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	1	1.6
Strongly disagree	2	3.3
Disagree	28	45.9
Agree	26	42.6
Strongly agree	4	6.6
Total	61	100.0

Table 2- Question 2: Learning and teaching theories able me as a language teacher to choose the right method for my language classroom.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	1	1.6
Strongly disagree	1	1.6
Disagree	17	27.9
Agree	29	47.5
Strongly agree	13	21.3
Total	61	100.0

Table 3- Question 3: I am a constructive teacher.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	1	1.6
	Disagree	2	3.3
	Agree	26	42.6
	Strongly agree	32	52.5
	Total	61	100.0

Table 4- Question 4: Learning and teaching theories were not part of my education.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	8	13.1
	Disagree	19	31.1
	Agree	21	34.4
	Strongly agree	13	21.3
	Total	61	100.0

Table 5- Question 5: I gained knowledge on learning and teaching theories through my own research.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	0	1	1.6
	Strongly disagree	4	6.6
	Disagree	9	14.8
	Agree	26	42.6
	Strongly agree	21	34.4
	Total	61	100.0

Table 6- Question 6: My classroom is teacher centered.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	2	3.3
Disagree	23	37.7
Agree	26	42.6
Strongly agree	10	16.4
Total	61	100.0

Table 7- Question 7: I think learning and teaching theories would form a base for improving my teaching ability.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	1	1.6
Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	11	18.0
Agree	32	52.5
Strongly agree	17	27.9
Total	61	100.0

Table 8- Question 8: My classroom is student centered.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	1	1.6
Strongly disagree	10	16.4
Disagree	28	45.9
Agree	17	27.9
Strongly agree	5	8.2
Total	61	100.0

Table 9- Question 9: Students must have an effective role in their learning.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	0	0.0
	Disagree	0	0.0
	Agree	16	26.2
	Strongly agree	45	73.8
	Total	61	100.0

Table 10- Question 10: Introducing pair and group work in classrooms will encourage personal involvement and interaction.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	2	3.3
	Disagree	2	3.3
	Agree	14	23.0
	Strongly agree	43	70.5
	Total	61	100.0

Table 11- Question 11: Students must be taught to set their own goals in learning.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	0	1	1.6
	Strongly disagree	0	0.0
	Disagree	1	1.6
	Agree	12	19.7
	Strongly agree	47	77.0
	Total	61	100.0

Table 12- Question 12: Teachers play an important role in students development as individuals.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	1	1.6
Agree	27	44.3
Strongly agree	33	54.1
Total	61	100.0

Table 13- Question 13: Helping students to monitor changes in themselves improves their ability to learn effectively.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	2	3.3
Agree	31	50.8
Strongly agree	28	45.9
Total	61	100.0

Table 14- Question 14: It is beneficial to explain to the students how carrying out a learning activity will help them in the future.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	1	1.6
Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	1	1.6
Agree	22	36.1
Strongly agree	37	60.7
Total	61	100.0

Methods

Table 15- Question 15: There are several methods to teaching a foreign language.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	1	1.6
Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	1	1.6
Agree	16	26.2
Strongly agree	43	70.5
Total	61	100.0

Table 16- Question 16: I am familiar with the term audio-lingual method.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	18	29.5
Agree	33	54.1
Strongly agree	10	16.4
Total	61	100.0

Table 17- Question 17: The audio-lingual method is quite effective for teaching English as a foreign language.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	2	3.3
Strongly disagree	1	1.6
Disagree	3	4.9
Agree	23	37.7
Strongly agree	32	52.5
Total	61	100.0

Table 18- Question 18: Students must master the grammatical rules to be able to use the language correctly.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	5	8.2
Agree	21	34.4
Strongly agree	35	57.4
Total	61	100.0

Table 19- Question 19: Teachers must play the dominant role in their language learning classroom.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	8	13.1
Disagree	20	32.8
Agree	23	37.7
Strongly agree	10	16.4
Total	61	100.0

Table 20- Question 20: In the language classroom there should be little interaction between teachers and students and between students and their peers.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	36	59.0
Disagree	22	36.1
Agree	0	0.0
Strongly agree	3	4.9
Total	61	100.0

Table 21- Question 21: I am familiar with the term communicative method.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	2	3.3
Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	22	36.1
Agree	21	34.4
Strongly agree	16	26.2
Total	61	100.0

Table 22- Question 22: The communicative method helps students to communicate effectively inside and outside the classroom.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	4	6.6
Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	3	4.9
Agree	25	41.0
Strongly agree	29	47.5
Total	61	100.0

