A Critical Study of EFL Pre-service Teachers' Beliefs about Learning and Teaching of English: A Saudi Arabian Perspective

by

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Abstract

The present thesis identifies the beliefs held by a hundred and forty-five pre-service teachers about the learning and teaching of English as a foreign language. The participants were studying in their final year in an English language teaching undergraduate programme at a mid-western university in Saudi Arabia. The thesis examines the impact of the teaching practice (practicum) on promoting belief change. It also aims to discover if the beliefs held differed significantly depending on the type of programme the participants in this research study attended (Educational vs. Non-educational). In addition, the impact of gender being a variable on the nature of the belief about learning held was also examined. The study further investigates the extent of alignment between perceived beliefs and actual classroom practices. The most critical past experiences of the pre-service teachers on shaping their beliefs are also examined. To achieve these aims, the thesis adopted a mixed-methods design. Data was collected through BALLI (questionnaire), semi-structured interviews, classroom observations and reflective essays.

Findings from this thesis revealed that the pre-service teachers held various beliefs about the learning and teaching of English. The inferential analyses showed that completing the practicum experiences did not lead to significant changes in existing beliefs about learning. Similarly, no significant gender-based differences in the participants' beliefs about learning were observed for most of BALLI constructs. The inferential analyses also pointed out that the type of programme attended, did not lead to significant differences in the beliefs about learning held by the participants. The analysis of the observational data demonstrated that mostly, the professed beliefs did not align with the actual classroom practices. The analysis of the reflective essays identified several themes which the pre-service teachers perceived to be influential on shaping their beliefs about the learning and teaching of English.

Based on the results of this thesis, several implications have come to light and consequently, recommendations are proposed for modifying teacher education programmes in Saudi Arabia and in other countries. As an example, the importance of identifying the pre-existing beliefs held by students early on in their ELT programmes is of considerable value as it determines and shapes their conduct in a classroom setting. The thesis concludes by identifying some areas for future research and also discusses the limitations of the research.

Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my first teacher, my mother. I am indebted to you forever.

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Throughout the writing process of this PhD thesis, I have received a great deal of support and guidance. I would like to first thank Allah for the endless blessings bestowed upon me which provided me with the strength and the endurance to complete this thesis.

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List of Acronyms

BALLI	Beliefs about language learning inventory
CELTA	Certificate in language teaching to adults
CCOT	constructivist/communicative-oriented teaching
CLT	Communicative language teaching
L1	First language
L2	Second language
FL	Foreign language
GPA	Great point average
ESL	English as a second Language
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELT	English language teaching
K.S.A	Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
M	Mean
Mdn	Median
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
PGCE	Postgraduate certificate in education
PT	Pre-service teacher
RQ	Research question
SD	Standard deviation
SLA	Second language acquisition
SPSS	Statistical package for the social sciences
TESL	Teaching English as a second language
TEFL	Teaching of English as a foreign language
UK	United Kingdom
PT	Pre-service teacher
ST	Student

Chapter One

Background

1.1 **Introduction**

Academic interest in the concept related to the beliefs held by language teachers about teaching draws on a research tradition that explores how teachers learnt to teach. This research tradition commonly known as *teacher belief* research dates back more than 30 years. There is now an established field of extensive research into teacher beliefs. Yet, it is considered a separate domain of enquiry within the realm of teacher cognition research (i.e., what teachers think, believe, and know) maintaining the view that beliefs have an important role to play in relation to understanding how teachers think and learn (Freeman, 1992; Pajares, 1992). Yet, despite it being an established area in the field of teacher belief research, the research undertaken in this area is thought to be in its early stages still (Korthagen, 2010). More specifically, this view is much clearer when considered in the context of English as a foreign language (EFL), in which case, the need to conduct more studies may be rationalised (Debreli, 2013; Pavaresh, 2017).

From an EFL context, the present study is therefore focussed on the beliefs held by pre-service teachers, who were in their final term of an undergraduate programme about the learning and teaching of EFL in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. This thesis takes the term 'pre-service teacher' as a student enrolled in a teacher education programme who is undergoing training and supervision in order to become certified to teach in the public/ private school system. The study looks particularly to uncover their tacitly held beliefs about learning and to find out whether these beliefs changed after undergoing a practicum experience. It also seeks to investigate

statistically significant differences in beliefs about learning attributed to the type of EFL programme attended or due to variables manifested due to gender. The study also examines the extent of congruence between espoused beliefs and actual classroom practices. The pre-service teachers' past schooling and the resultant impact on their beliefs is also investigated.

1.2 The research context

1.2.1 Brief background information about K.S.A and the spread of education

Situated in South-West Asia and constituting the bulk of the Arabian Peninsula, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (K.S.A) shares its borders with Yemen in the south; United Arab Emirates, Bahrain, Oman and Qatar in the east; Red Sea in the west; Kuwait, Iraq and Jordan in the north. The first Saudi state was established in 1744, the second in 1824, and the current one in 1932. Saudi Arabia is a monarchy and is currently ruled by King Salman bin Abdulaziz. Arabic is the native, official as well as the dominant language spoken. According to the General Authority for Statistics, the initial mid-year estimates indicate that the population of the country in 2019 was (34.218.169) made up of both Saudi citizens and foreign nationals (Statistical Year Book, Ch. 1, 2019a).

In Saudi Arabia, almost a third of the population heads to schools, institutes and universities on a daily basis. Education has spread significantly since the country's unification in 1932 under the leadership of King Abdulaziz Al-Saud. The number of public and private schools exceeded 40.000 in 2019 (Statistical Year Book, Ch. 4, 2019b). In addition, the number of higher education institutions has significantly and dramatically increased in recent years. Just before 2007, the number of universities set up by the government was seven, but there are thirty-three government universities and colleges in addition to the forty-nine that have been set up by the private sector. The spread of education amongst the population and the huge government

spending propelled the education sector to be ranked 2nd highest in terms of the level of government expenditure. The defence and security sector received 25.45 % in the state's budget for the year 2008 (Al-Issa, 2009). Such emphasis being placed on education has consequently, lead to a significant drop in the illiteracy rate from 60 % in 1971 (ibid.) to 5.6 % in 2017. The Ministry of Education's target was to bring that rate down to 2.5 % in 2020 (Alwuheibi, 2018).

Yet despite that massive spread of education, it was not accompanied by real intellectual development in terms of educational and pedagogical ideologies. This is attributed to the fragmentation of the identity and philosophy of the educational system. This system has undergone modification and transformation for many years, thereby impacting the basic components of the system (Al-Issa, 2009). One factor contributing to the absence of a clear philosophy for education in K.S.A is the cultural tussle in the intellectual arena over the past three decades between opponents and proponents of 'originality' and 'modernisation' (Al-Issa, 2009, p. 18) which led to creating tension between old approaches to education and newer methods. Another factor for the absence of a clear educational philosophy is the unavailability of an effective means of communication between these intellectual currents (i.e., proponents of originality vs. proponents of modernisation) through which some mutual cooperation and understanding of the philosophy of education could be reached. As such, the educational field has become one of the arenas of struggle for influence between these two ideological currents (ibid.).

1.2.2 Status of the English language in K.S.A

With regards to the start of teaching English in Saudi Arabia, Al-Maini (2002, cited in Mansory, 2016) reported that it started in 1926 prior to the country's unification. However, the first school

in Saudi Arabia did not exist until 1935, soon after oil was discovered (AlMunajjed, 1997). Yet, Al-Seghayer (2005) maintained that it is unknown precisely when the formal teaching of English was first introduced to the Saudi Educational Curriculum, attributing this to the historical fact that Saudi Arabia had never undergone any period of European occupation. Al-Seghayer (2005) proposed that the incorporation of English in the Saudi educational system enabled Saudi Arabia to enhance ties with the globe.

As Saudi youth constitute the largest portion of the population, there has been an increased interest in the number of students seeking higher education both locally and abroad. Students are desirous of learning English for both intrinsic and extrinsic purposes. In the Saudi context, as is the case in some other contexts around the world, proficiency in the English language commands a degree of elevated social-status and it is often thought that it could help secure enhanced opportunities for personal and professional development for those who have a good command of the language. Therefore, it could be surmised that there are students who choose to learn English out of academic interest and those who may decide to learn it to achieve materialistic gains, as in securing employment that pays well.

1.2.3 Types of EFL programmes in the context of this study

This research was carried out at a local university situated in the mid-west of Saudi Arabia. The campuses of the university are scattered over 13 cities and towns with several colleges of medicine, engineering, sciences, education and humanities, amongst others. The institute where this research took place provides two types of undergraduate programmes in the English Language. English is taught at both colleges of education and at colleges of sciences and humanities. In the former college (college of education), the programme relies heavily on

courses which deal with teaching methods, pedagogies and psychology. These include modules such as an Introduction into Curricula and Teaching Methods, Educational Methods and Techniques, and English Language Teaching Methodology; all of which aim to equip potential pre-service teachers with as much educational and pedagogical knowledge as possible before they embark on their teaching careers. In addition, practicum (see the next Section 1.2.4 for further details) is solely provided in the programme taught at the college of education. In the latter college (college of sciences and humanities), the programme provides fewer courses in education and pedagogy than the former. Instead, it introduces students to a range of courses in linguistics, literature, translation, amongst others. However, graduates of both programmes are entitled to teach at state schools. The only difference is that pre-service teachers who graduate from colleges of education are appointed at a higher grade than their peers graduating from colleges of sciences and humanities.

1.2.4 Nature of practicum in the context of this study

Despite the relatively short duration of the practicum module which lasts for approximately 15 weeks, it provides prospective teachers of the English language, a full first-hand practical experience to evaluate for themselves what it takes to be a teacher. However, pre-service teachers of English begin their practicum without undergoing any micro or macro teaching sessions to prepare them for teaching in actual classroom settings. Micro-teaching is a teaching method that is a product of research at Stanford University where the teaching session is brief (5-25 minutes), and the number of students is capped at five students. Such a technique allows for intensive supervision. It also allows for immediate feedback from fellow students through the utilisation of video-taped teaching sessions (Allen and Eve, 1968). Macro-teaching on the other hand, is “an overall plan for the roles to be played by learners, teachers, instructional

materials, and the classroom as they interact with each other to form the most efficient learning and teaching context for the acquisition of communication skills by each learner in the classroom" (F. Johnson, 1972, p. 237).

In addition, the students do not get to observe in-service teachers in their classrooms. A possible exception could arise from a pre-service teacher requesting an in-service teacher informally, to observe one or several teaching sessions. This practice is entirely voluntary and is subject to mutual agreement between both parties. Pre-service teachers take on a complete set of responsibilities equivalent to that of in-service teachers throughout their practicum. For example, a pre-service teacher has to abide by and teach the curricula from the books prescribed by the Ministry of Education and is not permitted to create or develop a curriculum of their own. A pre-service teacher may only create drills and exercises provided that they are directly related to the content of the lesson being taught. A pre-service teacher is also solely responsible for writing and conducting all the exams for the students, regardless of whether these exams are periodic or final. It also falls on the pre-service teacher to mark these exams. Additionally, they are also required to assess their students' performance based on their in-class participation and the competency displayed in their homework. It would therefore be useful for pre-service teachers to have the opportunity of teaching practice and various other teaching-related activities during their training.

Throughout the practicum period, an appointed academician who has expertise in teaching methods and pedagogies of teaching is assigned to supervise and assess a number of pre-service teachers. A supervisor must pay his assigned pre-service teachers several visits (usually between 3-5) during the practicum at their schools of practice. During these visits when pre-

service teachers are sometimes notified in advance, a supervisor observes them while they are teaching and take notes on their teaching performance. Various aspects of their teaching performance are then evaluated. These aspects include the pre-service teachers' content knowledge, their ability to have control over their students in leading them to achieving the task set, evaluating the extent to which students are attentive and interactive during the lesson and to what extent a pre-service teacher enables as many students as possible to take part in teacher-student and/ or student-student discussions. Additionally, the assessment includes evaluation of the teaching methods utilised by the pre-service teachers, how their students react to them and whether they are effective in delivering the information. The pre-service teachers are also assessed to determine if theoretically-informed strategies are utilised to tackle misbehaviour on the part of students and other forms of misconduct that could possibly hinder the progress of the lesson. After each observed lesson, both the supervisor and the pre-service teacher discuss issues arising from the lesson and any other concerns related to the practicum experience.

The full mark for the practicum module is 100 of which 90% is subject to the supervisor's assessment while the remaining 10% is subject to the school principal's assessment. The principal evaluates a pre-service teacher on several aspects such as punctuality, attendance, approach and dealing with other fellow teachers at the school, the response to directions from the school's principal, and the execution of the teaching process smoothly till completion of all teaching duties, etc. In light of the above, while the role of the academic supervisor is helpful, it is mostly a role of assessment rather than one where they help the pre-service teacher develop relevant skills.

1.3 Motivation for the thesis

1.3.1 My background as an EFL teacher

I formally started learning English at the age of twelve, in my first year of intermediate school. However, it was not until my first year of secondary school that English caught my interest, due primarily to the efforts of my English language teacher. In fact, I used to strongly dislike the subject of English language in my first two years of learning it, which was to a large extent, owing to the personalities and teaching methods of the two teachers who taught during these two years. This, coupled with the fact that English was introduced to me as a new foreign language which I barely had any proficiency in, fuelled my disinterest. Going back to my first year of secondary school, I firmly believe that my English language teacher had a pivotal role in how I started to perceive English differently. This was due to a number of reasons. Some of these reasons were based on methodological grounds and others were related to the personality of my English language teacher. He was always courteous to his students which was in stark contrast to my previous teachers of English. He was also very knowledgeable about the subject matter. I remember very well how I used to eagerly await his classes and how I enjoyed them because I could see that I was improving my knowledge of English rapidly. In fact, it was in that very same year that I knew that I wanted English language teaching to be my career. This has enabled me to perform outstandingly well in the English language module throughout my secondary schooling, albeit sometimes at the expense of other modules. This was the case when it dawned on me that what really mattered was to excel in English so that I could pass any placement tests to be set by any department of English in any local university where I applied for admission, which, thankfully, was the case.

Having passed a placement test in the department of English at one of the universities in Saudi Arabia, I had to study an intensive course for one term. This course was extremely competitive. It admitted approximately 150 students and by the end of the term, only 50 students secured a

place in the department. The rest of the students had to either change their major if their performance was not competitive, or repeat the intensive course if their performance was assessed to be fairly unsatisfactory. Thankfully, I made it into the department of English and kept performing well until I graduated with a BA in English language and translation. Soon after my graduation, I was appointed as a teaching assistant at a local university where I have been teaching applied linguistics courses.

1.3.2 Interest in the area of teacher beliefs

In the institution where I completed my undergraduate education, students were required to go through a practicum experience where they would teach English for one term. This was during the final term of the BA programme. I was therefore assigned to undergo my practicum in a local school, along with another fellow pre-service teacher. A faculty member who had expertise in teaching methods and pedagogy was assigned to supervise me and my fellow colleague. Periodically, the supervisor would visit us in our school to attend some of our classes to mainly assess and provide us with feedback and answer our questions if we had any. Before I commenced my practicum experience, I had no previous experience of teaching at all, except for my passive observation of teaching when I was a student. There were no micro-teaching experiences to familiarise us with the reality of teaching. Early on in the term, my fellow pre-service teacher and I had our first meeting with our academic supervisor. During the meeting, the supervisor explained what he had expected from us, and unexpectedly enforced his own teaching philosophy on both of us with regards to how teaching ought to be conducted. Moreover, he insisted that we use L2 (English) exclusively in our classes. We both indicated that our students had just been introduced to English and that the students were not ready yet for this. However, the supervisor insisted that we follow his instructions maintaining his stance

that even though the students were still beginners, that L2 (English) should be the only language used in the FL class, which left us with little choice given that we were eventually going to be assessed by him. Such incidents remained with me over the years and made me ponder as to what extent pre-service teachers could really teach in accordance with their own beliefs. This is especially relevant when the teaching practice is counted towards the pre-service teachers' GPA (see Chapter 7, Section 7.3.3 for further details). Such an imposition on the part of the supervisor was indeed baffling because it seemed to clash with the very purpose of teacher training programmes which seek to enhance autonomy and develop the teachers' reflective skills to be better teachers.

Another reason behind my interest was that before I started my PhD at the University of Birmingham, I came across a research paper which investigated pre-service teachers' beliefs. It explored how teacher belief impacted their reception of new knowledge and on their classroom teaching practices. That paper inspired me to research teachers' beliefs. Concurrently, I also had and still have a deep and profound desire to understand what truly prompts belief change not only in the context of teachers alone but also across various other socio and psycholinguistic contexts. For example, in the social arena we frequently observe people who sometimes go through drastic changes in their espoused beliefs, which they have embraced for so long. It seems highly unlikely that such changes were arbitrary. Therefore, I maintain that my study of teacher beliefs is only the first milestone in this long and interesting journey in research on beliefs. The topic of beliefs in general, is applicable to a variable level of day-to-day behaviour, and merits being examined.

1.4 Aims

The purpose of this study is to delve further into a number of EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs in a Saudi university. It is my hope that the findings of this study add to the existing literature on teacher cognition research. The study aspires to achieve the following aims:

- To identify the EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs with regard to learning and teaching.
- To discover whether or not the EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs about learning change upon completing the practicum experience.
- To determine the existence of significant differences in beliefs about learning among the EFL pre-service teachers attributable to the type of programme of study
- To determine the existence of significant differences in beliefs about learning among the EFL pre-service teachers attributable to their gender.
- To establish the extent of alignment between the EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching and their actual practice.
- To identify the most critical past experiences of the EFL pre-service teachers' schooling which has shaped or would go on to shape their beliefs.

1.5 Research questions

The following research questions have been set out to guide the investigation and meet the aims of this study:

RQ1a. What beliefs are held by EFL pre-service teachers about learning of English?

RQ1b. What beliefs are held by EFL pre-service teachers about teaching of English?

RQ2. To what extent are the stated beliefs of the Saudi, undergraduate EFL pre-service teachers about teaching of English aligned with their actual classroom practices?

RQ3. Did the beliefs held by the EFL pre-service teachers about learning of English change after their practicum experience?

RQ4. Is there a statistically significant correlation between the pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about learning attributable to the type of programme of study?

RQ5. Is there a statistically significant correlation between the pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about learning attributable to their gender?

RQ6. What experiences drawn from the pre-service EFL teachers' past basic schooling or undergraduate education, did they perceive to have been or would be influential in shaping their held beliefs about the learning or teaching of English?

1.6 Structure of the thesis

This thesis is composed of seven chapters. The paragraphs below present an overview of how these chapters are structured. Additionally, the content of these chapters is also described.

Chapter one begins by presenting a brief contextual overview of the research in this study, including brief background information about the country and the status of English where the study took place. The chapter then goes on to explain the types of EFL programmes as well as the nature of the practicum associated with this study. This is followed by an explanation of how I became an English language teacher and reasons for my interest in the topic of this thesis. The aims of the study and its research questions are finally outlined.

Chapter two begins with a historical overview of the evolution of teacher belief research. It also presents theoretical background information about the concept of belief by showing how it is defined in the literature and addresses the ambiguity between belief and knowledge. It further

reviews previous research on pre-service teachers' beliefs held on teaching and learning. The chapter then goes on to illustrate sources of beliefs and how they impact on teachers' beliefs. The chapter also examines the literature in the light of belief change, and briefly dwells on the studies which used BALLI for obtaining data. BALLI or 'Beliefs about language learning inventory' is a questionnaire devised by Horwitz (1985) to assess the beliefs held by teachers in relation to several issues and controversies pertaining to language learning. The chapter then concludes by discussing the rationale for the study.

Chapter three addresses the research methodology. It offers comprehensive information about the research design, sampling procedures, the instruments utilised to carry out the study and the pilot studies. In addition, the rationale for the chosen data collection instruments and the data collection processes are described. Chapter three also describes the quantitative (descriptive and inferential), and qualitative data analysis procedures in the present study.

In Chapter four, following the data analyses of the BALLI, the semi-structured interviews, and reflective essays, the perceived beliefs of the pre-service teachers about learning and teaching of EFL, are presented. Additionally, the chapter also discusses the impact of practicum on belief change and explores whether there are statistically significant differences in beliefs about learning attributed to the type of EFL programmes, or due to gender variables. It also identifies some of the significant experiences of the pre-service teachers' during schooling which they hold to, or have shaped or would go on to shape their beliefs about learning or teaching.

Chapter five examines the extent of alignment between the pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching and their actual classroom practices.

Chapter six is dedicated to discussing the implications of key beliefs which emerged from this thesis. It also discusses the utility of the data collection instruments. The chapter further looks into the roles that the teacher education programme could play with respect to addressing the pre-service teachers' beliefs.

The last chapter discusses the contribution of the study, its implications as well as its limitations. It concludes with some recommendations for future research.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter offers information related to teacher belief research from a number of different perspectives. It begins with a historical overview of how research surrounding teacher beliefs has evolved over the years. This is followed by a theoretical discussion about the concept of belief in general and how it is defined. This discussion also focuses on the distinction between belief and knowledge. Thereafter, an exploration of teacher beliefs with particular reference to how they were specifically defined in the literature is presented. The significance of the teachers' beliefs as well as the sources behind their set of beliefs and how they impact on teachers' beliefs are also examined critically. The chapter progresses to examine belief change, with particular focus on the nature of the belief change process, and reports on some empirical studies which demonstrate whether or not there was evidence of belief change and the resulting impact of teacher education programmes and the practicum experience in this respect. The methodology used in research on teacher beliefs is then discussed. The chapter concludes by highlighting the rationale for the present study.

2.2 Teacher belief research: a historical overview

2.2.1 Behaviourist paradigm

The emergence of teacher beliefs/ thinking research has its roots back to the 1970s and early studies can be linked to behaviourism which was the leading paradigm of research (Clark and Peterson, 1986). Teaching or pedagogic research in this paradigm has been more focused on

the observable aspects of teaching practice. Therefore, researchers were more interested in classroom behaviour of teachers which lend themselves to observation (ibid.). This reflects the behaviourist point of viewing teaching as a set of behaviour patterns that could be observed and described (Calderhead, 1996). The effects of the teachers' classroom behaviour on their students' learning outcomes were central to this behaviourist paradigm. The efficacy of teaching was measured by the extent of attainment of proficiency and success of students (Fang, 1996). Accordingly, teachers in this paradigm were perceived as transmitters of knowledge, whilst learners were seen as passive recipients of their teachers' knowledge (Richardson, 1997). Within this paradigm, typically data was obtained via observational scales, and research carried out in a laboratory environment or under tightly controlled conditions for the evaluation of the teaching process (Beattie, 1995). Aiming for a wider perspective on general findings, they were quite often quantitatively reported.

The key objective of research in the behaviourist paradigm was to establish a set of criteria for effective teaching by measuring the extent that teachers' behaviour impacted on the learning process of their students (Beattie, 1995). This behaviouristic view to effective teaching, therefore unveils a "diagnostic-prescriptive" structure of this research paradigm (Clark, 1986, p. 8), whereby good teaching behaviour is seen as "norm-setting" (Lowyck, 1990, p. 91). Such a view seems to overlook a significant aspect of the teaching process, particularly that of the teachers' beliefs or their mental processes and their influence on the teaching process as a whole. Hence, the complexity of the teaching process appears to have underscored behaviourist-oriented research.

Discontentment with the behaviourist paradigm began to surface towards the early 1970s. This was primarily in response to major criticism raised against studies which highlighted their disregard for teachers' thought processes and viewed teaching as merely observable behaviours (process) and learners' achievement (outcome) (Clark and Peterson, 1986; Freeman, 2003). Consequently, it started to be perceived as inadequate for not placing sufficient emphasis on the cognitive factors which trigger the teaching and learning processes (ibid.).

Such criticism against the behaviourist paradigm was a milestone towards a research paradigm shift, one which encompasses the complexity of the teaching and learning processes. At the heart of such an emerging paradigm was the cognitive process of teachers' thought processes.

2.2.2 Cognitive paradigm

In light of advancements in cognitive psychology and also in view of the methodological and theoretical shortcomings associated with studies conducted within the behaviourist paradigm, a growing interest gathered momentum towards investigating the tacit component of the teachers' mental processes (thinking). Such interest represented a paradigm shift in subsequent studies, as the focus of studies had shifted from describing how teachers behaved to what they thought (Fang, 1996). In other words, previous research focused on the measurable and observable elements of the teaching process (teachers' behaviours/ actions) and how they positively or negatively affected their students' achievement (Bettie, 1995). This would then contribute to establishing effective criteria for teaching which could be included in teacher education programmes (Fang, 1996). However, the new research focus was presumed to raise the awareness about the teaching process by elucidating how this process functions and the rationale behind it (Clark and Peterson, 1986). This is to say the attention of researchers within

the cognitive paradigm shifted from merely describing how teachers behave (behaviourist paradigm) into elucidating what they think (Fang, 1996). As such, the ultimate objective for research studies within this cognitive paradigm was to describe in detail, the cognitive components of the teaching process so as to enlighten relevant stakeholders such as policy-makers, teachers, school administrators, curriculum designers, and theorists (ibid.) into what are often unseen but influential aspects of the teaching process.

In this cognitive paradigm, teachers began to be viewed as active decision-makers, capable of figuring out and executing their own teaching. Such a view is in stark contrast with how teachers were viewed in the behaviourist paradigm as passive transmitters of knowledge of some predetermined norms in the classroom (Murphy, 2000). Along the same lines, at its core, the assumptions underpinning the cognitive paradigm are two-pronged according to Stern and Shavelson (1983): firstly, a teacher is a professional, who works in an intricate and unpredictable school and community environment, who is responsible for taking relevant judicious decisions and making judgements within that environment. Secondly, that the decisions, judgements, and thoughts of teachers govern their behaviour within the classroom environment. Within this cognitive paradigm also, teachers were conceived as maintaining knowledge and behaviours which are derived from their previous beliefs and experiences (Richardson, 1997).

The cognitive paradigm was influential at the time, but it still had not moved entirely away from the notion of static knowledge. In order to address this, a new paradigm – constructivism – began to make some ground in the field of teaching and learning research.

2.2.3 Constructivist paradigm

Constructivism is an epistemological perspective, focussed on how knowledge is acquired. In its basic form, it is a meaning-making or learning theory, which promotes the view that knowledge is constructed rather than transmitted. The theory further suggests that people form their new understandings by actively drawing on the interaction that takes place between what they have previously known and believed and their new experience (Canella and Reiff, 1994; Richardson, 1997). Therefore, learners are seen to be developing their knowledge through an active construction process and not a passive one (Brophy, 1992). Learning is also viewed as being fairly idiosyncratic and a complex process, not a linear one. For example, a group of learners may learn in a different manner, and at varying paces.

Richardson (1997) maintains that most constructivists are likely to agree that the transmission model (viewed in a traditional approach like behaviourism) does not advocate interaction between prior and new knowledge, nor does it facilitate the conversations which are necessary for a better understanding of the needs of the learners. Consequently, new information acquired through such a traditional approach is typically not incorporated well with the previous knowledge possessed by the learner and hence, new knowledge, if at all acquired, would often be remembered only for a short time; like for an upcoming exam, and neglected thereafter (ibid.).

The teacher's role according to constructivism is of great significance. Teachers are no longer perceived as knowledge transmitters, but rather as facilitators to help their students with their understanding of whatever it is they are learning. In this sense, it could be proposed that the focus shifts from the teacher and their teaching, to the learner and their learning. As such, the

teachers' role is not to dictate to their learners what to do, but rather, primarily facilitate them to draw their own conclusions. This would imply that constructivism is a descriptive ("this is the way people learn or develop") rather than a prescriptive theory of learning ("this is the way people should learn") (Richardson, 1997, p. 3). To that end, the significance of conversations within the classroom between teachers and learners is also highlighted. In view of this, the constructivism theory regards the teachers' role as mentors, while the learners are encouraged to be analytical and active critical thinkers as opposed to being passive receivers who are spoon-fed with knowledge pre-decided by their teachers. In this research, the pre-service teachers voiced their beliefs about the roles of teachers and learners in the learning and teaching process (Chapter 4, Section 4.6.1.3.5) may be seen for a discussion around these roles.

Despite the shared understanding of constructivism theory discussed above, there are some minor differences which are worth highlighting. For example, one relates to the challenge of transforming a descriptive learning theory into actual practice of teaching in the classroom where the transformation is not perceived as a straightforward process. In fact, this view highlights that teaching occurs in a social environment with countless contextual variances (Richardson, 1997). Another area of difference among proponents of different constructivist approaches pertains to the centre of attention in teaching. There are those that maintain that the attention should be placed on the learner exclusively. For others, they contend that the concentration should rather be on the sociocultural milieu of a learner. There are also those who are of the belief that it is not prudent to make an analytical distinction between the two (learner and sociocultural milieu) (ibid.).

The importance of the constructivist approach to the topic of this thesis on pre-service teachers' beliefs is that such an approach could facilitate an understanding of different processes that learners may exhibit when they construct knowledge. The importance of knowing what pre-service teachers believe with regards to knowledge construction in language learning is an element investigated in this thesis.

2.3 Theoretical background

The previous section presented a historical overview of the underpinning theory of research focussed on teacher belief. This section deals with the 'belief' concept in general, and also seeks to explain the distinction between belief and knowledge. This is followed by a discussion that is specifically centred on teachers' beliefs.

2.3.1 How is the concept of belief defined in the literature?

The interest in the concept of 'belief' in teaching research has attracted the attention of many researchers from various academic disciplines and backgrounds since the 1970s. Since then, the emphasis of conducting research on teachers' beliefs has undergone three stages. These three stages are "teachers' planning, teachers' interactive thoughts and decisions, and teachers' beliefs and implicit theories" (Clark and Peterson, 1986, p. 75). Yet, despite the relatively long interest in teachers' beliefs, no consensus has been reached on a generic definition for the term 'belief' in the literature (Kagan, 1992, Pajares, 1992; K. Johnson, 1994; M. Borg, 2001; Debreli, 2013). Indeed, Eisenhart et al. (1988) expressed the difficulty that they were faced with when they tried to find a working definition for 'belief' in the research literature. They attributed the difficulty in defining beliefs and the belief system to the various types of research conducted and also to the varying agendas of the researchers. Also, Eisenhart et al. (1988) and Pajares

(1992) believe that due to specific beliefs being studied in different fields and disciplines, rarely do we see beliefs defined clearly or utilised as a conceptual tool in an overt manner. Further, what made it more challenging was to come up with an operational definition for the construct of belief as it has been defined by a number of different terms and labelled in an assortment of ways in different research studies. This has led it to be a construct which has been poorly conceptualised (Pajares, 1992). The plethora of terms could at times be linked to researchers' disfavour for certain existing terms and coming up with their own terminology for the construct of belief (Eisenhart, 1988; Pajares, 1992). Pajares explained this phenomenon:

> […] defining beliefs is at best a game of player's choice. They travel in disguise and often under alias – attitudes, values, judgements, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertoires of understanding, and social strategy, to name but a few that can be found in the literature (p. 309).

As per Pajares's observation, the process of defining belief has mainly been a matter of personal choice for a researcher and how best that selected definition explains the intended meanings to be conveyed by the study. Pajares further argues that the selected and artificial distinction between belief and knowledge appears quite frequently in most definitions in that "belief is based on evaluation and judgment", while "knowledge is based on objective fact" (p. 313) (The subsequent Section 2.3.1.1 may be referred to for an extended discussion around the distinction between belief and knowledge).

Pajares (ibid.), following a comprehensive review of the related literature described beliefs as 'a messy construct', thanks to its psychological nature which caused difficulty in studying it, albeit being a significant psychological construct (Mansour, 2009). As such, the field has many

definitions for belief, which are sometimes different even within the same disciplines. Therefore, several meanings have emerged, owing to the wide variety of academic disciplines that researchers belonged to. Some researchers argue that this is due to the construct of belief being approached from different academic disciplines such as psychology, sociology, anthropology, philosophy and education amongst others (Zheng, 2009; S. Borg, 2011; Basturkmen, 2012). For example, the cognitive psychologists define belief as the portrayal of how a person perceives truth in which behaviour and thought are directed (Abelson, 1979; Anderson, 1985). Another definition of beliefs, commonly seen in the literature, is "psychologically held understandings, premises and propositions about the world that are felt to be true" (Richardson, 1997, p. 103). However, to Rokeach (1968) a belief is "any simple proposition, conscious or unconscious, inferred from what a person says or does, capable of being preceded by the phrase, 'I believe that . . . ' " (p. 113). Clark (1988) contends that beliefs "tend to be eclectic aggregations of cause-effect propositions from many sources, rules of thumb, generalisations drawn from personal experience, beliefs, values, biases, and prejudices" (p. 5). Recently, S. Borg (2011) suggested that beliefs are "propositions individuals consider to be true and which are often tacit, have a strong evaluative and affective component, provide a basis for action, and are resistant to change" (pp. 370-71). This thesis conceptualises beliefs as such. However, despite the various definitions presented in the literature, most of these hinge on the notion that beliefs are mental states which hold true or false opinions about a voluntary behaviour (Honderich, 2005). Also, according to Eisenhart et al. (1988), a review of the literature authored by anthropologists and educational philosophers suggests that belief has been consistently defined as "a proposition, or statement of relation among things accepted as true" (p. 53).

Despite the complexity behind the term 'belief', research interest into beliefs has not wavered and this thesis is concerned primarily with the issue of teacher beliefs (to be expanded further in Chapter two, Section 2.3.2). But, before we proceed further into the specific area of teacher beliefs, it is worth considering the confusion between the terms 'belief' and 'knowledge' which are sometimes used interchangeably. The confusion can be traced back to the conviction that these terms draw on different epistemological grounds. In the next sub-section, I present a synthesis of the debate around these two terms in detail.

2.3.1.1 The distinction between belief and knowledge

In teacher education research, belief and knowledge appear to belong to two epistemologically quite different entities as distinguished by several researchers (i.e., Abelson, 1979; Nisbett and Ross, 1980; Nespor, 1987). Attempting to define their distinguishing characteristics one from the other is a strenuous task, and is reported in quite vague terms in the literature (Clandinin and Connelly, 1987; Grossman, Wilson and Shulman, 1989; Pajares, 1992; Woods, 1996; Verloop, Van Driel and Meijer, 2001). Such intricately intertwined concepts seem to be conceived in the literature as being either inherently different or else overlapping without making a clear distinction between what a teacher believes they know and what they actually know. Therefore, it is not uncommon to see most researchers failing to distinguish these both concepts (Murphy and Mason, 2006). S. Borg (2006) maintained that aiming to separate belief, knowledge and other interrelated concepts is not a productive practice in the view that such concepts are not perceived or held distinctively by teachers. Likewise, Verloop, Van Driel and Meijer (2001, p. 446) contended that beliefs and knowledge along with other related concepts are perceived by teachers to be "inextricably intertwined".

Despite this being a challenging and daunting task, a common perception shared by a number of researchers has been that the former term (belief) is deemed to be judgmental, evaluative and subjective in nature, while the latter on the other hand is perceived to be dependent on truth conditions and hence is objective (i.e., Nisbett and Ross, 1980; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Calderhead, 1996; Richardson, 1997). Richardson (1996, p. 104) for example, stated that unlike beliefs, "in the traditional philosophical literature, knowledge depends on a "truth condition" that suggests that a proposition is agreed upon as being true by a community of people". Along similar lines, Fenstermacher (1994), also, distinguished belief from knowledge conceiving that while beliefs depend on values which are viewed to be of personal significance, knowledge by contrast, depends on prepositions of facts. In an attempt to explain how beliefs are different from knowledge, Woods (1996, p. 195) expounded that:

> ... We use the term 'knowledge' to refer to things we 'know' - conventionally accepted facts. In our society today, for something to be conventionally accepted, it generally means that it has been demonstrated or is demonstrable. ... Beliefs refer to an acceptance of a proposition for which there is no conventional knowledge, one that is not demonstrable, and for which there is accepted disagreement ("I believe that early immersion is good for a majority-language child's cognitive development but my colleague doesn't").

Woods' explanation above highlights the notion of 'demonstrability' as an effective feature associated with knowledge for distinguishing it from beliefs, which do not require holistic agreement. That is to say that if something has been proved or we know it can be proved, we then consider it to be knowledge since it revolves around the concept of demonstrability of facts. By contrast, beliefs accommodate for individual variations (there is room for people to dis/agree with them), and perhaps may not be taken for granted.

A good approach to explaining the structure of beliefs was undertaken by Nespor (1987). Nespor's (1987, pp. 318-20) study, which drew on Abelson (1979), proposed four key features which can help in distinguishing belief from knowledge. These four key features of beliefs are:

- Existential presumption: This suggests that belief systems often include assumptions that support the non/existence of entities. Nespor reported on two mathematics teachers who were in sharp contrast to each other with respect to how they had approached their students' in-class learning. One teacher viewed mathematics as mainly a process that required drilling and practice, and that students who were unsuccessful in their learning were so, as a direct result of them being very 'lazy' to actually do their work. Correspondingly, that teacher emphasised the importance of walking between the students' desks, 'forced' them to do more drills in order to learn more and motivated them by showing them the value of mathematics in reality. The other teacher, by way of contrast, was of the belief that mathematics learning is principally all about 'maturity'. Drawing on this belief of hers, she was amenable to the idea of students working together in-class as she contended "that the difference in maturity between students would be small enough to allow effective communication where her lectures had failed" (Nespor, 1987, p. 318). Therefore, on the basis that 'mental maturation' could not be achieved by force, this teacher strongly disagreed with the view that students needed to be forced to learn. Nespor (1987, p. 318) extrapolates that "the reification of transitory, ambiguous, conditional, or abstract characteristics into stable, well-defined, absolute and concrete entities is important because such entities tend to be seen as immutable- as beyond the teacher's control and influence".

- Alternativity: This feature of beliefs' structure revolves around the premise that often, beliefs contain the aspects that Abelson (1979, cited in Nespor, 1987, p. 318) had called

'alternative worlds' or 'alternative realities'. He comprehends the term alternativity as "conceptualizations of ideal situations differing significantly from present realities" (p. 319).

In his study, Nespor observed that many teachers had envisaged and attempted to come up with alternative teaching practices or different ways of relating to students within the classroom, which they had not experienced before or learnt about during their formal teacher education programme. Nespor gave a concrete example of an English language teacher in his study who went through such an experience. That teacher wanted her classes to be entertaining and light-hearted as she had idealised her classes to be like what it was when she was a child. It should be emphasised that this idealisation was a 'utopian alternative' to the classes she was familiar with as she never experienced it herself. Despite her efforts to achieve that ideal class, she never managed to do so. Nespor contends that although such beliefs are fallible and could be challenged, they are nonetheless of value even when they still cannot be turned into reality.

- Affective and evaluative aspect: That is beliefs exhibit much stronger affective and evaluative elements. As such, affect appears to function independently of other patterns of cognition which are known to be associated with knowledge. In this view, knowledge of a domain may be conceptualised differently from feelings about a domain.

- Episodic storage: Nespor maintained that while information in knowledge systems is predominantly stored semantically, beliefs exist predominantly in episodic memory and draw on personal experiences or cultural sources of knowledge transmission. He further contended that although the semantic and episodic distinction can be indicative, it still remains a controversial one. He more specifically indicated that beliefs draw their power

and legitimacy from certain critical incidents or events, which consequently shape the comprehension of subsequent events. In my study, the impact of critical incidents from the pre-service teachers' past learning experiences on shaping their beliefs have been investigated (Chapter 4, Section 4.7 maybe referred to for an extended discussion).

All in all, it can be recapitulated from the above discussion and the literature that, in general, beliefs relate to suppositions and ideologies, which do not entail truth conditions, and that they tend to be rather judgmental, evaluative and subjective, and more effective when it comes to predicting behaviour. Knowledge, by way of contrast, relates to propositions of facts, which entail truth conditions, and tend to be objective; hence, it is more amenable to evaluation and critical examinations (Nespor, 1987). Based on the discussion above, I would like to now turn to the specific issue of 'teacher beliefs' which is the main focus of this thesis.

2.3.2 Teachers' beliefs: terminology

A popular area of research in foreign language learning and teaching, and in teacher cognition in particular, is teachers' beliefs. According to Pajares (1992), all teachers hold beliefs, irrespective of how these beliefs are defined or labelled in relation to their work, their students and students in general, the roles they play, the responsibilities they assume, and the subject matter they deal with. Similarly, Clandinin and Connelly (1987) proposed that the utilisation of a number of different terms (see table 2.1) to refer to teachers' beliefs is "simply different words meaning the same thing" (p. 488). Debreli (2013) and S. Borg (2003) reported on several empirical and non-empirical studies in which numerous labels and definitions were introduced to refer to the same construct of teacher beliefs. The use of various terms and labels by researchers appears to have exacerbated the concept known as 'definitional confusion' of belief

(Eisenhart et al., 1988). Some overlap in the terms may be seen in table 2.1 below, which present a snapshot of the numerous terms and labels present in the literature. Collectively, they clarify "the personal nature of teacher cognition, the role of experience in the development of these cognitions, the way in which instructional practice and cognitions are mutually informing" (S. Borg, 2003, p. 83).

Table (2.1): Some frequently used terms for teacher beliefs in the literature

Source	**Term**	**Definition**
Clark and Peterson (1986)	Teachers' theories and beliefs	"the rich store of knowledge that teachers have that affects their planning and their interactive thoughts and decisions" (p. 258)
Richards and Lockhart (1996)	Beliefs	"the goals [and] values [that] serve as the background to much of the teachers' decision making and action" (p. 30)
Richardson (1996)	Maxims	"personal working principles which reflect teachers' individual philosophies of teaching, developed from their experience of teaching and learning, their teacher education experiences, and from their own personal beliefs and value systems" (p. 293)
S. Borg (2003)	Teacher cognitions	"the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching - what

		teachers know, believe, and think" (p. 81)

As reported in the literature, pre-service teachers join teacher education programmes and then progress on to their classrooms, holding some pre-existing beliefs about learning and teaching (Bennett and Carre, 1993). Some of these beliefs are believed to be derived from the teachers' prior learning experiences (K. Johnson, 1994; Numrich, 1996; S. Borg, 2003; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Debreli, 2013). For example, K. Johnson (1994) observed that the pre-service teachers in her study had embraced or avoided the content of their teacher preparation programme drawing on some pertinent prior formal and informal encounters of them as ESL learners. Likewise, the suitability of certain teaching materials, theories and practices were judged according to relevant prior first-hand experiences of these pre-service teachers. Additionally, Numrich (1996, p. 139) reported how negative previous learning experiences had led some pre-service teachers to refrain from correcting their students' errors "because of negative experiences of being corrected, several teachers chose not to interrupt their students' flow of speech in the classroom to correct errors" (see Chapter 2, Section 2.5.1 for a discussion of Numrich's (1996) study). In a comprehensive review of twenty-seven empirical studies, Kagan (1992) has come to conclude that pre-service teachers typically used their previous experiences as 'filters' for screening and interpreting the content of teacher educational programme courses. She suggests that pre-service teachers appear to utilise the information presented to them in order to enhance their pre-existing beliefs and values about teaching and learning rather than questioning them. However, such a conclusion of Kagan was criticised (see Chapter 2, Section 2.5.2).

A number of studies have pointed to the lack of a significant impact of teachers' educational programmes on changing pre-service teachers' teaching beliefs. This is mainly because they

are deeply rooted in their minds as a result of these beliefs being long-held (Tatto, 1998; Peacock, 2001). Conversely, other researchers have emphasised the positive role of teacher education programmes in reshaping pre-service teacher beliefs (Mattheoudakis, 2007; Yook, 2010; Debreli, 2012). It is for this reason that it is suggested that for a belief to change, it needs to show itself as unsatisfactory in the first instance, and for this to happen, the belief in question itself, would have to be challenged (Pajares, 1992).

2.3.3 Research on teachers' beliefs

For a considerable period of time, researchers (e.g., Clark and Peterson, 1986; Nespor, 1987; K. Johnson, 1994; S. Borg, 2003, 2006; Debreli, 2013) have been seeking to point out the differing characteristics of beliefs and how they affect the mindset of pre-service teachers' thinking and practices during their teacher education programmes and in context of their teaching methods in future classes. Of paramount importance to these studies is the significance of pre-existing beliefs, their impact on teachers' learning behaviour, their long-term effects on teaching practices, and their tendency to alter over time.

Beliefs appear to be well-entrenched by the time pre-service teachers start their undergraduate training, owing to the very long hours of passive observation of their teachers (Lortie, 1975; Kennedy, 1989; K. Johnson, 1994). Several studies have proved that previous learning experiences have had an impact on teachers' beliefs regarding the learning and teaching of a language (K. Johnson, 1994; Harendita, 2017) (sub-section 2.5.1 may be referred to for an extended discussion about the impact of previous leaning experiences). Fenstermacher (1978) expressed his awareness as a teacher/ educator of the vital role he must play to encourage pre-service teachers to challenge their long-held beliefs especially since they tend to import them

into the classroom setting. Likewise, Horwitz (1985) argued for the necessity of the unveiling of pre-service teachers' pre-conceptions and addressing them straightforwardly in teacher education programmes and courses on teaching methods. This is important because teacher beliefs also exert an influence on how teachers implement teaching related processes and tasks such as lesson planning, decision-making, and pedagogies (Richardson, 1996; S. Borg, 2006), and also on classroom behaviours of teachers (Fang, 1996; Main and Hammond, 2008).

It is for this reason that some researchers conducted their studies to investigate the teachers' practices by studying teachers' beliefs on the assumption that "a more realistic understanding of the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices could emerge when the analysis of what teachers do, forms the basis of eliciting and understanding the beliefs" (Phipps and S. Borg, 2009, p. 382). This highlights the importance of investigating teachers' practices as part of an investigation of their beliefs, which the present thesis took upon itself to achieve. This would mean a better understanding of the teachers' teaching methods and their actions, and not merely a theoretical description of what they believe teaching ought to be (S. Borg, 2006, p. 273). A study of teachers' beliefs might advance teachers' classroom practices and their professional growth, ultimately (Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992; S. Borg, 2006). Some researchers suggest that the impact of beliefs could outweigh that of teacher education programmes in influencing the teachers' actions in the classroom (i.e., Almarza, 1996; Richardson, 1996; Williams and Burden, 1997).

Of particular relevance to this thesis are teachers' beliefs specifically with respect to teaching and learning. In the next section, I consider in some degree of detail, several key studies on beliefs related to teaching and learning.

2.4 Pre-service teachers' beliefs with respect to teaching and learning

Calderhead (1996) has usefully categorised all studies on teachers' beliefs under five main themes:

- Beliefs about teaching:

  Teachers' beliefs regarding the aim of teaching are likely to impact how they perceive the practice of teaching. For example, is teaching a matter of knowledge transmission? Or is it all about facilitation and guidance of students?

- Beliefs about learners and learning:

  Teachers' beliefs regarding how learning takes place as a process in their students is likely to impact how those teachers approach their teaching practice as well as their relationship and rapport with the students.

- Beliefs about subject: refers to how teachers view the subject.

  This refers specifically to the discipline related aspects of any teaching. Teachers' beliefs about the value and relevance of the subject to their students is likely to influence how they teach it.

- Beliefs about learning to teach:

  This refers to teachers' beliefs with respect to their personal and professional development. For instance, if a teacher values training and continual professional development to enhance their skills, they are likely to spend a proportion of their time enhancing their levels of practical knowledge.

- Beliefs about self and teaching role:

  Teachers' beliefs about themselves are expected to extend to affect their practices within the classroom setting as well as shape their perceived roles in such an

environment. For example, a teacher who maintains that their role is to facilitate the learning process would be expected to have a rather student-centred classroom; on the other hand, a teacher who believes that he should be the controller of the lesson, is likely to have a teacher-centred classroom.

These five themes are inter-related, but research studies tend to focus on different themes, largely dependent on the focus and purposes of the researcher. Likewise, in this thesis, the focus is on teacher beliefs with regard to teaching and learning. As such, in the next section, I will report on five key studies in these two main areas: beliefs about teaching and beliefs about learning, acknowledging that these relate to each other and also influence and are influenced by some of the other themes mentioned by Calderhead (1996).

2.4.1 Teachers' beliefs about teaching

It has been established that teachers hold a wide range of beliefs about teaching and how it ought to be executed. Some of these beliefs are related to the issue of classroom management (Erkmen, 2010; Debreli, 2013), use of teaching aids (Mathew and Alidmat, 2013), teaching methods (Isikoglu, 2008; Wallestad, 2009), error correction (Erkmen, 2010; Pavaresh, 2017), the use of L1 vs. L2 in EFL classes (Littlewood and Yu, 2011; Debreli, 2016b; Alharbi, 2019). While there is a range of studies which report on these different aspects, generally teachers' beliefs predominantly focus on the best teaching approach to be embraced in the classroom.

In terms of English language teaching (the specific context investigated in the current study), the research has largely been focused on teaching approaches, namely whether teachers adopt

a functionally-based/communicative approach or a grammar-based/ traditional approach (Richards, Tung and Ng, 1992). The key feature of the communicative approach is that it promotes teaching through activities which involve communication. Furthermore, the teaching approach is considered a student-centered one. In this approach, students are encouraged to speak to improve their verbal communication and this is typically developed using activities such as language games, role-play, problem-solving, pair and group work. The grammar-based approach by contrast, highlights the value of grammar drills, rounds of dictation and memorisation of vocabulary lists, to name but a few. Notwithstanding the criticism leveled against the grammar-based approach in the literature, some empirical studies have revealed that it is still used (i.e., Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Farrell, 1999), and sometimes even preferred (i.e., Farrell, 1999; Urmston, 2003; Feryok, 2008). One reason for the preference of the grammar-based approach could be related to the premise that some teachers may not possess enough knowledge of the communicative approach (Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Farrell, 1999) and hence resort to the grammar-based approach as they themselves have been educated in it (Farrell, 1999; Urmston, 2003; Feryok, 2008). In the next section, I will consider in detail a few studies which have investigated the influence of teachers' beliefs on their approaches to teaching.

Farrell (1999) conducted a study in Singapore with the purpose of uncovering the tacitly held beliefs of thirty-four pre-service teachers about their approach towards teaching English grammar. It was a small-scale study which reported on five pre-service teachers. The study utilised a three-part self-reflective assignment which was meant to make the pre-service teachers more aware of their tacit beliefs and aware of what impact their previous learning experiences may have had on them whilst teaching grammar. This reflective assignment was part of a six-week long core module on 'Grammar Method' that fourth-year students had to

complete to meet the requirements of earning a BA degree. The module introduced and focused on two key approaches for teaching grammar (deductive & inductive). It should be noted that the former approach is considered a top-down approach. In other words, the teacher starts by explaining a grammar rule, after which some prescribed drills follow. The latter inductive approach entails a bottom-up approach whereby a grammar rule is integrated in speaking or writing teaching activities, and students would have to detect the pattern or rule being learnt on their own. Farrell stated that the module did not promote inductive approaches at the expense of the deductive ones. Rather, the pre-service teachers had the freedom to choose either one of the two approaches and had to assess which one would be more effective for their own specific teaching contexts.

In the first part of the reflective assignment, the pre-service teachers were required to write about their previous English language learning experiences in the Singaporean context, and their approach when they teach English grammar in secondary schools. The second part asked the pre-service teachers to write an in-depth lesson plan on a grammar rule of their choice, and to teach it to students at secondary level. In the third part, the pre-service teachers were requested to reflect on their teaching experience, and if they would change any of their employed techniques for teaching grammar. The analyses of the first part of these five pre-service teachers' reflective assignments illustrated that none of them had experienced an inductive approach previously as they were all educated utilising deductive approaches. Hence, none of them was aware of the existence of alternative teaching approaches for teaching grammar before they took the 'Grammar Method' module. The analyses of the last part of the reflective assignment revealed that when teaching grammar, all five pre-service teachers preferred to utilise inductive teaching approaches, albeit for various reasons. Two of these pre-

service teachers justified their choice, maintaining strongly that this approach was the most effective in evoking the students' desire to learn English. The other three pre-service teachers decided to try the inductive approach, notwithstanding they were not fully persuaded of its appropriateness based on their reading during the module and also drawing on previous experiences of being students themselves. Farrell concluded that in view of the fact that all the five pre-service teachers reached the same conclusion having experienced an alternative teaching approach for teaching grammar, proves the effectiveness of raising the awareness of pre-service teachers of their tacit beliefs. It also suggests that teacher education programmes may hold value in enabling teachers to uncover their beliefs, challenging them to perhaps adopt a different approach than one they might have previously learnt. Methodologically, this study uses a reflective assignment as a data elicitation instrument. Similarly, the current thesis hopes to uncover teachers' held beliefs of the teaching approaches they use, and to consider whether these have been influenced by previous learning encounters. This thesis also uses reflection as a data elicitation technique.

Another study by Erkmen (2010) investigated the beliefs held by nine non-native novice teachers of English in a context of a private university in Northern Cyprus over a period of nine months. The study set out to examine the extent of change of such beliefs during the novices' first year of teaching experience. This was set to be achieved through semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, stimulated-recall interviews, post-reflection forms, diaries, credos and a metaphor-elicitation task. The multi-method approach using a number of data instruments is similar to the current thesis. The analysis of the data revealed that prior learning experiences played a significant role in the shaping of the novices' initial beliefs. The study also notably found that by the end of the year there was only a limited change in the novices'

beliefs. Having said that, Erkmen (2010) notes that there was some degree of reinforcement or restructuring of the beliefs. This points to the dynamic nature of beliefs and highlights the challenges associated with studying beliefs. In an attempt to account for the reinforcement and restructuring of the beliefs, Erkmen notes that belief change tends to be linked to individual experiences and contextual factors in the classroom such as discontentment with student behaviour, the syllabus, expectations of students' and the teachers' own awareness of their beliefs and practices. An important element of Erkmen's study and one that resonates with the current thesis is the relationship between beliefs and practices. Erkmen's study revealed an incongruence between beliefs and practices and traced this back to the differences in individual differences and the constraints of the syllabus. Likewise in this thesis, I focus on beliefs held by pre-service teachers and consider the relative impact this has on their teaching practice. Erkmen (2010) concludes that novices continue to learn during their first year of teaching practice and therefore concluded that their held beliefs are more likely to be reinforced or restructured during this time.

An important note to be made at this juncture relates to the conceptualisation of what counts as belief change. In Erkmen's study discussed above, he appeared to make a distinction between a change in the content of belief and a modification of belief (i.e., reinforcement or re-structure). However, other studies such as Cabaroglu (1999), Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000) and Debreli (2013) conceptualised such modification processes as a change in and of itself. I discuss the issue of belief change in more detail in Chapter 2, Section 2.6.

A more recent study which also probed the beliefs of twelve EFL final year pre-service teachers over nine months at a Northern Cyprus-based university is that of Debreli (2013). The study

aimed to discover the types of beliefs being held by the pre-service teachers before they had commenced on their practical stage of their undergraduate programme. In addition, the study aimed to examine the impact of the theories being presented during the first three years of the ELT programme on the pre-service teachers' beliefs, and if and how the practical phase led to a belief change by the end of the programme. It was also a primary concern of the study to elucidate the nature of any potential changes in beliefs. For these purposes, the study used semi-structured interviews in three rounds (at the beginning, during, and at the end) of the programme and diaries which participants wrote regularly as data. The analysis of the data showed that the EFL pre-service teachers began their programme holding an array of beliefs about teaching, of which several had been theoretically driven rather than being informed by practical knowledge. The analysis also pointed out the powerful role of theories presented in the first three years of the ELT programme on shaping the beliefs of the pre-service teachers. It was further observed that all initially held beliefs experienced change of varying degrees. The data analysis also reported that the teachers encountered several challenges when their theoretically-driven beliefs had met the reality of teaching practice. Interestingly, it is noted in the study that on numerous occasions, this resulted in belief change and growth in practical knowledge. I should emphasise here that Debreli perceived any development in beliefs as change. The current thesis considers the influence of teacher education programmes, the practicum component in particular, on belief change and therefore the results Debreli has noted will be revisited when the findings of this thesis are reported in Chapter four.

This section has considered three studies which investigated the specific influence of theoretically held beliefs and beliefs related to prior learning experiences on beliefs about teaching approaches and the practice of teaching. In the next section, I turn to teacher beliefs

about learning and likewise consider its relative impact on belief change related to teaching approaches and the practice of teaching. In particular, some of the studies in the next section consider gender as a variable. Gender is also an element considered in the current thesis.

2.4.2 Teachers beliefs about learning

Research centred on pre-service teachers' held beliefs has revealed several constructs related to language learning which have significant relevance and strong implications for ELT programmes, teacher educators, pre-service teachers, schools, and policy makers. For example, it may be argued that unlocking the tacitly held beliefs of pre-service teachers during their training is likely to increase the awareness of such pre-service teachers of their beliefs and how they could impact the learning behaviours of their students. Peacock (2001) held that investigating pre-service teachers' beliefs, and modifying them if needed, was of paramount importance. This is in accordance with the view that detrimental beliefs could negatively influence the pre-service teachers' teaching process and consequently, also their students' language learning ability (ibid.; Altan, 2012).

Some of the common beliefs related to language learning which are often identified in the literature, include learning of vocabulary and grammar rules (Peacock, 2001; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Cui, 2014), language aptitude (Horwitz, 1985; Tercanlioglu, 2005; Daif-Allah, 2012), motivation and attitudes towards a target language (Vibulphol, 2004; Wong, 2010; Altan, 2012), and communication in a target language (Brown and McGannon, 1998; M. Borg, 2002; Altan, 2006). In the following paragraphs I discuss a few of these and other similar studies and outline their key findings.

In a somewhat similar context to the present thesis, Altan (2012) carried out a questionnaire study using the data instrument BALLI with 217 full-time pre-service teachers who were enrolled on an ELT programme at seven universities in Turkey. The key objective of the study was to understand the pre-service teachers' beliefs about foreign language aptitude, difficulty of language learning, the nature of language learning, and learning & communication strategies. In response to the results which emerged from the study, Altan maintained that the pre-service teachers held an array of beliefs, some of which could hamper effective learning from taking place. These beliefs were primarily related to beliefs about the time it takes to be proficient in the FL, pronunciation and error correction. For example, 42% believed that it could take someone less than a year to two years to learn a language if an hour a day is dedicated to learning it. Such a result, according to Altan, could lead those who held that view to be frustrated if their prospective students' language progress did not rise to their expectations. Further, he held that the results of his study, strongly refer to the need of ELT programmes to highlight to the pre-service teachers the importance of being aware of their own beliefs, and in particular those unrealistic ones, and also challenge them during the programme with appropriate content. I return to several of the specific points in Altan's study when I discuss the findings of the current thesis as some of the findings resonate closely with the findings from this thesis.

Another study, carried out in the same context as mine is that of Javid and Al-malki (2018). Their study aimed to identify the held beliefs about EFL learning of 160 male and female Saudi EFL undergraduates along gender lines using BALLI. This survey-based study used a quantitative approach and ran the data through comparative analysis using the independent-sample t-test method. The results of the analysis uncovered that comparatively higher values had been assigned to most of the BALLI items by the male participants as opposed to their

female counterparts. In addition, the key gender-based differences in the participants' beliefs were noted for the constructs of 'Motivation and Expectation'. The study also reported medium gender-based differences with respect to the constructs of 'Learning and Communication Strategies', and 'The Nature of The Language Leaning'. Drawing on the findings of the study, Javid and Al-malki have called for the integration of more interactive activities into the EFL classes to facilitate communication in the target language. They also promoted the value of training the participants to take advantage of the prospect of online learning resources to compensate for the lack of practice opportunities in the foreign language. The current thesis takes into account gender differences in held beliefs about learning as the sample population is made up of male and female pre-service teachers.

Similarly, and still within the Saudi undergraduate context, Daif-Allah (2012) conducted a study which investigated the beliefs of 250 male and female pre-service teachers about learning of EFL of which 236 were eligible for analysis. The study also sought to unearth the influence of the participants' gender on their beliefs about learning. In harmony with several comparable studies on pre-service teachers' beliefs (e.g., Tercanlioglu, 2005; Javid and Al-malki, 2018), BALLI was employed to elicit the participants' beliefs. According to Daif-Allah (2012), the findings from the descriptive analysis revealed that participants maintained beliefs which he described as "positive and realistic" (p. 32); in particular, these beliefs pertain to the construct of 'Motivation and Expectations', 'The Nature of Language Learning', and 'Communication Strategies'. With regards to the influence of gender in determining beliefs about learning, the inferential analysis showed that both male and female participants responded to the BALLI statements in a fairly similar manner concerning the statements within 'The Difficulty of Language Learning', and 'The Nature of Language Learning'. However, there was statistically

significant gender-based differences observed for statements within the constructs 'Foreign Language Aptitude', 'Communication Strategies', and 'Motivation and Expectations', which was mostly in favour of the female participants. That is to say females tended to agree more than their male counterparts on most of the statements within the aforementioned BALLI constructs. This finding intersects with some of the results of my thesis which I discuss in Chapter 4, Section 4.4. Nonetheless, it is in sharp contrast with that of Tercanlioglu (2005), whose study aimed at exploring the beliefs of 118 male and female Turkish EFL pre-service teachers, and the impact of gender on the beliefs about learning using BALLI. The results did not conform to the initial expectation of Tercanlioglu that the gender is a prime variable in the Turkish context which can potentially affect or even determine behaviours, attitudes, or motivations. That gender as a variable did not play a role in leading the participants to endorse certain beliefs as there were no significant differences observed in any of the BALLI constructs. Another result which emerged from Tercanlioglu's study showed that the pre-service teachers had their highest agreement towards the constructs of 'Motivation and Expectation', then 'The Nature of Language Learning'.

Having considered some of the specific studies about the beliefs held by teachers on teaching and learning, the next section moves the discussion to what research suggests are the sources of these beliefs and considers the relative impact of the different sources on teachers' beliefs.

2.5 Sources of beliefs and how they impact teachers' beliefs

The research on foreign language teacher education and teacher beliefs has identified strong relationships which coexist between teachers' beliefs and three major aspects that shaped the beliefs in question: prior learning experiences, teacher education programme, and teaching

practice. Examples of studies which investigated the impact of the aforementioned sources of beliefs are outlined in the following three sections.

2.5.1 Prior learning experiences

According to Pajares (1992), beliefs are formed early in people's lives through cultural transmission processes and that they play a crucial role, in how people shape their understanding of themselves and the world around them. Therefore, pre-service teachers' beliefs have shown to be greatly influenced by their previous learning experiences (K. Johnson, 1994; Warford and Reeves, 2003; Busch, 2010). A few studies (e.g., Numrich, 1996; Farrell, 1999) also showed that ESL teachers' beliefs may be shaped by their prior learning experiences and that these experiences influence their everyday classroom practices. Indeed, it seems that pre-service teachers learn a great deal about how to teach by drawing on their past experiences as learners; what Lortie (1975) aptly described (indicated previously) as 'apprenticeship of observation'.

Results of studies involving practicing teachers give added support to the notion that teachers' cognitions and educational decisions are shaped by the prior learning experiences of those teachers (S. Borg, 2003). For example, in an empirical study, Farrell (1999) put forward the view that despite the methodological changes set forth by the Ministry of Education in Singapore for the teaching of English using a communicative rather than a structural approach, the majority of pre-service teachers of English continued to be influenced in their teaching practice by methods they were exposed to which entailed memorisation of grammar rules and drills. This leads to pre-service teachers bringing their prior beliefs to the classrooms during teacher education programmes. Successful teacher education programmes help pre-service

teachers question these prior beliefs as they are being introduced to different and sometimes, competing teaching approaches. Farrell's study is discussed in detail in Chapter 2, Section 2.4.1.

According to Numrich (1996), some teachers either utilised and reinforced certain teaching methods or in other cases, undermined them, depending on their past learning experiences. Such prior learning experiences have shown to be able to influence pre-service teachers' future professional careers and practices (Peacock, 2001). For example, Numrich (1996) reported that a noteworthy number of participating teachers in her study proclaimed in their diaries that they tried to inculcate cultural aspects into their own teaching for the mere fact that they themselves had enjoyed learning about their L2 culture in their own pursuit of foreign language learning. By virtue of the same token, those teachers neglected error correction and teaching grammar owing to their own adverse experiences of similar L2 instruction when they were learners. Numrich contends that:

> Error correction was most often cited as a technique that had been used by their language teachers and that had inhibited them from speaking. In some cases it had even turned them off to [sic] language learning because they had felt so humiliated and uncomfortable being corrected. Because of negative experiences of being corrected, several teachers chose not to interrupt their students' flow of speech in the classroom to correct errors (p. 139).

An empirical study by Mattheoudakis (2007) sought to investigate EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs about learning, teaching as well as to track potential changes in such beliefs over the course of three years during a teacher education programme in Greece. The study was also aimed at exploring the influence of teaching practice on pre-service teachers' beliefs. The researcher noticed that the pre-service teachers enter the education programme with preconceived understandings and beliefs about how a foreign language is best learnt and taught.

Due to the homogeneous nature of the participants in terms of their nationality and medium of language education, the researcher assumed that the prior beliefs of pre-service teachers do appear to be merely reflections of previous learning episodes they had been exposed to in their own schooling.

While there are several studies which appear to lend credence to the notion that teachers' pre-existing beliefs about both learning and teaching are influenced by their prior learning experiences, this view is not unchallenged (S. Borg, 2003; Busch, 2010). In an empirical study, Debreli (2016a) reported that the English language teaching programmes exerted the strongest impact on pre-service teachers' beliefs. To illustrate, the theories received early on during the ELT programme seem to have strongly impacted most of the beliefs endorsed by the pre-service teachers in Debreli's study. Similarly, Wong (2010) reported that the teacher education programme, which Malaysian pre-service teachers had undergone, had had a strong impact on their preconceived beliefs regarding the adoption of communicative approaches in language classrooms. In the next section, I will consider the roles of teacher education programmes on teacher beliefs in greater detail.

2.5.2 Teacher education programme

Brookhart and Freeman (1992) reported that pre-service teachers may start their teacher education programmes with potentially inappropriate, naïve or unrealistic understanding of the learning and teaching processes. However, the debate about the extent to which such programmes influence pre-service teachers' beliefs seems far from over. A number of studies concluded that courses in teacher education programmes hardly change pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching, teachers or learning (Weinstein, 1990; Tatto, 1998; Peacock, 2001;

Urmston, 2003; M. Borg, 2005). This is perhaps in view of the previously mentioned conception that pre-service teachers come to teacher education programmes with prior experiences regarding teaching and learning which manifest themselves in the form of beliefs (Wong, 2010) and those beliefs, more often than not, are stable and change resistant (K. Johnson, 1994). Similarly, Song (2015) described teachers' prior beliefs as deep-rooted and attributed their status of being resistant to change to the unique ways in which they were formed because of personal life experiences.

Such a conceptualisation of beliefs being change resistant appears to support Kagan's (1992) assertion after a comprehensive review of the literature, that teacher education programmes have no significant impact on the teachers' beliefs; and that the information presented in courses of teacher education programmes appear to support and reinforce pre-service teachers' prior beliefs rather than challenge them (ibid.).

Nonetheless, Kagan's synthesis of the studies was criticised by Dunkin (1995, 1996) and consequently doubts have been raised in connection with her conclusions (S. Borg, 2003). Dunkin argued that Kagan was selective with respect to the articles and studies she had reviewed, which according to Dunkin biased Kagan's synthesis. Primarily, Dunkin criticised Kagan for making unsubstantiated generalisations about a lack of change in pre-service teachers' prior beliefs and the insignificance of teacher education programmes in providing such teachers with insufficient procedural knowledge. Along similar lines, Bramald, Hardman and Leat (1995) also questioned the findings of several studies that argued for a limited role of teacher training programmes in provoking belief change. They maintained that the quality of the content of teacher education programmes was hardly considered in many of those studies.

They also criticised these studies for perceiving teacher training programmes as a constant as opposed to a variable with respect to altering the beliefs and practices of the pre-service teachers.

Following on from Kagan's work in 1992, Nettle (1996) in a review of 20 research articles, observed both uniformity and change in varying degrees in relation to pre-service teachers' beliefs. In most cases, studies have shown that teacher education and training programmes do have roles in changing prior beliefs of pre-service teachers about learning and teaching, though the exact nature of such change differs not only across studies but even within participants in the same study (S. Borg, 2003). Also, results of mainstream studies (Nettle, 1998; Cabaroglu and Roberts, 2000; Peacock, 2001; Mattheoudakis, 2007) exploring the impact of teacher education programmes on pre-service teachers' beliefs tend to be inconclusive. This may be due to the different contexts and research approaches utilised in those studies (S. Borg, 2011). Similarly, Grossman (2008) and Korthagen (2010) contend that the results of many studies in the literature, undervalue the role of teacher education programmes and that there is continuing debate about the influence such programmes have on teachers and how they impact their professional development. I find it relevant here to reiterate the argument of S. Borg (2011, p. 378) "judgements about the impact of teacher education depend on how 'impact' is operationalized". He further explained that if 'impact' implies a deep and drastic change then the training programme in which his study was conducted, would not be viewed to be impactful on the beliefs of the participants in his study. If, however, 'impact' is taken to include a range of developmental processes, the impact would then be considered significant, albeit variable among participants. This thesis hopes to address this issue with a focus on the influence of teacher education programmes on teacher beliefs.

In the next section, I move on to discuss the aspect of teaching practice as a potential source of beliefs, and as an influence on beliefs.

2.5.3 Teaching practice (practicum)

One focus of teacher belief research is the link between beliefs held by teachers and their correlation to actual practices in the classroom. Simultaneously, this is a key feature of my thesis. Much of such research emerged to scrutinise the complex interplay between the two constructs of beliefs and classroom practices (i.e., Ng and Farrell, 2003; Feryok, 2008; Orafi and S. Borg, 2009; Phipps, 2009; Phipps and S. Borg, 2009; Li and Walsh, 2011; Basturkmen, 2012; Zheng, 2013; Pavaresh, 2017), and the extent of the relationship between them. Despite it being established that a relationship between the teachers' stated beliefs and their actual classroom practices exists, such a relationship does not appear to be a straightforward one in that the teachers' actions may not necessarily be a reflection of their beliefs (Pavaresh, 2017). Hence, results of many studies investigating the extent of congruence between beliefs and practices came up with contradictory findings (Basturkmen, 2012).

A potential reason for the discrepancy could be linked to the fact that most of such studies employed a case-study design (ibid.). In this connection, Phipps and S. Borg (2009) argued that the research findings would be affected by the methods in which they were being collected. In their view, different results could emerge if data was elicited through different techniques. For example, teachers' beliefs derived using a questionnaire may reflect idealistic or theoretical beliefs rather than what they truly believe in. Such beliefs may be influenced by the propositional or technical knowledge of those teachers. On the other hand, beliefs obtained via a discussion of an actual classroom teaching session may be more indicative of what was

practiced in reality. Consequently, such beliefs are likely to be a reflection of the teachers' knowledge of practice or experience (ibid.).

Another yet more widely cited reason potentially responsible for the inconsistency between beliefs and practices has to do with contextual factors (e.g., time-constraints, prescribed curriculums, school policies, heavy workloads, large classes, and teaching philosophy of supervisors being imposed on their pre-service teachers etc.) (i.e., S. Borg, 2003; Basturkmen, 2012). Such factors may cause teachers to adjust their beliefs, and in some cases cause them to only change their classroom teaching practices without their actual beliefs being affected (Phipps and S. Borg, 2009). In the latter scenario (a change in practice but not in belief), this would be considered a behavioral change rather than a cognitive one. Pavaresh (2017) holds that contextual factors exert stronger influences than a teacher's desire to choose a particular favourable teaching approach. Hence, despite their preference, they may not be able to put it into practice when they are in a classroom setting. This is in alignment with the premise that beliefs exist in a complex network where core and peripheral beliefs compete for influence (Green, 1971; Pajares, 1992; Zheng, 2013). Indeed, Zheng's (2013) study revealed that none of the beliefs held by the participants was in isolation from the rest of the other beliefs held. This suggests that the participants' beliefs were situated within a belief system, with a positive and sometimes contradictory relationship between them. There is some evidence in favour of core beliefs rendering them more able to influence practice than do peripheral beliefs (i.e., Pajares, 1992; S. Borg, 1998; Zheng, 2013). It has also been suggested that a belief may not correspond with an actual practice in that such a belief may still be in a process of change. When such is the case, a change in beliefs would be anticipated to take place before a change in practice is to be expected (Richardson et al., 1991).

A useful description of the relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom practice is to view it as symbiotic (Foss and Kleinsasser, 1996). The results of many studies from the main-stream literature demonstrated that language teachers' teaching actions are influenced by an array of interacting and frequently contradictory factors (S. Borg, 2003); for example, beliefs that are either shaped by the theoretical input received in the ELT programme, previous learning experiences or contextual factors. That being said, teachers' beliefs exert a strong influence on their own actions, yet, they do not necessarily consistently echo stated beliefs of teachers, their pedagogical ideologies, and their own theories (ibid.). Cole and Knowles (1993) maintain that the exposure of the pre-service teachers to the reality of school and teaching (what it involves to be a teacher) gets them involved in forming a mental process leading those teachers to abandon their initial images, expectations, and hopes (i.e., ideals they had envisaged about the teaching process, theirs and their students' roles) which are manifested in a pronounced manner once they embark on their practicum experiences. During such a mental process, pre-service teachers may have to reconsider some or all of their prior beliefs and theoretical knowledge.

Additionally, the development and stability of beliefs may be affected because pre-service teachers begin to alter their pre-existing beliefs as they encounter the realities of the classroom (Mattheoudakis, 2007). For example, K. Johnson (1994) elaborated that four pre-service teacher participants expressed a preference towards a student-centred approach in their teaching. Nonetheless, when they started teaching, they ultimately opted for a more teacher-centred one. A similar pattern was also observed in my thesis (see Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1.4). According to them, their reasons for doing so was to retain authority in the classroom and keep the flow of instruction. K. Johnson concluded that the analysis of the pre-service teachers' reflections of

their own teaching and instructional practices pointed out that a change in beliefs seemed unlikely, due to the realities of the classroom situation.

This discrepancy between pre-service teachers' stated beliefs and their classroom practices has also been reported by Debreli (2012). In his study, the beliefs of three final year pre-service teachers of English in relation to learning and teaching of English as a foreign language was investigated during a nine-month preparatory teacher training programme in one of the universities in Northern Cyprus. Analysis of the data revealed that the vast majority of the beliefs held by the pre-service teachers had their roots in various stages of their own schooling as well as in their recent course of study during the English language teaching programme. Interestingly, no significant change in beliefs was reported throughout the first term. During the second term however, the participants exhibited more awareness of their previously held beliefs due to their limited opportunities to observe and or even teach in real classrooms. The teaching experience proved effective in developing/ changing the participants' beliefs. This confirms the finding of K. Johnson (1996) in which an analysis of her sample of one female pre-service teacher demonstrated a significant gap between the participant's understanding of how the teaching process should be approached and the realities of her teaching context.

The potential for prior beliefs to change as a result of undergoing teaching practice have been examined in a number of studies (Pajares, 1992; Calderhead, 1996; Inceçay, 2011). To Pajares (1992), prior beliefs can possibly change, provided they are tested and have proved to have yielded unsuccessful outcomes. According to him, "beliefs are unlikely to be replaced unless they prove unsatisfactory, and they are unlikely to prove unsatisfactory unless they are challenged and one is unable to assimilate them into existing conceptions" (p. 321).

Snapshots of findings from the literature discussed above show that teaching practice is of paramount significance in altering, developing, and changing pre-service teachers' beliefs. They also draw our attention to the fact that prior beliefs are held from very early experiences in schools, and this should remind us that in order for them to change, time is needed and additionally, they need to be put into practice by the pre-service teachers.

2.6 Belief change in pre-service teachers

One of the popular areas of research on teacher beliefs has been in connection with the issue of belief change. Several studies in the literature noticed that beliefs tended to be resistant to change (i.e., Kagan, 1992; K. Johnson, 1992; Peacock, 2001; Song, 2015). However, there are other studies which have come up with contradictory results and reported that change in teachers' beliefs had been observed (i.e., K. Johnson, 1996; Cabaroglu, 1999; Cabaroglu and Roberts, 2000; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Debreli, 2013). In the literature, it is argued that an awareness of the structure of belief change processes of pre-service teachers would be expected to improve the quality of teacher education programmes and the practicum experiences (Nespor, 1987; Clark, 1988). Additionally, investigating belief change could bring on the maximum advantage from teacher education programmes and practicum experiences (Tillema, 2000). This is in view that existing beliefs greatly influence what the pre-service teachers perceive to be valid information from their courses (Kagan, 1992). As far as this thesis is concerned, one of its aims is to investigate whether or not the beliefs of the pre-service teachers (practice group) change after the practicum experience.

In this section, a discussion of the tendency of beliefs resistant to change, the nature of the belief change processes and some of the key studies which either did or did not report belief change

will be presented. Further, the impact of the teacher education programme and the practicum experience on belief change will be investigated by discussing and exploring relevant empirical studies.

As discussed earlier, the tendency of beliefs to resist change could be linked to the idea that they would have been well-established by the time pre-service teachers commence their training programmes (K. Johnson, 1994). Similarly, beliefs tend to be rigid and change resistant for they were acquired from an early age (Rokeach, 1968). Likewise, what also makes beliefs resistant to change could be attributed to the long hours of observation as students (Lortie, 1975; K. Johnson, 1994; Peacock, 2001), or to the lack of informative feedback provided by the teacher during the course of the teacher education programme (Joram and Gabriele, 1998). Such beliefs could function as filters through which the new information gets rejected (Kagan, 1992). As beliefs are often held unconsciously, they do not always easily lend themselves to change or replacement (Pajares, 1992; S. Borg, 2006). However, a belief may still remain unchanged even when presented with compelling evidence to the contrary, especially when it is part of a deeper stable belief (Phipps, 2009). Another reason for beliefs being resistant to change could be traced to the contradictions between the held beliefs and the new information that teachers are introduced to (Lasley, 1980).

With that being said, it is perhaps central to then understand that if change does indeed take place, whether that change is brought about willingly or whether it is imposed. In the latter case, the change could come about by some obligations of institutional, political or cultural nature (Richardson and Placier, 2001). This thesis is primarily concerned with change which takes place willingly/ voluntarily. Voluntary change in teachers' beliefs could take place when

teachers are disillusioned with their own teaching methods and when they realise that certain teaching procedures are not effective (Freeman, 1989; Murphy and Mason, 2006). Pajares (1992) explains that "beliefs are unlikely to be replaced unless they prove unsatisfactory, and they are unlikely to prove unsatisfactory unless they are challenged and one is unable to assimilate them into existing conceptions" (p. 321). This demonstrates that belief change is a challenging cognitive process.

As highlighted previously, a vital aspect central to the discussion of teachers' belief change is the role of teacher training programmes in bringing about change in teachers' beliefs. However, despite their importance for the improvement of education, professional development programmes for teachers tend to be ineffective when it comes to belief change (Kagan, 1992; Cohen and Hill, 2000). One key reason for this ineffectiveness, is that such programmes fail to explain to the pre-service teachers, the nature of change processes which teachers typically undergo (Guskey, 1986). Guskey states that the traditional teacher education programmes eventually seek to bring about change in teachers' beliefs by drawing on the premise that a change in their beliefs is likely to lead to a change in actual practices and that consequently, this could extend to impacting their students' learning outcomes. Guskey (1986) proposed a model for the nature of the belief change process. He conceptualised that in order for a belief to change, the teacher has to first change his classroom practices and once they realise that these new practices did lead to positive learning outcomes, only then would they change their beliefs, as seen in the figure below:

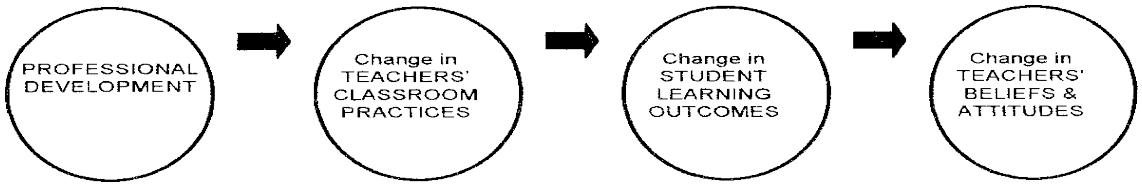


Figure 2.1 A model of teacher belief change (Adapted from Guskey, 2002)

Guskey (2002) indicated that belief changes occurred in the teachers when they observed positive learning outcomes exhibited by their students following the implementation of new classroom practices. He further reported that the teachers reused and strengthened the effective practices and abandoned those that were not. However, Guskey's model of belief change has been criticised as it conceptualised belief change as a linear process rather than a cyclical one, thus overlooking the complexity of belief change (Zhang, 2016).

Cabaroglu (1999) also proposed what is now a widely influential model of the representation of the nature of belief change process. The popularity of her model could be attributed to its magnitude encompassing the professional, affective, cognitive, and social aspects of the teachers' beliefs. Cabaroglu's model, presented in table 2.2, could be viewed as more realistic in capturing and conceptualising changes in the teachers' beliefs. As per Cabaroglu's (1999) model, the processes which teachers exhibit as they undergo belief change are some of the following:

Table (2.2): Belief development processes

Category label	Distinctive features	Example
Awareness/realisation	Awareness of a discrepancy, conflict of coherence	"I realised that..."
Consolidation/confirmation	Strengthening of existing beliefs	"I do actually feel stronger about..."
Elaboration/polishing	Reconstruction of beliefs by addition, omission and so on; deepening of belief by additional dimensions	"I've got slightly more sophisticated ideas now." "What I am saying now is just a bit more developed."
Addition	Integration of new beliefs	"...the notion of autonomy is quite a new one to me."
Reordering	Rearrangement of beliefs regarding their importance	"more and more I am realising that that isn't necessarily the most important thing..."
Re-labelling	Re-naming of a construct	"What I was then calling dynamic approach now I'd call active pupil-centred."
Linking up	Establishing a connection between constructs	"...lesson planning will guarantee a good classroom management."
Disagreement	Rejection of existing beliefs or presented information	"I don't feel that anymore." "No, teacher shouldn't move everywhere."

Reversal	Adoption of opposite of previous belief	"[a teacher] has to be... a little bit mad... " (Interview I/ST14) "A bit mad no!..." (Interview II/ST14)
Pseudo- change	Pretended or false change in beliefs; not a real change	"I have to do it, I'll do it". "I still agree with that but it's like doctors say 'we want to get paid more.' I think it's not possible."
No change	No apparent change or development in beliefs	"I feel the same way that I did at the beginning of the course."

Adapted from Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000)

As such, Cabaroglu's model may be deemed more holistic than Guskey's model because it does not view change as a linear process, but it rather describes thoroughly, the movements and developments in the pre-service teachers' beliefs throughout their teacher education programme.

As mentioned earlier, a review of the literature shows that there is no consensus on the effectiveness of teacher education programmes in changing the pre-service teachers' beliefs. For example, such programmes are not viewed to be powerful interventions (i.e., Kagan, 1992; Almarza, 1996; Peacock, 1998, 2001; M. Borg, 2002; Erkmen, 2010). By contrast, other studies have observed that the teacher education programmes have been influential in bringing about change in beliefs (i.e., K. Johnson, 1996; Cabaroglu and Roberts, 2000; Mattheoudakis, 2007

Debreli, 2013). For example, Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000) conducted a study with twenty student teachers who were taking a 36-week PGCE course in Modern Foreign Languages teaching in a university located in England. Most of the student teachers had some previous teaching experience which ranged from a short one-month period to as long as 14 years. The purpose of their study was to test the popular perception that beliefs are inflexible. Another purpose was to explore how the held beliefs of the student teachers about learning and teaching developed during their PGCE course. The author indicated that the course model of learning to teach was reflective and experiential. This implies that the student teachers were consistently involved in processes of reflection and self-evaluation throughout the duration of the course, with the aim of increasing their awareness of their own tacit beliefs and how they evolved. The data was collected through interviews, observation and stimulated interviews in order to examine the nature of beliefs development. The findings of their study revealed that of the twenty student teachers, only one teacher's belief content remained intact throughout the duration of the course. The authors concluded that two features of the course (i.e., reflective and experiential) were particularly effective in promoting belief development of the student teachers. These features were that of confronting pre-existing beliefs from an early stage during the course and enabling the student teachers to self-regulate their learning activities. Drawing on their interpretation of the findings which emerged from their study, the authors highlighted the value of the reflective approach in the teacher education programme. This also encouraged similar programmes to incorporate such approaches as they would be expected to aid student teachers to confront their pre-held beliefs. This empirically-drawn implication was followed in my thesis and it proved useful in enabling the pre-service teachers to reflect on events from their past learning experiences which could potentially be influential on their beliefs about learning or teaching of English. I discuss this implication in Chapter 7, Section 7.3.2.

A few studies did not observe any significant belief change as a result of the effects of teacher education programmes. For instance, Peacock's (2001) study was set out to track the beliefs held by 146 full-time ESL pre-service teachers over a three-year undergraduate TESL programme in Hong Kong. One of the key purposes of the study was to establish whether their beliefs would change during the programme. Another purpose of the study was to examine whether their beliefs were different from ESL teachers who had more teaching experience. He used a mixed method approach with several data instruments, quite like the current thesis. Data for the study was collected through four research instruments: BALLI, ESL proficiency scores, an instructional package, and classroom observations. Peacock found that making implicit beliefs of the pre-service teachers explicit by encouraging reflection on previous learning experiences during training programmes was a key motivator for belief change. He further suggested that if any pre-service teacher held a belief which could negatively affect their prospective students, the teacher educators within the programme should intervene and consider changing a potentially detrimental belief.

A further study by M. Borg (2002) examined the impact of a four-week teacher education CELTA programme on the trainees' beliefs. The method employed here was an in-depth case study approach through interviews, questionnaires, lesson plans, assignments and through observation during the course of study. The study revealed that the pre-service teachers entered their CELTA course holding an array of beliefs, but for a large part, the beliefs held by the pre-service teachers had remained unchanged.

It is equally important to note that belief change needs to be genuine and not superficial. Almarza (1996) observed that the pre-service teachers in her study changed their beliefs only superficially to please their supervisors and to avoid being negatively assessed.

I now turn to discussing the impact of the practicum experience in leading to a belief change among pre-service teachers which has been examined in several studies (i.e., Almarza, 1996; Richards, Ho, and Giblin, 1996; Tillema, 2000; Hobbs, 2007; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Ng, Nicholas and Williams, 2010; Yuan and Lee, 2014). For example, Hobbs (2007) conducted her PhD study focusing on the effects of the practicum experience on changing the beliefs held by pre-service teachers about learning and teaching. Hobbs carried out her study with twelve CELTA trainees in the U.K. While half of the trainees had some prior teaching experience, the other half did not. Interestingly, none of the trainees but one intended to take English language teaching to be a long-term job. Their motives for enrolling in the CELTA course were that they were either about to retire or they reasoned that they would benefit from some formal training in order to increase the likelihood of finding better paying jobs overseas. Hobbs utilised semi-structured interviews, unstructured and group-recorded interviews, questionnaires, course documents and written autobiographies to collect her data. Similar to M. Borg's (2002) study discussed earlier, Hobbs' (2007) study showed slight change in beliefs which led her to conclude that the practicum element of the course failed to achieve any belief change in the CELTA trainees.

As illustrated in the studies of M. Borg (2002) and Hobbs (2007) no changes in the pre-service teacher's beliefs were observed. Nevertheless, the data revealed that some of their beliefs were validated and reinforced. According to these two studies the absence of change is due to the

alignment between the pre-service teachers' beliefs and the philosophy and content of the training course. As previously mentioned (see Chapter 2, Section 2.6), Cabaroglu's (1999) belief change framework would perceive validated and reinforced beliefs as Consolidation/confirmation (see table 2.2), which emphasise the need for a unification of what may be conceptualised as a belief change to avoid inconclusive and contradictory results.

One study by Yuan and Lee (2014) seemed to suggest a positive impact of the practicum experience. They set out to identify the pre-existing beliefs of three pre-service teachers before a 10-week practicum component which was part of a four-year undergraduate language teacher education programme in China among other aims related to teaching and learning. Each of the pre-service teachers had a mentor (in-service teacher from the same school of practice). A mentor's role was to facilitate and to evaluate. Data was collected before, during and after the practicum and obtained through interviews, classroom observation, stimulated recall interviews and weekly journals which were assignments that needed completion and assessment during the course of the programme. Yuan and Lee employed the belief change processes framework used in Cabaroglu and Roberts' (2000) study to identify the potential belief changes undergone by the pre-service teachers in their study. The findings of their study revealed that the pre-existing beliefs of the pre-service teachers exhibited various change processes throughout the practicum phase. These changes manifested themselves in the form of modification, disagreement, confirmation, integration, realisation and elaboration. The study also concluded that the mentors had a pivotal role with respect to nurturing development and instigating change of the pre-service teachers' beliefs. For example, a mentor of one pre-service teacher provided a cognitive and practical assistance during the development of a lesson design. Such support bolstered that teacher in the formation of a situational understanding of the process of language

teaching. This finding in particular is useful to note as it highlights the positive role of a mentor in contributing to a belief change process to take place in the minds of the pre-service teachers.

Collectively, the studies reported above and others from the literature do not present conclusive results about the nature of belief change in pre-service teachers. Some of the reasons for such inconclusiveness have been illustrated throughout this section, such as settings and study design (S. Borg, 2011), or different belief change models. Concurrently, some studies which were conducted in similar contexts revealed contradicting findings despite measuring belief change using the same instrument, BALLI (cf. Peacock, 2001; Mattheoudakis, 2007).

2.6.1 Methodology used in research on teacher beliefs

At this point in this chapter, it is necessary to focus on the methodological approaches used in the various studies. A more in-depth discussion is provided in the Methodology Chapter on the instruments used in the current investigation, but it is helpful to consider the main instrument used in the vast majority of studies and consider the benefits and limitations. This is the questionnaire instrument called BALLI which is used in a substantial number of studies I reviewed on teacher beliefs. In some cases, it is used as the sole instrument and in other cases, like it is in the current thesis, BALLI is used in combination with several other data instruments.

Although BALLI has been used extensively in studies that have sought to investigate learner and teacher beliefs, this data collection instrument has received some criticism. Since it is an instrument that relies on self-reporting, BALLI could reflect the respondents' ideals rather than what they actually believed in (S. Borg, 2006; Phipps and S. Borg, 2009). Such a key

consideration may be seen to affect the findings of any study which uses BALLI as the sole instrument. Additionally, when tracking classroom practices over a period of time to determine belief change, administering a questionnaire repeatedly may not help in uncovering what specific aspects have influenced a teacher's change in mindset of her/his beliefs (ibid.). This is due to the prefabricated nature of questionnaires.

With particular regard to the issue of belief change, it was argued that the studies which did not report change in beliefs or found that belief only partially changed, had arrived at such results owing to them utilising quantitative data collection instruments such as BALLI (Kagan, 1990; S. Borg, 2006; Phipps and S. Borg, 2009; Erkmen, 2010). Such quantitative research instruments are not viewed as effective in eliciting detailed data concerning the beliefs held by participants (ibid.). Debreli (2013) also maintains that studies which utilise BALLI as a data collection instrument tend to come up with 'clichéd themes' regarding learning and teaching beliefs, owing to the closed nature of the questionnaire (p. 87). Conversely, studies which do not employ quantitative research instruments offer up different themes than those present in BALLI studies (i.e., Cabaroglu and Roberts, 2000; Phipps, 2009, Phipps and S. Borg, 2009; Erkmen, 2010; Debreli, 2013) making meaningful comparisons challenging.

Another criticism is that as beliefs are abstract in nature, such beliefs should not be examined solely by some pre-determined statements. Rather, the utilisation of research instruments which might stimulate recall are needed (Kagan, 1990) to offer a degree of balance in the research approach. My thesis benefited from this recommendation and therefore BALLI was not the sole data collection instrument, but rather, complementary to other instruments. In fact, in direct

response to Kagan's criticism, this thesis uses reflective essays to recall prior influential experiences on the pre-service teachers' beliefs.

In a similar vein to Kagan's (1992) criticism above, Wong (2010) also reminded that the beliefs about language learning held by the pre-service teachers in her study were not limited to those contained within the BALLI instrument. This is in acknowledgement that it is challenging to capture a full a picture of such an affective and a cognitive construct as one's belief system (Bernat, 2006).

Therefore, a mixed method approach using a number of different data instruments might provide a holistic view of belief and belief change. More information and discussion on the methodology adopted in the thesis is offered in Chapter 3.

2.7 Rationale for the present study

A few studies have argued for the existence of a strong relationship between language teachers' beliefs and how those teachers approached both learning and teaching (Pajares, 1992; Calderhead, 1996; S. Borg, 2006). Despite the findings of such studies that teachers' beliefs exert an influence on how teachers understand, think and act, insufficient attention has been paid to the study of the origins and nature of teachers' beliefs and how they are manifested in the professional realities of language teaching (Clark and Peterson, 1986; Nespor, 1987; K. Johnson, 1994; Debreli, 2013). The reason for this, according to K. Johnson (1994) is in part, owing to the fact that beliefs are neither easily defined nor studied as a psychological construct.

Such a construct has led some researchers to expect it to have significant value attached to research on teacher beliefs and teaching (Fenstermacher, 1978; Pintrich, 1990; Pajares, 1992).

Additionally, the studies which have sought to address teachers' beliefs have often suffered from "definitional problems, poor conceptualisations, and differing understandings of beliefs and belief structure" (Pajares, 1992, p. 307). Along the same lines, K. Johnson (1994) holds that the teachers' beliefs are inextricable and equally hard to unravel. Therefore, Rokeach (1968) postulated that they can neither be solely observed nor measured, but rather inferred from the intentions, sayings, and actions of individuals. However, such necessary prerequisites have been neglected in studies investigating teachers' beliefs (Pajares, 1992). He affirms "understanding the belief structures of teachers and teacher candidates is essential to improving their professional preparation and teaching practices" (p. 307). Hence, investigating the beliefs of pre-service teachers is crucial as it could enrich the understanding of the thought processes of teachers, how pre-service teachers learn to teach, and the role that teacher training could possibly play in leading to a change in teacher beliefs, which this thesis seeks to achieve.

Pre-service language teachers have been shown to embark on their training programmes with a number of beliefs that are inappropriate, unrealistic, and naïve (Brookhart and Freeman, 1992; Song, 2015). A lot of those beliefs are not related to effective teaching methods and harbour a common belief that when interacting with their students, teachers should play the role of a friend (Urmston, 2003). This belief however, seems to be culture dependant. For example, in cultures such as the one where my thesis took place, a teacher is perceived not only as a person of authority, but also as someone that must be respected and who deserves great reverence from their students. For this reason, it has been suggested that language teacher training courses

contain some aspects of ‘deconditioning’ with the purpose of altering potentially detrimental beliefs which may hinder the learning process (Holec, 1987). Drawing on the findings which emerged from my thesis, I discuss this implication further in Chapter 7, Section 7.3.1.

A comprehensive look at the literature revealed that most of the research which investigated teachers’ beliefs had been conducted in the West. In a review of the literature, S. Borg (2006) has reported that only 15% of the studies were carried out in Eastern or Middle Eastern countries and where non-native teachers of English were the subjects in those studies; consequently, leaving us with minimal insights from such contexts, a gap that the present thesis could help to bridge. S. Borg (2003) contends:

> Much research has been conducted with native speaker teachers working with small groups of motivated adult learners studying in universities or private institutions. In contrast, we have minimal insight into state school settings where languages are taught by non-native teachers ... Investigations of such settings, then, are another priority (p. 106).

Moreover, the majority of studies which examined non-native teachers’ beliefs have been applied to pre-service teachers during postgraduate programmes. This could mean that most, if not all the teachers could have had some degree of experience in teaching either as a part of their undergraduate programme or after commencing their undergraduate education. Owing to the varying degrees of teaching experience, Debreli (2013) highlighted the importance of making distinctions between pre-service teachers with no prior teaching experience and those with some experience. My thesis falls in the former category (i.e., pre-service teachers with no prior experience).

A fundamental component of teacher training courses is a teaching practice part, research on which has indicated that this constituent may affect the prior beliefs of pre-service teachers (K. Johnson, 1996; Farrell, 2001). In other words, the teaching practice may be instrumental in confirming, changing, and or altering such pre-existing beliefs as much as they impact the teaching practice. In my thesis, the impact of the teaching practice on changing the pre-existing beliefs of the pre-service teachers have been investigated (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3).

In general terms, the content of academic training programmes geared towards pre-service teachers has shown to shape their existing beliefs (Cabaroglu and Roberts, 2000; Clarke, 2008; Busch, 2010; Debreli, 2016a). For instance, Busch (2010) noticed that upon the completion of a course in second language acquisition, trainee teachers revised their beliefs with respect to the time needed for students' to learn effectively, the extent of the difficulty for language acquisition by the students, and the importance of correcting errors. This is expected to take place once pre-service teachers are confronted with the classroom realities and how learning actually happens, which may contradict or challenge their existing beliefs (K. Johnson, 1996; Numrich, 1996). Nonetheless, there is no consensus yet, as to the extent to which teaching practice and teacher training in general, impacts teachers' beliefs and this precisely is what my thesis is set out to address by using a mixed-methods design (see Chapter 3, Section 3.3 for a discussion of the research design used in this thesis). Some studies have noticed little to no change in beliefs over time (Peacock, 2001; Mattheoudakis, 2007) and researchers maintained that beliefs remain stable and are shaped by one's own former experiences (Song, 2015). S. Borg (2011) postulated that the continuing controversy and inconsistencies among studies could be attributed to variations in settings and study designs. Therefore, further research in this area as conducted here may be of merit.

Chapter Three

Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the methodology used in this study. Principally, the chapter aims to describe the methodological processes utilised in the study and puts forward reasons for the selection of data and methods undertaken. It also seeks to explain the methodological procedures used in this study.

In the following sections, I have briefly outlined the aims of this research. I have also sought to outline the research design, the sampling process, the data collection instruments used and the rationale for their use. I have also discussed the role of the researcher and the confidentiality and the anonymity aspect of my research. Outlines of issues related to access and acceptance of conducting the research, obtaining informed consent of the participants, conducting pilot studies and of the data collection processes are also provided.

3.2 Restatement of the research aims

This study aims to achieve the following objectives:

- Identify EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding learning and teaching.
- Discover whether EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs about learning change upon completing the practicum experience.
- Establish the extent of alignment between the EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching and their actual practice.

- Determine whether there are significant differences seen in the set of beliefs about learning held by EFL pre-service teachers depending on the type of programme of study.
- Determine the existence of significant differences in beliefs about learning among the EFL pre-service teachers attributable to their gender.
- Reveal the critical episodes from EFL pre-service teachers' past schooling which shaped or may shape their beliefs.

The objectives above, are to be achieved by tracking and exploring the beliefs of one hundred and fifty EFL pre-service teachers who were enrolled in an English language undergraduate programme. In order to fulfil the objectives, the research used a triangulation design to obtain the data. This comprised a questionnaire, semi-structured interviews, classroom observation and reflective essays (for a detailed discussion, see Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.3). The limits of the triangulation design of these various types of data are to be borne in mind. As acknowledged elsewhere in this thesis, triangulation has proved useful, particularly when its employment helped validate some of the results obtained by using the various instruments mentioned. That said, it must be acknowledged that this has not been universally possible using the triangulation design and must therefore be highlighted as a limitation. To reiterate, utilising varied instruments in this study could strengthen the validity and reliability of its findings (Chapter Seven, Sections 7.2 &7.4 may be seen for a discussion around the utility and limitation of such instruments, respectively) as the concept of belief has been described as a complex one to be studied (S. Borg, 2006; Phipps and S. Borg, 2009) (more discussion about the complex nature of belief is provided in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.1). In addition, this study may be perceived as being context-dependent given that the participants from whom data was obtained, were exclusively Saudi

undergraduate EFL pre-service teachers studying at a Saudi university and who spoke Arabic as their mother tongue.

A longitudinal study would have allowed for a more comprehensive set of findings. However, this was beyond the scope of a PhD thesis and therefore, investigating the beliefs of EFL pre-service teachers at their final term of the undergraduate programme was deemed the most appropriate for a study of this nature. The reason for using the final terms of the programme for the purposes of this study was based on the fact that during the final term, the pre-service teachers would have almost finished their theoretical modules about language learning and teaching. They would therefore be ideally equipped with the necessary pedagogical knowledge to commence their professional teaching careers. Therefore, this seemed an appropriate juncture to examine the beliefs they held about teaching and learning and their reflections on practice.

3.3 Research design

3.3.1 Mixed methods research

After what Dörnyei (2007, p. 163) described as the 'paradigm war' between qualitative and quantitative researchers in the 1970s and 1980s, which was brought about by their ideological differences, there came a period where both research approaches were not only accepted, but also integrated in a single study. Researchers over time have given numerous terms to this integration of approaches. The various terminology includes mixed model studies, multimethodological research, methodological triangulation, multi-trait-multimethod research, interrelating qualitative and quantitative data, and mixed methods research (Creswell et al., 2003). The field however, seems to have embraced the term 'mixed methods' (Dörnyei, 2007). This is the broad approach adopted in this thesis. To meet the aims of this study, a triangulation design was utilised for data collection and analysis. Primarily, such a design could help decrease

the level of bias from interviewer and the observer and improve reliability and the validity of information (K. Johnson, 1992). In order to elicit and understand the beliefs of pre-service teachers, it was important to observe them in an actual classroom practicum setting where their stated beliefs would be tested against the realities of the classroom environment.

A mixed methods research design using triangulated data would therefore be a rigorous method to achieve the objectives of the thesis. Mixed methods research design according to Creswell (2009), is a procedure for collecting, analysing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study to understand a research problem. This type of design dates back to the mid to late 1980s, albeit its origins possibly date further back (Creswell, 2014). Triangulation design, according to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018), refers to the attempts of social sciences to "map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint, and in so doing, by making use of both quantitative and qualitative data" (p. 265). In the same vein, Creswell (2014) maintains that "early thoughts about the value of multiple methods, called mixed methods, resided in the idea that all methods had bias and weaknesses, and that the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data neutralised the weaknesses of each form of data" (pp. 14-15).

The main construct of this study is about beliefs and these are thought of as complex to be studied as noted earlier (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.3.1). According to some researchers, descriptive methods of data collection are recommended as best to address the complexity of the beliefs construct (S. Borg, 2006; Phipps and S. Borg, 2009) because they describe a given status quo as thoroughly and meticulously as possible (Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun, 2015). Therefore, this form of data collection entails the use of valuable data for a better understanding

of belief structure and also enhances the validity and reliability of a research exercise (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

Further, it has been claimed that qualitative research is suitable in investigating beliefs as quantitative instruments may fall short of capturing the full range of beliefs held by teachers (M. Borg, 2001). Quantitative research on the other hand, has an added bonus in that it may be utilised to obtain data from a wider population, providing better insight into how certain common beliefs exist among pre-service teachers. Hence, a combination of both approaches is thought to be useful for enriching and legitimising the validity of the results of the present study. Moreover, Phipps and S. Borg (2009, p. 381) stated that for the purposes of studying teachers' beliefs and practices, a wide range of methodological possibilities should be employed, given the view that "different elicitational strategies may elicit different responses".

3.3.1.1 Sampling

"The quality of a piece of research stands or falls by the appropriateness of its methodology and instrumentation and by the suitability of the sampling strategy that has been adopted" (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2018, p. 202). A sample, in a piece of research, refers to the group of people or things from which information might be attained, whereas the larger group to which someone seeks to apply the results is known as the population (Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun, 2015). A few constraints like time, financial cost, and accessibility make approaching the whole population an unviable option. Hence, data needs be gained from a smaller number of that population in a manner that ensures that the knowledge obtained represents the population under scrutiny (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000). Decisions about sampling in any research needs be taken in the early stages of planning to execute that research (ibid.). It is with this in

mind that the sample was identified as final year undergraduate students who had received enough theoretical knowledge about teaching and learning and also have had the opportunity to reflect on the practical applications of these theories to classroom practice.