Table 23- Question 23: Teachers must search for an effective method to teaching English as a foreign language.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	0	0.0
Agree	17	27.9
Strongly agree	44	72.1
Total	61	100.0

Table 24- Question 24: I use the internet to help me gain knowledge on the different methods used to teaching a foreign language.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	3	4.9
Disagree	12	19.7
Agree	18	29.5
Strongly agree	28	45.9
Total	61	100.0

Table 25- Question 25: Students have very few opportunities to use the target language in the classroom.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	7	11.5
Disagree	7	11.5
Agree	21	34.4
Strongly agree	26	42.6
Total	61	100.0

Table 26- Question 26: Students are allowed to express their ideas, feelings and to speak or act freely and not only in response to immediate stimuli from the teacher.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	4	6.6
Strongly disagree	1	1.6
Disagree	8	13.1
Agree	31	50.8
Strongly agree	17	27.9
Total	61	100.0

Table 27- Question 27: Students should be given opportunities to interact in class in pairs and small groups.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	4	6.6
Agree	21	34.4
Strongly agree	36	59.0
Total	61	100.0

Table 28- Question 28: Lesson instructions must be comprehensible to students.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	0	0.0
Agree	7	11.5
Strongly agree	54	88.5
Total	61	100.0

Table 29- Question 29: Students must be taught to work co-operatively.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	0	0.0
Agree	15	24.6
Strongly agree	46	75.4
Total	61	100.0

Learning variables

Table 30- Question 30: Realising and understanding the importance of the different variables between students helps in improving the quality of teaching.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	0	0.0
	Disagree	0	0.0
	Agree	14	23.0
	Strongly agree	47	77.0
	Total	61	100.0

Table 31- Question 31: Teaching students the strategies they need to learn effectively will help develop a feeling of confidence in their ability to learn.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	0	0.0
	Disagree	0	0.0
	Agree	19	31.1
	Strongly agree	42	68.9
	Total	61	100.0

Table 32- Question 32: Helping students to set challenges for themselves will help in developing strategies to meet those challenges.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	1	1.6
Agree	28	45.9
Strongly agree	32	52.5
Total	61	100.0

Table 33- Question 33: The different variables between students has a strong effect on their development in learning a foreign language.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	1	1.6
Strongly disagree	3	4.9
Disagree	4	6.6
Agree	29	47.5
Strongly agree	24	39.3
Total	61	100.0

Table 34- Question 34: Keeping motivation alive helps students to learn smoothly.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Disagree	0	0.0
Agree	17	27.9
Strongly agree	44	72.1
Total	61	100.0

Effectiveness of methods

Table 35- Question 35: My education has not qualified me enough to teach English as a foreign language.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	17	27.9
Disagree	20	32.8
Agree	18	29.5
Strongly agree	6	9.8
Total	61	100.0

Table 36- Question 36: The Teachers' Book for English teaching limits my ability to teach a foreign language.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	7	11.5
Disagree	19	31.1
Agree	23	37.7
Strongly agree	12	19.7
Total	61	100.0

Table 37- Question 37: I need to attend a training course in order to improve my skills in using different strategies and new teaching methods to teaching a foreign language.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	6	9.8
Disagree	12	19.7
Agree	18	29.5
Strongly agree	25	41.0
Total	61	100.0

Table 38- Question 38: Teachers should be free to choose the best method for their language classroom.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	1	1.6
Disagree	0	0.0
Agree	16	26.2
Strongly agree	44	72.1
Total	61	100.0

Table 39- Question 39: Teaching methods adopted at school are adequate.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	19	31.1
Disagree	27	44.3
Agree	11	18.0
Strongly agree	4	6.6
Total	61	100.0

Table 40- Question 40: The present English instruction is fulfilling its objectives.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	14	23.0
Disagree	22	36.1
Agree	21	34.4
Strongly agree	4	6.6
Total	61	100.0

Table 41- Question 41: Teaching practiced in Saudi schools is intended to teach students language structure rather than language use.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	9	14.8
Disagree	3	4.9
Agree	25	41.0
Strongly agree	24	39.3
Total	61	100.0

Table 42- Question 42: The current method of teaching needs to be changed to maximize understanding and participation on the part of the student.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	5	8.2
	Disagree	2	3.3
	Agree	26	42.6
	Strongly agree	28	45.9
	Total	61	100.0

Teachers practice

Table 43- Practice 1: Make your instructions clear when you give a lesson to your students.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Never	0	0.0
	Hardly ever	0	0.0
	Quite often	5	8.2
	Very often	56	91.8
	Total	61	100.0