Once the sample group has been identified, the next stage is selection from the sample group. In research, there exist two main strategies for sampling which are probability (random) or nonprobability (nonrandom) (Cohen and Holliday, 1996; Merriam, 1998; Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun, 2015). Probability sampling is utilised in studies of a quantitative nature with the aim of generalising their results. The sample is used and meant to represent the target population of phenomenon. Nonprobability sampling is utilised in studies of a qualitative nature with the aim of exploring incidents and the potential relationships that may exist between them (Merriam, 1998; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000). Another difference between probability and nonprobability sampling is that members of the wider population, of the former method from which the sample is taken, enjoy equal chances of being selected since the selection criterion is merely a matter of chance. Conversely, some members of the wider population in nonrandom sampling will certainly be excluded, while others will definitely be included. This means that there is no equal chance for each member of the wider population to be picked for the sample (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000). Additionally, probability sampling tends to be less associated with skewed results or bias unlike its counterpart (nonprobability), as the latter seeks to be representative of the whole population. Nonetheless, this does not mean that the former is free from bias (ibid.). A key advantage of the nonrandom sampling method is that it may be representative of participants with certain common features, backgrounds, and experiences given that the participants are selected on a non-random basis (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007). For reasons discussed earlier, a random sampling strategy was thought to be suitable for

the purposes of the quantitative component of this study. More specifically, this component opted for a simple probability sampling in which there are independent and equal chances for all members of the population to be selected (Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun, 2015). It was also thought that in order to have a more accurate and a better representative sample within the setting of the study, a probability strategy was to be utilised since the results of such a study shall have a "broad applicability" (Bryman, 2004, p. 104).

Along similar lines, in the qualitative component of this study (classroom observations), a nonprobability sampling strategy was followed. This implies that certain individuals from the population were included and others were precluded. For example, upon collecting the classroom observations data some participants were purposively selected (i.e., I had conducted an interview with them prior to the classroom observation). This was both a necessary and useful undertaking in order to establish the extent of alignment between espoused beliefs about learning and the actual practices. Similarly, for the semi-structured interviews and reflective essays, a form of non-probability strategy was used (convenience sampling). This was utilised in full knowledge that the sample represents itself rather than the wider population (Cohen et al. (2000), which align with the objectives of this thesis.

With regards to appropriate sample size for a study, there is unfortunately, no clear-cut answer (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000; Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun, 2015). However, a researcher should seek to recruit as large a sample as they can within a reasonable timeframe and with little exertion. For the purpose and nature of the present study, a sample of one hundred participants was recruited for the quantitative part (BALLI) and fifty participants for the qualitative part (semi-structured interviews, reflective essays, observations). For the latter part,

the study recruited twenty participants for the semi-structured interviews, twenty-four participants for the reflective essays, and six participants for the classroom observation. This sample size is deemed satisfactory according to Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun (2015) who suggest a minimum of one hundred participants for descriptive studies. Furthermore, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000), contend that a minimum of thirty participants for a study with some sort of statistical analysis of data is considered necessary by many researchers. For qualitative studies, the sample size is usually between 1 to 20 participants (Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun, 2015).

3.3.1.2 Characteristics of the participants

As can be seen in table 3.1 below, altogether one hundred and fifty male and female pre-service teachers were the subjects of this study, who were in their final term of an EFL undergraduate programme. The EFL pre-service teachers from two colleges at a mid-western university in Saudi Arabia were contacted. EFL pre-service teachers who were enrolled in an undergraduate programme at a college of education and a college of sciences & humanities were the target population of this study. Chapter 1, Section 1.2.3 has an extended discussion on the differences between the various EFL programmes in the context of the present study.

Table (3.1): Overview of participants

Data collection instrument	**Number of Participants**	**Male Pre-service teachers (Practice Group)**	**Male Pre-service teachers (Non-practice Group)**	**Female Pre-service teachers (Practice Group)**	**Female Pre-service teachers (Non-practice Group)**
BALLI	100	25	25	25	25

Semi-structured interview	20	10	10	-	-
Observation	6	6	-	-	-
Reflective essay	24	6	6	6	6

3.3.1.3 Data collection instruments

Investigating the beliefs of teachers has proved a challenging undertaking in view of the fact that such an abstract concept such as 'belief' does not lend itself for direct observation (S. Borg, 2006; Zhang, 2016). Likewise, as explained in chapter two, there is a consensus in the literature on teacher belief research that the concept of belief does not lend itself easily for definition and that it is not an easy matter to be studied due to the complexity and vagueness it is associated with (Nespor, 1987; Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Woods, 1996). This has therefore led a few researchers to propose that if beliefs are to be studied explicitly, they ought to be approached through multiple methods (S. Borg, 2006; Phipps and S. Borg, 2009).

As far as this study is concerned, the literature on teacher beliefs has been consulted prior to deciding which data collection instruments and combination are best suited to achieving the aims of the present research. This was achieved by following the recommendations, considering the implications, and being mindful of the limitations of each instrument reported in studies of a similar nature (e.g., S. Borg, 2003, 2006; Phipps, 2009; Erkmen, 2010; Debreli, 2012; 2013, Pavaresh, 2017; Javid and Al-malki, 2018). It was concluded from a review of these studies that a combination of questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, and reflective essays would be the most relevant tools to attain the goals of the present research.

What follows is a detailed discussion of these data collection instruments, and the rationale behind the use of each one of them.

3.3.1.3.1 Questionnaire (BALLI)

Questionnaires have been utilised as instruments for data collection in numerous quantitative and mixed method studies about pre-service teachers' beliefs (cf. Cabaroglu, 1999; Mattheodakkis, 2007; Cui, 2014; Kaweian, 2018). Yet, questionnaires do not seem to be easily and accurately definable. Several terms have been given to describe questionnaires such as 'studies', 'batteries', 'schedules', 'scales', 'checklists', 'tests', 'forms', 'inventories', 'indexes/indicators', 'sheets', 'profiles', 'opinionnaires' (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 102). One of the clearest definitions for a 'questionnaire' has been provided by Brown (2001, p. 6), who defines it as "any written instrument that presents respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers".

One of the key benefits of using questionnaires has been highlighted by Wilson and McLean (1994). They postulate that questionnaires may be administered without the need for the presence of the researcher. They contend that questionnaires are generally analysed in a straightforward manner in comparison with some other research instruments. It is further contended that they are extensively used and beneficial for the gathering of survey data and facilitate structured data as well as numerical data. Indeed, questionnaires have been described as the most utilised research instrument due to their functional characteristics which allow them to be administered over great geographical zones (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000; Bryman, 2001). Questionnaires make quantifying the attitudes, observations, and

interpretations of people possible (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000). In the same vein, questionnaires make possible numeric analysis of attitudes, trends, and views by investigating a sample of a particular population and forming generalisations or drawing inferences about the target population (Creswell, 2014). According to Dörnyei (2007), questionnaires could also be efficient in allowing a researcher to collect a huge volume of data in a short time-frame, and in a readily accessible form. From an ethical standpoint, questionnaires usually allow for the anonymity of respondents.

The benefits need to be considered in light of the shortcomings of using questionnaires. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018, p. 471) warn that the advantages of such an instrument must be "counterbalanced by the time taken to develop, pilot and refine the questionnaire". This is in addition to the limited scope of the data that is collected. Designing a questionnaire could also be a daunting task (Robson, 1993).

Another shortcoming of questionnaires is that ensuring serious and honest replies may not be fully achievable. Some participants may like to please the researcher especially if they are known to them. Further, Kagan (1990) cautions particularly with reference to using questionnaires for the investigation of beliefs that hinge on self-report scales (i.e., questionnaires) are prone to the possibility that much of the teachers' beliefs are held unconsciously. She further stated:

> A teacher may not recognize a statement as his or her own belief because of the language in which the statement is couched. Any researcher who uses a short-answer test of teacher belief [questionnaire]… runs the risk of obtaining bogus data, because standardized statements may mask or misrepresent a particular teacher's highly personalized perceptions and definitions.
>
> (Kagan, 1990, p. 427)

Due to the standarised nature of questionnaires the thesis makes no claim that the respondents did indeed understand the intended meaning of some or all of the BALLI statements. In light of this, the thesis has strived to mitigate such a pitfall by using several other methods to uncover the tacit beliefs. It is also worth noting that BALLI was not the main instrument to unearth beliefs.

S. Borg (2006) also criticised such self-report instruments given their prefabricated nature and could therefore fail to reflect the actual beliefs of the teachers. According to S. Borg, questionnaire data are restricted to capturing the complex nature of teachers' mental lives. Another inherent pitfall of questionnaires is that participants might fill in a questionnaire quickly and not take enough time to consider carefully the content they read. This was indeed the case in my study for one participant (see Chapter 3, Section 3.4.1.2).

Most importantly, significant drawbacks of questionnaires are apparent when a questionnaire is 'ill-constructed' which would lead to flawed findings owing to the absence of reliability and validity in the first place (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 115).

In the context of my study, the questionnaire employed is a quantitative data collection instrument called BALLI (Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory) devised by (Horwitz, 1985) (see Appendix 4 for a copy of BALLI). It has been described as the most widely used and recognised data collection instrument in the context of pre-service teachers' belief research (Altan, 2012). BALLI was devised with the purpose of assessing pre-service teacher beliefs and controversies concerning language learning. Horwitz's aim was to help instructors on a methods course to identify their students' harbouring beliefs about learning so that they could be taken

into consideration to augment or restructure the content of the course accordingly. The BALLI consisted of 27 statements of which 25 measure the beliefs some people held about learning foreign languages This was evaluated on a Likert scale of 5, where 1= (strongly disagree), 2= (disagree), 3= (neutral), 4 (agree) and 5= (strongly agree). However, a different scale was used for the remaining two statements (4 and 11). To answer these two statements, the participants had five choices for each statement to choose from. The participants were instructed to select only one choice for each statement.

Horwitz categorised beliefs within the BALLI into five constructs for assessment: A) Foreign language aptitude, B) The difficulty of language learning, C) The nature of language learning, D) Learning and communication strategies, and E) Motivations and expectation. All five categories are relevant in the current study and only two minor amendments were made to contextualise the study to the Saudi context. Namely, statement 24 "Americans think it is important to speak a foreign language" was modified into "Saudis think it is important to speak a foreign language", and statement 26 "Americans are good at learning foreign languages" has become "Saudis are good at learning foreign languages".

While there are benefits to using a questionnaire for a study on beliefs it was particularly useful in the current setting of a Saudi Arabian context. The participation of female EFL pre-service teachers was limited as it was not possible to include them for semi-structured interviews and for classroom observations. Therefore, having the questionnaires enabled me to fill a critical gap in assessing the entire population of EFL teachers.

3.3.1.3.2 Interviews

According to Cannell and Kahn (1968, cited in Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000, p. 269), an interview may be defined as "a two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research-relevant information and focused by him [sic] on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction, or explanation". More generally, interviews refer to the meaningful episodes of conversations through which respondents state how they perceive certain incidents, and they also seek to have the respondents express their own judgements and thoughts (Flick, 2002; Kvale, 2007). Interviews have been described as the most commonly utilised research instrument for data collection in qualitative studies (Dörnyei, 2007). They are usually used in applied linguistic environments (ibid.; Nunan, 1992) due to several virtues inherent in them, which I will explore throughout this sub-section. Such instruments have been introduced in studies that looked at teachers' cognition for their ability to dig deep into a complex construct of beliefs (cf. Cabaroglu and Roberts, 2000; M. Borg, 2002; Debreli, 2013; Zheng, 2013). More specifically, these instruments have been resorted to for the purpose of exploring and studying the beliefs of pre-service teachers and the potential factors that could bring about changes in the beliefs of such teachers. This is in view of the claim that interviews allow for in-depth direct or indirect questions to be asked, paving the way for the interviewees to be encouraged to reflect on their perceptual cognitions in their voice (Patton, 2002). In addition, owing to the complex and vague nature of beliefs to be explored (Kagan, 1992; Woods, 1996), a methodology, through which a significant amount of useful data may be derived, should be opted for (S. Borg, 2006). Similarly, in his study on pre-service teachers' beliefs, Debreli (2013) stated that he used interviews to understand what goes on in the minds of his interviewees, which could not be

achieved by other data collection instruments. Such a utility of interviews is also highlighted in the excerpt below in which Patton contended that:

> We interview people to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe… the fact is that we cannot observe everything. We cannot observe feelings, thoughts, and intentions. We cannot observe behaviours that took place at some previous point in time. We cannot observe situations that preclude the presence of an observer. We cannot observe how people have organised the world and the meaning they attach to what goes on in the world. We have to ask people questions about these things.
>
> (Patton, 2002, pp. 340-341).

However, given the artificial and co-constructed nature of interviews (Pavlenko 2007; Talmy 2010), it is not possible to consider any data collected through such instruments as necessarily true representations of the actual tacit beliefs of interviewees. This is despite the neutral role of the interviewer, which is adopted in this thesis. Therefore, I would like to acknowledge that albeit I, acting as the interviewer, strived to maintain as balanced a position as possible, I cannot claim that I was always unbiased throughout my interviews with all the interviewees. Equally important, whilst the existence of a neutral role cannot be fully established, I maintain that any potential bias I might have shown would be stemming from my unconscious. In this view, interviews do not represent an objective window into reality (Sealey, 2012).

Having discussed their feasibility in teacher belief research, interviews also offer several advantages and concurrently present limitations. For example, they are usually more relaxed and allow for flexibility, which in turn allows for respondents to be more forthcoming and unrestricted in the manner they discuss their beliefs or attitudes regarding the subject of the research. For some, this may be an uncomfortable experience. However, in this study, participation is voluntary and this drawback is therefore mitigated. There is of course, the

possibility that an interviewee might try to impress their interviewer, in which case the credibility and authenticity of the data being collected may be negatively impacted. However, this limitation is negated as I, acting as the interviewer, was not known to any of the interviewees.

Three major types for interviews are often reported in the literature (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000; Patton, 2002; S. Borg, 2006; Dörnyei, 2007; Newby, 2010). Namely, these are structured, semi-structured, and unstructured interviews. All three differ from one another in some ways. For instance, the questions in the structured interviews are prepared prior to the commencement of the interview, with the interviewer being disallowed to deviate from the questions in the interviewer's guide. Such a strictly controlled interview is meant to facilitate ease of comparison of the interviewees' answers (Dörnyei, 2007). In contrast to the structured interviews, the questions in the unstructured ones as the name suggests, are not predefined. They are initiated and informal, following the natural flow of a conversation with the interviewer being allowed to ask about any theme or point that might be raised by the interviewees. Last but not least, is the semi-structured interview type which is employed in the present study. It is an established research instrument in teacher belief research (Debreli, 2013), and there is evidence to suggest that it is yet the most widely used strategy for obtaining verbal data in teacher belief research, along with stimulated recall interviews (S. Borg, 2006).

The popularity of this type of interviews could be attributed to its pragmatic nature that combines aspects from both the structured and the unstructured ones. The interviewer in this type of interview does not follow a completely predefined interview schedule nor are they left

to merely ask spontaneous questions during the interview (Dörnyei, 2007; Newby, 2010). S. Borg (2006) perceived semi-structured interviews to be:

> Typically based around a set of topics or a loosely defined series of questions; they are flexible, allowing the conversation a certain amount of freedom in terms of the direction it takes, and respondents are also encouraged to talk in an open-ended manner about the topics under discussion or any other matters they feel are relevant. (p. 203).

Such a perception of semi-structured interviews seems to emphasise their tendency to allow the interviewer to go beyond the observable aspect of the interviewees and delve into their minds, which could enhance the awareness of reality according to the perception of the interviewees (S. Borg, 2006).

The decision underpinning my selection of semi-structured interviews as one of the data collection instruments in this study has multiple reasons. It was believed that by using such an instrument, the respondents can articulate whatever crosses their minds which may otherwise, be difficult to achieve via other means of data collection. Another reason relates to the ability of this instrument to yield a significant volume of data since its nature allows further details to arise and be explored thoroughly. Patton (2002) asserts that through speaking, people's conceptions could be examined carefully. Indeed, speaking has been described as one of the most natural occurrences (Drever, 1995). Therefore, it was felt that through employing semi-structured interviews, I would be able to elicit the beliefs of the pre-service teachers in a relaxed and natural setting.

Other factors which have justified the utilisation of semi-structured interviews are the flexibility of this tool as I am able to make changes to the phrasing and the order of the questions, enabling

me to obtain a full response from the respondent. Last but not least, the feasibility of putting forward unanticipated questions which might ensue during a conversation influenced my decision to employ such a form of interview (Mason, 2002; S. Borg, 2006; Kvale, 2007). This can be significant, provided that the questions asked are pertinent to the aims for conducting the interview.

3.3.1.3.3 Observation

In a broad sense, observation entails the direct experience of a person towards a certain phenomenon in one situation or another (Hammond and Wellington, 2013). It is becoming a steadily recognised and utilised data collection instrument in the context of teacher beliefs research (S. Borg, 2006). S. Borg even questioned the usefulness of studying such beliefs in isolation of what actually occurs in classrooms. This is in view of the fact that eventually "we are interested in understanding the teachers' professional actions, and not what or how they think in isolation of what they do" (S. Borg, 2003, p. 105). In light of its ability to offer evidence of what actually goes on in the classroom, observation is considered superior to interviews and self-report instruments, in this regard (S. Borg, 2006). Therefore, the practicality of such a procedure in my study is reflected in the inherent feature of observations of being able to validate and cross-check the results produced from semi-structured interviews. Similarly, in a review of 18 empirical studies in the context of teacher beliefs, S. Borg (2006) observed that in all cases, observation was used as a data collection tool, although, it served as a complimentary tool rather than the sole one. He further holds that such is the norm in language teacher belief research, that whilst observation allows for inferences about cognitive processes to be made, it is an inadequate strategy for critically examining these processes thoroughly and for assessing the validity of the inferences proposed. These are typically addressed through different forms

of self-report, reflective or verbal instruments (ibid.). It is perhaps relevant to refer here that all these types of data collection instruments are employed in this study (i.e., BALLI, reflective essays, semi-structured interviews).

The utility of observation may also be seen in its tendency to be concerned with 'behaviour' and not 'reported behaviour'. In other words, what people report they do and what they actually do can be greatly mismatched (Baumeister, Masicampo and Vohs, 2011; Hammond and Wellington, 2013).

In the context of my study, the classroom observations occurred in a natural setting. That is to say, the settings of the lessons to be observed were not specially created to meet the purpose of the observation and would therefore yield more accurate data.

With that being said and as is customary for any research instrument that exists today, observation is not infallible. For reasons of brevity, I will only touch upon three drawbacks that are of direct relevance to my study. The first drawback is the issue of securing access to the observation setting (school of practice of pre-service teachers). I initially targeted observing six pre-service teachers conducting three teaching sessions each. However, in practice, this was not possible for my access to the schools had been conditional on being accompanied by the academic supervisor of the pre-service teachers. Since the supervisor tended to visit the pre-service teachers infrequently, I was restricted both in terms of the number and duration of observations I made (see Chapter 3, Section 3.4.3 for further details). The second drawback encountered relates to the limited control during observation. For example, in some of the lessons, I observed that much of the time was wasted recording student attendance, or

addressing behavioural misconduct, which limited the teaching content to be observed. The third drawback relates to S. Borg's (2006) caution that observation cannot present a complete perspective of a phenomenon, which must always be acknowledged in studies which employ it. That denotes that it is not possible to observe every aspect of the setting (i.e., observed lesson) from every angle. However, as far as my study is concerned, the utilisation of observation served a specific research aim that had sought to establish the extent of congruence between espoused beliefs and actual practices. In this way, this limitation was minimised.

In conclusion, owing to the complexity of the construct of belief, and in accordance with the recommendations of several studies (cf. M. Borg, 2002; S. Borg, 2006; Phipps and S. Borg, 2009; Debreli, 2013), the present study holds that unveiling such a construct may be best achieved through addressing it from different angles and through various tools, one of which is classroom observation.

3.3.1.3.4 Reflective essays

The final instrument under discussion is the use of reflective essays. In the context of teachers' cognition (i.e., beliefs), S. Borg (2006) takes reflective writing to mean the strategies that are utilised by teachers to convey in writing their beliefs, thoughts and attitudes regarding specific experiences or topics. Reflective essays tend to offer a reflection on a particular phenomenon of the topic under investigation in a narrative form; and are described as a mainstream data collection instrument in qualitative research (Jasper, 2005). The literature contains numerous types of reflective writing, which largely do not seem to be clearly explained (e.g., diaries, autobiographical accounts, personal notes, logs, reflective assignments, journals, concept maps, etc.). I therefore avoid a terminological discussion here.

In the context of this study, I take the term ‘reflective essays’ to mean a written task in which the EFL pre-service teachers reflect on specific critical incidents from their past learning experiences, which had or they believe would have an influence on their held beliefs about learning or teaching of EFL.

Along similar lines, in a research review of teacher cognition, S. Borg (2006) observed that the information (i.e., guidelines) given to participants to express what was required of them was usually insufficient. There indeed appears to be a degree of ambiguity surrounding reflective writing instruments and how they are being used, which, as S. Borg upheld, limit the ability to replicate and critique the procedures followed in studies of this nature. In an attempt to overcome this practical methodological limitation when implementing my reflective essays instrument, I spelt out the instructions given to the EFL pre-service teachers, which are as follows:

- Do you recall any particular episode/s from your past basic schooling or undergraduate education that had a big influence on your language learning and teaching convictions?
- What are they? What is your opinion about it/ them?
- In as much detail as possible, how did/ will they influence your learning/ teaching preferences?

Terminology aside, Holly (1989) differentiates between several types of writing. Those of relevance to my study, are reflective/ retrospective and introspective. The latter type concerns the aspects of thoughts and feelings, and its significance is stressed in teacher belief research,

given its ability to elicit beliefs held for them to be readily available for critical investigation (S. Borg, 2006). One of the studies which employed a research instrument drawing on this type of reflective writing is that of Farrell (1999). That study was one of few that expounded the instructions of the instrument (reflective assignment), and provided the rubric that had been utilised (Chapter 2, Section 2.4.1 may be seen for a discussion of this study).

The decision to use a reflective essay instrument was multi-faceted. Though primarily, it was reached in consideration of the nature of one of the research aims. This particular aim was to reveal the most critical episodes from the EFL pre-service teachers' past schooling which shaped or would shape their beliefs about learning or teaching of EFL.

My selection was also rationalised in realisation of the ability of such a reflective instrument to produce informative data of tacit beliefs; what Dörnyei (2007, p. 157) termed 'an insider account'. Such an undertaking could be challenging by using verbal instruments alone (e.g., interviews). In this connection, S. Borg (2006) held that even with the challenges that reflective writing carry, it has proved its significance by shedding light on language teachers' beliefs and presenting useful insights into their thinking. Similarly, Farrell (1999) concluded that reflective assignments inspire the research respondents to ponder over their own tacitly held beliefs as to where they originated from and consider how those convictions were conceived. That implies that reflective essays present the researcher with another dimension to understand the thinking and reasoning of the pre-service teachers. Additionally, reflective essays provide a deep understanding through the responses provided by the respondents than it does from a structured research instrument such as questionnaires (Pelton, 2010).

Reflective essays were employed based on the understanding that if probed through an interview, some pre-service teachers might remember incidents in a selective manner or may even be unable to recall any of these incidents. This is particularly relevant when the duration between the occurrence of an incident and the time of an interview is long (Debreli, 2013). More importantly, in view of reflective essays being a retrospective form of data collection, there is an obvious scarcity of studies which used reflective essays in the context of teacher belief research. This lack could be due to the added commitment and effort it takes for the pre-service teachers to articulate themselves in reflective essays in comparison with other data collection instruments (i.e., interviews, self-report instruments). It is owing to such demands that reflective instruments are conducted with pre-service teachers where the data to be gathered may be elicited as a part of mandatory coursework (S. Borg, 2006).

In this study, reflective essays were hugely beneficial as they allowed female participants to partake in this study. This is believed to be an important advantage when reflective essays are used as a research instrument. Given that having female participants meant them having to agree to participate, in two of the four data collection tools, this was not possible due to social and procedural restraints.

However, reflective written instruments tend to require pre-service teachers to be genuinely willing to compose their reflective essays. In this study, this was voluntary and none of the pre-service teachers was forced to write a reflective essay, which should strengthen the reliability and validity of the findings elicited from the reflective instrument. A further concern could be that the data produced from these reflective essays may be of little pertinence to the research question. This is because reflective essays are being attempted without the presence and control

of the researcher, unlike the case with semi-structured interviews, which permit a degree of control and guidance. However, given it is not the sole instrument, but a complementary one, this limitation was limited and it was included primarily on the basis that it had the potential to enrich and add further insight into the data obtained as a part of the mixed methods design adopted in this study.

3.4 Data collection process

The data collection process was conducted over a period of 12 weeks. Upon the completion of the pilot study using the four data collection instruments (i.e., BALLI, semi-structured interviews, observations, reflective essays) (see Chapter 3, Section 3.10), the data collection for the main study was well underway.

3.4.1 BALLI

3.4.1.1 Data collected from a college of education

This part of the data collection was carried out in two cycles (before the practicum vs. following the practicum). The same version of BALLI was used in both cycles. The motive for applying the BALLI twice for the EFL pre-service teachers of the college of education draws on the fact that they have undergone a practicum experience. Therefore, comparative data could be collected, which made it possible to examine the impact of the practicum experience on the beliefs held by the EFL pre-service teachers.

The first cycle commenced at the beginning of the final term of the fourth year of the undergraduate programme, before the commencement of the practicum, by distributing and collecting the BALLI from male and female EFL pre-service teachers. I began this round by

contacting one of the teaching staff at the department of English in a male-only campus of the 'college of education', which is the designated institute of the data collection (the institute has gender-segregated campuses). The reason for my contact was to enquire if it would be possible to attend one of the lectures to distribute the BALLI to the EFL pre-service teachers, to which he kindly agreed. I attended one of the lessons at the beginning of the term and explained the nature and the general purpose of the study to the male EFL pre-service teachers. Then, I verbally indicated that the participation was completely voluntary, and that any participating EFL pre-service teacher reserves the right to not partake in the study and or withdraw during or after the commencement of the BALLI. This information was also provided in writing in the consent forms (see Appendix 3), which all willing pre-service teachers had to sign. In addition, each EFL pre-service teacher had a copy of an information sheet about the BALLI (see Appendix 2), which they were asked to read, understand, and keep. Then it was time to distribute the BALLI, which was in English, along with an Arabic translation of it (see Appendix 4). This was in case any pre-service teacher had a hard time understanding any item from the BALLI. Once all twenty-five male pre-service teachers had finished BALLI, they were requested to hand it in, along with their consent forms.

While I was present in person to distribute the BALLI for the male EFL pre-service teachers, I was unable to distribute it to the female EFL pre-service teachers myself. Instead, I mailed the supervisor of the female campus of the department of English 25 copies of the BALLI, Arabic versions of it, information sheets, and consent forms. I then contacted her to explain the nature of the study, and to ask if there was any item from the BALLI that needed clarification. I also welcomed the supervisor of the female campus to contact me at any time should there be any queries pertaining the BALLI, or the study in general. I asked her to randomly distribute the

BALLI to 25 EFL final-term female EFL pre-service teachers, who showed willingness to participate in the study. Once all EFL female pre-service teachers had finished completing the BALLI, they were collected along with their consent forms, and put in a sealed envelope and mailed to my office in Saudi Arabia.

The second cycle of data collection of the BALLI took place after the EFL pre-service teachers had completed their practicum. The same procedural processes of distributing and collecting the BALLI data which had been applied in the first cycle (pre-practicum), were repeated again.

3.4.1.2 Data collected from a non-education college

This part of the data collection process was carried out in a single cycle (towards the end of the final-term of the fourth year of the undergraduate programme). This entailed the distribution and collection of the BALLI from twenty-five male and twenty-five female EFL pre-service teachers at a 'none-education college'. The reason for applying the BALLI only once is due to the EFL pre-service teachers from the non-education college not going through a practicum experience. Therefore, no comparative data could be collected in this instance, unlike their counterparts from the college of education. The same procedural processes of distributing and collecting the BALLI data, which had been applied in previous cycles for the EFL pre-service teachers from the college of education, were repeated again.

Overall, the total number of both male and female EFL pre-service teachers from both colleges (education, non-education), who took the BALLI was 100, which was the optimal number that I set prior to the commencement of the study. However, three participants did not attempt the

questionnaire despite them being willing to receive a copy. One of them had ticked the first choice for each statement of the BALLI. A copy of BALLI may be seen in Appendix 4.

3.4.2 Semi-structured interview

This part of the data collection process involved two groups of EFL pre-service teachers. In the first group, I aimed to interview 12 male EFL pre-service teachers from one college of education, while in the second I also aimed to interview 12 male EFL pre-service teachers from one non-education college. However, the actual number of interviews was ten for each group (twenty in total) due to reasons of availability.

The interviews with all participants followed a similar pattern starting with presenting information about the study, consent and assurances of anonymity, confidentiality and the procedures of collection. The average length of the interviews was fifteen to twenty minutes each. The language of the interviews was mostly in Arabic with some code-switching into English. For a sample semi-structured interview, Appendix 15 may be referred to.

3.4.3 Classroom observation

The main classroom observation was conducted in late March 2019. Following necessary permissions and meetings, the procedure for the observation was set up. The nature of the classroom observation task was laid down in the information sheet (see Appendix 11).

Six volunteer pre-service teachers showed interest in taking part in this task. Altogether six male EFL pre-service teachers from a college of education were visited on one occasion at their

classrooms of teaching practice. Each EFL pre-service teacher was informed beforehand about the visit. Drawing on my experience from the pilot study of the classroom observation (see Chapter 3, Section 3.10.3), I aimed to distribute the information sheets (see Appendix 11 and Appendix 13) and the consent forms (see Appendix 12, and Appendix 14) to the participating EFL pre-service teachers and their pupils, before the beginning of each lesson. However, this was not possible due to the heavy load of observations and other modules the accompanying supervisor was responsible for. This therefore took place at the start of the lesson. Each of the six EFL pre-service teachers was visited and notes about their lessons were taken, along with audio-recorded content. For a sample of a loosely transcribed classroom observation, see Appendix 19.

3.4.4 Reflective essays

This part of the data collection process took place towards the end of the term and involved the participation of twenty-four male and female EFL pre-service teachers. Twelve participants from one college of education, made up of six males and six females. Likewise, there were twelve participants from one non-education college, comprising six males and six females. Each participant was given a copy of the reflective essay task and had a one week to complete and hand it over along with the consent form which they had been asked to sign. In the following week, I visited the participants at their lectures and collected the reflective essay task sheets and consent forms.

The data collection for female participants took place through coordination with the female supervisor at a college of education and another at a non-education college. All documents (i.e., reflective essays task, information sheets, consent forms) were mailed and I phoned to explain

the nature of the study and the task. Each supervisor was welcome to contact me before or during the execution of the task should there be any need for further clarification or any queries from the participants. Each supervisor was asked to contact the female EFL pre-service teachers to ask if they would be willing to participate. From the interest indicated through the supervisor, she handed out the reflective essays to six randomly selected individuals. Similar to the procedures followed with the male participants, the female participants also had a one week to attempt the task at home. At the same day in the following week, the participants were asked to hand in their task sheets along with the signed consent forms. All sheets were put in a sealed envelope and mailed to my office by the supervisors. The rubric of the reflective essay task may be seen in Appendix 10.

The following section outlines the analyses procedures for the data elicited through BALLI, semi-structured interviews, classroom observations and reflective essays.

3.5 Data analysis procedures

This section reflects on the different sources of data, the approach and procedures followed when analysing the quantitative and qualitative data in this study. The significance of delineating such information is articulated by Attride-Stirling (2001). She puts forward that if researchers are not clear about the way they analysed their data, the evaluation of their research and even synthesising or comparing it with relevant studies could become challenging. Further, the absence of data analysis procedures could also prevent related prospective research projects from taking place (ibid.).

To decide on appropriate research methods to analyse the quantitative data, the methods selected had to effectively examine the pre-service teachers' beliefs embodied in the BALLI questionnaire (see Appendix 4) by answering the relevant research questions (see Chapter 3, Sections 3.5.1.1& 3.5.1.2). The justification for the utilisation of BALLI in this study is discussed in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.3.1.

With regard to the qualitative data analysis process, it is considered as a selective one, whereby data may be analysed through different research methods (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Guest, MacQueen and Namey, 2012; Creswell, 2014). Some of the methods commonly used in qualitative research, which were initially considered for inclusion in this study included thematic analysis, content analysis and grounded theory. A major difference between grounded theory and thematic analysis may be seen in that in the former, the focus is on the generating of theory, whereas in the latter the focus tends to be more on exploring "how people feel, think, and behave within a particular context relative to a specific research question" (Guest, MacQueen and Namey, 2012, p. 13). In light of its aforementioned tendency, grounded theory has been precluded given the nature of this study which does not seek to generate theories, as much as it strives to identify the held beliefs of the pre-service teachers with respect to learning and teaching. Therefore, content analysis has also been ruled out in this study considering its propensity to constrain an analyst's flexibility whereby a choice has to be made between latent contents (developing themes) and manifest (developing categories) prior to progressing to the following phase of the analysis (Vaismoradi, Turunen and Bondas, 2013, p. 401). In comparison, in thematic analysis, it is often advisable that an analyst looks at both manifest and latent content before moving to the subsequent stage of the analysis (ibid.). As such, in thematic analysis, the researcher goes further than calculating manifest utterances and concentrates on

pinpointing and explaining both the evident and the embedded ideas contained within the data. (Guest, MacQueen and Namey, 2012).

That being said, a number of other factors were also factored in for the purpose of reaching a decision as to which method of data analysis was best suited for the nature of my study. This was viewed as necessary, drawing on the belief that links the success of any study to its method of data analysis (Gibson and Brown, 2009; Saldana, 2013). Concurrently, I was also aware that selection between methods of analysis entails 'trade-offs' (Guest, MacQueen and Namey, 2012, p. 16). That is to say, each method has its own strengths and weaknesses. A key factor that influenced my selection of the method to be employed for the data analysis goes back to my familiarity as a researcher with that particular method (Guest, MacQueen and Namey, 2012), which happened to be thematic analysis. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), thematic analysis offers a useful and practical research tool that is able to produce a thorough and sophisticated interpretation of a data set. In the same vein, Guest, MacQueen and Namey (2012, p. 11) maintained "we feel that a thematic analysis is still the most useful in capturing the meaning within a textual data set"; and has been described as the most widely used in studies of a qualitative nature (Guest, MacQueen and Namey, 2012). Along similar lines, Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 79-80) claimed that although thematic analysis is used extensively, yet it often does not appear as a 'named' method in and of itself compared with other methods such as grounded theory or narrative analysis. In addition, flexibility is one key characteristic of thematic analysis which could permit a researcher to approach data both inductively and deductively (Boyatzis, 1998). This particular feature was applicable to my study since I needed to approach the data both inductively (see Chapter 3, Section 3.5.2.1) and deductively (see Chapter 3, Section 3.5.2.3).

Based on the above and drawing on my review of related studies in the literature around teachers' beliefs simultaneously, whereby some sort of thematic analysis was carried out (e.g., Cabaroglu, 1999; Erkmen, 2010; Debreli, 2013; Pavaresh, 2017), it was therefore judged that thematic analysis approach was best suited for analysing my qualitative data sets. This conclusion was also coupled with the argument that 'rigorous thematic approach can produce an insightful analysis that answers particular research questions' (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 97).

3.5.1 Quantitative data analysis

This part specifically concerns the data which emerged from the BALLI instrument. In order to analyse such quantitative data to answer the relevant research questions of this study, I ran the data through The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

Therefore, I assigned the BALLI data obtained from the different groups with numerical codes to prepare them for analyses. The numerical coding was carried out in a separate Excel file. Once coding was completed, I exported the numerically coded data into the SPSS to conduct the relevant analyses. The analyses were divided into two main types drawing on the nature of the relevant research questions (see Chapter 3, Sections 3.5.1.1 and 3.5.1.2). In particular, the data was subjected to descriptive and inferential analyses.

3.5.1.1 Descriptive analysis

Descriptive statistics enabled a distribution of the different group participants' percentages, Means, Medians and standard deviations of their responses to the statements of BALLI. This was concluded in light of Horwitz's (1987) argument that BALLI was not meant to generate a

composite score for all the statements contained within it. Overall, through descriptive statistics, identifying the pre-service teachers' beliefs with respect to the BALLI statements, as well as an understanding of how they differed or were similar in their beliefs was hoped to be achieved. Specifically, descriptive analysis was applied to answer the following research question:

RQ1a. What beliefs are held by EFL pre-service teachers about learning of English?

I should draw the attention here that the statistical data does not mean that it is full proof, but rather it serves as an indication of the participants' thinking.

3.5.1.2 Inferential analysis

An inferential analysis was run to answer the following research question:

RQ3. Did the beliefs held by the EFL pre-service teachers about learning of English change after the practicum experience?

In inferential statistics, two main types of tests exist. These are parametric and nonparametric. In the former, tests are constrained by certain assumptions such as normal distribution of data and interval and ratio or scale level of measurement. Therefore, if the data to be analysed met the assumptions, then parametric tests should be conducted. If the assumptions are not met, nonparametric tests would need to be carried out (Field and Hole, 2002). In this connection, in order to decide on the appropriate inferential tests for my data, I first ran the Shapiro-Wilk test to determine the normality of the data (see Appendix 21). This suggests that to identify the most suitable statistical tests, the data has to be tested for normality. As such, Shapiro-Wilk tests was

developed to detect any departures from normality in a given data set. A significant value greater than (0.05) indicates that the data within a construct is normally distributed. Following the test for normality, it was then possible to ascertain the appropriate statistical tests (parametric and nonparametric). Specifically, I conducted a paired-samples t-test for the normally distributed data, and the equivalent Wilcoxon test for the non-normally distributed data (Wagner, 2014).

Additionally, I conducted inferential analyses to answer the following research questions:

RQ4. Is there a statistically significant correlation between the pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about learning attributed to the type of programme of study?
RQ5. Is there a statistically significant correlation between the pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about learning attributed to their gender?

In order to examine whether there were significant differences in beliefs about learning attributed to the variables of the EFL pre-service teachers' gender or type of programme of study they were enrolled in (Educational= practice group vs. Non-educational= non-practice group), I ran t-tests for two independent samples for the normally distributed data, and the equivalent Mann-Whitney test for the non-normally distributed data (Wagner, 2014). The strength of the association between prior to teaching practice and after teaching practice was measured using Pearson's r simple correlation (Acton et al., 2009). The significant level of 0.05 was the threshold for a significant result, meaning that if p-value<0.05, then the test is considered significant. The rationale for using Pearson's r correlation in this thesis could be related to its ability to evaluate the strength of a linear relationship between two variables (i.e.,

responses before and after the practicum experience). In other words, the test shows whether high/ low scores after practicum were strongly related to high/ low scores obtained before it.

3.5.1.3 Internal validity

Whether one is devising a scale or adopting an existing one, examining the data for reliability is a useful practice. This is done by calculating the Cronbach's alpha which is the most commonly reported procedure (Brace, Kemp and Snelgar, 2012). As far as the questionnaire (BALLI) adopted in this thesis is concerned, the internal validity of its items had been established. For example, in Daif-Allah's (2012) study the Cronbach's alpha was 0.74, whereas in my study it was 0.7, which according to George and Mallery (2003, cited in Gliem and Gliem, 2003, p. 87), indicate acceptable internal consistency (alpha_>.7).

(Brace, Kemp and Snelgar, 2012)

3.5.2 Qualitative data

This part specifically concerns the data which emerged from the semi-structured interviews, reflective essays and classroom observations instruments. I should point out that the language the participants used to provide their responses through the aforementioned data collection instruments had been predominantly in their native language, Arabic. When it was time to analyse the data collected, the following question arose: should the data corpus be translated into English before or after any coding process commences? In order to arrive at an informed decision, I needed to consult the literature on translation and back-translation of qualitative data. This step was believed to be essential as a meaning of a word or phrase in one language could be interpreted differently across different languages (Van Nes et al., 2010; Abalkhail, 2018). Indeed, translating research data from the source language to the target language is not

without its methodological hurdles, which could potentially impact the reliability and validity of any research (Sperber, Devellis, and Boehlecke, 1994). However, I would argue that when researchers apply due attention, this pitfall could be overcome. For example, this may be achieved through ensuring that the translator has adequate experience in translation, allowing sufficient time for the translation process to be completed as accurately as possible, re-reading the translated version and comparing it against the original text multiple times, etc. In other words, taking care while translating is of paramount importance so as not to inadvertently distort the meaning of the original text during the coding or when writing the final report. According to Squires (2009), carrying out the analysis of data in the same language of the raw transcript and only translating it at the final stage is encouraged rather than starting the translation process at the initial stage. Therefore, I have come to conclude that I should carry out the analysis in the language of the raw data of the participants (Arabic). This process comprised the first two stages of the data analysis which are the pre-coding stage, and the coding stage. During the final stage, all themes, sub-categories, and categories were then translated by me into English. Further, upon writing the analytical report of the data analysis, the relevant illustrative extracts that were to be incorporated into the report were also translated into English. In my experience, this practice proved quite effective for that it brought me much closer to the data than I could have been, had I attempted to carry out the analysis with a translated version of the data. Additionally, such practice is hoped to have prevented the loss of meaning conveyed in the original text, which enhanced the integrity of the analysis. In the subsequent sections, elaborate explanation of the procedures followed during the analysis of the qualitative sources of the data in this study is outlined.

3.5.2.1 Data analysis procedures for the semi-structured interviews

As has been outlined elsewhere in this study, the semi-structured interviews were carried out with two groups of male EFL pre-service teachers, where one represented the practice group, while the other constituted of the non-practice group. The aim of the semi-structured interviews was to answer the following research question:

RQ1b. What beliefs are held by EFL pre-service teachers about teaching of English?

In order to answer this research question, the data obtained from the EFL pre-service teachers' semi-structured interviews had to be analysed.

The analysis was divided into three main stages: first, the pre-coding stage. It required me to manually transcribe the digitally-recorded data, taking notes, producing preliminary codes, collating the codes with the related chunks of the data, and familiarising myself with the data set through repeatedly reading the transcripts while listening to the digitally-recorded interviews (Braun and Clarke, 2006). As well as fostering the familiarisation process, this practice of repeated readings of the transcripts was also intended to enhance the accuracy of the transcription simultaneously. During the pre-coding stage, great attention was paid to overt subjectivity and lack of anticipation as Holliday (2002) cautioned. However, while it is not possible to be completely neutral or objective when it comes to interpreting data, I took as many steps as possible to mitigate against subjectivity and bias. I strived to allow the data to express itself (ibid.) and approached the data inductively. However, I must acknowledge that there exists an element of inevitable bias and subjectivity on the part of the interpreter during the analysis of data. This perspective allowed me to be more receptive to new themes that could potentially make themselves evident from the data rather than merely matching them to some

pre-determined categories. In broad terms, the overarching goal of the pre-coding stage was to explore the data with the aim of cross-checking it for commonalities and divergences (Corbin and Strauss, 2008), which help to facilitate the subsequent stages of the analysis.

Soon after executing the initial stage of pre-coding, I embarked on the second stage, coding. According to Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 56), codes may be defined as:

> tags or labels for assigning units of meaning to the descriptive or inferential information compiled during a study. Codes usually are attached to "chunks" of varying size – words, phrases, sentences, or whole paragraphs, connected or unconnected to a specific setting.

Contained within this stage was the merging or deleting of codes where appropriate. It also involved organising initial codes to form potential themes, linking each potential theme with the relevant chunks of the data, and revisiting the themes to ensure compatibility between the coded chunks and the generated themes. It was also time for refining and producing informative names for the themes, sub-categories, and categories. For example, in response to the discussion around the importance of teachers motivating their students, the pre-service teacher PT 13 stated: *'yes [it is important]… to increase their [students] willingness for learning, their participation, and to make them aware of the importance of the language and its utility in the future, and so on'*. In view of my interpretive role, I created two codes; motivation leads to an increase in students' desire for learning, and motivation leads to an increase in students' participation, respectively. Subsequently, along with other similar codes derived from the data, these two codes were combined and promoted into the theme 'motivation leads to an increased level of students' willingness for learning, participation, concentration, and overall performance' under the category of 'motivation'. All in all, coding was done with an understanding of the approach that views coding as an indexing process which serves to reduce

and simplify the data at hand through classifying them under more general tags (Coffey and Atkinson, 1996). Another approach to coding views it as a process of extending, transforming, and reconceiving of data. As such, new horizons are expected to be created as a result of taking the analysis a step further by attempting some alternative coding and interpretation of the data (ibid.). In the context of this study, both of the aforementioned approaches to data coding were endorsed. This implies that various processes took place during coding such as reducing, expanding, determining of unrelated or interrelated chunks of the data. For example, in his response to my question about the importance of classroom management in leading to effective classrooms, PT 14 maintained that: *'the classroom must be under control, and there must be a successful management of the classroom because if the management is a failure, the students would exhibit a misbehaviour that draw the attention of the other students...and there may be no concentration on the lesson'*. I initially created the following two codes; failure in classroom management leads students to misbehave and influence their peers, and students' misbehaviour could distract them from the lesson', respectively. These two codes were then merged, expanded and modified to make the theme 'teachers' personality and the bearings it had on conveying information to the students' under the category of 'classroom management'.

Once coding of data was accomplished, I created a table with the objective of organising and compartmentalising the coded data. It was then possible to determine which codes needed to be modified into themes, and the themes that were to be upgraded into categories. The following table is a sample. I should reiterate that my earlier note that the relationship between the codes, themes and categories was not based on a predetermined list, but was rather generated by the data. A sample of a coded semi-structured interview is presented in Appendix 15.

Table (3.2): Overview of the coding, thematisation, and categorisation processes

Statement	**Codes**	**Themes**	**Sub-category/ Category**
It is impossible to teach a lesson and **deliver it successfully** without classroom management.	A lesson cannot be delivered successfully without good classroom management.	Poor classroom management leads to the failure of students' learning.	Classroom management
… and also the precious **jobs they will get** after they learn it [English]. Because as you know most of the high paying jobs require someone with an excellent knowledge of English.	Learning English can help when searching for a job.	Students should be motivated to learn the language for the extrinsic motive that knowledge of the language can aid in securing a job.	Motivation
I **strongly support it** and I believe it is necessary to **focus on it** So that students can understand better…	Focus on using the L1 while teaching the L2 is necessary	Supported the idea of relying heavily on the L1 for teaching the target language.	The Use of Mother Tongue (L1) in Teaching the Target Language (L2)/ Teaching Approach
As I said, the curriculum would neither suit every student, nor every teacher. You have got other methods different from mine… Therefore, it is a **must to deviate from the curriculum.**	No one curriculum can be suitable for all students or teachers	Supported the notion of allowing EFL teachers to deviate from the prescribed curriculum unconditionally.	Deviating from the Prescribed Curriculum/ Teaching Approach

Upon the completion of coding, the third and final stage of interpretation was begun. When interpreting the data, I made a conscious effort to avoid researcher's bias which could potentially affect the result due to my previous readings around the topic in the literature. The importance of this issue may be linked to the approach I adopted when I commenced the data analysis of the semi-structured interviews, which takes on an inductive approach. The significance of this approach hinges on the analysis of the data without any predetermined categories and to let the data speak for itself (Holliday, 2002). Such awareness of a potential researcher's bias has kept me alert and mindful so as not to allow any held pre-suppositions to affect the result, and to interpret the data from an objective stance. This third stage of interpretation was the writing up of the final report on the data set. Central to this stage also is the amalgamation of the analytical narrative with relevant illustrative extracts from the data set as well as situating the analysis within the existing literature (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

3.5.2.2 Data analysis procedures for the reflective essays

The decision to include reflective essays as a data collection instrument in this study is multifaceted (see Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.3.4 for a discussion). Primarily, reflective essays served to answer the following research question:

RQ6. What experiences drawn from the pre-service EFL teachers' past basic schooling or undergraduate education, did they perceive to have been or would be influential in shaping their held beliefs about the learning or teaching of English?

Altogether, twenty-four male and female participants from one college of education and one non-education college took part in this part of the research with twelve participants from each

college (see Section 3.4.4 for more details). However, two participants' reflective essays were disregarded as they were judged invalid for failing to write essays (responses were less than seven words each), whereas the rest of the participants had written at least one paragraph each (a rubric of the instructions of the reflective essays task is provided in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.3.4). Since the data collected through this instrument was in a written format, there was no transcription required. However, as the participants were encouraged to use the language they felt most comfortable and confident with when they wrote about their influential episodes, I coded the data using the same language each participant had used, which was predominantly Arabic. Once coding was complete, the themes, sub-categories, and categories were then translated into English, as I had done so for semi-structured interviews. During the analysis, I did notice that there were some similarities in the categories which emerged from the data set; although no identical episodes were reported by any of the participants. This was possibly due to most of the participants of both genders not understanding what was required of them initially. This required an explanation of the task by both me and the coordinators, who assisted me by obtaining the data from the female participants, by citing some illustrative examples.

That said, while the similarity in some categories could potentially be attributed to the above reason, there is no firm and conclusive evidence to suggest that this was indeed the case. This is in light of the fact that the participants were reminded that the examples that had been mentioned to them were only for explanation purposes. The participants were urged to think of personal experiences that they genuinely felt had been or would be influential in shaping their held beliefs.

Possibly owing to the nature of the reflective essays task which required a degree of critical thinking as well as writing, the majority of the participants tended to write about one particular influential episode only. It should be emphasised that when coding and analysing the data derived from the reflective essays, the focus was on coding the influential episode, a participant's opinion about it, and how it influenced/ would influence their learning and teaching preferences. Unfortunately, only a few participants adhered fully to the instructions of the reflective essay task (outlined in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.3.4) and addressed all three points required of them. As was the case for when coding and analysing semi-structured interviews, the data from the reflective essays was analysed using an inductive approach.

3.5.2.3 Data analysis procedures for the classroom observations

As was the case for reflective essays, the analysis and presentation of the data that emerged from the classroom observations could not be incorporated into the analysis section of the semi-structured interviews. This was because the research question that classroom observations attempted to answer differed from that of semi-structured interviews. The research question for the classroom observation task is:

RQ2. To what extent are the stated beliefs of the Saudi, undergraduate EFL pre-service teachers about teaching of English aligned with their actual classroom practices?

By their very nature, interviews are more likely to show beliefs which are out of context and often merely presumptive. Classroom observations on the other hand, tend to yield beliefs that are tacitly implied in action. According to Jesry (2014), researchers tend to observe their participants with some predetermined themes. Therefore, when coding, I had four

predetermined categories in mind and I endeavoured to find relevant episodes from each pre-service teacher's observed classroom session to ascertain a match or mismatch between espoused beliefs and practices. Such predetermined categories required employing a deductive approach to analyse the data.

Drawing on the nature of the classroom observation analysis task, I decided to employ a 'loose transcription' technique. The rationale behind this type of transcription may be traced back to the research question through which I aimed to establish if the stated beliefs of the pre-service teachers during the semi-structured interviews matched with their classroom practices. Loose transcription proved useful and effective as it made me listen to each audio-recorded classroom session and identify the theme which represented each pre-service teacher's espoused belief during the semi-structured interview. Once the observed pre-service teacher was found to be indeed practicing the espoused belief in his classroom, then I transcribed that relevant episode / exchange for coding and potentially incorporating in the final report as an illustrative and representative excerpt. If I could not detect a congruence, I repeated the audio-recording a second time to make sure I did not miss any occurrence of the relevant belief under investigation.

Notes taken during each classroom observation session provided crucial contextual information which strengthened the veracity of the analysis and interpretation processes of the collected data. For example, when reviewing my field notes about PT 19's teaching session, it was documented that some students were daydreaming, sleeping, or not paying attention to the pre-service teacher. There were also notes about how the pre-service teacher reacted to this situation, which did not conform to what he had said during the semi-structured interview.

These notes were utilised to compliment my analysis of the audio-recorded material of PT 19 with respect to the motivation category. A point to be stressed at this juncture, as has been acknowledged elsewhere in this thesis, is that there were no opportunities for post-lesson interaction with the observed pre-service teachers to verify the authenticity of the interpretations of the notes taken during such observations. This is a limitation in this thesis (see also Chapter Seven, Section 7.3.3).

As it was necessary to compare and contrast episodes from the EFL pre-service teachers' observed classroom sessions against their articulated beliefs during the semi-structured interviews, I decided to incorporate the relevant illustrative excerpts for the observed EFL pre-service teacher from both sources of data (semi-structured interviews and classroom observations) under the classroom observation analysis section.

I should emphasise that the analysis of the excerpt from the semi-structured interviews is brief because the main analysis of the data from the semi-structured interviews had already been done in much detail in Chapter 4, Section 4.6.1. The next step was to present a paragraph summarising the beliefs articulated by the pre-service teachers during the semi-structured interviews. Following that, the classroom observation analysis section concluded by indicating whether the participants' espoused beliefs matched their classroom practices. This was accompanied with illustrative excerpts from the observed lessons with the purpose of proving or refuting the association between perceived beliefs and actual practices. Such excerpts were then analysed, interpreted and discussed in light of the related literature.

Upon examining the pre-service teachers' beliefs against their classroom practices, the following criteria had to be set out. Firstly, any category to be examined in the classroom observation had to be able to lend itself to observation (could be captured). Secondly, it had to be discernible during the limited time during the course of the classroom observation. Therefore, a category such as 'Error Correction' was judged suitable for the inclusion, whereas the category 'Preferred Teaching Approach' was believed to be best excluded as it was concluded that it would not be possible to establish a judgment in such a limited time frame during the classroom observation. Thirdly, the category to be examined in the classroom observation had to be relevant to the classroom experience. For example, the category 'Incorporation of Teaching Method Modules into EFL teaching Programmes' is irrelevant to the classroom context and was therefore ruled out. Following the application of the above criteria for selecting relevant sub/categories to be included in the classroom analysis section, four sub/categories out of eleven were included. These were error correction, the use of mother tongue (L1) in teaching the target language (L2), use of teaching aids and motivation.

3.6 Role of the researcher

The main purpose of this research was to identify and understand the beliefs held by Saudi EFL pre-service teachers regarding learning and teaching of EFL. My role in this study was a multifaceted one. With regard to observation, it is suggested that the observer's role may be classified as either 'complete participant', 'participant-as-observer', 'observer as-participant', or 'complete observer' Gold (1958, cited in Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011, p. 457). The role I took on in the observation component of this study was that of a complete observer (i.e., non-participant). That being said, and in light of the co-constructed nature of the classroom observation to which both the observer and observee contribute, the role of the observer

demands the presence of the observer and brings an element of 'observer paradox'. In this connection, Copland et al. (2016) cautioned that

> although classroom observation is undoubtedly the best method for finding out what happens in classrooms, it must be remembered that the presence of a non-participant observer, or even only of a tape recorder, will inevitably lead, to some extent, to an alteration of normal behaviour, to what Labov (1972) calls 'the observer's paradox', and allowances must be made for this in the analysis and reporting of the data (p. 15).

Reflecting on the reservations expressed above and drawing on my role during the observations, I must acknowledge that any claim to complete objectivity and lack of bias cannot be made here. Concurrently, I strived to mitigate the inevitable element of subjectivity during the lesson observations and whilst conducting data analysis. For example, such a role entailed keeping a distance from the pre-service teachers and required non-interference either pedagogically or structurally during their lessons. By assuming this role, the pre-service teachers' in-class teaching procedures were expected to be less prone of being influenced by the observer's own convictions. Additionally, such a role provided a needed space for me to focus on note-taking during an observation allowing me to observe any potentially interesting behaviour during the course of the lesson, which may not have been captured by the audio-recording. However, the note-taking process could potentially be off-putting to the pre-service teacher under observation. To avoid this pitfall, all observed pre-service teachers were informed prior to the commencement of the observation process, that any notes to be taken would not be used to assess their performance and that it would not be shared with their academic supervisors or colleagues at their school of practice. In so doing, it was hoped that the pre-service teachers would conduct their teaching without concerns of being judged or assessed. This could then strengthen the validity and reliability of the data collected. My approach in the observation part of the data collection was a realistic one (S. Borg, 2006; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011).

It is for the purpose of obtaining a better insight about teaching behaviour and other occurrences in the classroom that I needed to conduct a direct observation of a live lesson rather than resorting to using second-hand experiences of participants merely reporting what they think they did (Baumeister, Masicampo and Vohs, 2011; Hammond and Wellington, 2013). In practical terms, this relates to premise that often what teachers say and do may differ significantly (ibid.).

With respect to the interviews and reflective essays, my role was to identify and comprehend the beliefs exhibited by the pre-service teachers. This may be done by critically inferring from their discussion during the interviews and through their reflective writing (Debreli, 2013). For the qualitative part of the data collection process, it could be said that I played a 'human-as-instrument' role (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p. 39). As it is the norm in qualitative research that the researcher represents a significant resource for generating data for some time, and without their presence in the research site, no quality data would be generated (Wallestad, 2009).

For the quantitative part of the study (BALLI), my role tended to be more of a facilitator. This role required me to respond to the participants' queries regarding the questionnaire and by eliminating any ambiguity they had when they were filling it in. Debreli (2013) contends that in such a role, it is the researcher's responsibility to ensure the ease of data collection through the appropriate elicitation procedures.

In the final sections of this chapter, I report on the other processes followed during the data collection process and also report on how the data instruments were piloted.

3.7 Confidentiality and anonymity

To conceal the identities of the research participants, confidentiality and anonymity were maintained throughout. The research project was approved by the Research Ethics Committee of the University of Birmingham and followed all the necessary guidelines to ensure good ethical research.

3.8 Access and acceptance

Before this research started, a process of access and acceptance was necessary. This involved providing information on the research instruments and information sheets, consent forms, a supporting letter from the research supervisor, and a time-line for the data collection to the Saudi Cultural Attaché for approval.

The request was then transferred to the main institution of a Saudi mid-western university for data collection to be approved before the request passed on to the Department of English where the data was going to be collected. A mentor was then assigned. The main job of the mentor was to make sure that the data collection processes went smoothly and were in accordance with the principles of scientific research. Once the approval of the department of English was obtained, the request was transferred to the Dean of the college and then took on an administrative path to the Committee for Scholarship and Training for approval and the Rector's testifying to the final decision, signalling approval.

3.9 Informed consent

Informed consent describes "the procedures in which individuals choose whether to participate in an investigation after being informed of facts that would be likely to influence their

decisions" (Diener and Crandall, 1978, p. 57). It is considered an integral part of ethical research as it pays attention to the rights of individuals taking their own decisions and exerting control over their personal lives (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). Participants in this study were informed of its purpose and what was expected from them. This was achieved both by conveying verbally and by distributing an information sheet (Appendix 2, Appendix 5, Appendix 8, Appendix 11) for each and every participant before they took a decision regarding whether or not to participate in the study. I outline this process in Chapter 3, Section 3.4. The information sheet also contained detailed information about the participants' rights to anonymity and confidentiality. There were separate information sheets and consent forms (see Appendix 2, Appendix 5, Appendix 8, Appendix 11) for every data collection instrument. The potential participants were informed of their right to withdraw from the study during or after the data collection process. They were also informed that they were under no obligation whatsoever to participate in the study. They were provided with the exact date to withdraw from the study. The information sheets had also information about how their data would be used and held by me. In addition, the participants were informed that there were no known risks involved in them partaking in the study.

3.10 Pilot study

Conducting a pilot study before proceeding to the main study is an important step in scientific research. According to Robson (2002), a pilot study is defined as "a small-scale version of the real thing, a try-out of what you propose so its feasibility can be checked" (p. 185). In the same vein, Mackey and Gass (2005) advise that the pilot study is "an important means of assessing feasibility and usefulness of the data collection methods and making any necessary revisions before they are used with the research participants" (p. 36). Also, piloting a study is deemed

useful as it allows for the modification and rewording of the research instrument, be it a questionnaire or an interview for the purposes of clarity and a more effective instrument in general. Further, through a pilot study, a researcher could be better prepared to execute the main study by testing the time allocated for the interviews. More importantly, pilot studies enable the researcher to test the feasibility and usefulness of the research instruments to be utilised in the main study and whether they measure what they are intended to measure and to identify potential challenges that might show up during the data collection of the main study (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007). Opting for a pilot study was also appealing as it was hoped that I would benefit from the volunteer participants' feedback on the research instruments in order to improve areas that needed improvement.

3.10.1 Piloting the questionnaire

For this instrument, five volunteer undergraduate pre-service teachers of English who were at their final term of studies at a Saudi mid-western university underwent the pilot study. The volunteers were all undergraduate students from the final year (8^{th} level) majoring in English language. All the volunteers were not invited to participate in the main study so as to minimise the possibility of variables to distort the validity and reliability of the data collected.

The volunteers were invited to answer the questionnaire immediately after their last lecture for the day. The data collection was carried out by way of a written exercise. Once the volunteers were seated, I started a stopwatch and introduced myself and explained that I was there to pilot test the questionnaire. In addition, the volunteers received hard-copies of information sheets about the questionnaire as well as copies of the consent form to enable them to read, understand and sign-off on what I had read and explained. Following that, the volunteers were encouraged

to ask for any clarification before, during, and after attempting the questionnaire. The process of answering the questionnaire began and involved engaging with some queries from the volunteers that were answered immediately.

The process of the questionnaire pilot study took all the volunteer respondents between 12 to 14 minutes to complete. Once they had completed it, they were requested to hand in the consent forms along with the questionnaires, but to keep the information sheet as it contained both my supervisors' and my contact details in case they needed to get in touch. As suggested in the literature, the questionnaire pilot study experience had a number of lessons for me. While there were some practical needs such as ensuring a quiet space for the completion of the questionnaire and to provide pens/pencils for the completion of the questionnaire, one of the most important lessons was the need to clarify the translation of some of the statements into Arabic. Otherwise, there was no further need to amend any of the questionnaire's items as these appeared to have been understood by the participants in the pilot study.

3.10.2 Piloting the semi-structured interview

Initially, five volunteer undergraduate pre-service teachers of English, who had been at their final term of studies at a Saudi mid-western university were willing to participate in the oral interview. However, two of them did not show up for the interviews. The remaining three participants were assigned a time slot for the semi-structured interview and all interviews took place in a day. Drawing on the experience from piloting the questionnaire, the interviews were carried out in a quiet and comfortable room. I interviewed each volunteer once. The process began by introducing myself and trying to build rapport with the interviewees so they felt at ease as they were being interviewed. This was followed by explaining the purpose of the

interview and ensuring anonymity and confidentiality of the data and an explanation about how it will be used and stored. I also stressed that all the data collected had nothing to do with the college they were enrolled in and that it would not be shared with the interviewees' lecturers under any circumstances. This was meant to boost the interviewees' confidence to discuss and express their own views and beliefs even if that might include reflections on their current teachers. After distributing and explaining the information sheets and the consent forms, the consent forms were collected from each interviewee separately after they had signed them. At that point, I started a stopwatch and told the interviewees that the interview will be recorded. The interview began and concluded with all three interviewees with some important, issues to be considered during the main study. These were the need to build a good rapport and the need to probe some responses further, particularly if the interviewee was not forthcoming in their responses. Otherwise, they appear to have understood all the questions and there was no further need to amend the questions or the approach.

3.10.3 Piloting the classroom observation

In coordination with the vice-dean and university academic supervisor in one college of education, the process of piloting the classroom observation was begun. Each pre-service teacher was supervised by an academic supervisor, whom I accompanied for the classroom observation. The headteacher of the school was visited and informed by the supervisor that I would be visiting the pre-service teacher in his classroom. The headteacher welcomed this as long as I was being accompanied by the academic supervisor. It should be noted that the pre-service teacher was asked beforehand by his supervisor if he was willing to partake in the study, to which he acquiesced. The process started with me explaining to the pre-service teacher the nature of the observation in general terms and what it would entail in taking part in the study.

This was done both verbally and in writing. The participant was handed a copy of the information sheet to read, understand and keep, as well as a consent form to sign and hand in to me. The same process was applied to the students who were informed that they were not the object of the study, but their voices when they interacted with their pre-service teacher which would be recorded. All the participants agreed to this and each one received an information sheet to read, understand and keep, along with a consent form to sign and hand in to me. When the lesson started, the audio-recording and the process of note-taking began. The note taking process was useful as I could take immediate note of any non-verbal communication taking place in the classroom. When the lesson ended, I thanked the pre-service teacher for agreeing to take part in the study and assured him of confidentiality. I informed him that his supervisor would have no access to the audio and written content that I had taken. The pilot study experience was a useful exercise before the main study. For example, the process of introducing myself to the students, explaining the nature of the study, distributing and securing the information sheets and the consent forms took some of the valuable time of the lesson, which I attempted to overcome in the main study.

3.10.4 Piloting the reflective essay

Five individuals were invited to take part in this task. All five volunteers were undergraduate pre-service teachers of English who were at their final term of studies at a Saudi mid-western university. The reflective essay task was printed on a handout along with the information sheet and consent form for this pilot test. The requirements were explained to the volunteer respondents verbally and they were encouraged to contact me should they needed any clarification. They were given a one-week timeframe to respond to the task and hand it in to me. The following week, the volunteers returned the reflective essay task and were asked for

their feedback. Their feedback was recorded and carefully considered when preparing for the main study. None of their feedback affected the nature of the instrument or its value in the study, but was mostly related to practical issues such as the need to provide sufficient paper for writing on and the need to stress that the nature of the task requires more than a brief answer.

The following chapter presents the findings and discusses the perceived beliefs of the pre-service teachers in relation to the learning and teaching of EFL.

Chapter Four

Results and Discussions of Perceived Beliefs

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the perceived beliefs of EFL pre-service teachers. Four primary issues are specifically addressed. Firstly, it explores the beliefs regarding learning and teaching of English. Secondly it examines if the beliefs of pre-service teachers about learning of English change upon completing their practicum experience. Thirdly, it evaluates whether any change in beliefs about learning held by the pre-service teachers could be attributed to the type of programme they are enrolled in or indeed, to their gender. Fourthly, it identifies the most critical past experiences of the EFL pre-service teachers' schooling which has shaped or would go on to shape their beliefs. The findings in this chapter were drawn from the following research instruments. These were BALLI, semi-structured interviews, and reflective essays (see appendices 4, 7 and 10, respectively). The use of the aforementioned instruments served a primary objective of this thesis by validating and cross-checking different results through a triangulation design. Precisely, this objective was achieved whenever different points were probed through various instruments (e.g., error correction, the use of mother tongue (L1) in teaching the target language (L2), preferred teaching approach).

In the following sections, I lay out the relevant research questions, then present and discuss the findings in light of the literature.

4.2 RQ1a. What beliefs are held by EFL pre-service teachers about learning of English?

4.2.1 Findings and discussions of BALLI

This research question is addressed using BALLI and the findings are presented in tables 1-6. In these tables, the pre-service teachers' responses to the relevant BALLI statements are presented in percentage for each statement. However, the Mean (M), and standard deviation (SD) of responses are given for both individual statements and for each construct as a whole. In addition, the Median (Mdn) is also presented in tables 3 and 5 as the data is non-normally distributed. The findings and discussions follow the five BALLI constructs (see Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.3.1 for an explanation of BALLI).

4.2.1.1 Construct 1 (Foreign Language Aptitude)

Table 4.1 below shows the following BALLI statements (1, 2, 8, 17, 23, 25, 26, 27), which relate to the construct of 'Foreign Language Aptitude'.

Table (4.1): Frequency (%), Mean and standard deviations for the practice group participants prior to and after the practicum experience according to the construct of Foreign Language Aptitude

Statement	Pre					Post				
	D	N	A	M	SD	D	N	A	M	SD
1: It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.	2.1	10.4	87.5	4.64	.75	2.0	8.2	89.8	4.65	.80
2: Some people are born with a special ability which helps them learn a foreign language.	8.5	27.7	63.8	3.82	1.00	8.2	28.6	63.3	3.65	.92
8: It is easier for someone who already	14.9	29.8	55.3	3.61	1.22	10.4	29.2	60.4	3.75	.95

speaks a foreign language to learn another one.										
17: Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.	23.4	25.5	51.1	3.55	1.29	22.4	26.5	51.0	3.53	1.35
23: People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages.	33.3	16.7	50.0	3.22	1.46	34.7	16.3	49.0	3.08	1.46
25: People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.	8.5	14.9	76.6	4.12	1.09	8.2	20.4	71.4	3.89	.96
26: Saudis are good at learning foreign languages.	12.5	31.3	56.3	3.60	.98	16.3	32.7	51.0	3.51	1.02
27: Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.	17.4	6.5	76.1	4.04	1.33	18.4	6.1	75.5	4.06	1.24
Overall Foreign Language Aptitude				**3.82**	**.59**				**3.76**	**.58**
t-test	**t= 1.12**									
p-value	**0.266**									

Note: A= collapsed scores for Strongly Agree and Agree; N= Neutral; D= Strongly Disagree and Disagree

Table 4.1 points out that statement 1, *"It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language",* garnered the highest level of support, with (87.5%) of the participants endorsing it, and only (2.1%) in disagreement. Most of the participants were in agreement with the belief that children are better at learning foreign languages in comparison to adults. This seems to follow the well-known hypothesis in linguistics and in language acquisition, specifically that of Krashen's critical period hypothesis. At the core of the hypothesis, is the notion that age is biologically linked to the ability to acquire a language, and that after a certain age, language

acquisition becomes harder. It is likely that this concept was taught on the educational programme that the pre-service teachers were enrolled in. They are therefore likely to endorse this statement, given their awareness of the underlying research which supports it. Likewise, Statement 2*, "Some people are born with a special ability which helps them learn a foreign language"* received agreement at 63.8%.

Despite the participants' believing that children are better at acquiring language than adults, and that some people are born with a special aptitude for learning foreign languages, a majority of them (76.1%) still maintained that "Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language". Such a finding could be perceived as the participants acknowledging that learning to speak a foreign language is not exclusive to children or to people with an aptitude for language learning. The study of Tercanlioglu (2005) also reported that (85%) of the participants had embraced the concept of a special ability for learning languages, and another (53%) agreed that speaking a foreign language is a possibility for everyone.

Along similar lines, the participants also associated intelligence with the ability to speak more than one foreign language, with (76.6%) subscribing to this view. This suggests that the majority of the participants viewed the ability to speak several languages to be a sign of high intelligence, although no concrete evidence or even a consensus to this claim seems to exist in the literature so far. However, in my view, such a strong endorsement of the participants towards the claim that speaking more than one language may be indicative of a high level of intelligence may only be a reflection of the importance they attribute to the knowledge of additional foreign languages in general. This interpretation is strengthened by

another result from table 4.6 below in which (72.9%) of the participants agreed with statement 24, "*Saudis think it is important to speak a foreign language".*

Half of the participants (51.1%) believed that women do better at foreign languages than men. This ranks second to last within this first construct. This is possibly due to this belief not being widely held and may also be perceived as unsubstantiated (in comparison to the statement on learning a language at a younger age). Similarly, within this first construct, the statement which refers to those who are good at math and science as not being proficient at foreign language learning (Statement 23), had only 50% signalling agreement. This may seem to contradict the statement on high level of intelligence, but it could also perhaps point to the notion that these participants may perceive language learning as being distinct from disciplines such as Maths and Science.

Table 4.1 shows that the participants were weak in their agreement related to the construct of 'Foreign Language Aptitude' (M= 3.82) and (SD= .59). Appendix 22 may be seen for an explanation of the interpretation of Mean (M) and Standard Deviation (SD) scores. This finding lends support to that of Vibulphol's (2004) and Wong's (2010), who reported that most of the participants in their studies did endorse the concept of foreign language aptitude. Collectively, the findings in this first construct appear to denote that the participants have a positive view of the role of an aptitude for languages in the context of being able to learn a foreign language. In other words, the scores seem to signal a slight agreement that aptitude is an important concept in foreign language learning.

4.2.1.2 Construct 2 (The Difficulty of Language Learning)

Table 4.2 presents the results for the BALLI statements 3, 18, 22 and table 4.3 reports the results from statements 4, 11. The reason why these are discussed separately is due to the results in table 3 were derived from 'multiple-choice' questions, unlike the rest of the statements within this construct, which are on a Likert scale.

Table (4.2): Frequency (%), Mean and standard deviations for the practice group participants prior to and after the practicum experience according to the construct of The difficulty of Language Learning

Statement	Pre					Post				
	D	N	A	M	SD	D	N	A	M	SD
3: Some languages are easier to learn than others.	8.7	15.2	76.1	4.02	.99	2.0	14.3	83.7	4.42	.81
18: It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.	33.3	25.0	41.7	3.08	1.23	36.7	20.4	42.9	3.06	1.19
22: It is easier to read and write a language than to speak and understand it.	19.1	27.7	53.2	3.57	1.28	22.4	26.5	51.0	3.26	.99
Overall difficulty of Language Learning				**3.55**	**.64**				**3.58**	**.54**
t-test	**-.93**									
p-value	**.355**									

Note: A= collapsed scores for Strongly Agree and Agree; N= Neutral; D= Strongly Disagree and Disagree

Table 4.2 shows results similar to results obtained by Altan (2012) and Daif-Allah (2012). They found that (79%) and (80%) of the participants respectively, had agreed that *"Some languages are easier to learn than others"*. In my study, the highest level of agreement was towards this statement with (76.1%). (8.7%) were in disagreement. This may reflect a degree

of awareness as the participants have been exposed to English as a foreign language in their personal context of undergoing education (i.e., state schools) and are possibly drawing on their own experiences of learning languages. In relation to their perceptions of the difficulty of acquiring certain language skills, 53.2% of the participants believed that being able to speak and understand a foreign language is more challenging than being able to read and write in it, while 19.1% did not think so. The participants' Mean score (M= 3.57) suggests a slight agreement. This challenges the finding of Javid, Farooq and Khan (2013) who reported that reading and writing are not popular activities among Saudi EFL learners as they find these skills more challenging.

The least consensus within table 2 of the second construct was reported for statement 18, *"It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language"*, with an arguably even distribution of scores, namely; agree (41.7%) neutral (25%) and disagree (33.3%). The participants' Mean score (M= 3.08) implies a neutral position which further denotes that they were not unanimous as to whether understanding a foreign language or speaking it was any easier. This finding can be contrasted with that of Altan (2012), where only (15%) of the participants in his study had agreed with the aforementioned statement. This could suggest that the participants in my study perceived speaking and understanding a foreign language, more readily than did the participants in Altan's study.

It should be noted that while statements 18 and 22 discussed above may seem contradictory, they are actually addressing different skills.

Table 4.2 also seems to demonstrate that the participants endorsed statements (3, 18, 22) with an overall average (M= 3.55) and (SD= .64), which may reflect a slight agreement with the statements. That said, the table further shows a slight majority of the participants agree with statements 18 and 22.

Still within the second construct (The difficulty of Language Learning), table 4.3 presents the results of the other statements related to this construct.

Table (4.3): Frequency, percent, median and Wilcoxon test Z for the practice group participants prior to and after the practicum experience according to the construct of The difficulty of Language Learning (Statements 4 & 11):

4. The language I am planning to teach [English] is:	**Before**		**After**	
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
A very difficult language	2	4.1	8	16.3
A difficult language	4	8.2	34	69.4
A language of medium difficulty	29	59.2	5	10.2
An easy language	10	20.4	2	4.1
A very easy language	-	-	-	-
Median		3.10		1.98
Wilcoxon test (Z)				4.49
p-value				<.001
11. If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take for him to become fluent?	**Before**		**After**	
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Less than a year	14	31.1	6	12.2
1-2 years	13	28.9	14	28.6
3-5 years	13	28.9	29	59.2
5-10 years	4	8.9	-	-
You can't learn a language in 1 hour a day	1	2.2	-	-
Median		2.16		2.53
Wilcoxon test (Z)				1.38
p-value				0.167

Table 4.3 above shows that the majority of the participants (59.2%) viewed English as a language of medium difficulty to master. This is similar to findings reported by Tercanlioglu (2005), where (56%) of the participants had viewed English to be a language of medium difficulty to master. With respect to my study, what is reassuring is that only (4.1%) deemed English to be a very difficult language, or difficult (8.2%), whereas (20.4%) considered it an easy language. Such scores could suggest that the majority of the participants have a positive view towards teaching a foreign language.

Table 4.3 also presents the participants' responses to statement 11 about the time it takes to reach a certain degree of fluency in a foreign language. The responses were varied with an overall Median (Mdn= 2.16). Such a score mirrors these varied responses and indicate a lack of consensus among the participants towards the statement. Surprisingly, the majority of the participants, although by just a small margin (31.1%), were of the view that anyone can be fluent in a foreign language in less than a year if they dedicated as little as one hour a day to learn it. While it might be construed as a positive sign that the participants are not optimistic of the prospect of mastering a foreign language in such a short time, it could also be perceived as having unrealistic or ambitious targets for the learners. Such high expectations of quick foreign language mastery could have negative effects on their prospective students, which could ultimately lead them to be frustrated if their prospective students did not learn the language in the projected timeframe. It has been shown that identifying unrealistic beliefs held by pre-service teachers through a process of showing them relevant data and research (Fenstermacher, 1978) could be helpful in addressing these beliefs during teacher training courses (Holec, 1987).

Table 3 also shows that, by contrast, the least consensus among the participants was towards the statement *"you can't learn a language in 1 hour a day"*, with only (2.2%) endorsing the statement. This score suggests that the vast majority of the participants realised that dedicating one hour a day to learn a foreign a language would not be enough to reach fluency. The rest of the participants seemed to have rather moderate expectations with (28.9%) reporting that 1-2 years would be enough to reach fluency in a foreign language, while another identical percentage (28.9%) believed that between 3-5 years are to be allowed before achieving language fluency. Lastly, a minority of the participants (8.9%) thought it could take as long as 5-10 years before being fluent in a foreign language, which is in sharp contrast with the finding of Altan (2012) who reported that as high as (67%) of the participants in his study had been of the belief that it would take 5-10 years to master a foreign language.

4.2.1.3 Construct 3 (The Nature of Language Learning)

The third construct deals with BALLI statements (6, 9, 12, 15, 19, 20) concerning 'The Nature of Language Learning'. Table 4.4 is a summary of the results.

Table (4.4): Frequency (%), Mean and standard deviations for the practice group participants prior to and after the practicum experience according to the construct of The Nature of Language Learning

Statement	Pre					Post				
	D	N	A	M	SD	D	N	A	M	SD
6: It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak a foreign language.	4.3	17.0	78.7	4.02	.87	6.1	14.3	79.6	3.95	.86
9: It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country.	4.2	12.5	83.3	4.35	.93	2.0	6.1	91.8	4.69	.68

12: Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words.	4.4	8.9	86.7	4.33	.90	4.1	8.2	87.8	4.26	.86
15: Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules.	12.5	22.9	64.6	3.77	1.03	18.4	22.4	59.2	3.36	.95
19: Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects.	21.3	19.1	59.6	3.61	1.18	16.3	20.4	63.3	3.69	1.06
20: Learning another language is a matter of translating from Arabic.	27.7	31.9	40.4	3.27	1.26	38.8	22.4	38.8	2.87	1.18
Overall Nature of Language Learning				**3.89**	**.43**				**3.80**	**.39**
t-test	**2.07**									
p-value	**.043**									

Note: A= collapsed scores for Strongly Agree and Agree; N= Neutral; D= Strongly Disagree and Disagree

Table 4.4 shows that the highest endorsement within the construct was reported for statement 9, *"It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country"*, where (83.3%) agreed, (12.5%) neutral, and only (4.2%) disagreed. A similar finding emerged from the reflective essays where the pre-service teacher PT 10, PT 12, PT 18, and PT 19 reported on the benefits of practicing English with "native" English speakers. As an example, PT 12 explained how they had benefited from practicing English with English speakers, albeit not by travelling overseas but by utilising a digital language platform through which he could practice English with speakers from several countries where English was the native language. (see Chapter 4, Section 4.7.1.3.

A similar pattern of strong agreement is also noted for statement 12, *"Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words"*, as the vast majority of the participants (86.7%) were in agreement with the statement, while (8.9%) remained neutral, and only (4.4%) disapproved of it. This is contrary to the finding of Cui's (2014) study, who found that the majority of the participants had disagreed with the aforementioned statement. However, my findings confirm those of Daif-Allah (2012) with (79%) and Mattheoudakis (2007) with (60%) agreement rates. Such a high endorsement rate among the participants in my study towards the primacy of vocabulary could be a reflection of the nature of the teaching approach they were exposed to during their previous language learning experiences. In the Saudi context, this is predominantly a grammar-translation process with an emphasis on learning vocabulary. As a former student who had undergone education in a similar teaching context, the participants in this study are typically taught using the approach which promotes memorising vocabulary lists at the expense of other communicative activities in foreign language learning. This accounts for very strong support for the role of vocabulary in foreign language learning and could cause some degree of concern, as it might mean that teachers may pay increased attention to vocabulary over other elements of language learning which may be necessary for communicative competence. It may also suggest that these participants may be oversimplifying the nature of foreign language learning.

Another, yet similar belief relates to the importance of grammar rules in the pursuit of foreign language learning. Although fewer participants endorsed this belief as compared to the belief about the primacy of vocabulary, this is still a majority of support (64.6%), and only a minority in disagreement (12.5%) with the statement. Such scores indicate that the role of grammar in the learning of a foreign language is highly perceived as central to learning. This could also

relate to the previous learning experiences of the participants. What has been noted previously with regard to the role of vocabulary learning in the foreign language is also relevant here, in that the high endorsement rate could somewhat be worrying, lest much emphasis may be placed on grammar rules at the expense of other communicative aspects of the language.

These highly positive beliefs about the utility of grammar and vocabulary in foreign language learning, as stated earlier, could be traced to the previous learning experiences of those participants where the grammar-translation teaching method was used. In the Saudi context, much significance is placed on "linguistic competence over communicative competence" (Diaf-Allah, 2012, p. 24). Looking across at other results to help understand this point further, it may be seen that the participants noted during the semi-structured interviews to not let students' errors go uncorrected. For example, PT 20 elaborated how he would deal with students' errors maintaining that "if the error was a linguistic one which will ruin the sentence, I focus on the error and explain to the student what the error is" (see Chapter 4, Section 4.6.1.3.1 for a discussion).

The results here once again reiterate the importance of understanding the beliefs held by the pre-service teachers during the course of their teacher education programmes. This allows teacher education programmes to address beliefs which may influence the language learning process and enable teachers to develop teaching strategies which promote successful language learning (see Chapter 7, Section 7.3.1 for further discussion).

With regard to the importance of being aware of the foreign culture, the majority of the participants (78.7%) agreed that *"It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak*

a foreign language", while only (4.3%) did not agree with this statement. This high endorsement rate could reflect an awareness about the utility of understanding the culture of the target language perhaps with the view that such awareness might facilitate integration and/ or communication with the native speakers of the foreign language. It may be useful here to refer to a common theme raised during the semi-structured interviews of this study in which a substantial number of the pre-service teachers (PT 2, PT 3, PT 5, PT 8, PT 9, PT 17, PT 19) had underlined the value of motivating students to learn English for purposes of communication. Table 4.4 shows that while the majority of the participants (59.6%) maintained that foreign language learning is different from learning other school subjects, (19.1%) were neutral, and (21.3%) did not support the statement. This echoes the findings from Construct 1 where less than 50% of the participants thought there were differences in terms of the aptitude needed to learn a language in comparison to Maths and Science.

The least consensus of responses was received to statement 20, *"Learning another language is a matter of translating from Arabic"*. While (40.4%) of the participants held opinions supporting the statement, (31.9%) were undecided, and a smaller proportion (27.7%) rejected it. This suggests that the participants overall were neutral (M= 3.27) with the belief that for someone to learn a new language they simply needed to translate from their native language. In other words, the participants seem to realise, to some degree, that the learning of a new language involves more complex processes along the way of language learning than merely translation from the L1.

Altogether, the overall mean score of the participants (M= 3.89), and (SD= .43) indicate a slight agreement about the general way in which language learning takes place, suggesting that they endorse the beliefs embodied within the statements of the third construct.

4.2.1.4 Construct 4 (Learning and Communication Strategies)

The fourth construct relates to BALLI statements (5, 7, 10, 13, 14) regarding 'Learning and Communication Strategies'.

Table (4.5): Frequency (%), Mean and standard deviations for the practice group participants prior to and after the practicum experience according to the construct of Learning and Communication Strategies

Statement	Pre					Post				
	D	N	A	M	SD	D	N	A	M	SD
5: It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent accent.	4.2	16.7	79.2	4.25	.95	4.1	16.3	79.6	4.16	.85
7: You shouldn't say anything in the language until you can say it correctly.	35.4	27.1	37.5	3.02	1.42	46.9	20.4	32.7	2.63	1.31
10: It is ok to guess if you don't know a word in the foreign language.	14.9	27.7	57.4	3.59	1.07	16.3	18.4	65.3	3.63	1.05
13: It is important to repeat and practice a lot.	2.1	6.3	91.7	4.64	.78	2.0	98.0	0	4.85	.50
14: If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later on.	14.6	20.8	64.6	3.68	1.29	18.4	20.4	61.2	3.65	1.09

Overall Learning and Communication Strategies		**3.83**	**.55**		**3.78**	**.50**
t-test	**.78**					
p-value	**.436**					

Note: A= collapsed scores for Strongly Agree and Agree; N= Neutral; D= Strongly Disagree and Disagree

A closer look at table 4.5 reveals that all the statements had a unanimity rate of over (50%), except for statement 7, "*You shouldn't say anything in the language until you can say it correctly"*, which had attracted the least support with (37.5%) agreement rate. Concurrently, a similar percentage of the participants (35.4%) disagreed with the above statement, while another (27.1%) kept neutral. The result seems to be signalling that the participants were uncertain as to whether refraining from speaking in the foreign language, before being able to speak accurately, was the right thing to do. The result may also imply that the participants overlooked the critical roles of trial and error as part of the language learning process in enhancing the linguistic competency of foreign language learners. This finding is similar to that of Daif-Allah (2012) who also reported that (22%) of the participants had believed that it was better to not say anything in the foreign language before being able to speak accurately. This finding could possibly be interpreted in light of the overall picture of the teaching approach prevalent in the context of the participants of this study, which is exam-oriented and focused on accuracy rather than communicative and focused on proficiency.

The participants indicated the strongest agreement with statement 13, *"It is important to repeat and practice a lot"*, with a significantly high endorsement rate of (91.7%), and a low of (2.1%) disagreement rate. This demonstrates the importance the participants placed on the prospect of

practice for the efficacy of foreign language learning. This is yet another finding which makes it reasonable to infer the type of teaching approach with which these participants had been taught where there was emphasis on rote learning and repetition for accuracy. In this connection, I would argue that it is only natural for the participants to hold such a strong support for the role of repetition as they drew on a "tried and tested" approach (grammar-translation). This finding underlines the importance of introducing these participants to more recent teaching approaches, and to witness these teaching approaches in practice.

The second highest agreement (79.2%) was reported for statement 5, *"It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent accent"*, with only (4.2%) of the participants disapproving the statement. The finding illustrates the value placed on the aspect of accent to denote foreign language proficiency by the participants. It could be interpreted that the participants longed to speak the foreign language with a distinct accent for easier integration and communication with its speakers around the world. This is not unusual for foreign language learners learning any new language.

With respect to error correction, a majority of (64.6%) were of the belief that if errors are allowed to go uncorrected from an early stage, it will be challenging to respond to them later on. This result seemed to imply that the majority of the participants were wary that turning a blind eye to students' linguistic errors could ultimately result in fossilisation. It is useful at this point to compare this result with other observations. Semi-structured interviews held with several participants demonstrated that they tended to tolerate student errors. However, this tolerance did not mean that they were going to turn a blind eye to their students' errors. In fact, quite the opposite is true, as all the pre-service teachers interviewed made it clear that such

errors must be corrected in some way or form (see Chapter 4, Section 4.6.1.3.1). Likewise, classroom observations illustrated that they instantaneously corrected their students' errors as soon as they were made. This particular issue seems to draw quite varying results.

As has been the case for the first three BALLI constructs, table 4.5 illustrates that the participants also embraced the statements within the fourth construct 'Learning and Communication Strategies', with an overall (M= 3.83), and (SD= .55) suggesting a general agreement.

4.2.1.5 Construct 5 (Motivation and Expectation)

The BALLI statements (21, 24) within construct 5 sought the participants' responses regarding the construct of 'Motivation and Expectation'.

Table (4.6): Frequency (%), Mean and standard deviations for the practice group participants prior to and after the practicum experience according to the construct of Motivation and Expectation

Statement	Pre					Post				
	D	N	A	M	SD	D	N	A	M	SD
21: If students learn to speak this language (English) very well, it will help them get a good job.	4.2	10.4	85.4	4.45	.92	2.0	8.2	89.8	4.69	.71
24: Saudis think it is important to	6.3	20.8	72.9	4.10	1.01	6.1	16.3	77.6	4.10	.89

speak a foreign language.										
Overall Motivation and Expectation				**Mean=4.28** **Median=4.38**	**.66**				**Mean=4.39** **Median=4.48**	**.62**
Wilcoxon test (Z)	**2.33**									
p-value	**0.02**									

Note: A= collapsed scores for Strongly Agree and Agree; N= Neutral; D= Strongly Disagree and Disagree

Table 4.6 shows that most of the participants (85.4%) endorsed statement 21 *"If students learn to speak this language (English) very well, it will help them get a good job"*, whereas a very small minority of (4.2%) rejected it. Such a high endorsement rate may be interpreted as a strong agreement for the above statement. The score also indicates that the vast majority of the participants appreciated the potential of English in their pursuit of certain goals such as securing a job. This is corroborated by another finding from the semi-structured interviews where the pre-service teachers (PT 1, PT 3, PT 6, PT 8, PT 9, PT 18) held the belief that students should be motivated to learn English in view of its potential to help them get employed. Concurrently, this result also sheds light on a similar finding reported in Alfawzan (2012) in which a group of 40 Saudi EFL learners had strongly agreed with the usefulness of the English language in finding a good job.

There was also strong agreement within this construct towards statement, 24 *"Saudis think it is important to speak a foreign language"*, with (72.9%) of the participants supporting it, and (6.3%) disapproving it. This signals that the participants had recognised the significance of

being able to speak a foreign language in today's world. The participants' scores seem to suggest that they had very high aspirations to learn English and that they were also very highly motivated to learn the language. These findings are similar with those reported in other studies (i.e., Vibulphol, 2004; Tercanlioglu, 2005; Daif-Allah, 2012; Cui, 2014), that also indicated that the participants in the respective studies had believed that learning English was considered important.

Table 4.6 shows that across the five constructs of the BALLI, the participants indicated the highest endorsement rate for the fifth construct of 'Motivation and Expectation', with an overall (M= 4.28) and (SD= .66) suggesting strong agreement. This coincides with Javid and Al-malki's (2018) result, in which the participants similarly indicated the highest endorsement towards the statements of this construct.

4.3 RQ3. Did the beliefs held by EFL pre-service teachers about learning of English change after the practicum experience?

In order to consider the impact of the practicum experience on belief (about learning) change, the comparison was made on the construct level of the BALLI (five constructs) rather than on each individual statement. The findings of this research question are extracted from tables 4.1 through 4.6 above.

The analysis of the practice group participants' responses to the statements contained within the five BALLI constructs showed that there were no statistically significant differences between their responses prior to and after the practicum experience in construct 1 'Foreign Language Aptitude' (t= 1.12, p= 0.266) (see table 4.1), specifically statements (3, 18, 22),

within construct 2 'The Difficulty of Language Learning' (t= -.93, p= .355) (see table 4.2), and construct 4 'Learning and Communication Strategies' (t=.78, p=.436) (see table 4.5). This suggests that undergoing the practicum experience did not lead to significant belief (about learning) change in the practice group participants in relation to these constructs. This is consistent with Mattheoudakis's (2007) and Vibulphol's (2004) study, which also found that the teaching practice had a low impact on the pre-service teachers' existing beliefs about learning.

However, with respect to statement 4 embodied within construct 2, 'The Difficulty of Language Learning', as shown in the table 4.3 above, the average score for statement 4 *"The language I am planning to teach is"* was higher before the practicum experience (Mdn=3.10) than after it (Mdn=1.98). Using the Wilcoxon test, there was a significant difference between the participants' responses before and after the practicum experience in connection to this statement (Z=4.49, p=<.001). The practicum experience therefore had an effect by changing the beliefs (about learning) of the participants in connection to this statement. The participants perceived English to be more difficult to teach following their practicum experience.

With regards to the third construct 'Nature of Language Learning', as illustrated in table 4.4, the Mean value before the practicum experience was slightly higher (M=3.89, SD=.43) than after the practicum experience (M=3.80, SD=0.39). Using the paired-samples t-test, there was a significant difference (t=2.07, p=0.043) between the Mean figures of the participants before and after the practicum experience in relation to the third construct of 'Nature of Language Learning'. This suggests that the practicum had an impact by changing the beliefs (about learning) of the participants within this construct. There was generally less endorsement from

the participants towards the BALLI statements in this construct following the practicum experience than there was before they had undergone it.

Further, as shown in table 4.6, the average score for the fifth construct 'Motivation and Expectation' was slightly lower before the practicum experience (Mdn=4.38) than after it (Mdn=4.48). Using the Wilcoxon test, there was a significant difference between the participants' responses before and after the practicum experience in connection to the fifth construct ($Z=2.33$, $p=0.02$). To explain, the practicum experience had an effect by changing the beliefs (about learning) of the participants within this construct. Specifically, there was more agreement after the practicum than there had been before it.

Altogether, these results reveal that more stability rather than change was exhibited by the practice group participants upon the completion of the teaching practice. The results also point to minimal impact of the practicum on changing the beliefs (about learning) held by the practice group participants in three out of five constructs of the BALLI, which seem to reinforce one of the characteristics of beliefs; that it is resistant to change (Pajares, 1992; K. Johnson, 1994; S. Borg, 2011). The changes observed in the two constructs may be explained by differences between core and peripheral beliefs whereby the core beliefs are more resistant to change (Kagan, 1992; K. Johnson, 1994; Peacock, 2001; Richardson, 2003; S. Borg, 2011; Song, 2015) and perhaps require more effort, dedication and determination to change them, while the peripheral beliefs are more superficially held and thus rather more susceptible to change. The two constructs where change was noticed indicated that finding a change in belief (about learning) was a gradual process, which had to be strengthened or weakened by the content of relevant courses in the teacher education programme. This implies that if beliefs are to be

changed, they would need to be responded to with appropriate and convincing evidence during teacher education programmes (Fenstermacher, 1978). It would therefore be relevant at this juncture to refer to Mattheoudakis's (2007) observation that most changes in beliefs about learning occurred after the pre-service teachers had been introduced to modules which bolstered their procedural and declarative knowledge.

The findings of my study also appear to give prominence to the argument of Cole and Knowles (1993). Their argument suggests that the majority of pre-service teachers commence their teaching practice while holding images, hopes and expectations which may be traced back to their tentative presumptions and opinions established during teacher preparation programmes. However, throughout their teaching practice, these teachers often go through a process in which these images get shattered when confronted with the realities of the demands in a school setting and within the classroom, which do not conform to their previous experiences and expectations. Cole and Knowles further explain that through this process that the pre-service teachers could re-examine their held beliefs and also evaluate more critically, the theoretical information attained during the course of their programme. In so doing, the pre-service teachers would be in a position to make informed decisions and be able to revamp their beliefs in light of the new realities which could then translate to more effective teaching practices.

4.4 RQ5. Is there a statistically significant correlation between the pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about learning and their gender?

The responses of the practice group participants to BALLI both before and after the practicum experience are presented in tables 4.1 to 4.6 above. In this section, the responses of the participants were subjected to inferential analysis with the purpose of finding out whether there

was a statistically significant correlation between their responses to BALLI statements both before and after the practicum experience attributed to their gender. However, rather than comparing their responses to each statement, I have made the comparison on the construct level. In order to achieve this, t-test analysis (two-independent samples test) was used to reveal if any significant differences at the (.05) level existed between the Mean figures of the male and female participants across the five constructs of the BALLI, both before and after the practicum experience. I present the results of this inferential analysis in table 4.7 below. However, before I discuss these results I would like to stress that the explanatory power of the p-value of the inferential tests is by no means limitless. This point is explained well by Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun (2015, p. 230) who maintained "the fact that a result is statistically significant (not due to chance) does not mean that it has any practical or educational value in the real world in which we all work and live".

Table (4.7): Gender differences of the practice group participants prior to and after the practicum experience across BALLI constructs

Construct	Time 1				Time 2			
	M/ SD		t-test		M/ SD		t-test	
	Male	Female	t	p-value	Male	Female	t	p-value
1. Foreign Language Aptitude	3.71/ .58	3.93/ .58	-1.32	.193	3.64/ .56	3.89/ .58	-1.55	.127
2. The Difficulty of Language Learning	3.45/ .64	3.65/ .65	-1.07	.288	3.49/ .57	3.68/ .49	-1.21	.231
3. The Nature of Language Learning	3.73/ .34	4.05/ .47	-2.66	.011	3.68/ .33	3.93/ .41	-2.32	.024

4. Learning and Communication Strategies	3.71/ .58	3.96/ .49	-1.64	.107	3.64/ .51	3.94/ .44	-2.19	.034
	Mdn	**Mdn**	**Mann-Whitney test: (Z)**	**p-value**	**Mdn**	**Mdn**	**Mann-Whitney test: (Z)**	**p-value**
5. Motivation and Expectation	4.22	4.59	1.46	.145	4.44	4.53	.263	.793

Table 4.7 shows no statistically significant gender-based differences in beliefs about learning between the practice group participants before and after the practicum experience in three out of the five BALLI constructs. No statistically significant gender-based differences were observed for construct 1 '*Foreign Language Aptitude*', which is similar to the findings of Mattheoudakis (2007) and Javid and Al-malki (2018). However, my findings contradict that reported by Daif-Allah (2012), that statistically significant gender-based differences had existed with respect to the said construct, although they had not provided justification for such significant differences. Likewise, in my study, no gender-based statistically significant differences were observed for construct 2 *'The Difficulty of Language Learning'* (Mattheoudakis, 2007; Daif-Allah, 2012; Javid and Al-malki, 2018). Similarly, no statistically significant gender-based differences were observed for construct 5 '*Motivation and Expectation*', which is not consistent with the results of the studies conducted by Daif-Allah (2012) and Javid and Al-malki (2018).

Nevertheless, my study found statistically significant gender-based differences for construct 3 '*The Nature of Language Learning*' between the practice group participants' beliefs both before the practicum (male M=3.73, female M=4.05), (t=-2.66, p=.011), and after it (male M=3.68,

female M=3.93), (t=-2.32, p=.024). Females displayed a more positive attitude towards the statements within this third construct than did their male counterparts on both occasions (before and after). This result is different from that of Daif-Allah's (2012) study, who carried out his study in a similar context (Saudi EFL undergraduates), and whose inferential analysis did not yield statistically significant differences between the male and female participants with respect to the third construct of '*The Nature of Language Learning*'.

With respect to the fourth construct *'Learning and Communication Strategies'*, no statistically significant gender-based difference was observed before the practicum experience. However, the females showed a higher average (M=3.94) than the males (M=3.64), which was statistically significant (t=2.19, p=.034), suggesting that the females overall endorsed the statement more strongly than their male counterparts.

This study revealed statistically significant gender-based differences in only two out of the five BALLI constructs. This contrasts with the result of Tercanlioglu (2005), whose inferential analysis did not yield any such statistically significant differences in any of the BALLI constructs. I should emphasise here that while two constructs showed gender-based statistical significance, yet the data through which this conclusion was reached was by no means supported by other instruments utilised in this thesis. Therefore, I would like to draw the attention here that such a result would need to be interpreted cautiously since such a conclusion did not benefit from the triangulation design adopted in this study.

4.5 RQ4. Is there a statistically significant correlation between the pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about learning attributed to the type of programme of study?

This section accounts for the differences if any, among the participants attributed to the type of programme of study (Educational= practice group vs. Non-educational= non-practice group) across the five BALLI constructs, which are presented in table 4.8.

Table (4.8): Comparisons between practice and non-practice groups across the five BALLI constructs

Construct	Practice		None-Practice		t-test	
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**t**	**p-value**
1. Foreign Language Aptitude	3.76	.58	3.60	.55	1.38	.168
2. The Difficulty of Language Learning	3.58	.54	3.51	.69	.59	.555
3. The Nature of Language Learning	3.80	.39	3.66	.53	1.52	.130
4. Learning and Communication Strategies	3.78	.50	3.61	.67	1.46	.147
	Mdn		**Mdn**		**Mann-Whitney: Z**	**p-value**
5. Motivation and Expectation	4.51		4.45		0.428	.669

Using t-test analysis (two-independent samples test), showed that there were no significant differences in construct 1 *'Foreign Language Aptitude'*, 2 *'The Difficulty of Language*

Learning', 3 *'The Nature of Language Learning and Learning'* and 4 *'Communication Strategies'*. Similarly, utilising the Mann-Whitney test showed that there were no significant differences in construct 5 *'Motivation and Expectation'*. These findings suggest that the type of EFL programme (Educational vs. Non-education), did not lead the participants to hold significantly different types of beliefs about learning. In other words, the participants from both programmes held fairly similar beliefs to each other. As such this result seems to deemphasise the role of the educational programme in this respect. I discuss this implication further in Chapter 6, Section 6.3.

4.5.1 Relationship between BALLI constructs prior to and after the teaching practice

Pearson's r simple correlation was used to measure the association between the five BALLI constructs prior to, and after the teaching practice. The strength of relationships between the constructs prior to and after teaching practice is presented in table 4.9. There was a strong positive correlation observed for construct 1 *'Foreign Language Aptitude'* (r=0.948, p <.001*),* 2 *'The Difficulty of Language Learning'* (r=0.858, p <.001), 3 *'The Nature of Language Learning'* (r=0.850, p <.001), 4 *'Learning and Communication Strategies'* (r=0.836, p <.001) and 5 *'Motivation and Expectation'* (r=0.757, p <.001). As a result, a higher score after the teaching practice was strongly related to a higher score before it. In other words, a participant who had a higher score before the teaching practice would also be likely to have a higher score after the teaching practice.

Table (4.9): Pearson's r simple correlation between the constructs of BALLI prior to and after teaching practice

		Construct1b	Construct2b	Construct3b	Construct4b	Construct5b
Construct1a	Correlation	.948				
	p-value	<.001				
Construct2a	Correlation		.858			
	p-value		<.001			
Construct3a	Correlation			.850		
	p-value			<.001		
Construct4a	Correlation				.836	
	p-value				<.001	
Construct5a	Correlation					.757
	p-value					<.001

4.6 RQ1b. What beliefs are held by EFL pre-service teachers about teaching of English?

4.6.1 Findings and discussions of semi-structured interviews

4.6.1.1 Classroom management

Effective classroom management may be perceived as a process where both teachers and students are engaged in a lesson with the objective of meeting its goals with minimum disruption. This means having control over the teaching process, not by imposing strict rules, but rather through nurturing the interest of the students in the classroom while the teaching is taking place. In this study, it was noted that pre-service teachers tend to view effective classroom management as managing student behaviour or misbehaviour. This is similar to the findings of Debreli (2013), where participants in that study defined classroom management as controlling the disruptive conduct of students. Martin and Baldwin (1992) argued that the lay person often uses both classroom management and discipline synonymously, which stresses the importance of distinguishing between the two. In my study, the interview data showed that all of the pre-service teachers viewed classroom management as being fundamental to effective teaching and student learning. This finding also resonates with that of Debreli's (2013).

According to Debreli (2013), the participants widely believed in the significance of effective classroom management, but they could not provide detailed explanations for why they held this belief.

In this study, there are other pertinent issues which came to the forefront during the course of the interviews as to how teachers viewed the importance of classroom management. The pre-service teachers PT 1, PT 3, PT 4, PT 6, were of the view that if a teacher could not manage the conduct of their students, their knowledge of the subject-content and their ability to teach would not make up for their inability to manage behaviour in the classroom. From their perspective, classroom management primarily means student behaviour rather than effective teaching which leads to successful learning in the classroom. The following excerpt by PT 4 typifies the opinions of PT 1, PT 3 and PT 6:

> It is important [classroom management] because if you do not manage your classroom you will not be able to deliver your information in the correct way. There will be chaos, even if you were competent of the lesson you taught and the teaching method was appropriate. You will not be able to get your students to understand you, probably except for those [students] at the front of the classroom. Those sitting at the back will not even hear you. Therefore, classroom management is a vital matter.
>
> *(PT 4, semi-structured interview)*

In the excerpt above, PT 4 held the view that a teacher being well-versed in his specialty and using a suitable teaching method may still not succeed in delivering the intended information if the above was not accompanied by a properly managed classroom. Likewise, a similar view was also held by one of the participants in Cabaroglu's (1999) study. The participant in that study (ST2) maintained that the importance of classroom management and the ability to successfully deliver the content of the lesson is more important than the teacher's knowledge

of the subject matter. This mirrors the result of Phipps and S. Borg (2009, p. 387) who stated that "there is clear evidence here that teachers' practices reflected their belief that learning is enhanced when learners are engaged cognitively, when their expectations are met, and when order, control and flow of the lesson is maintained".