Table 44- Practice 2: Help students to develop a feeling of confidence in their ability to learn.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Never	0	0.0
	Hardly ever	0	0.0
	Quite often	16	26.2
	Very often	45	73.8
	Total	61	100.0

Table 45- Practice 3: Help students to set challenges for themselves and to develop strategies to meet those challenges.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	2	3.3
Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	6	9.8
Quite often	33	54.1
Very often	20	32.8
Total	61	100.0

Table 46- Practice 4: Teach students the strategies they need to learn effectively.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	6	9.8
Quite often	16	26.2
Very often	39	63.9
Total	61	100.0

Table 47- Practice 5: Encourage students to work in pairs or small groups in the classroom.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	3	4.9
Hardly ever	2	3.3
Quite often	20	32.8
Very often	36	59.0
Total	61	100.0

Table 48- Practice 6: Take into account the different variables between students.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	1	1.6
Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	0	0.0
Quite often	11	18.0
Very often	49	80.3
Total	61	100.0

Table 49- Practice 7: Try to keep motivation alive in the classroom.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	0	0.0
Quite often	14	23.0
Very often	47	77.0
Total	61	100.0

Table 50- Practice 8: Help students to monitor their own development.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	1	1.6
Hardly ever	3	4.9
Quite often	20	32.8
Very often	37	60.7
Total	61	100.0

Table 51- Practice 9: Explain to the students how carrying out a learning activity will help them in the future.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	1	1.6
Hardly ever	2	3.3
Quite often	20	32.8
Very often	38	62.3
Total	61	100.0

Table 52- Practice 10: Help students to realise that if they keep on trying to solve a problem they will find a solution.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	2	3.3
Quite often	12	19.7
Very often	47	77.0
Total	61	100.0

Table 53- Practice 11: Foster in the students a sense of belonging to a classroom community.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	3	4.9
Quite often	17	27.9
Very often	41	67.2
Total	61	100.0

Table 54- Practice 12: Give students opportunity to use the language freely.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	1	1.6
Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	3	4.9
Quite often	23	37.7
Very often	34	55.7
Total	61	100.0

Table 55- Practice 13: Insist that students master the grammatical rules to be able to use the language correctly.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	3	4.9
Quite often	9	14.8
Very often	49	80.3
Total	61	100.0

Table 56- Practice 14: Provide constructive feedback to your students.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	1	1.6
Quite often	20	32.8
Very often	40	65.6
Total	61	100.0

Table 57- Practice 15: Give help when students seek help or advise.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	1	1.6
Quite often	11	18.0
Very often	49	80.3
Total	61	100.0

Table 58- Practice 16: Teach your students to check their own progress in their language learning.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	2	3.3
Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	1	1.6
Quite often	28	45.9
Very often	30	49.2
Total	61	100.0

Table 59- Practice 17: Help your students to develop as individuals.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	3	4.9
Quite often	24	39.3
Very often	34	55.7
Total	61	100.0

Table 60- Practice 18: Teach students to set their own goals in learning.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	1	1.6
Hardly ever	10	16.4
Quite often	24	39.3
Very often	26	42.6
Total	61	100.0

Table 61- Practice 19: You play the dominant role in your language classroom.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Never	5	8.2
	Hardly ever	8	13.1
	Quite often	28	45.9
	Very often	20	32.8
	Total	61	100.0

Table 62- Practice 20: Help your students to have an effective role in their learning.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Never	0	0.0
	Hardly ever	1	1.6
	Quite often	24	39.3
	Very often	36	59.0
	Total	61	100.0

Table 63- Practice 21: Your students are allowed to express their ideas and feelings.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	4	6.6
Quite often	18	29.5
Very often	39	63.9
Total	61	100.0

Table 64- Practice 22: You encourage students to interact with you and with their peers.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Never	0	0.0
Hardly ever	1	1.6
Quite often	13	21.3
Very often	47	77.0
Total	61	100.0

Student's Questionnaire

Table 65- Question 1: The teacher is clear and comprehensible in lessons.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	9	.6
Never	126	8.0
Hardly ever	138	8.8
Quite often	482	30.6
Very often	820	52.1
Total	1575	100.0

Table 66- Question 2: The teacher helps me to feel confident in my ability to learn.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	6	.4
Never	300	19.0
Hardly ever	217	13.8
Quite often	377	23.9
Very often	675	42.9
Total	1575	100.0