PT 4's emphasis is placed on handling student misbehaviour when perhaps, a consideration for other possible aspects for effective classroom management could help. For example, engaging students in interesting classroom activities could minimise misbehaviour. Alternatively, using different teaching styles/aids in the classroom could also help. The interviews suggest that the teachers seem to be overly pre-occupied with equating classroom management as behaviour management, when there is a possibility that learners could display good behaviour when they are fully engaged in a lesson through effective teaching (Debreli, 2013). In this connection, Kagan (1992, p. 155) postulated that "most novices become obsessed with class control, designing instruction, not to promote pupil learning, but to discourage disruptive behaviour".

A related point is that pre-service teachers PT 9, PT 10, PT 13, PT 15, PT 17, PT 20, and PT 21 hold the belief that poor classroom management leads to failure of students' learning. PT 13, for instance, stated:

> … If the management [classroom management] was not good, there will not be any learning. That is because, for example, if the teacher did not care about the students, no one will concentrate or pay attention to him. And if the students at the back of the classroom made trouble and were noisy they will distract the students at the front. Hence, no one will benefit whether he [teacher] taught or did not for that nobody is focused.
>
> *(PT 13, semi-structured interview)*

This comment by PT 13 sheds light on a concern raised by the participants (see for example Appendix 15), in that that poor classroom management could seriously impair the students' ability to learn. PT 13 also seems to refer to a detrimental effect of misbehaviour on the part of some students leading to the distraction of other students. In his view, this could lead to a failed lesson. Despite the fact that PT 13 did not have any prior teaching experience, he still exhibited an awareness of probably one of the most important negative effects of a mismanaged classroom that affected a student's ability to learn.

Other pre-service teachers PT 3, PT 5, and PT 14 focussed on the issue of a teacher's weak personality and the bearing it had on conveying information to students. The excerpt below, by PT 3, is an illustration:

> …, but there was no discipline because he [teacher] did not enjoy a strong personality to control the class. The guys [students] were not paying attention to him, just one student who was sitting in the front was paying attention, but the rest were either chit chatting, playing, or going in and out of the class. The classroom was in chaos, the doctor [teacher] himself will not be able to deliver the intended message, neither will the focused student be able to receive it clearly. There will be difficulties.
>
> *(PT 3, Semi-structured interview)*

For PT 3, a teacher with a strong personality appears to be in a better position to maintain order within the classroom. He seemed to hold the view that a teacher's weak personality could hinder the successful execution of the lesson as a whole.

The interview data from the participants suggests that they perceive classroom management as primarily related to student misconduct rather than to the delivery of effective teaching in the classroom as noted by Debreli (2013).

4.6.1.2 Incorporation of teaching method modules into EFL teaching programmes

All of the pre-service teachers interviewed had realised the importance of modules that focussed on teaching methods and considered them indispensable components of any EFL teaching programme. While they were clear on the importance of having these modules included, one pre-service teacher, PT 8 held the view that these modules should be presented as electives rather than core modules. PT 8 reasoned that it was preferable for the student to have a choice. Additionally, PT 18 argued that there should be a practical element to the module rather than the module being solely theoretical. It was PT 18's view that the modules needed to demonstrate teaching methods rather than propound concepts theoretically without any regard for practice. This view is echoed in a study by Isikoglu (2008). The study revealed that there is a significant correlation between taking part in a teaching methods course that resulted in a change in beliefs that teachers held in relation to the practice of teaching. It was observed that the students' participation in teaching method courses had led to an increase in their constructivist beliefs and rendered their teaching practice more coherent and concrete (ibid.).

Pre-service teachers PT 4, PT 5, PT 10, PT 13, and PT 19 held the belief that it was important that modules on teaching methods were incorporated into EFL teaching programmes as some teachers who were new to teaching may not necessarily know all the available teaching methods. A module of this nature could possibly introduce them to some teaching methods

unknown to them. The quote below represents the view of PT 19, which mirror similar beliefs of the aforementioned pre-service teachers. PT 19 stated:

> Yes. There must be [incorporation of teaching methods in EFL programmes] because, frankly speaking, before teaching methods and curricula modules were introduced to us, some of us did not know about some of the existing methods. They were new to us. I mean we only knew a few traditional and contemporary methods, but there were new methods never known to us before like 'community language', where you sit them [students] in circles and talk to them about matters unrelated to the lesson in order to motivate them. This is something new to me.
>
> *(PT 19, semi-structured interview)*

As the above excerpt shows, PT 19 strongly held the view that teaching method modules should be incorporated in EFL teaching programmes. His position appears to substantiate his claim that the undergraduate EFL teaching programme he was enrolled at, introduced him to several modern teaching methods that were new to him and to his peers. His further remark, when he referred to 'community language' as a teaching technique he had been unaware of, seems to imply an intention to possibly utilise such a technique in his future teaching career.

The observation which follows is from PT 4, who believes the incorporation of teaching method modules to be aiding future teachers in choosing teaching methods which are in line with the goals of their lessons.

> … Because throughout his [a pre-service teacher] study of these modules [teaching methods], he would be able to pick what he finds suitable for his students. Thereby, he would be prepared to deal effectively and beneficially with his students' educational needs. But had he not studied these modules, he might not possess the appropriate technique for teaching or even for conduct in the classroom.
>
> *(PT 4, semi-structured interview)*

PT 4's sentiment expressed is similar to views held by PT 3, PT 7 and PT 20 and exemplifies their conviction that teaching modules could prove useful for potential teachers. In his view, such modules allow teachers the opportunity to meet the learning requirements of their students efficiently. PT 4's favourable perception of the benefits of modules on teaching methods shows that he has a high regard for such modules in instilling future teachers with the essential prerequisites for an effective classroom teaching experience, where the most relevant teaching method for a specific teaching situation could be adopted. PT 4's further remark that 'had he not studied these modules, he might not possess the appropriate technique for teaching or even for conduct in the classroom', seems to add more strength to his assertion for the necessity for modules on teaching methods. He cautioned that the absence of such modules in EFL teaching programmes could lead to teachers being stranded in their classrooms.

Among the pre-service teachers, who subscribed to the usefulness of teaching method modules as they clarified the pros and cons of each and every teaching method, is PT 10, whose comment below also echoes the opinions of PT 5, and PT 22. According to PT 10:

> … I had some modules geared towards teaching methods and techniques of which some [teaching methods and techniques] have proven successful and some otherwise. Hence, undoubtedly, knowing the advantages and disadvantages of each teaching method has a big role in the utilisation of successful teaching methods in the future, and avoidance of the failed ones.
>
> *(PT 10, semi-structured interview)*

PT 10 believes that studying some teaching methods and curricula modules played a role in broadening his horizons. He said it helped him to make informed decisions about specific

teaching methods to use and those to rule out for teaching purposes in the future. PT 10 appears to appreciate that knowing the pros and cons of each teaching method would result in effective classroom teaching practices. While it is unclear how PT 10 would decide which methods are 'failed ones' before attempting them, it nonetheless demonstrates that he believes that having knowledge of these methods would be helpful in making informed decisions about which method to use in the classroom.

A universally favourable set of beliefs held by PT 5, PT 10 and PT 22, which viewed a constructive role for teaching method courses appear to echo Larsen-Freeman (1991) and Wallestad's (2009) views which propose that pre-service teachers' pedagogical techniques are impacted by the way they were taught, particularly at a teaching method course.

4.6.1.3 Teaching approach

4.6.1.3.1 Error correction

When they were asked about their policy regarding how the error of students should be dealt with, the pre-service teachers articulated high tolerance for those errors. Similarly, they mostly appeared to deem the errors that students made as natural outcomes of the learning process. This in line with the findings reported in Pavaresh (2017) where almost all of the participants maintained that errors made by students are natural in the process of language acquisition. However, despite their tolerance towards students' errors, this study noted that none of the pre-service teachers had reported that they would let the errors made by students go uncorrected. In fact, all of them were fixed on the idea that the errors made, especially linguistic ones, must be confronted in some shape or form. Such a finding is in sharp contrast to that of Erkmen (2010),

who reported that most of the participants had indicated that they would not correct their students' errors as fluency was more significant to them than accuracy.

This anomaly in dealing with the errors made by students is addressed by five methods of error correction. These five methods are namely, 'direct correction', 'indirect correction', 'self-correction', 'peer correction' and 'in-isolation correction'. For example, PT 20 argued that:

> … If it is a pronunciation error [student's error] then the correction is indirect. I mean I do not say this is wrong, but instead I correct the error myself [teacher] by reading the sentence in a correct way. However, if the error was a linguistic one which will ruin the sentence, I focus on the error and explain to the student what the error is.
>
> *(PT 20, semi-structured interview)*

Although PT 20 observed that a student's error must be corrected, he had two different strategies to do so, dependant on the nature of the error made. It is apparent from PT 20's remark that he did not consider pronunciation errors to be 'linguistic' ones. He considered pronunciation errors as less critical which the teacher could address through recast. On the other hand, although we do not know what PT 20 actually meant by a 'linguistic one', it could possibly mean that he was referring to some sort of grammatical error. Hence, we could infer that for PT 20, such an error is more likely to be focussed on and addressed by the teacher in a more direct way.

The majority of the pre-service teachers PT 2, PT 3, PT 4, PT 5, PT 6, PT 8, PT 9, PT 10, PT 16, and PT 20 all believed that errors made by students should be addressed directly by their teachers. This ran counter to the finding of Pavaresh (2017), who reported that the participants in her study had been almost unanimously in favour of implicit error correction methods. The

pre-service teachers in my study frequently justified their selection of this direct error correction method. They argued that it enabled teachers to prevent 'bad habit formation' on the part of students. This is similar to what is reported by Pavaresh (2017), although the participants in her study were supportive of implicit error correction methods as pointed out above. The comment from PT 2 gives voice to the pre-service teachers mentioned above:

> Immediate correction because if you do not do so, the student will reuse the word again and it will stick in his brain. But if you correct him it will come to his mind [remember] that the teacher had corrected me, I [student] must use the correct word so that I do not err again.
>
> *(PT 2, semi-structured interview)*

Although PT 2 did not express the phrase 'direct correction' or how exactly he would treat a student's error, we could infer from what he described as 'immediate correction' and the rest of his comment that he was referring to a teacher's direct way of error correction. He appears to suggest that if a student's error went uncorrected, it would eventually lead that student to habitually make the same mistakes. Specifically, PT 2's use of 'stick in his brain' illustrates how convinced he was of his belief in relation to bad habit formation. Although we are unable to ascertain what precisely influenced PT 2's belief, given that he had no prior teaching experience, a possible interpretation could be that he had gone through this experience as a student during one of his previous schooling years.

In this study, the second most popular method used by pre-service teachers to address the errors made by students was to correct the students' errors indirectly. Pre-service teachers PT 1, PT 14, PT 15, PT 18, PT 19, PT 20, PT 21, and PT 22 also held this view. The majority of them opted for this method. They did so as they did not want to discourage their students nor did they

want to embarrass them. This corroborates with the finding of Richards, Tung and Ng (1992) and Numrich (1996). The following excerpt by PT 22 underscores this issue:

> Neither do I ignore it [a student's error], nor directly correct it. I correct indirectly. I mean I explain to him [a student] and within the explanation I indicate that the answer he gave was not right without embarrassing or scolding him in front of the students.
>
> *(PT 22, semi-structured interview)*

It may be noted from the first sentence of PT 22's statement that his perspective was similar to the views of his fellow participants, in that a student's error was never to be overlooked by their teacher. PT 22 advised that he would approach a student's error in an indirect manner. Although his use of the verb 'indicate' might seem direct, we could infer that he meant to signal to the student that the answer they provided was not right in order to spare the student embarrassment. Such inference could be strengthened by PT 22's second sentence 'I correct directly'. We could venture that his use of the direct verb 'indicate' instead of an indirect one such as 'signal', could be the result of him being lost for words.

The other error correction method that pre-service teachers said they relied on was 'self-correction'. This method was also viewed as the most effective one, according to two participants in Debreli's (2013) study. Debreli to some degree inferred from the participants' responses that their preferences were for "self-correction". Although the participants in his study did not explicitly articulate "self-correction" as their preferred method (except for two pre-service teachers), he could infer from their responses that it was so, and coded it accordingly.

In my study, "self-correction" was said to be utilised by pre-service teachers PT 2, PT 3, PT 5, PT 6, PT 7, and PT 21. The views of this group may be depicted in PT 3's comment in which he explained how he would deal with students' errors should he be a teacher in the future:

> At first I will give him [student] a chance. Everyone errs and learn from their error. For example, if he made the first error, I will not respond immediately. I give him a second and a third chance. The good learner is the one who corrects their own error any way. At times he would write the first sentence incorrectly, and after a week or two he would say to himself no, there is an error here and he will correct it…
>
> *(PT 3, semi-structured interview)*

PT 3 adopted a tolerant approach towards students' errors. He considered them as an inevitable component of the process of language learning. Although he was convinced that there was a positive correlation between the ability of a learner to discover their own errors and correct them, his follow-up comment fell short of clearly detailing how a learner could discover their errors and correct them on their own. For PT 3, such a process of error detection and correction by a learner could be learnt over the course of time. The final statement 'and after a week or two he would say to himself no, there is an error here and he will correct it' could be indicative of this claim. The less than adequate explanation of PT 3 could be attributed to the complex nature of self-correction in comparison to other types of error correction methods.

Peer correction was mentioned less often than the former error correction methods, with only pre-service teachers PT 7 and PT 13 endorsing this error correction method. The excerpt below reveals how peer correction could be beneficial. PT 13 suggested:

> … Trying to divert the question to another student to avoid putting pressure on the student himself when he makes an error as he may make an error a second and a third time. And then he may refrain from attempting to ever participate. If the student made an error, you move to the other student. You say [to the student who made an error] you

> have got something and we [teacher] move to the next student. Then he [student] will try to think about what he [peer] said and be concentrated if his peer gave the right answer…
>
> *(PT 13, semi-structured interview)*

PT 13's comment echoes that of PT 7, which appeared to be in favour of another student helping with error correction. He expressed that if a student made an error, they may not be able to correct it themselves. Although PT 13 did not articulate why he preferred to divert the question to another student if the answer given was incorrect, it could be assumed that he viewed peer correction as a less direct and perhaps less embarrassing method in comparison to a student being directly corrected by his teacher. His use of the phrase 'you have got something' when trying to divert the question from the student who made an error to one his peers is a signal that the teacher is attempting to be as vague and indirect as he possibly can be, so as to avoid confronting and embarrassing the student who made the error. This could be interpreted in view of the other finding presented under the category 'Characteristics of Teachers'. In this category, the majority of the pre-service teachers had a preference for an affective teacher personality (see Chapter 4, Section 4.6.1.5.1).

The data analysis also revealed that only one pre-service teacher PT 17 had opted for in-isolation error correction method. He endorsed such a method owing to his tendency to be sensitive and not wanting to embarrass or humiliate his students. This reflects a similar concern reported by Pavaresh (2017) where she found that a group of participants in her study had opted for implicit methods for error correction as they were reluctant to humiliate their students. The disadvantage of a more direct form of error correction has been reported in the study of Numrich

(1996) who had observed that a few students had refrained from participation as they did not feel at ease at having been corrected.

4.6.1.3.2 The use of mother tongue (L1) in teaching the target language (L2)

The next issue raised by pre-service teachers in their interviews relates to the use of the mother tongue (L1) versus the target language (L2) when teaching in the target language. The unresolved question of which language (L1 vs. L2) to use remains a debatable one in the literature of foreign language instruction (Turnbull and Arnett, 2002; Littlewood and Yu, 2011). In this study, the pre-service teachers were asked about their opinions with respect to using their L1 (Arabic) in teaching the L2 (English). The overwhelming majority of them expressed views that were in favour of using the L1 when teaching the target language, although to varying degrees.

For example, pre-service teachers PT 8, PT 15, and PT 17 were the only ones who supported the idea of relying heavily on L1 for teaching the target language. They justified their using L1 predominantly by saying that it is important to be able to understand the differences between the two languages. They added that if the teacher only used L2, the students would be unlikely to understand some of the sentences spoken by the teacher.

This belief may be interpreted in light of some of the literature in reference to the Saudi context. A review of seven key empirical studies (Abughararah, 2014; Alrabai, 2014; Bamanger and Gashan 2014; Alghanmi and Shukri 2016; Baeshin 2016; Alshehri and Etherington, 2017; Bukhari, 2017), demonstrates that teachers in Saudi Arabia appear to hold positive beliefs for the use of Arabic (L1) in the foreign language classroom (Alharbi, 2019). This finding is

corroborated by Debreli (2016b), who also found that all of the participants in his study indicated favourable beliefs for the inclusion of L1 in L2 classrooms.

In my study, one of the pre-service teachers who embraced the notion of using the L1 in teaching L2 was PT 17. The excerpt below typifies his belief and echoes the shared view of PT 8 and PT 15. He maintained:

> It is inevitable [L1 use in teaching the L2] to clarify some vocabularies. I mean there are words that become misleading for those whom Arabic is their mother tongue. I mean if the doctor [teacher] strictly used English, there will be misleading words and a student will not be able to understand some sentences.
>
> *(PT 17, semi-structured interview)*

PT 17's statement demonstrates that he appears to perceive the use of the L1 as crucial when attempting to teach a second language. Pre-service teachers PT 4, PT 5, PT 6, PT 10, PT 13, PT 14, PT 19, PT 20, and PT 21 also advocated the belief that the L1 should be used, but more so in primary and at foundational stages of EFL learning. This finding mirrors that of Wach and Monroy (2020) that both EFL groups (Polish and Spanish) in their study were of the belief that L1 must be incorporated in lower-proficiency classes. What follows is an excerpt demonstrating this view from my interview with PT 19:

> This is [L1 use in teaching the L2] a grammar-translation method. It is an old technique and one of the learning theories. The grammar-translation method is incorrect. I mean it depends on the stage [of students' education]. For example, if I teach year four, I would give them a diagnostic test. I find out whether they have anything in the language [any knowledge of English]. If they really do not have anything, I allow myself to speak in Arabic because they will not understand me [if used the L2 solely]…
>
> *(PT 19, semi-structured interview)*

The above comment explains PT 19's preference for the use of L1 in the early years of students' foreign language learning or when their proficiency in the L2 is limited. Likewise, the analysis of the semi-structured interviews data revealed that the pre-service teachers PT 1, PT 4, PT 6, PT 7, PT 9, PT 10, PT 14, and PT 16 had opted for using L1 only on a small scale. This resonates with the findings of Atkinson (1987), Pavaresh (2017) and Shabir (2017). These findings indicate that the participants are unanimous in their views of teaching and that the L1 could be used minimally during such teaching. Even those pre-service teachers who opted for a limited use of the L1 still had a positive attitude towards L2 use. However, their views for the restricted use of L1 appear to have been triggered by pragmatic reasoning (i.e., explain some challenging aspects of a lesson). PT 16's remark below is similar to the views held by the pre-service teachers. PT 16 argued that:

> In some cases the explanation must be in Arabic [students' L1]. That does not mean you [teacher] avoid explaining in English [L2] so that you get many students to be influenced by you as a teacher. I believe that at times when I explain English [English content] in Arabic I will not get the idea and words in their correct meaning. At this moment I must explain them in an English way.
>
> *(PT 16, semi-structured interview)*

Despite his acknowledgment of the inevitability of using the L1 on certain occasions, he seemed rather content with idea that the L2 should dominate during a lesson.

Surprisingly, out of a total of 22 pre-service teachers, only a small minority PT 2, PT 3, PT 18, PT 22 unequivocally disagreed with the idea of using L1 in EFL classes. The finding derived from my study is similar to that of Othman and Kiely (2016) who found that pre-service teachers

in their study, had appreciated strongly the premise of teaching the L2 communicatively; in other words, teaching the L2 using the L2. In my study, the pre-service teachers PT 2, PT 3, PT 18, PT 22 felt that teaching English through English was in the best interest of the students. It was observed that the underlying theme that justified their held beliefs centered on the presumption of an exclusively L2 teaching approach in the foreign language class to positively influence linguistic competence amongst the students. This view was also highlighted by the Spanish group participants in Wash and Monroy's (2020) study. Although they did not rule out the L1 in the L2 class, they did not view it as significant or essential in improving the students' competence in the L2.

In my study, the rejection by the pre-service teachers for L1 use appears to be associated with the premise that students would have been used to hearing L2. Consequently, L2 would be in their subconscious, and as such, that they should be able to use it spontaneously. This view seems to resonate with Krashen's (1981) theory of SLA, in which he argued that the development of L2 undergoes two processes, a conscious and an unconscious one. He further differentiated between the two suggesting that the former process entails learning, while the latter is responsible for the acquisition of language. To Krashen, L2 improvement is predominantly an unconscious process. The excerpt below from my interview with PT 3 mirrors the opinions of PT 2, PT 18, PT 22:

> R: What is your policy regarding the use of Arabic [L1] to teach English [L2]?
> PT 3: I am completely against it.
> R: Why?
> PT 3: … To me, if you want something you have to practise that very same thing. For you to talk to me in Arabic then you explain two words in English, is like I did not benefit at all. I memorized the word, then what? No, we are human beings, we forget. But, if you speak with me and my tongue speaks with you in the same language, my brain will stick [whichever language used by both Teacher & student]. Therefore, you

> find some language learners who utter words in English unconsciously because their brain and tongue were used to it.
>
> *(PT 3, semi-structured interview)*

In the exchange above, PT 3 strongly expressed a disapproving view for the use of L1 in EFL classes. It is clear that PT 3 realised the benefits of practice for achieving the desired linguistic competence for a learner. Additionally, he seemed to believe in the importance of reinforcing L2 inputs to the advantage of learners. His remark 'But, if you speak with me and my tongue speaks with you in the same language my brain will stick' could give a sense of his belief that when a teacher and a student communicated in L2, the student will be used to hearing and speaking it and that eventually, L2 will ultimately stick in his brain, leading to better L2 learning.

4.6.1.3.3 Deviating from the prescribed curriculum

One of the factors explored in this study is the use of the prescribed curriculum and the ways in which deviating from it could be indicative of the teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning. In this study, the majority of the pre-service teachers exhibited favourable opinions about allowing EFL teachers to deviate from the prescribed curriculum set out by the ministry of Education in their home country of Saudi Arabia in addressing their students' needs. PT 3, PT 6, PT 10, PT 21, and PT 22 agreed entirely with this view. When I asked PT 21 whether he thought a teacher should be given the right to teach from outside the prescribed curriculum, he elaborated enthusiastically:

> Of course, of course. He [teacher] should not have to stick to the curriculum fully because it contains things that are probably unsuitable to students' current level. Hence,

> they [students] may not know some basic things, thereby, he deviates from the curriculum and come back to explain.
>
> *(PT 21, semi-structured interview)*

In the previous remark, PT 21 asserted the need for giving teachers the flexibility to teach from outside the prescribed curriculum as he felt that a teacher may be better able to decide what exactly suited their students' best. Specifically, his further comment 'they may not know some basic things, thereby, he deviates from the curriculum and come back to explain' illustrates this view clearly. Such a belief may be viewed as PT 21 realising that a close, everyday teacher-student contact, enables teachers to better establish a hands-on approach in determining what would suit their students best. Further, such a finding could suggest a practical aspect underlying the beliefs endorsed by these pre-service teachers. This pragmatism grants teachers a degree of flexibility to deviate from the course-book when they see appropriate. This appears to align with S. Borg's (2015) argument. He states that teachers should not be regarded "as mechanical implementers of external prescriptions, but as active, thinking decision-makers, who processed and made sense of a diverse array of information in the course of their work" (S. Borg, 2015, p. 8).

Most of the pre-service teachers PT 4, PT 7, PT 8, PT 9, PT 13, PT 14, PT 16, PT 18, PT 19, supported deviating from the curriculum. They were also equally concerned about not significantly deviating from the prescribed curriculum. This can be exemplified by PT 4's comment:

> Yes, I think it [deviating from the prescribed curriculum] is his right, but the deviation should not be a very strong one. He may deviate in one or two lessons that he believe

> are important in clarifying the rest of information and are more significant than the rest of the lessons in the curriculum, this is right. But when half of the curriculum is taught from outside the prescribed curriculum, I think this is wrong.
>
> *(PT 4, semi-structured interview)*

Just like most of his fellow pre-service teachers PT 4's comment above, seems to be a call for granting teachers some sort of 'controlled freedom' for deviating from the prescribed curriculum. This is in order to teach as they evaluate what is in the best interest of their students. The statement 'Yes, I think it is his right, but the deviation should not be a very strong one' is a clear sign of PT 4's unfavourable view for teachers deviating excessively from the prescribed curriculum.

Remarkably, only five pre-service teachers rejected the idea of a teacher being allowed to deviate from the prescribed curriculum. Namely, pre-service teachers PT 1, PT 2, PT 5, PT 15, PT 17, and PT 20 demonstrated such views. Their view could be embodied in PT 5's contention below:

> It depends, if he [teacher] was giving information related to awareness or from his own personal experiences there is no problem. But, for him to teach you from outside the curriculum and ask you about it in the exam you will, as a consequence, be in a critical situation. You would have got no information.
>
> *(PT 5, semi-structured interview)*

PT 5 appears to be in disagreement with the notion that teachers should be permitted to deviate from the predetermined curriculum, but he continues to emphasise that there could be limited benefits for the student should the teacher do so. In his view, such deviation could affect a student's performance in exams and therefore he is expressing some concern about deviating

from the curriculum. This concern perhaps emphasises the nature of the teaching context of these pre-service teachers which is exam-oriented, as are the findings of (Phipps, 2009; Ismail, 2017). The teaching culture is such that helping students achieve success in exams appears to be a primary concern for teachers.

4.6.1.3.4 Use of teaching aids

The present study brought to the fore the views of pre-service teachers regarding the usefulness of teaching aids in EFL classrooms. They all deemed that teaching aids were important and argued for integrating them to facilitate and complement their teaching. There was also an inclination among the pre-service teachers to subscribe to modern teaching aids that were technological in nature. This was the finding of Mathew and Alidmat (2013). Their study uncovered that introducing audio-visual resources into the prescribed curriculum was perceived positively by the students. The students found these resources to be beneficial in understanding problematic concepts within the curriculum.

In my study, the pre-service teachers named several teaching aids such as PowerPoint slides, Overhead Projector, Computer, Interactive smartboard, Posters, CD Player, YouTube, and Audio Dictionary as beneficial resources that EFL teachers could call on and incorporate in their teaching. Such positivity towards teaching aids could possibly be attributed to the fact that the pre-service teachers were still novices in the teaching field (i.e., some had just begun their practicum, some still had not) and therefore may have had a more positive view about the role of teaching aids in the classroom. There was a possibility that they may not be fully aware of the pressures of a teaching situation and the ways in which teaching aids may or may not be used to complement the core teaching materials. The unanimity of their positive views towards

teaching aids may be said to lend credence to Mathew and Alidmat's (2013) argument that EFL learning and instruction could end up being a routine when language instructors are constrained to depend only on the textbook as the mainstay of language input. In their 2013 study however, a few participants did not support the use of teaching aids as they felt that that teachers could still manage to deliver their lessons without them. These teachers seemed to be content with traditional methods of teaching.

In my study, the main reason for holding positive views about teaching aids was due to the utility of teaching aids in assisting teachers to deliver their lesson effectively and efficiently than it would have been possible otherwise. This view was held by pre-service teachers PT 1, PT 3, PT 4, PT 5, PT 9, and PT 10. Their views resonate with Erkmen's (2010) study, where two participants were of the belief that teaching aids enhance students' learning.

In my study, one of the pre-service teachers who adopted the belief that teachers should utilise teaching aids on the grounds of their perceived effectiveness in getting information delivered to students, was PT 10:

> Absolutely yes [teaching aids should be utilised by teachers]. I believe a teacher must, not should, use modern teaching aids because they simply ease learning for a student quite substantially. For example, PowerPoint, I think it is a teacher's responsibility to prepare, in their spare time, PowerPoint slides with several explanations for students.
>
> *(PT 10, semi-structured interview)*

The excerpt above explains the position of PT 10 regarding the utility of teaching aids in helping teachers get their message across to their students effectively. PT 10's remark 'I believe a

teacher must, not should' signifies his conviction for the use of teaching aids. Some pre-service teachers also had unfavourable opinions on passive teaching techniques that primarily involved reading from books. For example, PT 8 expressed his contempt arguing that "in fact, normal [traditional] method is being used in Saudi Arabia; get your book out, and write".

PT 10's perception of modern teaching aids as having a positive effect in facilitating students' learning may suggest that teaching by means of traditional methods could be less effective. Similarly, to the majority of the pre-service teachers who mentioned incorporating PowerPoint slides into a teacher's lesson, PT 10 too felt that this type of teaching had an element of fun and encouraged interaction between a teacher and their students, unlike a lecture-style form of teaching.

PT 5 also viewed the effectiveness of teaching aids in relation to its potential in achieving 'learning by linking' (refer to Appendix 16 for this interview data). He suggested that certain teaching aids could be of relevance in certain modules such as in a drama class, where an instructor may display a video about the characters of a play, allowing students to become more familiar with the characters.

PT 2, PT 14, PT 19, and PT 20 further emphasised the importance of diversifying the teaching aids. PT 20 argued for the significance of the diversification of teaching aids used by teachers. PT 20 contended "Surely the more tools and means for facilitating the lesson there is, the easier the lesson gets, and the higher the receptivity of students towards the lesson it is going to be".

4.6.1.3.5 Preferred teaching approach

When they were asked about their preferred teaching approach, PT 5, PT 7, PT 9, PT 10, PT 16, and PT 21 stated that it would be utilising various modern teaching methods. One method required students to explain parts of the lesson instead of the teacher having to do so every time. Another method entailed group work inside and outside of the classroom. Other methods include training students to use search engines, which altogether seems to underline the value of reinforcing learner autonomy in accordance with the principles of CLT. A similar result was also reported by K. Johnson (1994) in which four pre-service teachers promoted a student-centred teaching approach. The significance of such diversity also assists in accommodating the different individual needs of students. In other words, their positive beliefs about utilising various teaching methods draws on the premise that it is important to find a suitable method for all students and therefore utilising a variety of methods might be one way in which this could be addressed. This view is held by PT 5, PT 10 and PT 21.

Among the pre-service teachers who favoured the use of various modern teaching methods was PT 7. His comment below exemplifies those of PT 5, PT 9, PT 10, PT 16, and PT 21. He commented:

> Modern teaching, that is a teacher prepares slides [PowerPoint] for this lesson. Then, in the next lesson he does not. Rather he puts the excellent students with the average ones in a group. Okay, so and so [students] bring something tomorrow about this topic… so that you let them [students] practise how to research in search engines and how to design slides, etc. Teaching through the blackboard is excellent, but has now become an old fashion. Now, everything is touch screens.
>
> *(PT 7, semi-structured interview)*

PT 7 exhibited his preferred teaching approach in which he clearly subscribed to a view of "modern teaching" in comparison to what he considered "traditional teaching", where a teacher is solely responsible for executing the whole lesson. PT 7's preference is due to him placing a premium on teaching where a teacher can instil in his students various invaluable skills. These include honing their research skills, emphasising self-learning, getting students involved in the lesson, building up team-spirit and encouraging fair-competition between groups of students. Yet, he did not seem to be calling for a complete abandonment of the traditional approach. In fact, he identifies it as "excellent", but perhaps notices a need amongst the students for a different approach to be undertaken by their teachers' to keep abreast with accelerated developments in language teaching methods.

The second most popular teaching approach was to incorporate discussion with students to identify the kinds of obstacles they were facing when learning. This view was held PT 1, PT 8, PT 14, and PT 17. The quotation below is from my interview with PT 17. He expresses similar views as PT 1, PT 8, and PT 14. According to PT 17:

> Frankly speaking, the approach [teaching approach] I find good is the teacher discussing a student of the everyday problems that encounter them, for that if a teacher realised and resolved them, they become easy and the student learn more. Also, the learning of the language or curriculum he teaches becomes easy. I mean he [teacher] would have already gone through those problems before and would know the obstacles existing which students might go through.
>
> *(PT 17, semi-structured interview)*

PT 17 felt that a teacher discussing the obstacles and impediments that their students face would be his preferred teaching approach when he starts his teaching career. He highlights that such a

teacher's awareness of their students' concerns could be crucial. He felt that he could help the students by suggesting practical solutions enabling him to build rapport with his students.

Another helpful point raised by pre-service teachers PT 4, PT 15, and PT 18 relates to maintaining student engagement during their lessons so that students do not end up feeling bored. This finding seems to intersect with another finding from data obtained from the semi-structured interviews. The data suggested that an effective teacher is someone who enjoys many affective traits (discussed in more detail in Chapter 4, Section 4.6.1.5.1). It may be argued that such beliefs which demonstrate affective teacher traits are perceived to be instrumental in enabling effective lessons. This widely held belief of the importance of using an approach which helps students maintain interest in their lessons may be seen in the following statement by PT 15. He stated:

> I believe that the approach I will follow would be to make sure students do not get bored during of the lesson. I mean I will try to make the teaching, or 70% of it outside of the classroom because it is a routine thing and we did not benefit from it previously.
>
> *(PT 15, semi-structured interview)*

In the comment above, we note that PT 15 also refers to teaching "outside of the classroom". In the context of Saudi Arabia, he is probably referring to 'learning resource centres' which are common in teaching settings such as the ones these pre-service teachers are in. He feels that by utilising some additional resources, his teaching approach might be seen to be more interesting and help engage students further in their learning process.

One of my teaching observations took place in such a centre. PT 19 taught his lesson in the learning resources centre at his school. One of the observations I made was that all the students were motivated and excited that their lesson would be in the learning resources centre (see chapter 5, Section 5.2.1.4).

In summary, these teachers frequently cited a more active role for the teacher for the purposes of successful implementation of lessons. They also frequently stressed the role of the student in the teaching/ learning processes. In particular, their mention of various and modern teaching methods as their preferred teaching approach indicate that their espoused beliefs were largely non-traditional. This was reported by Debreli (2013), where he found that non-traditional beliefs were the dominant preference amongst his participants. He found that they subscribed to communicative or student-centred approaches more than they did to traditional, teacher-centred approaches. Hence, it may be possible to hypothesise that the pre-service teachers in both programmes both programmes (Educational and Non-educational), where the pre-service teachers of this study were enrolled in, have been made aware of the potential and relevance of non-traditional approaches for their projected teaching careers. This is also in-line with the findings of Isikoglu (2008) and Debreli (2013), who reported that teacher education programmes had been influential in shaping the beliefs of teaching approaches in a community of pre-service teachers.

4.6.1.4 Motivation

The pre-service teachers in my study consistently reported that motivation is closely entwined with successful language learning. This is similar to what other studies had reported (e.g., Erkmen, 2010; Daif-Allah, 2012; Debreli, 2013). PT 7, PT 13, PT 15, PT 19 and PT 21 held

the perspective that motivation leads to an increased willingness for learning, participation, concentration and overall performance.

PT 15 was one of the interviewees who believed that motivation was able to instil in students, a desire for learning, participation, concentration, and improved overall, their learning outcomes. PT 15, echoing the view of PT 7, PT 13, PT 19 and PT 21, maintained:

> Of course, everything in life needs motivation. We [students] had little motivation, and for this reason our performance was weak. Hence, if you want a student to pay attention and participate with you, they must be motivated … because this increases the education and learnability rate. I intend to try this [motivation] in the practicum. I believe a student will change 180 degrees, but without motivation it is like he [student] is doing an assignment.
>
> *(PT 15, semi-structured interview)*

The above excerpt suggests that the motivation factor was very important to PT 15. He attributed his generation's overall poor performance to the lack of motivation. PT 15 further suggested that when students are motivated they will be more engaged with the lesson, which in turn, would yield positive outcomes.

During the semi-structured interviews, PT 2, PT 3, PT 5, PT 8, PT 9, 17, and PT 18 expressed some ways in which motivation could be injected into their learners. According to PT 2:

> … English is the second language in all countries. They use English. And if you go to another country, you are able to speak it. That is why you have to learn it. Even in emergency cases when you go to a hospital and find a doctor speaking English, and it is his right to speak it, you can communicate with him because English is the language of communication between us.
>
> *(PT 2, semi-structured interview)*

PT 2 outlined that it was important to motivate students to learn English for its perceived usefulness for communication when travelling abroad or even in a hospital setting. The examples he cited, pertaining to the utility of English for communication when travelling and in hospitals, are demonstrations of the significance behind the motivation for learning English. It is perhaps appropriate here to reiterate a relevant result which emerged from the BALLI data (Chapter 4, Section 4.2.1.5) where (72.9%) of the practice group pre-service teachers agreed with the statement "*Saudis think it is important to speak a foreign language".* These findings show how highly regarded, the English language is among the pre-service teachers in this study.

PT 1, PT 3, PT 6, PT 8, PT 9 and PT 18 drew the attention of motivating students to learn English for employability reasons. PT 1 stated:

> … and you can motivate them [students] that it is … and also the precious jobs they will get after they learn it [English]. Because as you know most of the high paying jobs require someone with an excellent knowledge of English.
>
> *(PT 1, semi-structured interview)*

As evidenced above, PT 1 justified his belief that students should be motivated to learn English in view of its propensity to secure them financially lucrative jobs. What he meant by 'precious jobs' was later clarified when he had linked getting a high-paying job to having a good grasp of English. This is corroborated by another finding from the BALLI data (see Chapter 4, Section, 4.2.1.5) of this study where (85.4%) of the practice group participants agreed that *"If students learn to speak this language (English) very well, it will help them get a good job"*. The beliefs of PT 1 and the other pre-service teachers within this category highlighted the status ascribed to English language proficiency in the job market, particularly in the private sector.

The pre-service teachers also commented on some of the effective ways they might motivate students. One way that was found to be most effective in motivating students was by giving them bonus marks or prizes. PT 4, PT 8, PT 9, PT 15, PT 17, and PT 18 endorsed this notion. According to PT 4:

> … as extra marks, participation marks. These are very powerful incentives and can help you with many things. They help you, like a doctor gives you a homework and tell you there will be extra marks. This way you find the whole class doing it, but sometimes, he gives a homework and does not say he will grant extra marks for doing it, no one brings it except for the hard-working students. There is also the technique of motivation through giving them prizes...
>
> *(PT 4, semi-structured interview)*

PT 4 noted the need for what he described as 'powerful incentives' which are forms of motivation by granting extra grades or giving prizes to the students. The examples he mentioned about students doing a piece of homework only when extra marks had been promised to be given and neglecting it otherwise, shows that he associated such behaviour to the offer of a prize or marks as an incentive factor. PT 4 views positively the awarding of extra marks or prizes as incentives which enhance the students' engagement and overall performance. Correspondingly, when such an incentive is non-existent, he felt that it would make students passive learners. PT 4 could have very well been influenced to having this view by his own schooling experience.

4.6.1.5 Characteristics of teachers

When the pre-service teachers were asked about the characteristics they believed that were associated with effective teachers, they enthusiastically referred to several traits, which seemed to fall under two sub-categories. Their beliefs were described as either being of an affective

nature or of a cognitive nature. Affective traits refer mostly to the teacher's personality and cognitive traits than to their theoretical knowledge.

When the pre-service teachers spoke about the traits of effective teachers, they had often related them to previous images of their past schooling. They had notions of favourable teachers that possessed what they saw as good traits, or unfavourable teachers who possessed negative traits. A similar pattern was also observed in Debreli's (2013) study in which the participants deemed a teacher as effective in relation to their own parameters. This also confirms the findings of Holt-Reynolds (1992), who maintained that beliefs could be influenced either positively or negatively by the previous learning experiences of teachers. It also seems to somewhat mirror what Lortie (1975, p. 160) termed as the 'apprenticeship of observation'. Here, the pre-service teachers commence their teacher training courses having gone through thousands of hours in monitoring their teachers and evaluating them as they teach. In the sub-sections below, the results which emerged from the analysis of the semi-structured interviews regarding the characteristics of teachers are presented.

4.6.1.5.1 Affective traits

The majority of the pre-service teachers brought up several traits which related to the affective side of teachers' personalities. One popular affective trait was of a teacher who is not tough and does not humiliate his students. This belief was adopted by PT 3, PT 4, PT 9, PT 13, PT 14, and PT 17. This finding is similar to Kaymia's (2016) result, in which the participants had perceived an effective teacher as someone who is passionate, lenient, smiling, and understanding, and does not threaten by penalising marks. My finding also resonates with the findings of M. Borg (2002) and Erkmen (2010) who reported that their participants had

perceived effective teachers as those who display affective traits. In the following quote, PT 4 typifies the beliefs held by other pre-service teachers within his sub-category:

> His personality in the classroom was not tough, but he proved himself. So, he was not the type of teacher who humiliated his students, or that his students feared, but the one whose students liked. He did not prove himself forcefully, but rather with the I help you technique…
>
> *(PT 4, semi-structured interview)*

What is particularly interesting in the excerpt above is the way in which PT 4 considers how a teacher's approach in class demonstrates his personality. The teacher is one who is helpful and therefore, is associated with this trait.

Another trait of the teachers that were perceived to be associated with affective teachers was their demonstrating themselves as being understanding of their students. PT 3, PT 6, PT 13, PT 15, and PT 17 embraced this view. According to PT 17:

> …Also, he [his preferred teacher] was very understanding. I mean, even if you were going through some unforeseen circumstances which had effects on your exam performance, he would forgive, and give another chance so you can improve your grade. I mean, he was not stiff.
>
> *(PT 17, semi-structured interview)*

PT 17's reflection of his preferred teacher shows how important being understanding is in the classroom setting. It demonstrates an aspect of humanity, which seems to be an important element. This view is shared by a few of the pre-service teachers in this study.

4.6.1.5.2 Cognitive traits - theoretical knowledge

Surprisingly, the pre-service teachers who were interviewed said that theoretical knowledge had less to do with being effective teachers than those teachers who displayed affective traits. Such a finding may suggest that for most pre-service teachers, a teacher's knowledge of theory is of little relevance in making them an effective teacher. Rather they felt that affective traits they possessed were more significant in making them effective teachers. There was only one key finding here. A teacher was viewed as an effective teacher depending on the competence of the teacher in the subject matter. Such a conviction was endorsed by PT 6, PT 15, PT 19, and PT 20. According to PT 6:

> He [teacher] should be competent in the subject matter. I mean, he should have already understood the lesson he will explain very well. And he should already have pre-prepared for it. Because some of them [teachers] are not aware of the lesson they will teach and after they start explaining, they get surprised of some elements which they had not understood well.
>
> *(PT 6, semi-structured interview)*

In the excerpt above, PT 6 disclosed his belief about the significance of subject knowledge in order to be an effective teacher. He felt that subject competence allows for effective pre-lesson preparation and that this was crucial in determining the ability to deliver a lesson effectively to students. Several others also expressed a correlation between possessing competency of the subject matter and being an effective teacher (see for example Appendix 15).

4.7 RQ6. What experiences drawn from the pre-service EFL teachers' past basic schooling or undergraduate education, did they perceive to have been or would be influential in shaping their held beliefs about the learning or teaching of English?

4.7.1 Findings and discussions of reflective essays

The analysis of the reflective essays revealed that some incidents/events from the participants' past basic schooling or undergraduate education had a significant influence on their language learning and teaching convictions. These incidents could be classified under four categories. These categories are: Teaching Approach, Characteristics of Teachers, Factors Affecting Language competence and The Usefulness of Certain Modules.

4.7.1.1 Teaching approach

The analysis of the participants' data revealed that the majority of them had cited events that took place in the classroom which fell under the category of Teaching Approach. Within this category of 'Teaching Approach' two further sub-categories were identified: Teaching Style and The Use of Mother Tongue (L1) in Teaching the Target Language (L2).

4.7.1.1.1 Teaching style

Teaching style refers to the way in which teachers create a classroom atmosphere which promotes teaching and learning. In the data, this was demonstrated by the participants referring to the use of specific teaching methods and drawing on some key classroom activities or the teachers' efforts in creating a positive teaching atmosphere. Specifically, in the reflective essays, some participants made reference to learning through play and role-play which enhanced the teaching atmosphere in the classroom. The pre-service teachers PT 5, PT 7, and PT 13 reported incidents which pertained to the theme of a positive teaching atmosphere. In this connection, a study by Dewaele, Witney, Saito and Dewaele (2017) revealed that foreign language learners' positive experience of learning a language was strongly linked to their teacher. Such a finding reflects the importance of the teacher's role in bolstering the positive

emotions of their learners in order to foster engagement within the classroom and to nurture their interest in the language (Dewaele, Gkonou, and Mercer, 2018). In my study, a similar pattern was also noted in the analysis of the semi-structured interviews where the pre-service teachers PT 4, PT 15, and PT 18 emphasised the value of engaging students during a lesson so that the students do not end up feeling bored (Chapter 4, Section 4.6.1.3.5 can be referred to for further discussion). This finding is also corroborated by another finding derived from the semi-structured interviews where a substantial majority of the pre-service teachers perceived effective teachers as those who possessed several affective traits (see Chapter 4, Section 4.6.1.5.1 for more details), including creating a positive atmosphere in the classroom. The excerpt below by PT 5, presents a synopsis of this view held by several participants. PT 5 expressed:

> I still remember the approach our teacher used to follow when explaining that is 'learning through playing'. I loved English so much from an early age. I used to await the English class eagerly. A piece of information used to stick in my brain for that it was associated with joy and not seriousness. I believe that this teaching strategy is quite popular among students, especially primary and secondary school stage students.
>
> *(PT 5, Female, Reflective Essay)*

For participant PT 5, the incident which had the most impact on the positive view she had of language teaching and learning was the pleasant environment of learning created by her EFL teacher. The student explained that having this experience from 'an early age' was important and underlines the need to foster a positive experience of language learning, particularly for young learners. Given that children tend to be less able to withstand being taught in the traditional mode in comparison to older students, it is all the more important that the classroom atmosphere is positive and enriching for young learners.

Also, the signalling of the participant that a piece of information used to stick in her mind as it 'was associated with joy and not seriousness' is an indicator of the importance of developing a dynamic and non-threatening language learning environment for students, in which they are better able to remember what they are taught. Such a view held by PT 5 appears to resonate with Stephen Krashen's 'Affective Filter Hypothesis'. According to Krashen, negative emotional responses to someone's learning environment could prove to be an obstruction to learning and/or language acquisition. The hypothesis nevertheless, suggests ways to curtail this impediment of language acquisition by increasing interest and fostering a low-anxiety atmosphere through the reinforcement of self-esteem. Indeed, the participant seems to be implying that when the teaching environment is appealing, it will create the optimum conditions for students to be interested in the lesson. Active interest in the subject is crucial to academic success (Harackiewicz, Smith, and Priniski, 2016). Hence, an appealing learning environment would in turn foster interest in the learner. This interest is expected to cause a learner to feel that learning and paying attention does not require as much effort and consequently, the final outcome would be anticipated to be positively affected (Ainley, 2006, Hidi, 2006). Having had such an experience in the participant's prior learning experience is likely to impact his/her own beliefs about the ways in which teaching and learning could be carried out.

The pre-service teachers' PT 1, PT 2, PT 8, PT 13, PT 14, and PT 21 responses demonstrate that there is an impact on how teaching and learning beliefs are shaped by previous experiences. This can be seen in PT 21's response where he shows some degree of reflection on a teaching method he had encountered. PT 21 described how he had initially perceived his teacher's teaching method as strange, and did not think positively of his teacher, and how he ended up appreciating the very teaching method. He expressed:

> …There was a doctor who taught us by a strange way, he was sitting on the chair without speaking. He just say "practice the language together", and then I feel he is not a good teacher. After a few weeks, I discovered that he was using the silent method to teach us. He just answered our questions if it is necessary. The situation affected to me that there are many ways to teach the language, and if I become a teacher, I will use this method to teach my students.
>
> *(PT 21, male, Reflective Essay)*

The excerpt above shows how PT 21 had not been convinced of his teacher's teaching method and how he soon afterwards started to appreciate it and even intended to employ it himself in his prospective teaching career. This finding sheds light on another one from the semi-structured interviews where PT 19 indicated that during a teaching methods module, he and his classmates were introduced to teaching methods which had been unknown to them, such as 'community language' (Chapter 4, Section 4.6.1.2 discusses this in detail) which they too intended using when they began their own teaching careers.

PT 2 also highlighted further benefits derived from specific types of teaching methods employed by teachers. In the excerpt below, he describes how he used to be unable to compose even a paragraph, and how he later managed to write a full essay because of the teaching method employed by his teacher. PT 2 wrote:

> I used to be unable to write a full paragraph, I could not even write half a paragraph even though I was taking modules about how to write a paragraph, but the doctor could not deliver the piece of information due to her teaching style. But during the middle of the second term, the university substituted that doctor… with another doctor. When the other doctor began teaching us, we used to dislike her way of teaching because she gave us a homework every week. But when the second half of the term had gone by, we were able to write a full paragraph and it is like nothing thanks to the homework the doctor used to require us to do. Because of them [homework] we could write an essay not just a paragraph.
>
> *(PT 2, Female, Reflective Essay)*

Here, PT 2 shared her past unsuccessful experience of learning to write a paragraph and an essay when she was in her early years at the university. She appears to suggest that this was because of a previous teacher and that the new method employed by the replacement teacher seemed to have had a more positive impact despite it being not received positively initially.

The examples cited above from the reflective essay demonstrate that the pre-service teacher's previous experiences of a teacher's style in creating a positive teaching atmosphere and utilising effective teaching methods influenced her own thinking and beliefs about teaching and learning.

4.7.1.1.2 The use of mother tongue (L1) in teaching the target language (L2)

The key themes which had an impact on forming and altering the participants' beliefs within this sub-category could be defined as pertaining to either one of the following points: not favouring the inclusion of the L1 (Arabic) when teaching the L2 (English), or favouring for a mixture of both the L1 and L2 when teaching the L2.

The pre-service teachers PT 3, PT 9, and PT 22 stated events that are related to not favouring the inclusion of the L1 when teaching L2. This echoes a similar result that emerged from the semi-structured interviews where a few pre-service teachers PT 2, PT 3, PT 18, PT 22 rejected the notion of using the L1 to teach the L2, too (see Chapter 4, Section 4.6.1.3.2).

The following quote, by PT 9, resonates with the other participants who hold similar views. PT 9 commented:

> In the early stages of university the explanation for all of the modules I took used to be, to a great extent, in Arabic [student's L1] as I am used to since primary school. A year later, however, I had some modules that were taught to me by a doctor who was competent in English. He solely used English to explain and did not accept any student to communicate with him if it was in Arabic either in the classroom or even within the college campus. This used to be nerve-racking for me and my colleagues as our knowledge and capabilities in English were still limited. But thanks to the doctor's insistence on the principle he was following, it compelled us to communicate with him in English. I was surprised to find out that almost in less than two months my language fluency started to improve quite noticeably. Right now, I stick to English for my communication in each lecture. I have come to understand and write smoothly. This has also obviated the need for travelling abroad to learn English. This incident has influenced my convictions that as long as the teacher used English exclusively in communicating with their students and in their lesson explanation it will consequently improve their students' language level. Therefore, this will be my teaching approach in the future.
>
> *(PT 9, Male, Reflective Essay)*

PT 9 shared his experience of the teaching approach adopted for the English module through his schooling years. He related that he was used to being taught predominantly in Arabic from primary school till the first year of his undergraduate programme, when it shifted from being predominantly in Arabic into being entirely in English. It looks like that the determination of PT 9's teacher to purely adopt English in his communication and teaching of his students came as a shock for them initially. Nonetheless, the teacher being firm in his principle, adhered to teaching the target language (English) using the very same language (English). This approach appears to have triggered positive outcomes for the student despite his temporary anxiety. PT 9 also ventured that his English language fluency started improving within only a short period of time after his language instructor began adopting a purely L2-based teaching approach for teaching the L2. By and large, the significance of the participant's incident lies in his reported perceived benefit of going through a first-hand experience of a teaching approach that has proved successful which he himself intend to adopt in his future teaching career. PT 9's future students would in all probability, benefit from PT 9's projected approach in the future.

PT 14 and PT 17 both recalled situations which they described as influential in endorsing their previous beliefs about language teaching. Specifically, their reported incidents were deemed to be relevant to the sub-category of beliefs that favoured a mixture of both the L1 and L2 when teaching L2. This result also arose during the analysis of the semi-structured interviews as a substantial majority of the pre-service teachers favoured the use of L1 in the L2 classroom, although minimally (Chapter 4, Section 4.6.1.3.2 can be seen for an extended discussion).

In what follows, PT 14 illustrated her viewpoint which could serve to echo that of the other participant who had comparable views. PT 14 explained:

> … My teacher at school used to speak in English in class then explain what she had said in Arabic unlike a teacher who used to deal with us as if we were of a high level in the language [English]. She [latter teacher] does not utter in Arabic so we had no idea what she was saying. My opinion is that every teacher should know their students' level and they [teacher] teach according to their level [students' level] and make the language easy for that the ultimate goal is learning the language eventually.
>
> *(PT 14, Female, Reflective Essay)*

In the excerpt above, PT 14 outlined the teaching approach of her English school teacher. PT 14 related that the teacher used a mixture of both English (student's L2) and Arabic (students' L1) to teach English. This is in line with the findings of Norman (2008) and Carson and Kashihara (2012). They reported that students preferred a mixed use of L1 and L2 in their foreign language classrooms. It appears that the participant had a preference for this teaching approach and that she viewed it to be more pragmatic given that students would be exposed to English and have this translated to them in their native language immediately. Hence, students were able to understand the lesson being taught to them better. PT 14 said that she did not

favour the teaching approach that was wholly in English. She ventured that she and her classmates could not comprehend the explanation of their teacher when it was purely in English. Despite the relatively short narrative of PT 14, the final statement seems to sum up her position, in that each and every teacher needs to be able to recognise the capabilities of their own students and therefore use a teaching approach that is appropriate, taking into account the proficiency of the students in the target language.

4.7.1.2 Characteristics of teachers

The reflective essays provided insight on how the teaching styles and behaviour of the teachers have shaped some of the pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning. All the examples of the participants previous experiences reported here are related to the teacher's personality and how their personality affects the participants.

4.7.1.2.1 Teacher personality

PT 6, PT 13, PT 20, and PT 21 emphasised incidents which had a big impact on the formation/ modification of their English language learning/teaching convictions, shaped by their teacher's conduct in the classroom which could be both a source of motivation or de-motivation. This highlights another result that emerged from the analysis of the semi-structured interviews. PT 7, PT 13, PT 15, PT 19, and PT 21 believed that motivation improves the students' willingness for learning, participation, concentration, and overall performance (see Chapter 4, Section 4.6.1.4).

The following quote by PT 20 echoes the events reported by the participants within her group. She stated:

> One of the teachers of the English language embarrassed me in front of the students because I modified her wrong answer. So she got angry at me and made me embarrassed in front of the students very badly. Instead of encouraging me she embarrassed me and I thought then that my level of English language was not good, and my attempts were not in place. So I decided to remain silent and not to never participate with that teacher despite my strong love for the English language. After that, I realized that it was a mistake to remain silent instead of participating and developing my language. Then, I tried to progress and accomplish, and every day I started to participate with this teacher despite skipping me, but I still developed my language and since that time until secondary school I gained many rules, structures and vocabulary of the English language. I got highest marks and encouragement from the teachers of the English language and still continuing to develop my language until I graduate soon from the university with a BA in English language with first class honors degree God welling. From this experience I concluded that when there is passion and love for something, nothing hold you back from that.
>
> *(PT 20, Female, Reflective Essay)*

PT 20 discussed an incident she considered to have had a significant impact on her motivation for learning English. She corrected her teacher and was in turn made to feel embarrassed for doing so. If we take account of the social dimension, in Saudi Arabia teachers are normally perceived as being authority figures and some teachers, therefore, consider the correction of their language errors by their students to undermine their authority in class and also have a detrimental effect on their own self-esteem. In the case of the teacher mentioned in PT 20's essay, it is clear that the teacher was a source of demotivation and discouragement for the student; as the teacher had caused the student to refrain from participating in the classroom for a period of time. Although the student did not explain how, she soon picked herself up and renewed her attempts in engaging with her English lessons despite a lack of encouragement or

motivation from her teacher. This incident for this particular participant is one that is likely to impact the way in which she thinks about the role of motivation in language learning.

PT 4, PT 13, and PT 15 narrated incidents that had implications for the development and evolution of their beliefs regarding the learning and teaching of English. The beliefs of these participants pertained to the theme of the approachable nature of a teacher's personality. The remark below by PT 15 mirrors the beliefs reported by the rest of participants within his group. He expressed:

> We had a teacher from … His explanation was excellent, but his pitfall was being too strict with the students. This was creating hostility with the students sometimes. They used to study out of fear more than it was for the love of studying itself. So, the teacher's negatives outweighed his positives despite his superb teaching. A month later, I studied with a teacher from… His teaching was okay, but he was trying to get students to like the language and the module. His way [of teaching] was way more convenient than that of the former teacher in spite of the many advantages of the former most of the times… He [latter teacher] used to be serious at times and he influenced the students considerably. Personally, my language competence has improved significantly thanks to this teacher because I was not nervous when in the classroom. Quite the opposite the class was so fun.
>
> *(PT 15, Male, Reflective Essay)*

PT 15 examined two personalities that were at odds and which were personified in two of his English language module teachers where the former teacher was serious while the latter being friendlier and more approachable. Interestingly, the strict teacher, despite being perceived as having excellent teaching skills, was less effective in motivating the students than was his counterpart whose teaching capabilities were reportedly less effective. This once again confirms the value of the teachers' affective traits on influencing the learning/teaching of a language which was also articulated during the semi-structured interviews (see Chapter 4,

Section 4.6.1.5.1). PT 15's claim is supported by one of the results of Dewaele and Alfawzan' (2018) study, where pupils who experienced a higher level of enjoyment for a foreign language and had a lesser level of anxiety during foreign language learning in the classroom were more likely perform well on foreign language tests.

4.7.1.3 Factors affecting language competence

In the reflective essays, some of the participants commented on factors which affected their language competence. From the data, two themes were identified: the perceived utility of practicing English with native speakers, and the role of private tutoring.

PT 10, PT 12, PT 18 and PT 19, all revealed events which could be connected with the perceived utility of practicing English with native speakers. The excerpt below by PT 12, echoes the views of the other participants. PT 12 revealed:

> I lived through agony at the early stages of my undergraduate education. First, I used to be utterly incompetent in English. I had no idea what to do. I used to understand noting but little during the first level [first term of his undergraduate programme]. However, during the second term a colleague of mine advised me to practice the language with a native speaker via a smart phone application. In fact, not so long afterwards a quantum leap in my language competence ensued because via the application I did practice my new words and the grammar rules I learned at the university with teachers from different foreign countries such as America, United Kingdom, and Canada. I even learned a lot of words and expressions which were new to me throughout my conversations with them. I am extremely lucky to have gone through this experience towards the beginning of my university education. Now, I am in my final term of my undergraduate programme with a good academic record thanks to God first then to my colleague.
>
> *(PT 12, Male, Reflective Essay)*

In the excerpt above, PT 12 described his early days as an "agony" because of his lack of English competence. He then explains how this agony was transformed into a success story and excellent performance soon after he listened to the advice of one of his fellow peers to practice his English with native speakers online. PT 12's narrative of observing a dramatic transformation in his language competence, by what he described as 'a quantum leap', emphasises the perception of the importance for these participants about the role of speaking with a "native" speaker and the advantages of practicing the foreign language in what is perceived as an authentic environment. Indeed, such online platforms could bridge the often complained about gap that there is a lack of opportunity to engage in English language practice.

PT 11 and PT 16 mentioned incidents that could be linked to the role of private tutoring. In the quotation below, PT 11 recalled an episode from his past schooling which reflects a similar experience of the other participant within his group (PT 16). PT 11 recounted:

> I had an incident during secondary school where I used to find the module to be difficult. And it was obvious that it would be the one negatively affecting my GPA more than any other ones. I was worried that it might cause me to lose good admission chances to specialise in good majors at universities. I thought to myself, why is my English language competence low? Clearly, it is because I was not well-prepared. So, I decided not to let this obstacle impact the rest of my life. Then, an idea sparked in my head to seek the assistance of a private tutor to lay the foundations for me so I can earn high marks in the module and also to attain competitive edge when applying for universities in the future especially these with placement English test. Quite honestly, the tuition had a pivotal role on where I am at today for that I have graduated from secondary school with a high GPA and a high mark in the English module. I am now majored in English and about to graduate from university. My language has become better and I barely faced any difficulties throughout my university journey.
>
> *(PT 11, Male, Reflective Essay)*

The participant cited the distress he went through during his secondary school stage. He related how he thought his performance in the English module would negatively impact his GPA upon graduation, and subsequently affect his chances to study an area of his preference. This quotation reveals the huge importance English has in the mindset of the students and also reveals the extent students might go to, to improve their language skills in order to be competent. Such prior experiences will have an impact on the teaching skills of pre-service teachers as they would be keen to ensure that they are adequately armed to meet the needs of all their students without their students having to resort to private tutoring.

4.7.1.4 The usefulness of certain modules

PT 22 was the only one who raised the point on the usefulness of certain teaching modules as influential on the formation of her beliefs. She wrote:

> Yes, I remember when I was in third year of college, I was studying for the first time Translation and Interpretation. I believe that experience of studying this subject has a real impact on my knowledge of learning the language itself. The experience of translating and interpreting words was so beneficial for me as a second language learner. The fact that I was able to translate and interpret has a huge effect on my fluency when I speak. However, the study of linguistics, syntax, phonetics and so on I don't want to say it wasn't important but it wasn't what I really needed to improve my English language. Moreover I think studying Applied Linguistics like Translation has really helped understanding and speak the English language. It was the pillar in order to learn or I prefer to say understand how the language works the other subjects of the English language like syntax and so on.
>
> *(PT 22, Female, Reflective Essay)*

PT 22 indicated that her study of a Translation and Interpretation module made her believe that the utility of some modules could outweigh that of others. Clearly, she reached this position having improved her verbal competence in the foreign language which she attributed to her

study of the module she referred to. This resonates with one of the results from the BALLI in which (72.9%) of the practice group participants agreed with statement 24 "*Saudis think it is important to speak a foreign language*" (see Chapter 4, Section 4.2.1.5 for a discussion).

This chapter sought to address and expand on the aspect of the type of perception and beliefs that pre-service teachers had regarding learning and teaching of English. The following chapter focuses on actual classroom practices of some of the pre-service teachers in light of their views and beliefs articulated during the semi-structured interviews.

Chapter Five

Results and Discussions of Actual Practices

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the professed beliefs articulated by six male pre-service teachers (PT 13, PT 17, PT 18, PT 19, PT 20, and PT 21) from the practice group during the semi-structured interviews were compared against their actual observed classroom practices. This was carried out in order to establish whether there was a match between beliefs and practices (the non-practice group did not have a practicum component in their undergraduate study plan). However, due to space constraints, not all the pre-service teachers who took part in the classroom observation part of the study had excerpts from their semi-structured interviews presented in Chapter 4, Section 4.6.1 (semi-structured interviews analysis). For this reason, it was thought practical to provide some illustrative excerpts from the semi-structured interviews with the pre-service teachers and to compare them with their teaching practices to establish the extent of alignment between perception (stated beliefs) and actual classroom practices. It may be useful at this juncture to acknowledge the disparity between the number of the participants in the semi-structured interviews and classroom observations when triangulating these data elicitation instruments as constituting to a limitation of this thesis.

The following sections answer the research question below and discuss the findings with reference to the relevant literature.

5.2 RQ2. To what extent are the stated beliefs of the Saudi, undergraduate EFL pre-service teachers about teaching of English aligned with their actual classroom practices?

5.2.1 Findings and discussions of semi-structured interviews and classroom observations

The general finding which emerged from the analysis of the data obtained from the semi-structured interviews and classroom observations suggests that the beliefs articulated by the pre-service teachers were to a large extent, incongruent with actual classroom practices. This is consistent with the findings of Pavaresh (2017) whose study reported the existence of a large gap between the beliefs held by participants and their actual classroom practices. My findings were in line with those reported in other studies which had observed that the relationship between the beliefs they held and actual practices is complex, and that the beliefs held are not always reflected in actual practice (Feryok, 2008; Orafi and S. Borg, 2009; Pavaresh, 2017).

The following sections present the results of my study and discuss those results in light of other related studies from the literature.

5.2.1.1 Error correction: professed beliefs vs. actual classroom practices

Three themes derived from the semi-structured interviews of the six pre-service teachers (PT 13, PT 17, PT 18, PT 19, PT 20, and PT 21) which are representative of their beliefs in relation to how they would go about correcting their students' errors will be compared against their actual classroom practices. These themes are: supporting indirect or direct error correction, supporting peer error correction and supporting in-isolation error correction.

The analysis of the semi-structured interview of the pre-service teacher PT 20 indicated that the error correction technique to be employed could either be direct or indirect, depending on the nature of the error made. PT 20 was the only participant to suggest addressing a student's error in a direct way, although he made a distinction. Such a distinction for addressing errors made by students is mirrored in my exchange with PT 20 below:

> ***Interviewer:*** **What is your policy with regards to error correction?**
> *Interviewee:* It depends on the nature of the error. If it is a pronunciation error then the correction is indirect. I mean I do not say this is wrong, but instead I correct the error myself by reading the sentence in the correct way. However, if the error was a linguistic one which will ruin the sentence, I focus on the error and explain to the student what the error is.
> ***Interviewer*****: So you correct the student directly?**
> *Interviewee***:** Yes, if the error was a linguistic one because this error will impede the student as it might lead them to a bad habit formation later on. But if the error had to do with pronunciation that does not have a big effect, I correct indirectly.
>
> *(PT 20, Semi-structured interview)*

PT 20 further elaborated to justify his distinction by arguing that if a student made an error in pronunciation, he would correct it indirectly as he perceived pronunciation errors to be less likely to hamper the accurate conveyance of meaning. However, if the error was linguistic in nature, he stated that he would correct it directly as he viewed such errors to be more likely to cause confusion in the short term and lead to continual inaccurate usage in the long term. To reiterate, it is clear that PT 20 saw a distinction between the type of errors students made and hence concluded that the most appropriate technique for tackling them would differ, depending on the nature of the error being made.

However, PT 18, PT 19, and PT 21 preferred treating their students' errors indirectly and had indicated a certain level of tolerance for errors made by their students as they generally regarded

them as natural outcomes of the learning process. However, to these pre-service teachers, such tolerance did not mean overlooking the errors made by their students. The responses of the aforementioned pre-service teachers point out that they considered their students' errors as naturally occurring during the course of the foreign language learning process, but nonetheless felt that they must be corrected. The following excerpt by PT 19 demonstrates:

> ***Interviewer:*** **What is your policy regarding error correction?**
> *Interviewee:* As I said before this is allowed, but I do not scold him and say No this is wrong, why did you make an error! It is normal for him to make an error.
> ***Interviewer:*** **Are you the type of person who would correct immediately or will you let the error go uncorrected?**
> *Interviewee:* No, no. I do not correct immediately and say [to a student] you made an error. I [teacher] say the error. I mean I repeat the word he had erred in and let him continue. I say well-done well-done carry on.
> ***Interviewer:*** **So you correct indirectly?**
> *Interviewee:* You can say that...
>
> *(PT 19, Semi-structured interview)*

PT 19 holds the view that error correction should be done sensitively and mindfully. PT 19's position was that the student should not be told off and that doing so would demoralise the student. Therefore, the approach PT 19 preferred seems more indirect by reintroducing the correct pronunciation of the word which the student did not pronounce correctly. It would seem that PT 19 regards positive reinforcement as a way to boost a student's self-confidence; therefore, increasing the likelihood of that student participating more actively in the classroom in the future. In addition, such a preference of opting for indirect methods for addressing the errors made by students, seem to suggest that he was careful not to make the students feel embarrassed, humiliated and exposed in front of each other. This view is also shared by Pavaresh (2017) and Numrich (1996). The pre-service teachers also seemed aware that if they rushed into correcting their students directly, this could have a negative effect on these students

by putting pressure on them, which could consequently lead them to refrain from further participation.

PT 13 was the only one to believe that his approach to correcting the errors made by his students would be through peer correction. The preference for employing such a method seems to be driven by his concern that if confronted directly with their errors, students could then abstain from participation in classroom activities as they would be more likely to feel anxious. In the semi-structured interview, PT 13 cautioned:

> … Trying to divert the question to another student to avoid putting pressure on the student himself when he makes an error as he may make an error a second and a third time. And then he may refrain from attempting to ever participate. If the student made an error, you move to the other student. You say [to the student who made an error] you have got something and we [teacher] move to the next student. Then he [student] will try to think about what he [peer] said and be concentrated if his peer gave the right answer…
>
> *(PT 13, Semi-structured interview)*

PT 13's choice to use this method of error correction with his students is in one aspect, similar to the approach adopted by some of his peers (PT 9, PT 10, PT 14, PT 15, PT 17, and PT 22). All of them seek to provide a none-threatening environment where students can engage in their lessons without worrying about being embarrassed or exposed in front of their peers. Similarly, the use of a peer-assessment (peer correction) method for the correction of the errors made by students could also be attributed to its propensity to provide a relaxed approach that is more personal. This approach allows for the evaluation and reflection of the students' linguistic attainment (Finch, 2001). Similarly, peer correction could assist students to take charge of their own learning, consequently leading them to be more actively engaged (Scharle and Szabo, 2000).

The view which supports the in-isolation technique for error correction is embraced only by PT 17. When he was asked about his view with regards to dealing with students' errors, he said:

> *Interviewee:* I do not correct directly. If I do so I will break his spirit and his attempt to participate with me because in the next lecture he will not discuss me.
> ***Interviewer:*** **Could you elaborate more?**
> *Interviewee:* I mean eventually when the student is finished speaking, the doctor [teacher] request him at the end of the lecture and explain to him the errors he had made so that he can correct them the next time.
> ***Interviewer:*** **You mean you would correct his error in front of the class or in-isolation?**
> *Interviewee:* It would be in-isolation.
>
> *(PT 17, Semi-structured interview)*

In the extract above, PT 17 expressed clearly that he was against correcting the errors made by his students in class and preferred to do so on a one-to-one basis. Similar to PT 13's motive described in the section above, PT 17's justification is also driven by his view that correcting a student's errors in front of his peers would hinder that student's future participation. However, unlike PT 13, PT 17 felt that the suitable approach for treating a student's error is by adopting a one on one approach, which also aims to promote a student's morale.

It may be concluded from the pre-service teachers' responses above that almost all of them are sensitive to the morale of the student when correcting their errors. This appears to reflect the affective side of their personalities. This corroborates another finding from this study, where the majority of the pre-service teachers highlighted the role of affective teachers (see Chapter 4, Section 4.6.1.5.1). Despite their stated tolerance for the errors made by their students, they were of the belief that such errors must be corrected. They mostly justified their preferred methods for dealing with such errors by indicating that they did not want their students to feel undermined or ashamed which in turn, could have led to their students being reluctant to

participate in classroom activities. They therefore chose to correct their students' errors through indirect or direct error correction, peer error correction or in-isolation error correction methods.

The analysis of the classroom observational data uncovered that the beliefs espoused by the six pre-service teachers generally did not match their actual classroom practices. For instance, PT 13 had indicated in the semi-structured interview that students' errors are best dealt with through peer correction. However, he was found to directly correct his students' errors. This is made apparent in the exchange below:

1 (**Task) Rewrite the sentence** ***(You did not take action soon enough and the situation got out of control)*** **using 'if'.**
2 ST: If you did not take action soon enough, the situation will get out of control.
3 PT: No. Be careful here you need to use 'do not' instead of 'did not' in the first part of the sentence.
4 ST: If you do not take action soon enough, the situation will get out of control.
5 PT: That's it

(PT 13, Classroom observation)

In line 2 of the exchange above, the student attempted to carry out the classroom task by rewriting a sentence by applying the 'if rule'. However, in line 3 it is evident that PT 13 used a direct error correction method to correct the student by telling him what the correct form was. This example demonstrates the discrepancy between PT 13's held belief and his actual approach adopted in the classroom.

Only on a few occasions was consistency observed between the pre-service teachers' stated beliefs and their actual classroom practices (PT 19 and PT 21). It should be stressed that the latter observed both consistency and inconsistency (see Appendix 20). For example, the actual method for treating students' errors by PT 19 was found to be a reflection of his espoused beliefs

during the semi-structured interview. The episode below is from one of PT 19's classes, which serves as an illustration:

1 ST: If I make a lot of money, I would buy an expensive watch.
2 PT: If I …
3 ST: If I made a lot of money, I would buy an expensive watch.
4 PT: Excellent.

(PT 19, Classroom observation)

In the above exchange, PT 19 in line with his stated belief, refrained from spoon-feeding his student the correct answer when he failed to produce a grammatical sentence. PT 19 is consistent with his espoused belief in the semi-structured interview where he addressed his student's error by employing a recast approach. This is seen in line 2 when PT 19 repeated the first part of the sentence where the error took place and he stopped right before the verb that needed to be corrected. The student immediately noticed that it was the verb which had to be corrected and did so, as shown in line 3, where he rightfully used the past tense of the verb 'make'.

Of the six pre-service teachers observed, only PT 20 had no instances of error correction during the classroom observation. This was mainly because the lesson did not take place as planned and instead there was a discussion between the teacher and his students on what the teaching content was going to be. More specifically, the students insisted that the content had already been explained to them by the main teacher.

5.2.1.2 The use of mother tongue (L1) in teaching the target language (L2): professed beliefs vs. actual classroom practices

Analysis of the semi-structured interview data of the six pre-service teachers (PT 13, PT 17, PT 18, PT 19, PT 20, and PT 21) revealed that their held beliefs with respect to L1 use in teaching the target language (L2), with the majority being in favour of doing so. However, this applied only for the primary or the foundational stages. Nonetheless, one pre-service teacher endorsed wholeheartedly the view that supports reliance on L1 use irrespective of the educational stage of the students. In addition, interestingly only one pre-service teacher rejected the idea of using L1 altogether.

During the semi-structured interviews, pre-service teachers PT 13, PT 19, PT 20, and PT 21 called for the use of L1 when teaching the target language L2, but also stipulated that this might be most useful for primary or foundational stage students exclusively as articulated in the extract below by PT 20:

> It depends on students' stage of education. If they are in year five or six of primary education, it would be impossible to speak in English with them because they will not understand as you are teaching them the basics of English. Hence you use Arabic to teach them.
>
> *(PT 20, Semi-structured interview)*

The comment above showcases the popular belief among the pre-service teachers in this study (e.g. PT 4, PT 5, PT 6, PT 10, PT 13, PT 14, PT 19, and PT 21) which was for the use of L1 in the primary stages of the students' learning journey. PT 20 is quite clear that L2 use for teaching the L2 (teach English through English) would be unfeasible as students in primary or early stages of their foreign language learning journey would still lack the basics of the L2. Hence, PT 20 seems convinced that L1 should continue to be the language of instruction in L2 classes for students in their primary stages of language learning.

Out of the six pre-service teachers who were observed in their classroom of practice, PT 17 was the only one to hold a supportive view for the use of L1 for teaching the target language (L2). In the next excerpt, PT 17 explained his viewpoint:

> It is necessary [L1 use] for clarifying some words. I mean there are words which become misleading for whom Arabic is their mother tongue. That is to say if the doctor [instructor of English] spoke in English, there will be some misleading words and sentences that the student will not understand.
>
> *(PT 17, Semi-structured interview)*

It is evident from the comment above that PT 17's belief for relying considerably on the L1 when teaching the L2 is backed by his own judgement that L1 use would offer the students a preferential advantage when it comes to understanding new or unfamiliar words or sentences. Hence, those students would presumably, be better positioned to benefit from their teacher's explanation. Such a belief held by PT 17 appears to tie in with the conclusion reached by Pavaresh (2017). She noted that one group of the pre-service teachers she observed were focused merely on whether their students grasped the information being presented to them. Within this group, L1 was used for the purposes of consolidation.

Here again, only one out of the six pre-service teachers who took part in the classroom observation part of the study disapproved of using the L1 when teaching the L2. The perspective of PT 18 during the semi-structured interview is summarised in the quote that follows:

> ***Interviewer:*** **What do you think about using Arabic for teaching English?**
> *Interviewee:* I strongly reject it. And I hope we do not have to embrace it because students nowadays lack the proper foundation in the English language.
> ***Interviewer:*** **Are you saying if teachers and people have started speaking with them in English from an early age it would probably be possible to communicate with them in English in the secondary stage?**
> *Interviewee:* Yes, even in translation. It becomes drawing. He memorises it.
> ***Interviewer:*** **How does translation becomes drawing?**

> *Interviewee:* Through drawing. There is a theory that is you draw on the board and they [students] learn. For example, you draw a 'mountain' and they learn it.
>
> *(PT 18, Semi-structured interview)*

From the dialogue above, PT 18 makes his stance clear right from the beginning, that in principle, he is against the use of the L1 for teaching the L2. However, his concern was that unless students were competent in the English language (L2) early on in their primary stage, it might be inevitable for teachers to resort to the L1 when teaching the target language at the secondary stage. PT 18 continued to suggest a potentially advantageous method to obviate the need for using L1 where teachers could use the drawing technique to help their students understand the meaning of a word without having to use the L1.

The pre-service teachers' beliefs espoused during the semi-structured interviews generally show that they largely endorsed the proposal for using the L1 to teach the L2. The predominant majority further explained that L1 should only be used at primary or foundational stages. There was only one who believed in overreliance on the L1 to teach the L2. In addition, there was only one pre-service teacher who rejected the idea of using the L1 in the L2 classroom.

The actual classroom practices of the six pre-service teachers in relation to L1 use in teaching L2 were contradictory to their stated beliefs during the semi-structured interviews except for one pre-service teacher PT 17. During the semi-structured interviews, this pre-service teacher was the only one who endorsed the belief that L1 should be relied on heavily in L2 classes. When he was later observed in his classroom, the language of instruction he used was predominantly Arabic (L1). Nevertheless, he was also the only one who incorporated some L2 content by encouraging his students to give directions using L2. The episode below reflects this point clearly:

1 **Cassette: Listen and write.**
2 PT: …
3 PT: [PT explaining the task in the L1] So, let's suppose that you, Sami, are at the hotel. Someone asks Sami
4 how to get to the police station. How would you ask for directions? You
5 would say where is the police station? The one that will tell you the
6 directions will give you the directions from the spot you are at. Ok Sami
7 quickly ask in the same way as I just explained to you.
8 St: (Sami) Where is the police station?
9 PT: So, Sami is at the hotel. Ok, (St. Ali) Tell him the directions
10 St: Shall I give directions in Arabic?
11 PT: No, do this in English. Just use 'turn left', 'turn right', 'go straight'
12 just simple phrases
13 St: Turn left
14 PT: Good, now that he turned left. So, what's next?
15 St: Go straight
16 PT: Excellent. Go straight for two blocks… then what? Turn right, the
17 police station will be on the left.
18 PT: ('Turn right', 'turn left', 'go straight') we have now understood all
19 these words by now guys.

(PT 17, Classroom observation)

Although PT 17 mainly used L1 to explain the task to the students, he encouraged his student to try to use L2 even for very simple and basic phrases. In line 10, the student inquired if it was okay to give the directions in Arabic (L1). However, in line 11 the pre-service teacher clearly required him to say it in English (L2). PT 17 was apparently trying to make the task look less challenging to the student when he said "just use 'turn left', 'turn right', 'go straight' just simple phrases". The student did give the directions in the L2 and PT 17 then completed the task.

As reported above, during my semi-structured interview with him, PT 18 was the only pre-service teacher to reject the notion of using L1 in L2 classes. However, the analysis of his observational data revealed that he constantly used L1 in his L2 class, contrary to his espoused belief during the semi-structured interview as made evident in the excerpt below:

Choose the word or phrase that most appropriately completes the sentence.
PT: [PT giving instructions using the L1]. Open your books to page 76. Ahmed read the first sentence.
St: This painting was…… by a trip I made to Italy earlier this year.
Multiple choices: A) inspired B) encouraged C) embarked on D) associated
PT: [PT asking students using the L1]. Who knows the meaning of inspire in Arabic? It means 'yulhim'.

(PT 18, Classroom observation)

As seen in the exchange above, in sharp contrast to his belief espoused during the semi-structured interview in which he rejected the use of L1 in the L2 classroom, PT 18 relied on L1 in his lesson. He resorted to L1 to give instructions, communicate with his students and to explain the meaning of new words. That said, it is important to note that during the semi-structured interview, PT 18 was wary that he might eventually have to use L1 should students not be proficient in their L2. Such use of L1may also echo Cook's (2001) proposal that L1 could facilitate the explanation of meanings of difficult and abstract words more effectively and quickly.

Similarly, the analysis of the observational data of the pre-service teachers PT 13, PT 19, PT 20 and PT 21 affirmed that their held beliefs were incongruent with their classroom practices. For example, they had all indicated that they would use the L1 in primary or foundational stages exclusively. However, apart from reading text in the L2 from the textbooks, they were all involved in teaching different aspects of their module using the L1 solely.

5.2.1.3 Use of teaching aids: professed beliefs vs. actual classroom practices

Analysis of the data obtained from semi-structured interviews of the six pre-service teachers (PT 13, PT 17, PT 18, PT 19, PT 20, and PT 21) revealed that they had unanimously

acknowledged the utility and significance of teaching aids. They therefore saw a need for utilising them when teaching. They named several teaching aids which could be integrated into the lessons (e.g., PowerPoint slides, Smartboards, overhead Projectors, YouTube, CD Players, Pictures). The extract below reflects the espoused belief of PT 20 and mirrors a similarly held belief of his peers:

> Surely. The more tools and means for facilitating the lesson there are, the easier the lesson gets, and the higher the receptivity of students towards the lesson is going to be.
> *(PT 20, Semi-structured interview)*

As the quote above shows, when PT 20 was asked whether he thought a language teacher should use some teaching aids during teaching to improve his students' ability to comprehend his lessons, he promptly stated that he supported the notion unequivocally. He further argued that more teaching aids should be employed and that as a result, he would expect to enhance the overall comprehension capability of his students.

Out of the six pre-service teachers, PT 19 and PT 20 underlined the significance of using different teaching aids. PT 19 maintained:

> As I said there are students that focus with pictures more than they do with listening and vice versa. Therefore, all teaching aids are very important.
> *(PT 19, Semi-structured interview)*

The short quote above demonstrates the viewpoint of PT 19 who prefers the use of various teaching aids when teaching. PT 19 endorses such a view as he perceived that the diversity of teaching aids used would meet the different needs and preferences of students.

Further, pre-service teachers PT 13 and PT 18 were of the belief that the traditional method of teaching where teaching aids are not employed is not effective. For example, PT 18 argued that "in fact, normal [traditional] method is being used in Saudi Arabia; get your book out, and write". He went further to express his discontentment by claiming that "our teaching is not comparable with the other countries. Since we started, open your book, read, write on the blackboard, and that is it. I do not need the book. I [teacher] can deliver to you the important information". These comments describe the teaching method prevalent in the context of the pre-service teachers, one that is over reliant on textbooks, which is clearly not favourable to PT 18. This exemplified one of the results of Alhadi's (2018) study, where he revealed that traditional learning methods lead to a lack of motivation among the EFL learners.

Overall, all of the pre-service teachers believed that teaching aids should be adopted by EFL teachers. A couple of the pre-service teachers further highlighted the benefits of the diversifying their teaching aids. The pre-service teachers' beliefs were strongly in favour of using teaching aids during teaching, given their effectiveness in getting the lessons across to the students.

During my classroom observations of the six pre-service teachers, I noticed that half of them (PT 17, PT 20, PT 21) did indeed have match between their espoused beliefs during the semi-structured interviews and their actual classroom practices. True to their espoused beliefs articulated during the semi-structured interviews, these pre-service teachers were observed to be employing teaching aids in their lessons (PowerPoint slides PT 17 and PT 21 and Cassette PT 20). It was also observed that the students seemed attentive and active during the lessons conducted by PT 17 and PT 21 in particular. However, in the case of PT 20, the students were not very engaged. I believe this was the result of them being introduced to a lesson which they

claimed had been explained to them before by their main teacher of the EFL module (see Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1.1 for more discussion).

In light of the above, it may be argued that the use of teaching aids especially in EFL classes could be an asset that teachers should consider taking advantage of as they could expect to increase their students' level of engagement, as observed on several occasions. Indeed, visual aids have been found to facilitate the conceptual explanation of the lessons and also stimulated interest among the students for the lessons (Alhadi, 2018). In addition, Mathew and Alidmat (2013) reported that the use of audio-visual teaching aids had improved the ability of students to retain the lessons learnt. Such teaching aids served to encourage students to think critically and also enhanced the overall classroom atmosphere (ibid).

By contrast, the other half of the pre-service teachers (PT 13, PT 18, PT 19), exhibited divergence between what was reported during the semi-structured interviews of what they thought they would do when they were in their classroom and their actual practices. For example, the analysis of the observational data of PT 13 unveiled a mismatch between his adopted beliefs about the utilisation of teaching aids in EFL classrooms where he had argued that 'traditional' approaches to teaching were ineffective and then did not go on to use any teaching aids in the lesson he conducted. The disadvantage of this may be seen in Mathew and Alidmat's (2013) argument that if teachers depended on textbooks exclusively as their main source of EFL teaching, the learning process could become monotonous. The inconsistency between beliefs and practices was also observed with PT 18 and PT 19. PT 19 had expressed strong support for the diversification of teaching aids. However, when he was observed in his

classroom, it was noticed that just like PT 13, he was embracing a teaching approach with no utilisation of any teaching aid. The following is a sample from PT 13's class:

1 **PT Explaining: If rule (Zero conditional)**
2 PT: What do we use it [if rule: zero conditional] for?
3 PT: We use this rule to express a scientific fact.
4 PT: Let us take an example. If you heat water, it boils.
5 PT: What do we call this? This is called 'zero conditional'
6 PT: Now, open your notebooks and copy the sentence

(PT 13, Classroom observation)

From the extract above, PT 13, contrary to his held belief that did not favour the traditional way of teaching and called for the incorporation of teaching aids, was practicing a rather traditional teaching approach by asking his students to copy what he had written on the board in their notebooks without any inclusion of a facilitative teaching aid to make the grammatical rule more understandable to his students. There is evidence to suggest that the use of teaching aids improves the language skills of EFL learners and increases their productive skills (Ahmed, 2018).

5.2.1.4 Motivation: professed beliefs vs. actual classroom practices

The analysis of the data gathered from the pre-service teachers during their semi-structured interviews showed that all of them recognised the necessity of the motivation for successful language learning. This lends support to the finding of Erkmen (2010), who revealed that by the end of his study, more participants had seen the importance of motivation in the context of foreign language learning. In addition, a few pre-service teachers argued that motivation leads to an increased level of willingness on the part of the students for learning and participation. Specifically, two pre-service teachers stressed the value of motivation in encouraging students

to be more communicative in the classroom. Finally, when they were asked what they thought could be done to keep students active and motivated during a lesson, they put forward a number of suggestions which will be discussed in the paragraphs to follow.

Analysis of the data from semi-structured interviews of the six pre-service teachers (PT 13, PT 17, PT 18, PT 19, PT 20, and PT 21) showed that within their range of beliefs, was the firm belief that motivation was a factor for successful language learning. The following extract by PT 20 is an illustration:

> Yes. I strongly subscribe to this [necessity of motivating students]. It is impossible for a student to learn when they are obliged to. The student has to be receptive to the module, school and everything, which is the ideal environment for learning.
> *(PT 20, Semi-structured interview)*

In the extract above, PT 20 recognised the value of the motivation for language learning. To him, such a perceived utility appears to be unquestionable as he argued that in order for language learning to occur the learner must be responsive to the whole process. PT 20 contended that this was only achievable by being motivational during the teaching process.

Three of the six pre-service teachers who were observed had earlier revealed during the semi-structured interviews that they considered motivating the students as having the effect of boosting their willingness for learning and classroom participation. Pre-service teachers PT 13, PT 19, and PT 21 adopted such favourable opinions. PT 21 said:

> ***Interviewee:*** For sure. The motivating [motivation] is fundamental in language learning… because when the affective filter is high, I mean when it is in a good condition [affective filter], he [learner] will learn more.
> ***Interviewer:*** **What is the 'affective filter'?**

> *Interviewee:* Affective filter when the stress is lower, the learner will acquire more.
> *(PT 21, Semi-structured interview)*

This reflects PT 21's belief about the role of motivation in encouraging students to learn and participate more voluntarily. To PT 21, motivation could lower the anxiety level of the learner, which in turn could result in enhancing their learning outcomes. Dewaele and Alfawzan (2018) maintained that foreign language teachers have always understood that the neutralisation of negative emotions is not adequate in itself to spur foreign language learners. Likewise, MacIntyre and Mercer (2014) also held that it was important to enhance the learning experiences of foreign language learners. They felt that by motivating their students and by fostering positivity among their students, they could help their students greatly. This notion was recognised by most language teachers.

Only two of the six pre-service teachers observed had expressed a belief that there was a need to motivate students to learn English as it was used widely throughout the world for communication. Echoing the belief held by PT 18, pre-service teacher PT 17 maintained:

> Yes, it is a must [motivating students to learn English]. Learning English is important as it is the dominant language around the world. Further, if you are in a country where Arabic is not the native language at least you would have people speaking English. It [English] is also the language of communication nowadays.
> *(PT 17, Semi-structured interview)*

For PT 17, motivating students to learn English was important, as his view was that proficiency in English would be beneficial to his students. His justification hinges on the fact that English is widely used around the world. This corroborates one of the results of the study conducted by Zhang (2016), where four participants viewed English as a tool for communication. Likewise,

Maiklad (2001) found that the majority of the participants valued proficiency in English for the purposes of communication.

When the six pre-service teachers were asked what they thought could keep their future students active and motivated during a lesson, they offered a range of different ideas. Their responses ranged from, a teacher should encourage students (PT 17 and PT 19); give prizes (PT 17 and PT 18); keep an eye on students, incorporate fun and humour into the lessons, avoid teacher-led style of teaching (PT 13); get the school to honour distinguished students (PT 17); tolerate students' mistakes and bolster their confidence (PT 19); show a good mastery of the material they are teaching, ask questions, give equal attention to all students (PT 20); to fostering pair and group work techniques and diversifying classroom activities (PT 21).

Overall, the responses of the six pre-service teachers during the semi-structured interviews highlighted the role of motivation for language learning. The motivation factor was also emphasised for its potential to increase the learners' willingness for learning and participating in classroom activities. Some of the pre-service teachers saw a need for motivating the learners to learn English for communication purposes. All of them suggested some incentives that teachers could put in place to keep their learners active and motivated during the lesson.

When the espoused beliefs of the six pre-service teachers were examined in their own classroom, it was observed that their beliefs did not quite match their actual practices. More precisely, the data has revealed that half of the pre-service teachers (PT 17, PT 19, PT 21) exhibited consistency between their perceptions and their practice, whereas the other half (PT

13, PT 18, PT 20) demonstrated inconsistencies. As an example demonstrating congruence between espoused belief and actual practice, PT 19 acknowledged the importance of motivating the students for successful language learning. He contended that motivation has the potential to spur the students to better immerse themselves in their learning process, as well as participate more readily in the classroom. The analysis of the data derived observing PT 19 has proven that his beliefs made apparent during the semi-structured interviews matched his actual practices. The following conversation from PT 19's classroom during the conduct of a lesson exemplifies this point:

1 PT: Okay guys, who wants to read and answer the sentence?
2 ST: 'If I had studied, …… the test'
3 *<u>Multiple choices</u>: A) I would pass B) I would have pass C) I would*
4 *had passed D) I would have passed*
5 ST: It is D) I would have passed
6 PT: How wonderful! Excellent.

(PT 19, Classroom observation)

As shown in the exchange above, when the student answered correctly in line 5, he was immediately praised by his teacher PT 19 in line 6. This shows that the belief held by PT 19 is demonstrated in the classroom. This is also strengthened by my in-class notes where I noticed that the pre-service teacher was extremely enthusiastic. This was reflected in the level of interaction with his students during the lesson. To further support this claim, it was observed that at the end of the lesson, the students thanked their teacher profusely. This could indicate that the students were motivated throughout the lesson and enjoyed being in the classroom, which happened to be in learning resources centre (a tech-equipped room).

As said earlier, half of the pre-service teachers observed, exhibited differences between their held beliefs and actual practices. PT 13 for example, who had recognised in the semi-structured

interview the value of motivating students for language learning, hardly made any attempt to motivate his students. He further asserted that a teacher needed to allow his students to participate and avoid a teacher-led teaching approach. However, in the classroom, PT 13 behaved quite differently to his espoused beliefs articulated in the semi-structured interviews. The following excerpt presents a snapshot of PT 13's classroom conduct:

PT: Nawwaf, [a pseudonym of a student] Sit properly!
PT: [Later on during the lesson] Sami, [a pseudonym of a student]
Don't sleep or I will send you to the assistant principal's office!
PT: [Later on during the lesson] Sami, [a pseudonym of a student] Go
and stand up at the back of the classroom!
PT: [Later on during the lesson] Nawwaf, get out of the classroom!

(PT 13, Classroom observation)

The snapshot above of what transpired in PT 13's classroom exemplifies the divergence between his held beliefs and his actual practices. Throughout the excerpt, it may be seen that the pre-service teacher was almost threatening his students. During my observation of PT 13, I noticed that he tended to be aggressive as he tried to keep his students under control. This could possibly be discouraging and would certainly not motivate the students. Most of the students seemed distracted and a few even slept during the lesson. It should be stressed however that the students were not observed to be misbehaving during the lesson. The students were largely under control, but disinterested in the lesson. That being said, a few students were observed not paying any careful attention to the lesson. This required their pre-service teacher to frequently ask them to pay attention to him while he was explaining the lesson. Further, in sharp contrast to PT 13's statement in the semi-structured interview, where he expressed his dislike for a teacher-led type of classroom, the nature of his actual classroom practice was observed to be a rather teacher-centered one. PT 13 offered little opportunity for the students to actively participate in the classroom. When he did ask questions, he rarely received any responses or

any form of interaction from his students. Ironically, to a large extent, PT 13 exhibited the characteristics of a teacher-centered approach in the classroom. For example, the focus of the pre-service teacher appeared to be on three students only. They seemed willing to interact with him unlike the majority of the students. This underscores the perceived utility of a teacher-centered teaching approach in the classroom which is designed to keep the students orderly and quiet whilst the teacher exercises full control over the students and all other classroom activities.

This chapter has considered the ways in which the participants' professed beliefs differ from their actual classroom practices. In many ways, as the chapter has highlighted, this reflects current research in this area.

In the next chapter, I draw some pertinent implications derived from the findings reported in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5. I draw together the findings from different research instruments used in the study and summarise the findings around the key issues identified in the thesis. The chapter concludes by discussing the roles of ELT programmes with respect to teacher beliefs.

Chapter Six

Implication of Key Findings

6.1 Introduction

The research has revealed that the pre-service teachers hold a range of mixed beliefs about EFL learning and teaching. The study also reports how these beliefs evolve and how both pre-existing and evolved belief impact on teaching practice. By using various data collection instruments (i.e., BALLI, semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, reflective essays) it was found that beliefs varied between individuals and that there was often no congruence between held beliefs and actual classroom practices. The use of several forms of data eliciting instruments to address the research questions of this study helped validate and strengthen the reliability of the results obtained. Additionally, the study has contributed to improving the understanding of the complex concept of beliefs as described by S. Borg (2003; 2006) and Pajares (1992).

The purpose of this chapter is to showcase four key beliefs which emerged from the analyses of the data obtained from the various data collection instruments. Concurrently, it is one of the aims of this chapter to demonstrate the utility of these instruments in achieving for the objectives of this study. In so doing, the chapter ultimately seeks to establish to what extent the data has helped understand the complex area of research in the beliefs of pre-service teacher.

To reiterate a point I made elsewhere in this thesis, although the triangulation design employed proved useful in validating and cross-checking results from other instruments, this cannot be

said for all results as some points were probed using only one or two instruments (e.g., Incorporation of teaching method modules into EFL teaching programmes). This is a limitation of the triangulation design of this thesis (see also Chapter Seven, Section 7.4).

The chapter concludes by considering the roles that ELT programmes could play to enhance the understanding of pre-service teachers' beliefs.

6.2 Key Beliefs

6.2.1 Beliefs about preferred teaching approaches

From the analysis of the data obtained from semi-structured interviews, I was able to ascertain what the pre-service teachers' beliefs were in relation to their preferred modes adopted for the purposes of teaching. Several of them reported that they were keen to employ a variety of methods to teach and ventured that it was their belief that modern teaching methods were superior to traditional methods. The methods which they believed would be most useful to adopt in the language classroom entailed the use of an assortment of classroom activities to promote learner autonomy and student-centred learning. This is in line with the principles of the CLT (see Chapter 4, Section 4.6.1.3.5). However, during the classroom observation, it was observed that the lessons were predominantly traditional and largely teacher-led. Such incongruence between the pre-service teachers' perceived beliefs and their actual practices could indicate that they were heavily influenced by their past learning experiences (K. Johnson, 1994). In fact, the BALLI data analysis uncovered that most of the pre-service teachers held beliefs which were in sharp contrast to the principles of the CLT. For example, the BALLI data showed that 86.7% of the pre-service teachers agreed that *"learning a foreign language is a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words",* and 64.6% believed that *"learning a foreign language is mostly*

a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules". Such results suggest that their preference of classroom activities as reported during their interviews may only be a reflection of their CLT inspired 'ideals' (S. Borg, 2006; Phipps and S. Borg, 2009), whilst their actual beliefs, as reported in BALLI and in the classroom observations highlight the importance they accord to vocabulary and grammar in language learning.

During the interviews, teachers did reflect on their past learning experiences and as such, it may not be surprising that their prior learning experiences may shape their beliefs and consequently their practices (Pajares, 1992; K. Johnson, 1994). The differing results about their beliefs as uncovered by the different data eliciting instruments may lend support to one of Peterman's (1991, cited in Pajares, 1992, p. 318) assumptions. He stated that "beliefs form a schema-like semantic network, and contradictory beliefs reside in different domains of that network".

6.2.2 Beliefs about error correction

A further key belief which emerged from the analysis of the interviews relates to error correction. It was quite clear from analysing the data, that all pre-service teachers maintained that all errors must be corrected in one way or another. This is corroborated by the results from BALLI which suggests that 64.6% agreed that *"if you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later on"* pointing to the need for immediate error correction as the pre-service teachers held the view that neglecting the errors made by students could lead to fossilisation of habits where vocabulary is incorrectly used and grammar rules incorrectly applied. In harmony with the approach to error correction proposed by the CLT approach (the general approach teachers were adopting in this study), the pre-service teachers reported during their interview that they would seek to correct the errors made by their students

in a less confrontational way and in a supportive manner. However, the classroom observation results did not convincingly demonstrate this belief. Five out of the six pre-service teachers observed, corrected their students' errors in ways which were different from how they thought they approached error correction as articulated in the interviews. While the use of the semi-structured interviews and BALLI showed that the pre-service teachers had a certain set of perceived beliefs towards error correction, the classroom observation did help to ascertain the extent of alignment between perceived beliefs and actual practice (as reported in Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1.1).

6.2.3 Beliefs about the characteristics of effective teachers

One of the key beliefs highlighted in the current study is with regard to the characteristics of an effective teacher. The analyses of the data elicited through the semi-structured interviews and reflective essays revealed that most of the pre-service teachers had underscored the role of affective traits as being characteristic of effective teachers. During the interviews, it was perceived that an effective teacher was someone who is not tough and one who does not humiliate their students. Also, during the interviews, the pre-service teachers emphasised the importance of building a good relationship and rapport with their students by discussing obstacles they faced in the learning process and by doing so, also enabled them to remain engaged in class through discussion. The findings reported during interviews were substantiated in the reflective essays. The data analysis of the reflective essays brought out a central theme of a belief held by these pre-service teachers. That belief was that a teacher is a source of motivation (or demotivation) and the approachability of a teacher's personality may be instrumental in the language learning process. Moreover, the reflective essays highlighted some of their previous learning experiences and uncovered how the beliefs they currently hold or

wish to modify is influenced by their previous learning encounters (as reported in Chapter 4, Section 4.7.1.2.1).

6.2.4 Beliefs about improving language skills

Another key belief which emerged from the BALLI analysis, which was also corroborated by data from the reflective essays relates to the usefulness of practicing English with native speakers. In particular, 83.3% of the pre-service teachers indicated that *"it is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country".* A similar result arose in the reflective essays where a few pre-service teachers mentioned influential events from their own experiences which highlighted the importance of practicing English with native speakers. Further, it may be suggested that this belief is widely held by virtue of another result from the BALLI where 79.2% believed that *"it is important to speak a foreign language with a foreign accent"*. This result demonstrates the belief that pre-service teachers placed on the aspect of accent when speaking a foreign language. As can be seen, the use of the BALLI and reflective essays enhanced and strengthened the interpretation of the aforementioned results.

In conclusion, the results discussed above collectively point to the value of the data collection instruments of this study in crosschecking and strengthening the reliability of the results obtained. It may be concluded that each instrument achieved what it was meant to by answering the relevant research question. For example, the semi-structured interview data has been quite useful in identifying and understanding the beliefs of the pre-service teachers about a variety of issues related to EFL teaching. Further, the semi-structured interviews allowed for useful data to be collected which S. Borg (2006.) favoured. This is particularly important in consideration of the complexity and vagueness of beliefs (Kagan, 1992; Woods, 1996). The BALLI

questionnaire identified mainly the pre-service teachers' beliefs about EFL learning. In addition, it revealed the extent of belief change of the pre-service teachers following the completion of the practicum experience. BALLI also demonstrated whether there were significant differences in beliefs about learning attributed to either gender or the type of programme of study undertaken by the pre-service teachers. The classroom observations principally ascertained the extent of alignment between perceived beliefs and actual practices in the classroom. Pavaresh (2017) argued that although a relationship exists between the teachers' perceived beliefs and their actual practices, yet she felt that it does not appear to be straightforward in view that their beliefs are not always indicative of their classroom actions. Drawing on the recommendations of many researchers (cf. M. Borg, 2002; S. Borg, 2006; Phipps and S. Borg, 2009; Debreli, 2013), approaching such a complex construct as belief, was best achieved by using a variety of methods. Of particular importance was the necessity to investigate what actually goes on in the classroom given the notion put forward by S. Borg who said "we are interested in understanding teachers' professional actions, not what or how they think in isolation of what they do" (S. Borg, 2003, p. 105).

This present chapter outlined some key findings that emerged from the analyses of the data derived from various instruments. Additionally, the utility of these data collection instruments in probing the different research questions of this study was also discussed.

I will now consider some implications for teacher education programmes from a Saudi Arabian context in relation to teacher education programmes as an example.

6.3 Teacher education programmes and teacher beliefs

Although there have been claims that ELT teacher training programmes are mostly unproductive when it comes to enhancing classroom teaching practice (Raths, 2001), there is evidence to support the premise that such programmes may play an influential role in enhancing the teachers' teaching practice when these programmes also influence their beliefs (S. Borg, 2011). In the context of the present thesis, the pre-service teachers who took part in the study studied English in two different undergraduate EFL programmes in a Saudi university. One programme was offered in a college of education and the latter in a college of sciences and humanities. I discuss the characteristics of these two programmes in Chapter 1, Section 1.2.3. Both programmes were seen not to address the issue of teachers' beliefs directly. In the next few sections, I discuss these programmes in greater detail.

The teacher education programme at the college of education is heavily oriented towards teaching new methods. For example, the course description of one of the core modules (English Language Teaching Methodology, CI 446) on the programme states that the overall aims of the module are to:

> "1- introduce students to contemporary linguistic approaches to the study of language, language learning and language teaching. 2- help students practice producing English teaching materials. 3- introduce students to contemporary approaches to teach language skills., 4- help students to be familiarized with English textbooks evaluation" (Course Specification, 2021, p. 3).