Table 67- Question 3: The teacher helps me to set challenges for myself and to develop strategies to meet those challenges.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	13	.8
Never	426	27.0
Hardly ever	284	18.0
Quite often	440	27.9
Very often	412	26.2
Total	1575	100.0

Table 68- Question 4: The teacher teaches me the strategies I need to learn effectively.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	7	.4
Never	225	14.3
Hardly ever	273	17.3
Quite often	339	21.5
Very often	731	46.4
Total	1575	100.0

Table 69- Question 5: Students are encouraged to work in pairs or groups in the classroom.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	11	.7
Never	215	13.7
Hardly ever	194	12.3
Quite often	382	24.3
Very often	773	49.1
Total	1575	100.0

Table 70- Question 6: The teacher understands my learning needs.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	25	1.6
Never	353	22.4
Hardly ever	284	18.0
Quite often	411	26.1
Very often	502	31.9
Total	1575	100.0

Table 71- Question 7: The teacher motivates me to learn English.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	32	2.0
Never	312	19.8
Hardly ever	212	13.5
Quite often	337	21.4
Very often	682	43.3
Total	1575	100.0

Table 72- Question 8: The teacher helps me to monitor my own development.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	32	2.0
Never	296	18.8
Hardly ever	225	14.3
Quite often	439	27.9
Very often	583	37.0
Total	1575	100.0

Table 73- Question 9: The teacher explains to me how carrying out learning activities will help me in the future.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	0	32	2.0
	Never	339	21.5
	Hardly ever	287	18.2
	Quite often	396	25.1
	Very often	521	33.1
	Total	1575	100.0

Table 74- Question 10: The teacher helps me to realise that if I keep on trying I will find a solution to the problem.

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	0	10	.6
	Never	330	21.0
	Hardly ever	252	16.0
	Quite often	370	23.5
	Very often	613	38.9
	Total	1575	100.0

Table 75- Question 11: The teacher makes me feel that I belong to the classroom community.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	7	.4
Never	257	16.3
Hardly ever	221	14.0
Quite often	323	20.5
Very often	767	48.7
Total	1575	100.0

Table 76- Question 12: When given an exercise in class I am given opportunity to use the language freely.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	10	.6
Never	228	14.5
Hardly ever	201	12.8
Quite often	380	24.1
Very often	756	48.0
Total	1575	100.0

Table 77- Question 13: The teacher insists on mastering the grammatical rules to be able to use the language correctly.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	8	.5
Never	162	10.3
Hardly ever	185	11.7
Quite often	312	19.8
Very often	908	57.7
Total	1575	100.0

Table 78- Question 14: The teacher provides constructive feedback to students.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	22	1.4
Never	380	24.1
Hardly ever	271	17.2
Quite often	406	25.8
Very often	496	31.5
Total	1575	100.0

Table 79- Question 15: If I have difficulties with my work or study I ask my teacher for help.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	31	2.0
Never	717	45.5
Hardly ever	274	17.4
Quite often	257	16.3
Very often	296	18.8
Total	1575	100.0

Table 80- Question 16: The teacher teaches me how to check my own progress.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	30	1.9
Never	365	23.2
Hardly ever	306	19.4
Quite often	428	27.2
Very often	446	28.3
Total	1575	100.0

Table 81- Question 17: The teacher helps me to develop as an individual.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	42	2.7
Never	407	25.8
Hardly ever	305	19.4
Quite often	362	23.0
Very often	459	29.1
Total	1575	100.0

Table 82- Question 18: The teacher teaches me how to set my own goals in learning.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	26	1.7
Never	431	27.4
Hardly ever	307	19.5
Quite often	402	25.5
Very often	409	26.0
Total	1575	100.0

Table 83- Question 19: The teacher plays a dominant role in the language classroom.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	17	1.1
Never	272	17.3
Hardly ever	259	16.4
Quite often	336	21.3
Very often	691	43.9
Total	1575	100.0

Table 84- Question 20: The teacher encourages me to have an effective role in my learning.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	8	.5
Never	269	17.1
Hardly ever	252	16.0
Quite often	384	24.4
Very often	662	42.0
Total	1575	100.0

Table 85- Question 21: I am encouraged to express my ideas and feelings in the classroom.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	5	.3
Never	457	29.0
Hardly ever	229	14.5
Quite often	323	20.5
Very often	561	35.6
Total	1575	100.0

Table 86- Question 22: The teacher encourages me to interact with her and my peers.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid 0	6	.4
Never	209	13.3
Hardly ever	160	10.2
Quite often	250	15.9
Very often	950	60.3
Total	1575	100.0