The description above highlights the key aim which is to impart skills used in the teaching of English in the classroom. There appears to be no mention of existing knowledge or indeed teachers' beliefs concerning their views of teaching and learning. Beliefs do not have inherent

characteristics and in and of themselves they do not have value. Anderson and Holt-Reynolds (1995) argue:

> "only as we look at the relationship between a particular belief and specified action or goal can we presume to attach value to that belief and decide whether we want to foster, inform, redirect, elaborate, or alter it within a teacher education programme" (p. 6).

In the context of ELT programmes, this view is important as it seems to stress the benefit of aligning beliefs with specific goals or actions for a better comprehension of the importance of a certain belief.

The findings of Holt-Reynolds' (1994) study reported next, explain this point of the relationship between belief and action further. In Holt-Reynolds' study, she found that the participant teachers in her study tended to scrutinise any teaching method they were introduced to in accordance with their pre-existing beliefs regarding learning and how teachers support students' learning. Therefore, when she taught her participant teachers various teaching strategies, they were not introduced to them out of context, but aligned alongside their pre-existing beliefs.

In her study she proposed a practical way to incorporate this into teacher education programmes. She began with thinking about beliefs in terms of several different categories based on a set of predictions about what beliefs her teachers were likely to hold. The first category pertained to beliefs around learning and learners. Holt-Reynolds predicted that the teacher candidates would commence the programme believing that the learning aptitude of secondary students (the students her cohort of teachers were going to teach) had a direct correlation to their interest or motivation. Additionally, the beliefs about teachers' instructional roles also figured heavily in the mindset of her teacher candidates. She predicted that many of

her teacher candidates would begin the programme maintaining that if teachers showed enthusiasm and care, that they would attract their students' attention and consequently would learn more. Holt-Reynolds also cited that activities carried out by students in the classroom were also an important component that her candidate teachers placed a premium on. She envisaged that the prospective teachers would enter the programme considering academic tasks and activities to be less essential for learning, compared to oral or written texts.

For all these predictions, Holt-Reynolds had alternative concepts which she hoped would enable her participant teachers to reframe their beliefs or improve their understanding of their pre-held belief. In the instances where her predictions were accurate and matched the pre-held belief of a teacher participant, there were changes in their beliefs. In fact, two participant teachers reported remarkable changes in their thinking about teaching and learning and credited the module for their success as teachers.

In the study, there was one teacher who was reported to have not exhibited the change to their beliefs about teaching and learning as Holt-Reynolds had hoped to see. Holt-Reynolds put forward the notion that the participant teacher's core beliefs regarding learning and teaching were not clarified sufficiently. Therefore, while the teacher seemed to respond to new ideas regarding teaching methods, it was not clear how and whether these were related to his pre-existing beliefs. Tillema (2000) suggests that beliefs acquired during teaching courses, which may not have been personally experienced by the student teacher to be proven or which the student teacher may not have encountered ways to deal with, may not quite be seen through to the course of teaching practice and or into actual classroom practice.

The findings discussed above give rise to the specific importance of addressing the pre-service teachers' beliefs in ELT programmes. What is special about these results is that it is evidenced that when certain beliefs are subject to close scrutiny and confronted, they are likely to be altered, re-evaluated or changed. However, as has been said elsewhere in this thesis, in order for any change to be real, it has to be substantiated by credible evidence.

I would like now to draw some practical implications and make a few conclusions about beliefs and teacher education programmes based on a few findings from my research.

With due regard to the findings in this thesis, policy-makers and ELT programme designers in Saudi Arabia are consequently encouraged to carry out comprehensive reviews of the current teacher education programmes. Such reviews should be an ongoing process and take into account the recommendations and implications of the most recent empirical studies of direct relevance, in terms of context and content, such as the present one. Pajares (1993) claimed that instruction would not be expected to have much impact if it overlooks beliefs because students would integrate new ideas into some established frameworks. If this premise holds true, then ELT programmes should benefit from developing and implementing some pre-orientation exercises. These can identify the existing beliefs of the pre-service teachers towards the teaching and learning process which may then be used to influence the content and approach used in the teacher education programme to address any beliefs which the programme may seek to change. In light of this, and while acknowledging the value of Holt-Reynolds' (1994) findings outlined above, and to avoid subjectivity, I would like to argue that the identification of the pre-existing beliefs of the pre-service teachers should never be based solely on prediction,

but by a variety of other elicitation means such as the BALLI questionnaire used in the present study.

The importance of uncovering pre-held beliefs before embarking on a teacher training programme can be seen from one of the results in the current study. In my study, during the interviews with the pre-service teachers, I found that teachers associated effective classroom management as students behaving well in the classroom. Several teachers mentioned different ways in which they would maintain classroom discipline and this was often through rules and other teacher-centred and teacher dominant approaches. There is potential for such a view of classroom management techniques to be challenged and changed during a teacher education programme. For example, teachers might be introduced to techniques of teaching where the emphasis could be on student engagement during the different phases of a lesson rather than on imposing strict rules to control their misbehaviour.

An interesting point to make here is that on occasion teacher education programmes might be seen to reinforce beliefs which may not be in the best interests of students. For example, one of the learning outcomes of the teaching methodology module introduced in the beginning of this section states that the module seeks "to provide the future teacher with practical experience in school to overcome the problems of discipline and enable her to develop method of control" (Course Specification, p. 5). It is therefore not surprising that effective classroom management is often associated with the ability to control the misbehaviour of students rather than focussing on employing effective teaching techniques which promote the prospect of actively engaging students in the teaching process (see Chapter 4, Section 4.6.1.1 for a discussion of this result).

It is also important to realise that teacher education programmes may strive to change or alter beliefs, but the pre-held belief might be too ingrained in a person to change. There was a good example of this in the current study when a disparity was observed between the responses of PT 13 when it was contrasted with his actual practices in the classroom (see Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1.4). That is despite the heavily informed student-centred training programme he was enrolled in. When I observed him in his classroom, he adopted a teacher-led approach which stemmed from his own beliefs about how teaching is heavily based on transmitting information rather than in engaging learners in learning.

In this specific case, leaving such beliefs unaddressed could pose a threat in that while such beliefs remain dormant during the teacher education programmes, they could strongly influence the pre-service teachers' action in the classroom (Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1981). In that regard, even if teacher education programmes attempt to influence beliefs, they should not be too optimistic that all their pre-service teachers would utilise and apply much of their pedagogical knowledge into their teaching practice. The impact would vary considerably between individuals. This goes back in part to the nature of beliefs (see Chapter 2, Section 2.3).

While a teacher education programme may strive to understand teacher beliefs before the course begins and also strive to challenge, change and perhaps redefine these beliefs during the programme (to a greater or lesser degree of success), it might also be valuable for pre-service teachers to reflect deeply of their beliefs at the end of the programme. If they have had the chance to undergo a teaching practicum, a reflective exercise could help them pull together the theoretical threads of a programme with the practice elements of the programme and reflect on how these elements impact their beliefs. Armed with this knowledge, pre-service teachers may

be better equipped as teachers and be reflective and responsive to their students and this could impact the classroom experiences of both teachers and students.

The next chapter concludes the study by discussing the implications of this study in general, its limitations and recommendations for future research.

Chapter Seven

Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This study is both a critical and evaluative investigation of the beliefs held by pre-service teachers about the learning and teaching of English in an EFL context. In chapter six, the implications of four key beliefs which emerged from the analyses of the data were discussed.

Further, the utility of the data collection instruments in fulfilling the objectives of this thesis were also outlined. In this final chapter, I will discuss the broad issues which have arisen in the study and discuss the contribution of my study to the body of knowledge about pre-service teachers' beliefs. I shall also propose some potential implications, and acknowledge its limitations. The chapter concludes with some recommendations for future research.

7.2 Contribution of the study

The present study, situated in an EFL context, hopes to provide valuable contribution to the body of knowledge about teachers' beliefs. In the following paragraphs, I propose a few reasons as to why I would contend that this study is of merit.

The research focusing on the beliefs held by teachers has been predominantly conducted in Western countries (S. Borg, 2003; Debreli, 2013). Some of the key principles and findings can

be extrapolated to all settings, but because of the nature of beliefs (Chapter 2, Section 2.3), the cultural and social contexts of where these studies take place is important. The results of studies conducted in Western countries may therefore be irrelevant in other EFL contexts given the potential differences between the different contexts (S. Borg, 2003). In terms of the Saudi context specifically, it may be pertinent at this juncture to also refer to the scarcity of studies investigating pre-service teachers' beliefs about the learning and teaching of English in the Saudi context leading to this research area being still under-researched in the Saudi context (Daif-Allah, 2012; Gandeel, 2016).

Studies that have been conducted in the Saudi context have been primarily quantitatively oriented where the data is elicited through BALLI solely (i.e., Daif-Allah, 2012; Javid and Al-Malki, 2018). This means that the findings presented are typically generalised and some of the nuances we may gain from a qualitative research is not present. Nevertheless, there are indeed two studies which are worth mentioning. Gandeel (2016) did her study on the beliefs around the teaching of speaking, while, Alkhatib (2015) conducted her study on the aspect of teachers' beliefs, practices and student preferences towards written corrective feedback. While both studies looked at teacher beliefs as part of their studies, both studies were quite limited in scope. Gandeel looked at 5 teachers and Akhatib at 10 writing tutors. While the results were interesting, there was little opportunity for any findings to form a general finding. In terms of the specific cohort of participants being examined in this study, to the best of my knowledge, no study has sought to examine the beliefs of pre-service teachers about the learning and teaching of the English language in the Saudi context. My study investigated the beliefs of male and female pre-service teachers from both the Educational and Non-educational routes available for qualification as teachers. This included a wide array of constructs related to the

learning and teaching of EFL, by utilising four forms of data collection instruments (Questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, and reflective essays). Therefore, it is hoped that the variety of the data collection methods provided for a comprehensive account of the beliefs held by pre-service teachers.

Methodologically, this thesis makes a contribution in terms of its application of multiple data collection instruments and approaches of analysis. The mixed methods research design used here, according to Creswell (2009), is a procedure for collecting, analysing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study to understand a research problem. This type of design is relatively new with key studies which developed during the mid to late 1980s, albeit its origins date further back (Creswell, 2014). The benefits of a triangulation design according to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000), refers to the attempts of social sciences to "map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than a singular standpoint and in so doing, make use of both quantitative and qualitative data" (p. 112). In the same vein, Creswell (2014) maintains that "early thoughts about the value of multiple methods -called mixed methods- resided in the idea that all methods had bias and weaknesses, and the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data neutralised the weaknesses of each form of data" (pp. 14-15). Mixed methods are believed to yield a better range of data in comparison to just a single method. As suggested by Dörnyei (2007) "mixed methods inquiry offers a potentially more comprehensive means of legitimising findings than do either qualitative or quantitative methods alone" (p. 62), for that a mixed-methods approach generally enables investigators to access information from both data types. Fraenkel, Wallen, Hyun (2015) stated that "the underlying rationale for the use of the triangulation design is that the strengths of the two methods will complement each other and offset each method's

respective weaknesses" (p. 559). Likewise, Creswell (2009) proposed other reasonings for the utilisation of triangulation design in that the findings from one research may arise to initiate novel directions for another. Additionally, this design could expand the findings of a study by clarifying and enriching them (ibid.). It is acknowledged that while there have been instances where this triangulation proved successful in cross-checking and validating some results, this cannot be said for all the results which emerged from the various instruments.

This study contributes to the field by approaching the study of teacher beliefs using multiple lenses and different approaches in the Saudi context to ensure in-depth analysis and findings that may be more applicable than other studies that have already been conducted in the Saudi setting.

One of the key findings from this study is the exploration of previous teaching and learning experiences in the shaping of beliefs. Pre-service teachers were asked to reflect on their most influential experiences from the schooling days to provide insight into how these might have shaped their existing beliefs about teaching and learning of English. Such a critical area of pre-service teachers' beliefs research appears to be left neglected to a certain degree in the literature. To the best of my knowledge, this is the first study to address such a question using reflective essays as a data instrument. As reflective essays were anonymous and done at home, they enabled the pre-service teachers to write freely without fear of being judged or assessed. I hope that this freedom has led to a deep and sincere form of self-reflection that could enhance and deepen our understanding of the different influences, both positive and negative, in forming /and shaping the existing beliefs of pre-service teachers. As highlighted previously, given the uniqueness of the research questions and the research instruments relied on to obtain

information related to the pre-service teachers' experiences from their past schooling that went on to shape their beliefs, the study could be considered as an important contribution to both knowledge and methodology. This is in view of the fact that it enabled greater understanding of the relationship that existed between the past experiences of pre-service teachers during past basic schooling which are likely to influence their future teaching practices.

7.3 Implications of the study

The findings of this study are significant and propose a number of implications for the shaping of English language training programmes in Saudi Arabia and could also be extended to other areas.

7.3.1 The necessity of acknowledging prior learning experiences in ELT programmes

Students may hold unrealistic, inappropriate, or naïve beliefs about learning and teaching as they commence their teacher education programmes (Brookhart and Freeman, 1992; S. Borg, 2006; Debreli, 2013; Song, 2015). Findings from the present study suggest that previous learning experiences have a role to play in how the pre-service teachers perceived the process of teaching during their time in the English language undergraduate programme. These experiences have later on also influenced their approach to teaching during the course of their actual teaching practice. The study also revealed that several significant events from previous learning experiences had impacted how they believed English language learning or teaching could be best realised. In the context of the actual classroom environment, the present study observed that the practices of the pre-service teachers had mostly diverged from their espoused beliefs. This was evident during semi-structured interviews, which was hypothetically accounted for by long hours of passive observation when they were students, known as

'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975, p. 160). Also, findings from semi-structured interviews and reflective essays revealed that most of the pre-service teachers had a wide spectrum of pre-existing beliefs about foreign language learning and teaching processes which had overshadowed their own previous positive or negative experiences as students. According to Sanchez (2013), previous learning experiences strongly affect the lives of teachers and their cognitive development as well as influence how they engage with education. Therefore, it should not be bewildering why the beliefs of pre-service teachers generally do not conform to the theoretical input received during teacher training programmes as revealed in this study and some others (i.e., Peacock, 2001; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Tang, Lee, Chun, 2012). This is an expected consequence when ELT programmes continue to be oblivious to the potential influences of previous learning experiences on the pre-service teachers' pedagogical beliefs and convictions about learning and teaching of English.

In light of these findings which highlight the role of previous learning experiences in the formation and/ or shaping of pre-service teachers' beliefs, foreign language teacher training programmes are encouraged to rise to this challenge of incorporating reflection of previous learning experiences in any ELT programme. One way for doing so may be through self-reflection (see Chapter 7, Section 7.3.2 for an extended discussion around the utility of reflection practice). Despite heavy emphasis on ELT theories and pedagogies of Language teaching in the current undergraduate English language programme, and especially so in the educational route, it does not appear to have had tangible outcomes to influence such pre-existing beliefs of the pre-service teachers. Eisenhart et al. cautioned that

> some teacher beliefs tend to remain stable through time, regardless of teaching experience, location, or level. If these persistent beliefs are not taken into account when

> designing reforms or conducting research, then we are not optimistic that good faith efforts to improve education will work.
>
> (Eisenhart et al., 1988, p. 67)

It might be relevant here to cite Kagan's (1992) criticism of teacher education programmes following a comprehensive review of 40 studies suggesting that university courses "fail to provide novices with adequate procedural knowledge of classrooms, adequate knowledge of pupils or the extended practica needed to acquire that knowledge, or a realistic view of teaching in its full classroom/school context" (p. 162).

Therefore, it is perhaps incumbent on ELT programmes to acknowledge their shortcomings when it comes to addressing pre-service teachers' prior learning experiences. This could initiate the restructuring of their study plan to accommodate the critical aspect of previous learning experiences and their influence on teachers' beliefs about learning and teaching of a foreign language. One way of doing this could be seen in K. Johnson's (1994) conclusion, which states that in order for pre-service teachers' beliefs to change and progress beyond their previous learning experiences, the training programme needs to offer these pre-service teachers, some alternative images to the conflicting ones they have of second language teaching and teachers. This is primarily because pre-service teachers' beliefs are more likely than not to be drawn from previous images from their days during schooling (ibid.). Correspondingly, this would entail ELT programmes eliciting whatever pre-existing beliefs the pre-service teachers might be holding on to, early on in the programme. This is to allow for more time for the promotion and reinforcement of the positive ones, but perhaps more importantly, for the correction or reorientation of the ill-informed or unsound ones. For example, a pre-service teacher who endorses the belief that 'Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new

vocabulary words', would most likely place more emphasis on this aspect of language teaching perhaps at the expense of other essential ones such as communication activities. Mattheoudakis (2007) underlines the importance of allowing time for addressing ill-informed beliefs, contending that in order for pre-service teachers to change their beliefs, enough time needs to be allowed for. The necessity of allowing more time is reflected by the pre-service teachers' long hours of passive learning experience as discussed above.

In conclusion, "the teachers' prior language learning experiences establish views about learning and language learning which form the basis of their initial conceptualisations of L2 teaching during teacher education, which could continue to be influential throughout their professional lives" (S. Borg, 2003, p. 88). As a consequence, any teacher development programme that overlooks the pre-service teachers' previous learning experiences would be expected to have little impact on the shaping of beliefs that are the outcomes of such experiences (Kettle and Sellars, 1996). The following sections will present further practical implications by drawing on the findings of the present study to address the issue of raising the awareness level of pre-service teachers about their own beliefs.

7.3.2 The utility of reflective practice in surfacing implicit beliefs

S. Borg (1998) argues that ELT programmes should foster an understanding of the relevance of beliefs in the shaping of the teachers' classroom practices. Findings from my study demonstrate that the reflective essay writing experience undertaken by some of the pre-service teachers has been helpful in bringing to the surface, their beliefs and exploring how it had, or would affect these teachers with regard to their learning or teaching of a foreign language. In

the same vein, language teachers should be nurtured to reflect on their own beliefs so that their in-class practices can be linked back to these beliefs (Farrell, 2015).

While acknowledging the accompanying constraints of the reflective essay as a research instrument in my study (see Chapter 7, Section 7.4), I still believe that this experience enhanced to some extent, the awareness of the pre-service teachers about their tacitly held beliefs about language learning and teaching. The analysis of the reflective essay and how extensively the pre-service teachers had gone in expressing what they deemed to be some of the most influential incidents in forming or shaping their beliefs, leaves me to contend with a reasonable degree of confidence that the practice of reflection should be an indispensable component of teacher education/ development programmes.

Some evidence from this study and others (Kagan, 1992; Peacock, 2001; Vibulphol, 2004; Song, 2015) have also shown that the beliefs of teachers are in part, resistant to change due to the long periods of previous learning experiences. Therefore, if such resistant beliefs are to be challenged, altered, redirected or even changed drastically, they need be identified and acknowledged from an early stage in the programme. One way of doing this could be through activities which endorse systematic self-reflection by pre-service teachers about their beliefs throughout the duration of the teacher development programme. Some of the positive features of written self-reflection may be linked to its non-intrusive and conducive nature. It is important that such practice be applied in a non-judgmental and a non-threatening environment to enable the pre-service teachers to open up and express their tacit and deeply held beliefs. This suggests that a pre-service teacher would be expected to reflect on critical events and if left unacknowledged and unchallenged, could have the potential to persist (Eisenhart et al., 1988)

and thus negatively affect how they approach their own learning and later teaching. Accordingly, their prospective students are also likely to suffer from such consequences and in return, influence their own students in view of the effects of what is described as the 'apprenticeship of observation'. It is concluded that it is critical for teacher development programmes to respond swiftly to the concerns of their pre-service teachers and to challenge their beliefs that might have negative impacts on their students' learning. This is in order to avoid the entrenchment of such negative beliefs, which could have long lasting debilitating effects on their learning and teaching practices (Mattheoudakis, 2007). This further lends credibility to the notion that programme developers should take the subject of pre-service teachers' beliefs into consideration when putting in place a curriculum plan for an ELT programme. The programme could be an independent module in its own right or have some modules of teaching pedagogies integrated. This could make implicit beliefs explicit, especially when self-reflection practices are encouraged regularly. The importance of learning about the pre-service teachers' beliefs may be seen in Farrell's (2016) conviction that "many teachers remain unaware of their beliefs because they do not readily articulate them to themselves or others, nor do they reflect on how they influence their practice" (p. 2).

7.3.3 Responding to divergences between espoused beliefs and actual classroom practices

As discussed in Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1 of this study, observing the teaching of some of the pre-service teachers revealed that their teaching practices were largely incongruent with their stated beliefs in their semi-structured interviews. Such findings, as well as through my interactions with the pre-service teachers coupled with my knowledge of the nature of the teaching programme in which these teachers were enrolled, made it possible to present some

context-specific implications affecting espoused beliefs and actual practices. However, other contexts that share similar conditions may still find the following implications relevant.

Firstly, despite the theory-rich undergraduate educational teaching programme and the two-week intensive course prior to the practicum experience, it was observed that the vast majority of the practice group pre-service teachers acted inconsistently with their espoused beliefs during the semi-structured interviews. It is beyond the scope of this study to identify what exactly triggered such discrepancies. This suggests that any potential justification of the inconsistencies is merely based on my own interpretation and inferences made thereof, rather than on the pre-service teachers' narrative. For example, there were no stimulated-recall interviews or any other contact after each classroom observation to discuss with the pre-service teachers about their actions in the classroom or to understand why certain things happened. This is a limitation of this study.

As I accompanied the academic supervisor of the pre-service teachers, I noticed that the communication after the lesson between them lasted for about 2 to 3 minutes as the supervisor was trying to visit several pre-service teachers in different schools, all within a day. Therefore, such limited time was not adequate to discuss in reasonable depth, the concerns the teachers might have had. More astonishingly, such limited interaction mostly pertained to other matters than the actual classroom teaching. Specifically, I noticed that most of the pre-service teachers were more preoccupied with the question of how they were being judged by their supervisor rather than discussing any procedural hurdles that they may have had encountered during their teaching practice. This is primarily due to the fact that the practicum experience constituted as an independent module, which counted towards the overall pre-service teachers' GPA. That

said, I firmly believe that addressing the pre-service teachers' beliefs, concerns and contextual difficulties must be given a priority over merely an exam-oriented type of assessment. I would therefore contend that had the practicum module not been factored into their GPA, the pre-service teachers would have been more concerned with how to improve their own teaching practices rather than their assigned grades in that module. Equally essential, is the allowance of sufficient time for post-lesson teacher-supervisor discussion. It may be logical therefore to suggest that a weekly meeting between the pre-service teachers and each supervisor is held to air concerns and be given advice and perhaps even practical solutions. Built into this would be the need for some degree of self-reflection as discussed in the previous section.

Secondly, it was quite unsettling to learn that the practice group pre-service teachers embarked on their practicum without any prior experience of the nature of the teaching process apart from drawing on their own previous experiences as students. Even more unsettling is that, graduates of the Non-educational route (non-practice) of the undergraduate ELT programme are officially qualified to teach and yet, the programme does not offer to its students a practicum experience. In light of the above observations, it is recommended that this programme devise, at the very least, a module dedicated to equipping the pre-service teachers of both routes (Educational and Non-educational) with the prerequisites of being language teachers. This could be through micro-teaching sessions whereby the pre-service teachers could teach a group of volunteer students from the local community. In so doing, mutual benefit could be achieved as the pre-service teachers would get some teaching experience with all the associated challenges and the volunteering students would get to improve their foreign language skills through specialised EFL instructors without any payment. Additionally, the pre-service teachers of both routes could find it beneficial to observe a few teaching sessions of some successful EFL teachers as

this would bolster their 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975, p. 160), and may address some relevant troubling teaching situations that they may experience themselves.

7.4 Limitations of the study

One limitation that is frequently acknowledged in studies of a similar nature to the current study (i.e., Erkmen, 2010; Debreli, 2013) relates to the participants' knowledge about the purpose of the research prior to their participation. To address this, I ensured that the wording of the documents that the pre-service teachers had received did not disclose the purpose of the study in detail, but in general terms. This approach allowed me to avoid such limitations inherent in many comparable studies. Nevertheless, this research, as like any other research is not without some limitations. For reasons of brevity, only the most salient ones will be discussed. Namely, these are methodological, data, and conclusion limitations.

One of the methodological limitations pertains to the quantitative research instrument (BALLI) utilised in this study. Due to its rather structured nature, the type of beliefs and findings that emerge from such an instrument are expected to be restricted and similar to other studies that use the same instrument (Debreli, 2013). Likewise, several researchers claim that the studies which reported little or no change of beliefs had reached such conclusions due to employing BALLI instrument (i.e., Phipps and S. Borg, 2009; Erkmen, 2010). The decision to have included a questionnaire as a research instrument in this study however, was based on the assumption that it can present three major types of data regarding the EFL pre-service teachers. These types revolve around questions of 'factual', 'behavioural', or 'attitudinal' nature. Among its multiple concerns such as 'attitudes', 'values', and 'beliefs' (Dörnyei, 2003: 8), the latter concern in particular meets the purpose of this study, in that it investigates

the beliefs of pre-service teachers regarding several learning processes related to learning EFL. It was also believed that the findings of this study would enhance the reliability and validity if examined through different research instruments as suggested by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) and Dörnyei (2007). Further, my decision to utilise BALLI was supported by a number of factors. (1) The need due to the context of my study, where access to female participants in the interviews and classroom observation was not a possibility. (2) The need to establish whether or not the pre-service teachers' beliefs changed after the practicum experience (impact of the practicum on changing beliefs). (3) The need to establish if there are statistically significant differences in the pre-service teachers' beliefs about learning attributed to variables of the type of undergraduate ELT programme (Educational vs. Non-educational) and gender. (4) The need to triangulate my data sources as well as to allow the participation of far more participants than it would have been possible through the use of other research instruments. I aimed to design the study whereby BALLI served to compliment the other findings of the study. It also helped to establish a baseline of the beliefs held, which I could then use as a guide for the rest of the study. The major findings were expected to emerge from the other three qualitative research instruments (semi-structured interviews, reflective essays, and classroom observations).

One of the methodological limitations of this study relates to using reflective essays as a data collection instrument. Both male and female pre-service teachers found this as the most challenging task to understand. Although, the task had a thorough explanation of what was required of the participants, most of the pre-service teachers still found it difficult to comprehend what was required. Therefore, I had to give a few examples to the male pre-service teachers as I was explaining the task and distributing the task sheets to them. That said, I

reminded them a number of times that the examples I had mentioned to them were just that, examples, and that they should write about their own experiences. The same applied to the female participants, as a female colleague helped explain the task. During the analysis I noticed that some of the incidents reported by the pre-service teachers had themes which were pertinent to the examples I had conveyed to the pre-service teachers or to my female colleague who would have explained them to the female pre-service teachers. However, it cannot be established whether the recurrent themes were influenced by the examples mentioned to them or not. Similarly, the reflective essays received were fairly short, and two essays were far too short (less than seven words each). Hence, they were rejected as they failed to form even one sentence. According to Maiklad (2001), reflective essays were the least effective research instruments in his research as their effectiveness relied to a great extent on the desire and ability of individuals to show themselves in their writing. Despite the limitation of the reflective essay, it served as a beneficial data collection instrument as previously discussed (see Chapter 7, Section 7.3.2).

Another methodological limitation has to do with the number of classroom observations for each pre-service teacher observed, and the duration of the observation of each lesson. Initially, I intended to observe each participating pre-service teacher on three separate occasions for 45 minutes each. However, this proved unviable as my authorisation to have access to the classrooms was attached to specific conditions. I was only allowed to observe teachers so long as I was accompanied by the academic supervisor of the pre-service teachers. As such, I only able to observe one teaching session conducted by each pre-service teacher for about 28 minutes. Both the academic supervisor and I had to rush from one school to another in order for the supervisor to fit as many visits as possible before the end of the school day. In spite of

these constraints, I was still able to establish the extent of alignment between espoused beliefs and actual practices. This was facilitated by the limited number of aspects being observed (Error correction, namely, the use of mother tongue (L1) in teaching the target language (L2), and the use of teaching aids, and motivation).

A further methodological limitation has to do with the use of the semi-structured interview as a data collection instrument. There are many advantages and I have highlighted a few previously (see Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.3.2). Nevertheless, Newby (2010) recognises that an interview exhibits more invasion of privacy than do questionnaires. This is due to the nature of interviews whereby the interviewer and the interviewee are in direct contact (e.g., face-to-face type of interview) or in semi-direct contact (e.g., phone or video type of interview). This was mitigated by the interviews being entirely voluntary and, to some extent, the fact that the participants were unknown to me, possibly made the participants feel at ease during the interviews

Limited access to data is another limitation in this study. This was particularly true for semi-structured interviews and classroom observations where female participation was not possible due to social reasons. I still believe however, that the data obtained from the female pre-service teachers from the other two research instruments (BALLI and reflective essays) enriched my data despite the limited access to data from female pre-service teachers. Owing to the triangulation of data sources, I do believe that the findings and conclusions are reliable and valid. Despite the utility of the triangulation design, it is perhaps pertinent here to reacknowledge its limitation in validating and cross-checking all results from the various data collection instruments (see also Chapter Six, Section 6.1).

7.5 Personal challenges

This thesis was completed during the Covid-19 global pandemic when the rate of the spread of the infection was at its highest. The final stage of the research process as well as the writing-up stage of the thesis was disrupted by a period of extreme instability. This was due to my family having to evacuate from the UK and then facing a series of travel restrictions, quarantine periods, and repeated regional and national lockdowns in the UK. This affected my ability to maintain a sustained effort to complete the final stages of my research which affected me during the writing-up period.

7.6 Recommendations for future research

Drawing on the findings of this study and the related literature, a few recommendations could be proposed for future research, applicable both in the Saudi context and perhaps in other countries. As acknowledged before, the findings of this study may not be applicable to all pre-service teachers in Saudi Arabia given that the sample of participants was drawn from only one Saudi university. On reflection, a follow-up study with participants from various universities in Saudi Arabia could be a step in the right direction. Further research may find it particularly useful to examine the influence of the content of the courses of ELT programmes on pre-service teachers' beliefs as the curriculum is not uniform across different universities. Such a study and others of a similar nature could potentially come up with interesting findings of value. Research projects conducted across different institutions nationwide could offer a holistic snapshot of the viewpoints held by pre-service teachers. This could then facilitate meaningful comparisons of the different programmes within a country (Louden, 2008).

Additionally, the findings of this study and other studies (e.g., Farrell and Lim, 2005; Phipps and S. Borg, 2009; Pavaresh, 2017) suggest that the practices of the pre-service teachers were mostly incongruent with their stated beliefs during the semi-structured interviews. Therefore, other forms of studies would be a valuable addition to the body of literature focusing on teachers' beliefs.

These studies should specifically aim to identify the pre-existing beliefs of the pre-service teachers, and particularly those beliefs that could have a negative impact on their teaching practice. Anything negative may then be addressed during an ELT programme in order to see if such identification and remedial action would lead to a belief change. The study should ensure that any belief change is an actual belief change and not merely a superficial behavioral change, brought about by some contextual factors. This notion has been noted in Almarza's (1996) study. Verification could be achieved by incorporating a video-based recall interview where pre-service teachers reflect on their practices and state whether their classroom actions were triggered by their own beliefs or by other factors (i.e., supervisor's presence, school policy, students' level of competence in the foreign language, etc.). I would acknowledge that it could be a challenging undertaking. Nevertheless, it is much needed, especially in light of the scarcity of intervention studies on teachers' beliefs.

One further recommendation for future research that I would strongly support would be to conduct a multi-case longitudinal study of a few pre-service teachers from their first term of their ELT programmes till their first few years of their teaching. The study could focus on the pre-service teachers' belief changes over time through their programme, practicum, and official teaching careers, and what was it that impacted their classroom practices. Provided that it is

well designed and executed, such research could be an important contribution to the existing body of knowledge about teachers' beliefs. The value of such research is underscored by the fact that the vast majority of the current studies have spent a short period of time investigating pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs. Therefore, it may be surmised that only a less than thorough exploration of beliefs has been carried out. This is the situation at present with regards to the literature on teachers' beliefs, given that the complexity of the belief construct is not easy to capture (Zheng, 2009), and which "travel in disguise" (Pajares, 1992, p. 309).

This chapter has outlined some of the key contributions this thesis has made to the study of pre-service teachers' beliefs and the impact this could have on the teaching and learning of English in Saudi Arabia. It is hoped that policy makers seeking educational reform and teachers themselves will benefit from some of the findings reported in this thesis.

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Appendix: (1) Ethical approval

UNIVERSITY OF BIRMINGHAM

FINANCE OFFICE

14th December 2018

Mr Mateb Alfawzan
School of English, Drama, American & Canadian Studies
University of Birmingham

Dear Mr Alfawzan

Re: "A critical study of various factors that could influence EFL trainee teachers' beliefs about learning and teaching: a Saudi Arabian perspective" Application for Ethical Review ERN_18-1492

I can confirm that your project above was reviewed by the Humanities and Social Sciences Ethical Review Committee and was granted full ethical approval on 26th October 2018.

I would like to remind you that any substantive changes to the nature of the study as described in the Application for Ethical Review, and/or any adverse events occurring during the study should be promptly bought to the Committee's attention by the Principal Investigator and may necessitate further ethical review.

Please also ensure that the relevant requirements within the University's Code of Practice for Research and the information and guidance provided on the University's ethics webpages (available at https://intranet.birmingham.ac.uk/finance/accounting/Research-Support-Group/Research-Ethics/Links-and-Resources.aspx) are adhered to and referred to in any future applications for ethical review. It is now a requirement on the revised application form (https://intranet.birmingham.ac.uk/finance/accounting/Research-Support-Group/Research-Ethics/Ethical-Review-Forms.aspx) to confirm that this guidance has been consulted and is understood, and that it has been taken into account when completing your application for ethical review.

Please be aware that whilst Health and Safety (H&S) issues may be considered during the ethical review process, you are still required to follow the University's guidance on H&S and to ensure that H&S risk assessments have been carried out as appropriate. For further information about this, please contact your School H&S representative or the University's H&S Unit at healthandsafety@contacts.bham.ac.uk.

Yours sincerely

Mrs Susan Cottam
Research Ethics Officer
Research Support Services

University of Birmingham Edgbaston Birmingham B15 2TT United Kingdom
w: www.finance.bham.ac.uk

Appendix: (2) Information sheet of questionnaire

Title of Study: A Critical Study of Various Factors That Could Influence EFL Trainee Teachers' Beliefs about Learning and Teaching: A Saudi Arabian Perspective

Name of researcher: *Mateb Alfawzan*

Email address: [redacted]

This study is being conducted as part of my PhD degree in the Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics, School of English, Drama, American & Canadian Studies, University of Birmingham. The study has received ethical approval.

The purpose of this study is to collect data for my research which seek to identify Saudi undergraduate EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding learning and teaching processes before and after embarking on the teaching practice. The study also investigates whether pre-service teachers' beliefs are impacted by the type of undergraduate programme of study they are enrolled in. The study will strive to introduce some practical suggestions which could be useful when designing undergraduate EFL programmes.

If you agree to participate, you will be requested to take part in a questionnaire once or twice during the course of the term in which you will be asked to tick against the answer that best represents your point of view for each statement. The questionnaire should take between 10-15 minutes to complete.

Participants will not be asked to provide their names, but only their student ID numbers which will help link their answers to the different research instruments. Only the participants who wish to be notified about the results of the study will be requested to provide their email addresses.

Hard copies of data will be stored in a secure cabinet in the researcher's office, whereas electronic data will be stored on a secure University IT system. Only the researcher and his supervisors will have access to confidential information. Any analysis of the data will be anonymous, and your identity will not be revealed in the writing up of the study or any publication which might ensue.

Should you do wish to withdraw from the study, please contact me at the email address: [redacted] or at my office:

Dept. of English, Alquwayiyah College of Sciences and Humanities, Shaqra University, Saudi Arabia

Upon withdrawal, any data collected will be immediately destroyed.

This study is supervised by Dr Suganthi John and Dr Petra Schoofs, who may be contacted at the addresses and telephone numbers blow:

Dr Suganthi John

Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics

School of English, Drama, American & Canadian Studies

Tel: [redacted]

Email: [redacted]

Dr Petra Schoofs

Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics

School of English, Drama, American & Canadian Studies

Tel: [redacted]

Email: [redacted]

صفحة المعلومات

إستبيان

عنوان الدراسة: دراسة نقدية لعوامل عديدة يمكن أن تأثر على معتقدات معلمي ومعلمات اللغة الإنجليزية (ما قبل الخدمة) حول تعلم وتعليم اللغة من منظور سعودي

اسم الباحث: متعب الفوزان

البريد الإلكتروني: [redacted]

يتم القيام بهذه الدراسة كمتطلب لدرجة الدكتوراه في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية و اللغويات التطبيقية، كلية الدراسات الإنجليزية، الأمريكية و الكندية، و الدراما في جامعة بيرمنجهام.

إن الغرض من هذه الدراسة هو جمع بيانات لبحثي والذي يهدف لتحديد معتقدات معلمي ومعلمات اللغة الإنجليزية السعوديون (ما قبل الخدمة) نحو عمليات تعلم وتعليم اللغة الإنجليزية قبل وبعد التدريب الميداني. تتقصى الدراسة كذلك مدى تأثير نوع البرنامج الذي يلتحق به المعلمون والمعلمات لمرحلة البكالوريوس على معتقداتهم. سوف تجتهد هذه الدراسة لتقديم بعض المقترحات العملية التي قد تكون مفيدة عند تصميم برامج اللغة الإنجليزية لمرحلة البكالوريوس.

عند موافقتك على المشاركة في هذه الدراسة، سيطلب منك الإجابة على إستبيان لمرة واحدة أو لمرتين أثناء الفصل الدراسي الحالي، وذلك من خلال إختيار الإجابة التي تمثل رأيك عن كل موضوع. إن الوقت المتوقع للإنتهاء من الإجابة على الإستبيان هو من عشر إلى خمسة عشر دقيقة.

لن يطلب من المشاركين في هذا الإستبيان كتابة أسمائهم. ما سيطلب هو فقط الرقم الجامعي وذلك لربط هذا الإستبيان مع أدوات جمع بيانات البحث الأخرى. أيضاً، فقط في حال رغبتكم في الحصول على نتائج هذه الدراسة فسيطلب منكم كتابة بريدكم الإلكتروني.

سوف يتم تخزين النسخ الورقية للإستبيان في خزانة آمنة في مكتب الباحث، بينما سيتم تخزين النسخ الإلكترونية في نظام تخزين تقني آمن تابع لجامعة بيرمنجهام. الأشخاص المخولون للإطلاع على معلوماتكم السرية هم الباحث ومشرفي بحثه فقط. لن يتم الكشف عن هوياتكم أثناء تحليل أو نشر نتائج هذه الدراسة مستقبلاً.

في حال رغبتكم بالإنسحاب من هذه الدراسة، يرجى التواصل معي على البريد الإلكتروني التالي:

[redacted]

أو من خلال مكتبي في كلية العلوم و الدراسات الإنسانية بالقويعية، جامعة شقراء، المملكة العربية السعودية.

سيتم التخلص فوراً من أي بيانات تم جمعها عند إنسحابكم من المشاركة في هذه الدراسة.

هذه الدراسة تجرى تحت إشراف كل من الدكتورة سقانثي جون و الدكتورة بيترا سكوفز، حيث يمكن التواصل معهما عبر العنواين و الأرقام التالية:

الدكتورة سقانثي جون

قسم اللغة الإنجليزية و اللغويات التطبيقية

كلية الدراسات الإنجليزية، الأمريكية، الكندية، والدراما

تلفون [redacted]

بريد إلكتروني:

[redacted]

الدكتورة بيترا سكوفز

قسم اللغة الإنجليزية و اللغويات التطبيقية

كلية الدراسات الإنجليزية، الأمريكية، الكندية، والدراما

تلفون [redacted]

بريد إلكتروني:

[redacted]

Appendix: (3) Informed consent form of questionnaire

Questionnaire

Title of study: A Critical Study of Various Factors That Could Influence EFL Trainee Teachers' Beliefs about Learning and Teaching: A Saudi Arabian Perspective

Name of researcher: Mateb Alfawzan

Email address: [redacted]

Postal address: Dept. of English, Alquwayiyah College of Sciences and Humanities, Shaqra University, Saudi Arabia

By giving permission, I understand that:

- I have been informed about the nature of this study and I willingly consent to take part in it.
- I am willing to participate in the questionnaires, and I agree for the content to be analysed and published by the researcher.
- I may withdraw from the study, during or within a maximum of one year ending on 13/4/2020, without having to provide any kind of explanation.
- I am 22 years old or older.

Student Number: .....

Gender: Male □ Female □

Email: *(Only if you would like to be notified about the results of the study)*
.....

Date: .....

Signature: .....

الموافقة المستنيرة

الإستبيان

عنوان الدراسة: دراسة نقدية لعوامل عديدة يمكن أن تأثر على معتقدات معلمي ومعلمات اللغة الإنجليزية (ما قبل الخدمة) حول تعلم وتعليم اللغة من منظور سعودي

إسم الباحث: متعب الفوزان

البريد الإلكتروني: [redacted]

العنوان البريدي: قسم اللغة الإنجليزية، كلية العلوم و الدراسات الإنسانية بالقويعية، جامعة شقراء، المملكة العربية السعودية

بإعطائي الإذن، أفهم التالي:

. تم إطلاعي على طبيعة هذه الدراسة و اقبل المشاركة فيها.

. أنا موافق على المشاركة في الإستبيان و أوافق على تحليل محتوى الإستبيان ونشره من قبل الباحث.

. أستطيع الإنسحاب من هذه الدراسة خلال فترة سنة واحدة كحد أقصى تنتهي بتاريخ 2020/4/13 م، بدون الحاجة لإبداء الأسباب.

. عمري 22 عاماً أو أكبر

الرقم الجامعي:

الجنس: □ **ذكر** □ **أنثى**

البريد الإلكتروني: *(فقط في حال كنتم ترغبون في الحصول على نتائج هذا الدراسة بعد صدورها)*

.....

التاريخ: / /

التوقيع: .....

Appendix: (4) Sample of questionnaire

Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI)

Below are beliefs which some people hold about learning foreign languages. Read each statement and indicate if you: 1) strongly agree, 2) agree, 3) neither agree or disagree, 4) disagree, 5) strongly disagree. Questions 4 and 11 are a bit different and should be marked as shown. There is no correct or false answer. We are merely interested in your opinion.

NO	STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5
1	It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.					
2	Some people are born with a special ability which helps them learn a foreign language.					
3	Some languages are easier to learn than others.					
4	The language I am planning to teach is: *a) a very difficult language* *b) a difficult language* *c) a language of medium difficulty* *d) an easy language* *e) a very easy language*					
5	It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent accent.					
6	It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak a foreign language.					
7	You shouldn't say anything in the language until you can say it correctly.					
8	It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.					
9	It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country.					
10	It is ok to guess if you don't know a word in the foreign language.					
11	If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take him to become fluent? *a) Less than a year* *b) 1-2 years* *c) 3-5 years* *d) 5-10 years* *e) You can't learn a language in 1 hour a day*					

12	Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
13	It is important to repeat and practice a lot.					
14	If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later on.					
15	Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules.					
16	It is important to practice in the language laboratory.					
17	Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.					
18	It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.					
19	Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects.					
20	Learning another language is a matter of translating from Arabic.					
21	If students learn to speak this language (English) very well, it will help them get a good job.					
22	It is easier to read and write a language than to speak and understand it.					
23	People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages.					
24	Saudis think it is important to speak a foreign language.					
25	People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.					
26	Saudis are good at learning foreign languages.					
27	Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.					

Source: This questionnaire is a slightly adapted version from a research project conducted by the by Horwitz (1985).

إستبيان

1- تعلم الأطفال للغة أجنبية أسهل منه للبالغين
2- يولد بعض الناس مصحوبين بقدرة خاصة تساعدهم في تعلم لغة أجنبية
3- تعلم بعض اللغات أسهل من غيرها

4-اللغة التي أخطط لتدريسها هي:
- لغة صعبة جداً
- لغة صعبة
- لغة متوسطة الصعوبة
- لغة سهلة
- لغة سهلة جداً

5-عند الحديث باللغة الأجنبية، من المهم أن يكون ذلك بلهجة ممتازة
6- من الضروري لتحدث لغة أجنبية ما معرفة الثقافة الأجنبية
7-لا ينبغي التفوه بأي شيء باللغة حتى يمكن قول ذلك بشكل صحيح
8- يكون الأمر أسهل لشخص يجيد الحديث بلغة أجنبية أن يتعلم لغة أخرى
9- من الأفضل تعلم اللغة الأجنبية في موطنها الأم
10- لا بأس أ تخمن إن كنت لا تعرف كلمة ما في اللغة الأجنبية

11- عندما يمضي شخص ساعة يومياً في تعلم لغة ما، فكم من الوقت سيحتاج ليكون ضليعاً بها؟
- أقل من سنة
- من سنة إلى سنتين
- من ثلاث سنوات إلى خمس سنوات
- من خمس سنوات إلى عشر سنوات
– لا يمكن تعلم لغة بمعدل ساعة كل يوم

12- تعلم لغة أجنبية هو بشكل رئيسي مسألة تتعلق بحفظ الكثير من الكلمات الجديدة
13- التكرار والممارسة المستمرة مهمة
14- في حال تم التغاضي عن الأخطاء في البدايات، فسيكون من الصعب التخلص من تلك الأخطاء
15- إن تعلم لغة أجنبية ما هو أمر بشكل رئيسي يتعلق بحفظ الكثير من القواعد اللغوية
16- من المهم ممارسة اللغة في المعمل اللغوي
17- النساء أفضل من الرجال في مسألة تعلم اللغات الأجنبية
18- التحدث باللغة الأجنبية أسهل من فهمها
19- إن تعلم لغة أجنبية ما هو أمر مختلف عن تعلم باقي المواد الدراسية
20- إن تعلم لغة أخرى لا يعدو عن كونه مسألة ترجمة من اللغة العربية
21- فيما لو تعلم الطلاب اللغة الإنجليزية بشكل جيد جداً، فسوف تساعدهم تلك اللغة في الحصول على وضيفة جيدة
22- القراءة والكتابة بلغة ما أسهل من الحديث بها وفهمها
23- الأشخاص المتميزون في الرياضيات والعلوم ليسوا كذلك في تعلم اللغات الأجنبية
24- يعتقد السعوديون بأهمية المقدرة على التحدث بلغة أجنبية
25- الأشخاص الذين يتحدثون أكثرمن لغة واحدة أذكياء جداً
26- السعوديون يتميزون في تعلم اللغات الأجنبية
27- الجميع يستطيع تعلم الحديث بلغة أجنبية

Appendix: (5) Information sheet of semi-structured interviews

Title of Study: A Critical Study of Various Factors That Could Influence EFL Trainee Teachers' Beliefs about Learning and Teaching: A Saudi Arabian Perspective

Name of researcher: *Mateb Alfawzan*

Email address: [redacted]

This study is being conducted as part of my PhD degree in the Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics, School of English, Drama, American & Canadian Studies, University of Birmingham. The study has received ethical approval.

The purpose of this study is to collect data for my research which seek to identify Saudi undergraduate EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding learning and teaching processes before and after embarking on the teaching practice. The study also investigates whether pre-service teachers' beliefs are impacted by the type of undergraduate programme of study they are enrolled in. The study will strive to introduce some practical suggestions which could be useful when designing undergraduate EFL programmes.

If you agree to participate, you will be requested to take part in two semi-structured interviews with the researcher. The length of each interview shall not exceed 30 minutes. In this task, participants will participate in an informal discussion about their teaching practices as they are related to the teaching and learning of English. There will be considerations around how this might be best achieved in order to identify good practice.

Participants will not be asked to provide their names, but only their student ID numbers which will help link their answers to the different research instruments. Only the participants who wish to be notified about the results of the study will be requested to provide their email addresses.

Hard copies of data will be stored in a secure cabinet in the researcher's office, whereas electronic data will be stored on a secure University IT system. Only the researcher and his supervisors will have access to confidential information. Any analysis of the data will be anonymous and your identity will not be revealed in the writing up of the study or any publication which might ensue.

Should you do wish to withdraw from the study, please contact me at the email address: [redacted] or at my office:

Dept. of English, Alquwayiyah College of Sciences and Humanities, Shaqra University, Saudi Arabia

Upon withdrawal, any data collected will be immediately destroyed.

This study is supervised by Dr Suganthi John and Dr Petra Schoofs, who may be contacted at the addresses and telephone numbers blow:

Dr Suganthi John
Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics
School of English, Drama, American & Canadian Studies
Tel: [redacted]
Email: [redacted]

Dr Petra Schoofs
Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics
School of English, Drama, American & Canadian Studies
Tel: [redacted]
Email: [redacted]

صفحة المعلومات

المقابلة الشبه منظمة

عنوان الدراسة: دراسة نقدية لعوامل عديدة يمكن أن تأثر على معتقدات معلمي ومعلمات اللغة الإنجليزية (ما قبل الخدمة) حول تعلم وتعليم اللغة من منظور سعودي

اسم الباحث: متعب الفوزان

البريد الإلكتروني: [redacted]

يتم القيام بهذه الدراسة كمتطلب لدرجة الدكتوراه في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية و اللغويات التطبيقية، كلية الدراسات الإنجليزية، الأمريكية و الكندية، و الدراما في جامعة بيرمنجهام.

إن الغرض من هذه الدراسة هو جمع بيانات لبحثي والذي يهدف لتحديد معتقدات معلمي ومعلمات اللغة الإنجليزية السعوديون (ما قبل الخدمة) نحو عمليات تعلم وتعليم اللغة الإنجليزية قبل وبعد التدريب الميداني. تتقصى الدراسة كذلك مدى تأثير نوع البرنامج الذي يلتحق به المعلمون والمعلمات لمرحلة البكالوريوس على معتقداتهم. سوف تجتهد هذه الدراسة لتقديم بعض المقترحات العملية التي قد تكون مفيدة عند تصميم برامج اللغة الإنجليزية لمرحلة البكالوريوس.

عند موافقتك على المشاركة في هذه الدراسة، سيطلب منكم إجراء مقابلة أو مقابلتين شبه منظمة مع الباحث. مدة المقابلة الواحدة لا يزيد عن 30 دقيقة. في هذه المهمة، سيكون على المشاركين المشاركة في مناقشة ذات طابع غير رسمي مع الباحث حول ممارساتهم التدريسية المتعلقة بتدريس وتعلم الإنجليزية. سيكون هناك اعتبارات حول ماهية الوسائل المثلى لتحقيق ذلك لتحديد الممارسة الفعالة.

لن يطلب منكم كتابة اسمكم. ماسيتم طلبه هو رقمكم الجامعي حيث سيساعد ذلك في ربط إجاباتكم على أدوات البحث الأخرى. كذلك، في حال رغبتكم في الحصول على نتائج هذه الدراسة فسيطلب منكم كتابة بريدكم الإلكتروني.

سوف يتم تخزين النسخ الورقية للإستبيان في خزانة آمنة في مكتب الباحث، بينما سيتم تخزين النسخ الإلكترونية في نظام تخزين تقني آمن تابع لجامعة بيرمنجهام. الأشخاص المخولون للإطلاع على معلوماتكم السرية هم الباحث ومشرفي بحثه فقط. لن يتم الكشف عن هوياتكم أثناء تحليل أو نشر نتائج هذه الدراسة مستقبلاً.

في حال رغبتكم بالإنسحاب من هذه الدراسة، يرجى التواصل معي على البريد الإلكتروني التالي:

[redacted]

أو من خلال مكتبي في كلية العلوم و الدراسات الإنسانية بالقويعية، جامعة شقراء، المملكة العربية السعودية.

سيتم التخلص فوراً من أي بيانات تم جمعها عند إنسحابكم من المشاركة في هذه الدراسة.

هذه الدراسة تجرى تحت إشراف كل من الدكتورة سقانثي جون و الدكتورة بيترا سكوفز، حيث يمكن التواصل معهما عبر العنواين و الأرقام التالية:

الدكتورة سقانثي جون
قسم اللغة الإنجليزية و اللغويات التطبيقية
كلية الدراسات الإنجليزية، الأمريكية، الكندية، والدراما
تلفون [redacted]
بريد إلكتروني:
[redacted]
الدكتورة بيترا سكوفز
قسم اللغة الإنجليزية و اللغويات التطبيقية
كلية الدراسات الإنجليزية، الأمريكية، الكندية، والدراما
تلفون [redacted]
بريد إلكتروني:
[redacted]

Appendix: (6) Informed consent form of semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews

A Critical Study of Various Factors That Could Influence EFL Trainee Teachers' Beliefs about Learning and Teaching: A Saudi Arabian Perspective

Name of researcher: Mateb Alfawzan

Email address: [redacted]

Postal address: Dept. of English, Alquwayiyah College of Sciences and Humanities, Shaqra University, Saudi Arabia

By giving permission, I understand that:

- I have been informed about the nature of this study and I willingly consent to take part in it.
- I am willing to participate in the semi-structured interviews, and I agree to be tape-recorded as I chat with the interviewer
- I consent for the content to be analysed and published by the researcher.
- I may withdraw from the study, during or within a maximum of one year ending on 13/4/2020, without having to provide any kind of explanation.
- I am 22 years old or older.

Student Number: _____

Email: *(Only if you would like to be notified about the results of the study)*
_____

Date: _____

Signature: _____

الموافقة المستنيرة

المقابلة الشبه منظمة

عنوان الدراسة: دراسة نقدية لعوامل عديدة يمكن أن تأثر على معتقدات معلمي ومعلمات اللغة الإنجليزية (ما قبل الخدمة) حول تعلم وتعليم اللغة من منظور سعودي

إسم الباحث: متعب الفوزان

البريد الإلكتروني: [redacted]

العنوان البريدي: قسم اللغة الإنجليزية، كلية العلوم و الدراسات الإنسانية بالقويعية، جامعة شقراء، المملكة العربية السعودية

بإعطائي الإذن، أفهم التالي:

. تم إطلاعي على طبيعة هذه الدراسة و اقبل المشاركة فيها.

. أنا موافق على المشاركة في الإستبيان و أوافق على تحليل محتوى الإستبيان ونشره من قبل الباحث.

. أستطيع الإنسحاب من هذه الدراسة خلال فترة سنة واحدة كحد أقصى تنتهي بتاريخ 2020/4/13 م، بدون الحاجة لإبداء الأسباب.

. عمري 22 عاماً أو أكبر

الرقم الجامعي:

الجنس: □ **ذكر** □ **أنثى**

البريد الإلكتروني: *(فقط في حال كنتم ترغبون في الحصول على نتائج هذا الدراسة بعد صدورها)*

.....

التاريخ: / /

التوقيع: .....

Appendix: (7) Guiding questions for the semi-structured interviews

- Could you introduce yourself, please?
- Which schools did you attend for your middle and secondary school education?
- How long have you been learning English for?
- What reasons were behind your decision to specialise in English for your undergraduate degree?
- Have you had any teaching experience before?

- From your point of view, what qualities are associated with an effective teacher?
- What makes you think so?
- Do you remember any of your teachers who you believe was a good one?
- Can you think of any key personal traits that were exhibited in that effective teacher and that made you still remember them until now?

- Do you have a particular teaching approach that you stick to or you intend to do so?

- Do you think it is necessary to motivate students to learn English?
- In your opinion, what can a teacher do to keep their students active and motivated during the lesson?
- How pertinent is classroom management for effective teaching?

- What do you think of using the mother tongue (Arabic) to teaching English?
- What is your policy with regards to error correction?
- Do you find it successful?
- Do you think that the teacher should be allowed to divert from the prescribed curriculum?
- Why do you think so?

- Do you think a language teacher should utilise teaching aids/ materials to facilitate the comprehension of their lesson? What are they?
- Do you believe that teaching pedagogies should be an indispensable component of any language teaching programme?

Appendix: (8) Information sheet of reflective essays

Title of Study: A Critical Study of Various Factors That Could Influence EFL Trainee Teachers' Beliefs about Learning and Teaching: A Saudi Arabian Perspective

Name of researcher: *Mateb Alfawzan*

Email address: [redacted]

This study is being conducted as part of my PhD degree in the Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics, School of English, Drama, American & Canadian Studies, University of Birmingham. The study has received ethical approval.

The purpose of this study is to collect data for my research which seek to identify Saudi undergraduate EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding learning and teaching processes before and after embarking on the teaching practice. The study also investigates whether pre-service teachers' beliefs are impacted by the type of undergraduate programme of study they are enrolled in. The study will strive to introduce some practical suggestions which could be useful when designing undergraduate EFL programmes.

If you agree to participate, you will be requested to take part in two reflective essay assignments about one topic. This task can be done at home. For each essay you will have one week to submit.

Participants will not be asked to provide their names, but only their student ID numbers which will help link their answers to the different research instruments. Only the participants who wish to be notified about the results of the study will be requested to provide their email addresses.

Hard copies of data will be stored in a secure cabinet in the researcher's office, whereas electronic data will be stored on a secure University IT system. Only the researcher and his supervisors will have access to confidential information. Any analysis of the data will be anonymous and your identity will not be revealed in the writing up of the study or any publication which might ensue.

You may withdraw from the study at any time and without having to provide any kind of explanation so long as their data has not yet been analysed and published in any scientific publication.

You may withdraw from the study at any time and without having to provide any of explanation so long as your data has not yet been analysed and published in any scientific publication.

Should you do wish to withdraw from the study, please contact me at the email address: [redacted] or at my office:

Dept. of English, Alquwayiyah College of Sciences and Humanities, Shaqra University, Saudi Arabia

Upon withdrawal, any data collected will be immediately destroyed.

This study is supervised by Dr Suganthi John and Dr Petra Schoofs, who may be contacted at the addresses and telephone numbers blow:

Dr Suganthi John
Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics
School of English, Drama, American & Canadian Studies
Tel: [redacted]
Email: [redacted]

Dr Petra Schoofs
Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics
School of English, Drama, American & Canadian Studies
Tel: [redacted]
Email: [redacted]

صفحة المعلومات

المقال التأملي

عنوان الدراسة: دراسة نقدية لعوامل عديدة يمكن أن تأثر على معتقدات معلمي ومعلمات اللغة الإنجليزية (ما قبل الخدمة) حول تعلم وتعليم اللغة من منظور سعودي

اسم الباحث: متعب الفوزان

البريد الإلكتروني: [redacted]

يتم القيام بهذه الدراسة كمتطلب لدرجة الدكتوراه في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية و اللغويات التطبيقية، كلية الدراسات الإنجليزية، الأمريكية و الكندية، و الدراما في جامعة بيرمنجهام.

إن الغرض من هذه الدراسة هو جمع بيانات لبحثي والذي يهدف لتحديد معتقدات معلمي ومعلمات اللغة الإنجليزية السعوديون (ما قبل الخدمة) نحو عمليات تعلم وتعليم اللغة الإنجليزية قبل وبعد التدريب الميداني. تتقصى الدراسة كذلك مدى تأثير نوع البرنامج الذي يلتحق به المعلمون والمعلمات لمرحلة البكالوريوس على معتقداتهم. سوف تجتهد هذه الدراسة لتقديم بعض المقترحات العملية التي قد تكون مفيدة عند تصميم برامج اللغة الإنجليزية لمرحلة البكالوريوس.

عند موافقتك على المشاركة في هذه الدراسة، سيطلب منكم المشاركة في كتابة مقال أو مقالين تأملية حول موضوع واحد. يمكن القيام بهذه المهمة في المنزل حيث سيكون لديكم أسبوع لتسليم كل مقال.

لن يطلب منكم كتابة اسمكم. ماسيتم طلبه هو رقمكم الجامعي حيث سيساعد ذلك في ربط إجاباتكم على أدوات البحث الأخرى. كذلك، في حال رغبتكم في الحصول على نتائج هذه الدراسة فسيطلب منكم كتابة بريدكم الإلكتروني.

سوف يتم تخزين النسخ الورقية للإستبيان في خزانة آمنة في مكتب الباحث، بينما سيتم تخزين النسخ الإلكترونية في نظام تخزين تقني آمن تابع لجامعة بيرمنجهام. الأشخاص المخولون للإطلاع على معلوماتكم السرية هم الباحث ومشرفي بحثه فقط. لن يتم الكشف عن هوياتكم أثناء تحليل أو نشر نتائج هذه الدراسة مستقبلاً.

فى حال رغبتكم بالإنسحاب من هذه الدراسة، يرجى التواصل معي على البريد الإلكتروني التالي: [redacted]

أو من خلال مكتبي في كلية العلوم و الدراسات الإنسانية بالقويعية، جامعة شقراء، المملكة العربية السعودية.

سيتم التخلص فوراً من أي بيانات تم جمعها عند إنسحابكم من المشاركة في هذه الدراسة.

هذه الدراسة تجرى تحت إشراف كل من الدكتورة سقانثي جون و الدكتورة بيترا سكوفز، حيث يمكن التواصل معهما عبر العنواين و الأرقام التالية:

الدكتورة سقانثي جون
قسم اللغة الإنجليزية و اللغويات التطبيقية

كلية الدراسات الإنجليزية، الأمريكية، الكندية، والدراما
تلفون [redacted]
بريد إلكتروني:
[redacted]
الدكتورة بيترا سكوفز
قسم اللغة الإنجليزية و اللغويات التطبيقية
كلية الدراسات الإنجليزية، الأمريكية، الكندية، والدراما
تلفون [redacted]
بريد إلكتروني:
[redacted]

Appendix: (9) Informed consent form of reflective essays

Reflective essays

A Critical Study of Various Factors That Could Influence EFL Trainee Teachers' Beliefs about Learning and Teaching: A Saudi Arabian Perspective

Name of researcher: Mateb Alfawzan

Email address: [redacted]

Postal address: Dept. of English, Alquwayiyah College of Sciences and Humanities, Shaqra University, Saudi Arabia

By giving permission, I understand that:

- I have been informed about the nature of this study and I willingly consent to take part in it.
- I am willing to write two reflective essays, and I agree for the content to be used by the researcher.
- I may withdraw from the study, during or within a maximum of one year ending on 13/4/2020, without having to provide any kind of explanation.
- I am 22 years old or older.

Student Number: _____

Gender: Male □ Female □

Email: *(Only if you would like to be notified about the results of the study)*
_____

Date: _____

Signature: _____

الموافقة المستنيرة

المقال التأملي

عنوان الدراسة: دراسة نقدية لعوامل عديدة يمكن أن تأثر على معتقدات معلمي ومعلمات اللغة الإنجليزية (ما قبل الخدمة) حول تعلم وتعليم اللغة من منظور سعودي

إسم الباحث: متعب الفوزان

البريد الإلكتروني: [redacted]

العنوان البريدي: قسم اللغة الإنجليزية، كلية العلوم و الدراسات الإنسانية بالقويعية، جامعة شقراء، المملكة العربية السعودية

بإعطائي الإذن، أفهم التالي:

. تم إطلاعي على طبيعة هذه الدراسة و اقبل المشاركة فيها.

. أنا موافق على المشاركة في الإستبيان و أوافق على تحليل محتوى الإستبيان ونشره من قبل الباحث.

. أستطيع الإنسحاب من هذه الدراسة خلال فترة سنة واحدة كحد أقصى تنتهي بتاريخ 2020/4/13 م، بدون الحاجة لإبداء الأسباب.

. عمري 22 عاماً أو أكبر

الرقم الجامعي:

الجنس: □ **ذكر** □ **أنثى**

البريد الإلكتروني: *(فقط في حال كنتم ترغبون في الحصول على نتائج هذا الدراسة بعد صدورها)*

.....

التاريخ: / /

التوقيع: .....

Appendix: (10) Rubric of reflective essays task

Reflective essay Questions

- Do you recall any particular episode/s from your past basic schooling or undergraduate education that had a big influence on your language learning and teaching convictions?
- What are they? What is your opinion about it/ them?
- In as much detail as possible, how did/ will they influence your learning/ teaching preferences?

- هل تتذكر تجارب أو مواقف سابقة من تعليمك الأساسي أو الجامعي ذات تأثير كبير على قناعاتك التعليمية أو التدريسية؟

- ماهو ذلك الموقف/ المواقف؟ ماهو رأيك حوله/ حولها؟

- بأكبر قدر ممكن من التفاصيل، كيف أثرت/ ستأثر تلك المواقف على تفضيلاتك التعلمية/ التدريسية؟

Appendix: (11) Information sheet of classroom observations (pre-service teachers)

Title of Study: A Critical Study of Various Factors That Could Influence EFL Trainee Teachers' Beliefs about Learning and Teaching: A Saudi Arabian Perspective

Name of researcher: *Mateb Alfawzan*

Email address: [redacted]

This study is being conducted as part of my PhD degree in the Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics, School of English, Drama, American & Canadian Studies, University of Birmingham. The study has received ethical approval.

The purpose of this study is to collect data for my research which seek to identify Saudi undergraduate EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding learning and teaching processes before and after embarking on the teaching practice. The study also investigates whether pre-service teachers' beliefs are impacted by the type of undergraduate programme of study they are enrolled in. The study will strive to introduce some practical suggestions which could be useful when designing undergraduate EFL programmes.

If you agree to participate, the researcher will observe you for three teaching sessions at your designated school of teaching practice. The researcher will be interested in the teaching processes. Where relevant, audio-recorded content and written notes about aspects of the teaching processes will be taken by the researcher.

Participants will not be asked to provide their names, but only their student ID numbers which will help link their answers to the different research instruments. Only the participants who wish to be notified about the results of the study will be requested to provide their email addresses.

Hard copies of data will be stored in a secure cabinet in the researcher's office, whereas electronic data will be stored on a secure University IT system. Only the researcher and his supervisors will have access to confidential information. Any analysis of the data will be anonymous, and your identity will not be revealed in the writing up of the study or any publication which might ensue.

Please contact me at the email address: [redacted] if you wish to withdraw from the study. Alternatively, I may also be reached at my postal address:

Dept. of English, Alquwayiyah College of Sciences and Humanities, Shaqra University, Saudi Arabia

Upon withdrawal, any data collected will be immediately destroyed.

This study is supervised by Dr Suganthi John and Dr Petra Schoofs, who may be contacted at the addresses and telephone numbers blow:

Dr Suganthi John
Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics
School of English, Drama, American & Canadian Studies
Tel: [redacted]
Email: [redacted]

Dr Petra Schoofs
Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics
School of English, Drama, American & Canadian Studies
Tel: [redacted]
Email: [redacted]

صفحة المعلومات (معلمي ما قبل الخدمة)

المراقبة الصفية

عنوان الدراسة: دراسة نقدية لعوامل عديدة يمكن أن تأثر على معتقدات معلمي ومعلمات اللغة الإنجليزية (ما قبل الخدمة) حول تعلم وتعليم اللغة من منظور سعودي

اسم الباحث: متعب الفوزان

البريد الإلكتروني: [redacted]

يتم القيام بهذه الدراسة كمتطلب لدرجة الدكتوراه في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية و اللغويات التطبيقية، كلية الدراسات الإنجليزية، الأمريكية و الكندية، و الدراما في جامعة بيرمنجهام.

إن الغرض من هذه الدراسة هو جمع بيانات لبحثي والذي يهدف لتحديد معتقدات معلمي ومعلمات اللغة الإنجليزية السعوديون (ما قبل الخدمة) نحو عمليات تعلم وتعليم اللغة الإنجليزية قبل وبعد التدريب الميداني. تتقصى الدراسة كذلك مدى تأثير نوع البرنامج الذي يلتحق به المعلمون والمعلمات لمرحلة البكالوريوس على معتقداتهم. سوف تجتهد هذه الدراسة لتقديم بعض المقترحات العملية التي قد تكون مفيدة عند تصميم برامج اللغة الإنجليزية لمرحلة البكالوريوس.

عند موافقتك على المشاركة في هذه الدراسة، سيقوم الباحث بالمراقبة الصفية لكم بعدد 3 حصص دراسية في المدرسة التي ستقومون بالتدريب الميداني للتدريس بها. أثناء ذلك، سيكون الباحث مهتماً بالعمليات المتعلقة بالتدريس. حيثما كان ذلك مناسباً، سيقوم الباحث بتسجيل محتوى صوتي وأخذ ملاحضات مكتوبة حول جوانب تتعلق بالعملية التدريسية.

لن يطلب منكم كتابة اسمكم. ماسيتم طلبه هو رقمكم الجامعي حيث سيساعد ذلك في ربط إجاباتكم على أدوات البحث الأخرى. كذلك، في حال رغبتكم في الحصول على نتائج هذه الدراسة فسيطلب منكم كتابة بريدكم الإلكتروني.

سوف يتم تخزين النسخ الورقية للإستبيان في خزانة آمنة في مكتب الباحث، بينما سيتم تخزين النسخ الإلكترونية في نظام تخزين تقني آمن تابع لجامعة بيرمنجهام. الأشخاص المخولون للإطلاع على معلوماتكم السرية هم الباحث ومشرفي بحثه فقط. لن يتم الكشف عن هوياتكم أثناء تحليل أو نشر نتائج هذه الدراسة مستقبلاً.

في حال رغبتكم بالإنسحاب من هذه الدراسة، يرجى التواصل معي على البريد الإلكتروني التالي: [redacted]
أو من خلال مكتبي في كلية العلوم و الدراسات الإنسانية بالقويعية، جامعة شقراء، المملكة العربية السعودية.

سيتم التخلص فوراً من أي بيانات تم جمعها عند إنسحابكم من المشاركة في هذه الدراسة.

هذه الدراسة تجرى تحت إشراف كل من الدكتورة سقانثي جون و الدكتورة بيترا سكوفز، حيث يمكن التواصل معهما عبر العنواين و الأرقام التالية:

الدكتورة سقانثي جون

قسم اللغة الإنجليزية و اللغويات التطبيقية
كلية الدراسات الإنجليزية، الأمريكية، الكندية، والدراما
تلفون [redacted]
بريد إلكتروني:
[redacted]
الدكتورة بيترا سكوفر
قسم اللغة الإنجليزية و اللغويات التطبيقية
كلية الدراسات الإنجليزية، الأمريكية، الكندية، والدراما
تلفون [redacted]
بريد إلكتروني [redacted]

Appendix: (12) Informed consent form of classroom observations (pre-service teachers)

Classroom observations

Title of Study: A Critical Study of Various Factors That Could Influence EFL Trainee Teachers' Beliefs about Learning and Teaching: A Saudi Arabian Perspective

Name of researcher: Mateb Alfawzan

Email address: [redacted]

Postal address: Dept. of English, Alquwayiyah College of Sciences and Humanities, Shaqra University, Saudi Arabia

By signing this consent form, I understand that:

- I have been informed about the nature of this study and I willingly consent to take part in it.
- I am willing to participate in the classroom teaching observation sessions, and I agree to be tape-recorded and for notes about any aspect of my teaching to be taken by the researcher.
- I consent for the content to be analysed and published by the researcher.
- I may withdraw from the study, during or within a maximum of one year ending on 13/4/2020, without having to provide any kind of explanation.
- I am 22 years old or older.

Student Number: _____

Email: *(Only if you would like to be notified about the results of the study)*
_____

Date: _____

Signature: _____

الموافقة المستنيرة (معلمي ما قبل الخدمة)

المراقبة الصفية

عنوان الدراسة: دراسة نقدية لعوامل عديدة يمكن أن تأثر على معتقدات معلمي ومعلمات اللغة الإنجليزية (ما قبل الخدمة) حول تعلم وتعليم اللغة من منظور سعودي

إسم الباحث: متعب الفوزان

البريد الإلكتروني: [redacted]

العنوان البريدي: قسم اللغة الإنجليزية، كلية العلوم و الدراسات الإنسانية بالقويعية، جامعة شقراء، المملكة العربية السعودية

بإعطائي الإذن، أفهم التالي:

. تم إطلاعي على طبيعة هذه الدراسة و اقبل المشاركة فيها.

. أنا موافق على المشاركة في الإستبيان و أوافق على تحليل محتوى الإستبيان ونشره من قبل الباحث.

. أستطيع الإنسحاب من هذه الدراسة خلال فترة سنة واحدة كحد أقصى تنتهي بتاريخ 2020/4/13 م، بدون الحاجة لإبداء الأسباب.

. عمري 22 عاماً أو أكبر

الرقم الجامعي:

الجنس: □ **ذكر** □ **أنثى**

البريد الإلكتروني: *(فقط في حال كنتم ترغبون في الحصول على نتائج هذا الدراسة بعد صدورها)*

.....

التاريخ: / /

التوقيع: .....

Appendix: (13) Information sheet of classroom observations (students)

Title of Study: A Critical Study of Various Factors That Could Influence EFL Trainee Teachers' Beliefs about Learning and Teaching: A Saudi Arabian Perspective

Name of researcher: *Mateb Alfawzan*

Email address: [redacted]

This study is being conducted as part of my PhD degree in the Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics, School of English, Drama, American & Canadian Studies, University of Birmingham. The study has received ethical approval.

The purpose of this study is to collect data for my research which seek to identify Saudi undergraduate EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding learning and teaching processes before and after embarking on the teaching practice. The study also investigates whether pre-service teachers' beliefs are impacted by the type of undergraduate programme of study they are enrolled in. The study will strive to introduce some practical suggestions which could be useful when designing undergraduate EFL programmes.

If you agree to participate, you will attend three teaching sessions taught by your school's English teacher. The researcher will be present in all these sessions to observe the teacher and the teaching processes. Where relevant, audio-recorded content and written notes about the teacher will be taken by the researcher. As a student you will participate in the study, however, you are not the focus of it.

Participants will not be asked to provide their names, but only their student ID numbers which will help link their answers to the different research instruments. Only the participants who wish to be notified about the results of the study will be requested to provide their email addresses.

Hard copies of data will be stored in a secure cabinet in the researcher's office, whereas electronic data will be stored on a secure University IT system. Only the researcher and his supervisors will have access to confidential information. Any analysis of the data will be anonymous, and your identity will not be revealed in the writing up of the study or any publication which might ensue.

Please contact me at the email address: [redacted] if you wish to withdraw from the study. Alternatively, I may also be reached at my postal address:

Dept. of English, Alquwayiyah College of Sciences and Humanities, Shaqra University, Saudi Arabia

Upon withdrawal, any data collected will be immediately destroyed.

This study is supervised by Dr Suganthi John and Dr Petra Schoofs, who may be contacted at the addresses and telephone numbers blow:

Dr Suganthi John
Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics
School of English, Drama, American & Canadian Studies
Tel: [redacted]
Email: [redacted]

Dr Petra Schoofs
Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics
School of English, Drama, American & Canadian Studies
Tel: [redacted]
Email: [redacted]

صفحة المعلومات (الطلاب)

المراقبة الصفية

عنوان الدراسة: دراسة نقدية لعوامل عديدة يمكن أن تأثر على معتقدات معلمي ومعلمات اللغة الإنجليزية (ما قبل الخدمة) حول تعلم وتعليم اللغة من منظور سعودي

اسم الباحث: متعب الفوزان

البريد الإلكتروني: [redacted]

يتم القيام بهذه الدراسة كمتطلب لدرجة الدكتوراه في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية و اللغويات التطبيقية، كلية الدراسات الإنجليزية، الأمريكية و الكندية، و الدراما في جامعة بيرمنجهام.

إن الغرض من هذه الدراسة هو جمع بيانات لبحثي والذي يهدف لتحديد معتقدات معلمي ومعلمات اللغة الإنجليزية السعوديون (ما قبل الخدمة) نحو عمليات تعلم وتعليم اللغة الإنجليزية قبل وبعد التدريب الميداني. تتقصى الدراسة كذلك مدى تأثير نوع البرنامج الذي يلتحق به المعلمون والمعلمات لمرحلة البكالوريوس على معتقداتهم. سوف تجتهد هذه الدراسة لتقديم بعض المقترحات العملية التي قد تكون مفيدة عند تصميم برامج اللغة الإنجليزية لمرحلة البكالوريوس.

عند موافقتك على المشاركة في هذه الدراسة، سوف تلتحق بعدد ثلاث حصص دراسية يقوم بتدريسها معلم اللغة الإنجليزية في مدرستكم. سيكون الباحث متواجد طوال هذه الحصص الدراسية لمراقبة المعلم والعمليات التدريسية. حيثما كان ذلك مناسباً، سيقوم الباحث بتسجيل محتوى صوتي وأخذ ملاحضات مكتوبة حول جوانب تتعلق بالمعلم. كطالب ستشارك في هذه الدراسة إلا أنك لست محور إهتمامها.

لن يطلب منكم كتابة اسمكم. ماسيتم طلبه هو رقمكم الجامعي حيث سيساعد ذلك في ربط إجاباتكم على أدوات البحث الأخرى. كذلك، في حال رغبتكم في الحصول على نتائج هذه الدراسة فسيطلب منكم كتابة بريدكم الإلكتروني.

سوف يتم تخزين النسخ الورقية للإستبيان في خزانة آمنة في مكتب الباحث، بينما سيتم تخزين النسخ الإلكترونية في نظام تخزين تقني آمن تابع لجامعة بيرمنجهام. الأشخاص المخولون للإطلاع على معلوماتكم السرية هم الباحث ومشرفي بحثه فقط. لن يتم الكشف عن هوياتكم أثناء تحليل أو نشر نتائج هذه الدراسة مستقبلاً.

في حال رغبتكم بالإنسحاب من هذه الدراسة، يرجى التواصل معي على البريد الإلكتروني التالي:
[redacted]
أو من خلال مكتبي في كلية العلوم و الدراسات الإنسانية بالقويعية، جامعة شقراء، المملكة العربية السعودية.

سيتم التخلص فوراً من أي بيانات تم جمعها عند إنسحابكم من المشاركة في هذه الدراسة.

هذه الدراسة تجرى تحت إشراف كل من الدكتورة سقانثي جون و الدكتورة بيترا سكوفز، حيث يمكن التواصل معهما عبر العناوين و الأرقام التالية:

الدكتورة سقانثي جون
قسم اللغة الإنجليزية و اللغويات التطبيقية
كلية الدراسات الإنجليزية، الأمريكية، الكندية، والدراما
تلفون [redacted]
بريد إلكتروني:
[redacted]
الدكتورة بيترا سكوفز
قسم اللغة الإنجليزية و اللغويات التطبيقية
كلية الدراسات الإنجليزية، الأمريكية، الكندية، والدراما
تلفون [redacted]

Appendix: (14) Informed consent form of classroom observations (students)

Classroom observations

A Critical Study of Various Factors That Could Influence EFL Trainee Teachers' Beliefs about Learning and Teaching: A Saudi Arabian Perspective

Name of researcher: Mateb Alfawzan

Email address: [redacted]

Postal address: Dept. of English, Alquwayiyah College of Sciences and Humanities, Shaqra University, Saudi Arabia

By signing this consent form, I understand that:

- I have been informed about the nature of this study and I willingly consent to take part in it.
- I am willing to participate in the classroom teaching observation sessions, although I am not the focus of the study
- Although I am not the focus of the study, my in-class interaction with the teacher may be tape-recorded.
- No data about my performance will be analysed or published by the researcher.
- I may withdraw from the study, during or within a maximum of one year ending on 13/4/2020, without having to provide any kind of explanation.
- I am 18 years old or older.

Email: *(Only if you would like to be notified about the results of the study)*
_____

Date: _____

Signature: _____

الموافقة المستنيرة (الطلاب)

المراقبة الصفية

عنوان الدراسة: دراسة نقدية لعوامل عديدة يمكن أن تأثر على معتقدات معلمي ومعلمات اللغة الإنجليزية (ما قبل الخدمة) حول تعلم وتعليم اللغة من منظور سعودي

إسم الباحث: متعب الفوزان

البريد الإلكتروني: [redacted]

العنوان البريدي: قسم اللغة الإنجليزية، كلية العلوم و الدراسات الإنسانية بالقويعية، جامعة شقراء، المملكة العربية السعودية

بإعطائي الإذن، أفهم التالي:

. تم إطلاعي على طبيعة هذه الدراسة و اقبل المشاركة فيها.

. أنا موافق على المشاركة في الإستبيان و أوافق على تحليل محتوى الإستبيان ونشره من قبل الباحث.

. أستطيع الإنسحاب من هذه الدراسة خلال فترة سنة واحدة كحد أقصى تنتهي بتاريخ 2020/4/13 م، بدون الحاجة لإبداء الأسباب.

. عمري 22 عاماً أو أكبر

الرقم الجامعي:

الجنس: □ **ذكر** □ **أنثى**

البريد الإلكتروني: *(فقط في حال كنتم ترغبون في الحصول على نتائج هذا الدراسة بعد صدورها)*

.....

التاريخ: / /

التوقيع: .....

Appendix: (15) Sample semi-structured interview coded (PT 20)

PT 20

***Interviewer*: Hello and welcome to this interview. From your point of view, what qualities are associated with an effective teacher?**

Interviewee: Firstly, an effective teacher must have a really good mastery of the material. Secondly, they must have acceptance for the individual differences between students. Thirdly, they should engage all students, the good and not so good ones and not merely focus on the former group and neglect the latter.

Commented [MA1]: Good knowledge of the material to be taught **(Cognitive traits/ theoretical knowledge/ Teacher characteristics)**

Commented [MA2]: Accept individual differences between students **(Cognitive traits/ Teacher characteristics)**

Commented [MA3]: Engage all students **(Cognitive traits/ Teacher characteristics)**

***Interviewer*: Do you remember any of your teachers who you believe was a good one?**

Interviewee: Do you mean a teacher of English?

***Interviewer*: Not necessarily. Any teacher.**

Interviewee: When I was in year one (primary stage), I had an Arabic language teacher who taught me Reading module. I used to have a hard time with the alphabets, but thanks to that teacher's commitment I have overcome that obstacle.

Commented [MA4]: Committed **(Cognitive traits/ Teacher characteristics)**

***Interviewer*: Can you think of any key personal traits that were exhibited in that effective teacher and that made you still remember them until now?**

Interviewee: Of course. First, he liked the students. Second, he liked the teaching profession.

Commented [MA5]: Liked students **(Affective traits/ Teacher characteristics)**

Commented [MA6]: Liked the teaching profession **(Affective traits/ Teacher characteristics)**

***Interviewer*: Do you have a particular teaching approach that you stick to or you intend to do so?**

Interviewee: It depends on the lesson. There is, for example, a lesson that is based on listening and there is a lesson that is based on a grammar rule that you must explain. Of course, each lesson requires a certain teaching approach that you decide prior to the commencement of the lesson, at the stage where you plan for the lesson and its objectives.

Commented [MA7]: No one approach in particular **(Preferred teaching approach /Teaching approach)**

***Interviewer*: So you are saying there is no particular approach. It all depends on the nature of the lesson?**

Interviewee: There is no particular approach. It depends on the lesson.

***Interviewer*: Do you think it is necessary to motivate students to learn English?**

Interviewee: Yes. I strongly subscribe to this. It is impossible for a student to learn when they are obliged to. The student has to be receptive to the module, school and everything, which is the ideal environment for learning.

Commented [MA8]: Motivating students to learn English is necessary **(Motivation)**

***Interviewer*: How pertinent is classroom management for effective teaching?**

Interviewee: Classroom management is so important. It is impossible to teach a lesson and deliver it successfully without classroom management.

Commented [MA9]: Realisation of the importance of classroom management **(Classroom management)**

Commented [MA10]: A lesson cannot be delivered successfully without good classroom management **(Classroom management)**

1

***Interviewer*: What do you think of using the mother tongue (Arabic) to teaching English?**

Interviewee: It depends on students' stage of education. If they are in year five or six of primary education, it would be impossible to speak in English with them because they will not understand as you are teaching them the basics of English. Hence you use Arabic to teach them.

***Interviewer*: What is your policy with regards to error correction?**

Interviewee: It depends on the nature of the error. If it is a pronunciation error then the correction is indirect. I mean I do not say this is wrong, but instead I correct the error myself by reading the sentence in a correct way. However, if the error was a linguistic one which will ruin the sentence, I focus on the error and explain to the student what the error is.

***Interviewer*: So you correct the student directly?**

Interviewee: Yes, if the error was a linguistic one because this error will impede the student as it might lead them to a bad habit formation later on. But if the error had to do with pronunciation that does not have a big effect, I correct indirectly.

***Interviewer*: Do you find it successful?**

Interviewee: Yes. I do find it to be successful because if you constantly correct the student, their motivation for learning decreases and they refrain from participating in fear of making another error which will make them shy.

***Interviewer*: Do you think that the teacher should be allowed to deviate from the prescribed curriculum?**

Interviewee: If there was spare time or if this was a substitute lecture then the teacher may give the students religious and awareness matters, but if it was the scheduled lesson the teacher must deliver it completely and not divert from it.

***Interviewer*: But is it okay if the teacher gave them some English materials which are not part of the curriculum?**

Interviewee: No, I do not support this.

***Interviewer*: So the teacher should stick to the prescribed curriculum?**

Interviewee: Yes, because the management has put forward a certain goal for this curriculum so you must achieve that goal.

***Interviewer*: Do you think a language teacher should utilise teaching aids/ materials to facilitate the comprehension of their lesson? What are they?**

Interviewee: Surely the more tools and means for facilitating the lesson there is, the easier the lesson gets, and the higher the receptivity of students towards the lesson it is going to be.

***Interviewer*: What are they?**

Commented [MA11]: L1 can be used in primary school **(Use of L1 to teach the L2/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA12]: The approach to correcting errors depends on the nature of the error **(Error correction/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA13]: In-direct correction by the teacher if the error was in pronunciation **(Error correction/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA14]: Direct correction by the teacher if the error was a linguistic one **(Error correction/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA15]: Linguistic errors leads to bad habit formation **(Error correction/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA16]: Pronunciation errors have less effect than linguistic ones **(Error correction/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA17]: Constant error correction decreases students' motivation for learning **(Error correction/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA18]: Constant error correction lead students to refrain from participation as they will be shy to make more errors **(Error correction/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA19]: Against deviating from the prescribed curriculum in scheduled lessons and do not mind it if the lecture was a substitute one or if there was spare time **(Deviating from the prescribed curriculum/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA20]: Realisation of the need to stick to the prescribed curriculum **(Deviating from the prescribed curriculum/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA21]: The more teaching aids used, the better **(Using teaching aids/ Teaching approach)**

Interviewee: For example, PowerPoint, audio content, worksheets as post-lesson activities. I find these to be beneficial for the student.

***Interviewer*: Do you believe that teaching pedagogies should be an indispensable component of any language teaching programme?**

Interviewee: Yes, that is right because each lesson is to be taught in a certain way. You choose the lesson and specify the goal such as the teaching method, the teaching aids.

***Interviewer*: Is there anything else we did not talk about that you want to discuss?**

Interviewee: No, thank you. The questions were comprehensive.

Commented [MA22]: Examples of effective teaching aids **(Using teaching aids/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA23]: Realisation of the Importance of incorporating teaching methods modules in English language teaching programmes **(Importance of incorporating teaching methods modules in English language teaching programmes)**

Commented [MA24]: Teaching methods modules help the teacher to choose the teaching method that meets the goals of his lesson **(Importance of incorporating teaching methods modules in English language teaching programmes)**

Appendix: (16) Sample semi-structured interview coded (PT 5)

PT 5

Interviewer: Hello and welcome to this interview. If I can begin by asking you what your thoughts are regarding the characteristics of an effective teacher?

Interviewee: An effective teacher should be kind and treat students with respect not just I teach my lesson and go away.

Commented [MA1]: Kind and respect students **(Affective traits traits/ Teacher characteristics)**

Interviewer: Do you remember any of your teachers who were effective teachers?

Interviewee: Honestly, Yes.

Interviewer: What characteristics were displayed in them?

Interviewee: They listened to the students. Every one of us even the weakest student amongst us got excellent mark in the English language because of that teacher.

Commented [MA2]: Listen to students **(Affective traits traits/ Teacher characteristics)**

Interviewer: Do you have a particular approach or way that you intend to stick to when teaching English?

Interviewee: There must be diversity so I could see which one I would work best for me. If I only used one way 70% of students might understand, if I change it maybe 80% would understand. This way I have developed so I try to use different ones so everybody can understand.

Commented [MA3]: Diversifying teaching methods **(Preferred teaching approach)**

Interviewer: Do you believe it is necessary to motivate students to learn English?

Interviewee: Sure.

Commented [MA4]: Importance of motivation for language learning **(Motivation)**

Interviewer: Why?

Interviewee: Because it is the modern-day language . Some people say it is Chinese but pretty much English is the most widely spoken language.

Commented [MA5]: Necessity of motivating students about the utility of English for communication **(Motivation)**

Interviewer: How relevant is classroom management for effective classroom management?

Interviewee: A classroom must be disciplined. If the students did not have regards for the teacher they will get out of control. That is why in the first lecture you become serious and explain to them the guidelines to maintain your prestige.

Commented [MA6]: Realisation of the significance of classroom management **(Classroom management)**

Commented [MA7]: A teacher's inability to control students have negative implications on the students **(Classroom management)**

Interviewer: Alright. What do you think about using Arabic to teach English?

Interviewee: This is okay for early stages. If you are to teach primary students there will be difficulty because you would have just started teaching them the basics. Speak Arabic so you can clarify certain things. But as someone majored in English you should completely refrain from using Arabic. This way you are reinforcing the English language, but if you spoke in Arabic and then you switched to English there will be reliance over Arabic. We try to avoid this situation so the concentration on English increases.

Commented [MA8]: L1 can be used in foundational stages like primary school **(Use of L1 to teach the L2/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA9]: L2 should be used solely to teach the L2 in more advanced stages **(Use of L1 to teach the L2/ Teaching approach)**

Interviewer: What is your policy with respect to error correction?

1

Interviewee: If a student makes an error I let him try once or twice and if he still could not get it right I correct the error on the blackboard.

Interviewer: Do not you think that this might embarrass him in front of his classmates?

Interviewee: It would but next time it would push him forward. He would say I will learn to avoid the embarrassment and he would avoid making errors.

Interviewer: Do you think a teacher should be allowed to deviate from the prescribed curriculum?

Interviewee: It depends, if he was giving information related to awareness or from his own personal experiences there is no problem. But, for him to teach you from outside the curriculum and ask you about it in the exam you will, as a consequence, be in a critical situation. You would have got no information.

Interviewer: What is your opinion about using teaching aids in teaching?

Interviewee: I find them excellent, such as smartboard and projector especially in literary modules like drama for example. You study about a play and the doctor plays a video about the characters so that the student can link the name of the character with a specific name, 'learning by linking'.

Interviewer: Do you believe that teaching methods modules should be an indispensable component of any English language teaching programme?

Interviewee: Yes. Because through them a student learn about new teaching methods and in the teaching practice you could use of these methods, or maybe the doctor uses it to teach you so you would have understood its advantages and disadvantages.

Interviewer: At the end of the interview, do you have anything to add?

Interviewee: No. Thank you.

Commented [MA10]: Self-correction **(Error correction/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA11]: Direct correction by the teacher **(Error correction/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA12]: Correcting a student's error before the class is embarrassing but could be useful **(Error correction/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA13]: Against deviation if it meant students would be tested on outside content **(Deviating from the prescribed curriculum/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA14]: Appreciate the role of teaching aids **(Using teaching aids/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA15]: Example of effective teaching aids **(Using teaching aids/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA16]: Learning by linking **(Using teaching aids/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA17]: Realisation of the importance of incorporating teaching methods modules in English language teaching programmes **(Importance of incorporating teaching methods modules in English language teaching programmes)**

Commented [MA18]: Teaching methods modules could introduce students to new methods unknown to them **(Importance of incorporating teaching methods modules in English language teaching programmes)**

Commented [MA19]: Studying teaching methods modules points out the advantages and disadvantages of ach method **(Importance of incorporating teaching methods modules in English language teaching programmes)**

Appendix: (17) Sample reflective essay coded (PT 21, Male)

PT 21 (Male)

Yes, there are a lot of situations that I have been and I have a great impact on my educational convictions. The first situation is when I was in high school. I was 17 years old. I had an English class taught by a very helpful teacher, and he gave a very nice advice to all students. In the periods of results, I failed in his subject because of the weak marks. I was very disappointed with my educational life, and I thought my life will be so bad. In the next term, I took the same class by the same teacher. In the first lecture he asked me to go with him to his office, then he told me that the life does not stop because of one subject or two subjects or even if a full year or two has been delayed in your educational life. He said "work hard and you will see the very good marks. Nothing is difficult in the life, nothing is possible".

Commented [MA1]: Incident: Teacher as a source of motivation or demotivation **(Characteristics of teachers/ Teacher personality)**

After that situation, if he asked any homework, I answered it at perfect time, and if he say there is an exam, I study it before a few weeks. He supports me so much, and he was like my older brother. At the end of the term, I got full mark in his class. This situation has affected to my educational life so much because, most of the subjects in that year were full marks, even after high school, in the college I got full marks in the most subjects, and I was one of the best students.

Commented [MA2]: Impact: Outstanding academic performance

The second situation was in college. There was a doctor who taught us by a strange way, he was sitting on the chair without speaking. He just say "practice the language together", and then I feel he is not a good teacher. After a few weeks, I discovered that he was using the silent method to teach us. He just answered our questions if it is necessary. The situation affected to me that there are many ways to teach the language, and if I become a teacher, I will use this method to teach my students.

Commented [MA3]: Incident: Specific teaching method **(Teaching Style/ Teaching approach)**

Commented [MA4]: Impact: Learning of new teaching methods to be used when teaching in the future

Appendix: (18) Sample reflective essay coded (PT 22, Female)

PT 22 (Female)

Yes, I remember when I was in third year of college, I was studying for the first time Translation and Interpretation. I believe that experience of studying this subject has a real impact on my knowledge of learning the language itself. The experience of translating and interpreting was so beneficial for me as a second language learner. The fact that I was able to translate and interpret has a huge effect on my fluency when I speak. However, the study of linguistics, syntax, phonetics and so on I don't want to say it wasn't important but it wasn't what I really need to improve my knowledge of English language. Moreover I think studying Applied Linguistics like Translation has really helped understanding and speak the English language. It was the pillar in order to learn or I prefer to say understand how the language works the other subject of English language like syntax and so on

Commented [MA1]: Incident: studying Translation and Interpretation is usefil **(The usefulness of certain modules)**

Commented [MA2]: Impact: Great benefit and positive impact for Translation modules on understanding and fluency in the FL

Appendix: (19) Perceived beliefs vs. actual classroom practices (PT 20)

PT 20

Classroom Observation

Category	Perceived Belief	Actual Practice	In-class notes	In/congruence
Error correction	- Correcting students' errors should be **indirectly** (Recast) if the error is in pronunciation because they are less serious - Correcting students' errors should be **directly** if the error is a linguistic one. - Uncorrected students' linguistic errors could lead to a bad habit formation.		- No evidence of error correction was observed. Students. - STs listened passively and repeated after the speaker (cassette).	N/A
The use of mother tongue (L1) in teaching the target language (L2)	- L1 should be used in **primary or foundational stages exclusively**. - Using the L2 when teaching primary students would cause them to fail to understand the teacher's explanation.	- PT: (**Using the L1**) "Today, our lesson is 'My country'. I want you to listen carefully to the audio clip and repeat the new words after the speaker. Then you are going to copy the new words from the blackboard into your notebooks".	- PT used L1 throughout the lesson to give directions and for communication in the classroom.	Incongruence.
Use of teaching aids	- Viewed the **importance of utilising teaching aids in teaching.** - Highlighted the **importance of diversifying teaching aids in teaching.**	- The lesson of PT was predominantly based on an **audio content** a cassette and it was the sole teaching aid employed. - The blackboard was also used	- Cassette.	Congruence.

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	- Teaching aids such as **PowerPoint** presentations, **audio content** and worksheets are useful.	to write the new vocabulary words from the cassette.		
Motivation	- Recognised the **necessity of the motivation factor** for language learning. - To keep their students engaged and motivated during a lesson a teacher needs to show a good mastery of the material they are teaching, ask questions, and give equal attention to all students.	- Aiming to draw the attention of the PT to select him to translate the meaning of a word on the blackboard, one St stood up which infuriated the PT. The PT **yelled** at him **"sit down!"** -	- Demotivating. - Threatening (to ask St leave the classroom). - Tense atmosphere. - No instance of praise of any student was observed.	Incongruence.

Appendix: (20) Perceived beliefs vs. actual classroom practices (PT 21)

PT 21

Classroom Observation

Category	Perceived Belief	Actual Practice	In-class notes	In/congruence
Error correction	- Students errors should be corrected through **self-correction** at first. - Correcting students' errors can then be done **indirectly** (Recast) if the error persists. - Tolerance for students' errors in pronunciation as they are natural outcome of the learning process (yet such errors must be corrected)	- PT Explaining (must-mustn't) rule. On the smart board there are two pictures (river and No sign) and there is the verb 'swim'. Students were asked to apply the rule above to interpret what No sign by the river meant. ST: You must swim… PT: ***No. it is not you must**. If you use 'you must' it means you have to swim. *It is 'you mustn't'. - PT: who can tell me something you must do? ST: You must go going the mosque. PT: **You must go to the mosque.	- *Direct error correction method was used. - **Indirect (Recast) error correction methods was used.	Both congruence and incongruence.
The use of mother tongue (L1) in teaching the target language (L2)	- L1 should be used in **primary or foundational stages exclusively**. - Using the L2 to teach primary students is not suitable.	- PT: **(Using the L1)** So (must and mustn't) is what? [asking STs for what these words meant]. STs: **(using the L1)** 'yajib', 'la yajib'.	- L1 used for explanation and communication between the PT and STs.	Incongruence.

1

Use of teaching aids	- Viewed the **importance of utilising teaching aids in teaching.** - Highlighted the **importance of diversifying teaching aids in teaching.** - Teaching aids such as pictures and gestures are useful.	- **PowerPoint slides** were used to explain (must-mustn't) grammar rule. - Relevant **pictures** were incorporated into the PowerPoint slides to promote STs participation.	- Lesson was in the resources room (equipped with technological facilities). - PowerPoint slides	Congruence.
Motivation	- Recognised the **necessity of the motivation factor** for language learning. - When the stress of a learner is low they will acquire more (Affective Filter Hypothesis). - To keep their students engaged and motivated during a lesson a teacher needs to utilise pair/group work and diversify classroom activities.	- PT: Here we have five pictures and five words. There are pictures you must do and others you mustn't do. Ok, number 1. - ST: You must wear your seatbelt when driving. - PT: **Well-done**. Who want to do number 2?	- Motivating, engaging, encouraging and praising. - Began the lesson saying the lesson is so easy. - STs were fully engaged and showed understanding of the lesson by producing correct sentences using (must- mustn't) rule. - PT offered to re-explain the lesson, but STs thanked him and insisted they have understood the rule.	Congruence.

Appendix: (21) SPSS Outputs

T-Test: Between Time 1 and Time 2

Tests of Normality for time 1 & 2

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Construct1a	.115	48	.131	.981	48	.621
Construct1b	.121	48	.077	.973	48	.340
Construct2a	.138	48	.022	.960	48	.101
Construct2b	.199	48	.000	.952	48	.048
Construct3a	.106	48	.200*	.971	48	.281
Construct3b	.126	48	.056	.963	48	.139
Construct4a	.126	48	.054	.977	48	.463
Construct4b	.155	48	.006	.968	48	.217
Construct5a	.212	48	.000	.874	48	.000
Construct5b	.253	48	.000	.836	48	.000

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Paired Samples Statistics

Survey			Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Edu	Pair 1	Construct1a	3.8278	48	.59158	.08539
		Construct1b	3.7972	48	.54813	.07912
	Pair 2	Construct2a	3.5521	48	.64975	.09378
		Construct2b	3.5972	48	.54125	.07812
	Pair 3	Construct3a	3.8924	48	.43906	.06337
		Construct3b	3.8229	48	.38654	.05579
	Pair 4	Construct4a	3.8385	48	.55026	.07942
		Construct4b	3.8042	48	.49248	.07108
	Pair 5	Construct5a	4.2813	48	.66769	.09637
		Construct5b	4.4375	48	.56139	.08103
Non-Edu	Pair 1	Construct1a	.	0[a]	.	.
		Construct1b	.	0[a]	.	.
	Pair 2	Construct2a	.	0[a]	.	.
		Construct2b	.	0[a]	.	.
	Pair 3	Construct3a	.	0[a]	.	.
		Construct3b	.	0[a]	.	.
	Pair 4	Construct4a	.	0[a]	.	.
		Construct4b	.	0[a]	.	.
	Pair 5	Construct5a	.	0[a]	.	.
		Construct5b	.	0[a]	.	.

a. The correlation and t cannot be computed because there are no valid pairs.

T-Test: Between Genders

Tests of Normality for males and females

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Gender	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Construct1a	Male	.143	24	.200*	.975	24	.792
	Female	.166	24	.086	.937	24	.139
Construct1b	Male	.180	24	.043	.933	24	.115
	Female	.110	24	.200*	.943	24	.187
Construct2a	Male	.202	24	.012	.896	24	.018
	Female	.217	24	.005	.933	24	.114
Construct2b	Male	.230	24	.002	.914	24	.043
	Female	.178	24	.048	.926	24	.078
Construct3a	Male	.178	24	.047	.935	24	.123
	Female	.165	24	.091	.959	24	.422
Construct3b	Male	.176	24	.052	.953	24	.311
	Female	.167	24	.081	.939	24	.152
Construct4a	Male	.158	24	.124	.976	24	.804
	Female	.110	24	.200*	.966	24	.564
Construct4b	Male	.116	24	.200*	.965	24	.547
	Female	.219	24	.004	.916	24	.048
Construct5a	Male	.195	24	.019	.913	24	.040
	Female	.282	24	.000	.786	24	.000
Construct5b	Male	.260	24	.000	.872	24	.006
	Female	.262	24	.000	.775	24	.000

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Group Statistics

Survey		Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Edu	Construct1a	Male	24	3.7158	.58677	.11977
		Female	24	3.9397	.58710	.11984
	Construct1b	Male	25	3.6400	.56633	.11327
		Female	24	3.8966	.58838	.12010
	Construct2a	Male	24	3.4514	.64171	.13099
		Female	24	3.6528	.65555	.13381
	Construct2b	Male	25	3.4933	.57831	.11566
		Female	24	3.6806	.49616	.10128
	Construct3a	Male	24	3.7333	.34641	.07071
		Female	24	4.0514	.47027	.09599
	Construct3b	Male	25	3.6867	.33444	.06689
		Female	24	3.9375	.41649	.08501
	Construct4a	Male	24	3.7104	.58495	.11940
		Female	24	3.9667	.49226	.10048
	Construct4b	Male	25	3.6400	.51640	.10328
		Female	24	3.9417	.44323	.09047
	Construct5a	Male	24	4.2083	.52990	.10817
		Female	24	4.3542	.78684	.16061
	Construct5b	Male	25	4.3200	.57518	.11504
		Female	24	4.4792	.66723	.13620
Non-Edu	Construct1a	Male	0[a]	.	.	.
		Female	0[a]	.	.	.
	Construct1b	Male	23	3.5023	.53445	.11144
		Female	25	3.7000	.56018	.11204

	Construct2a	Male	0[a]	.	.	.
		Female	0[a]	.	.	.
	Construct2b	Male	23	3.2101	.57783	.12048
		Female	25	3.7867	.67960	.13592
	Construct3a	Male	0[a]	.	.	.
		Female	0[a]	.	.	.
	Construct3b	Male	23	3.6797	.56771	.11838
		Female	25	3.6507	.50682	.10136
	Construct4a	Male	0[a]	.	.	.
		Female	0[a]	.	.	.
	Construct4b	Male	23	3.5304	.59881	.12486
		Female	25	3.6880	.73404	.14681
	Construct5a	Male	0[a]	.	.	.
		Female	0[a]	.	.	.
	Construct5b	Male	23	4.4348	.58977	.12298
		Female	25	4.2400	.70887	.14177

a. t cannot be computed because
b. at least one of the groups is empty.

Paired Samples Test[a]

			Paired Differences							
						95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
Survey			Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Edu	Pair 1	Construct1a - Construct1b	.03051	.18786	.02712	-.02404	.08506	1.125	47	.266
	Pair 2	Construct2a - Construct2b	-.04514	.33464	.04830	-.14231	.05203	-.935	47	.355
	Pair 3	Construct3a - Construct3b	.06944	.23174	.03345	.00215	.13673	2.076	47	.043
	Pair 4	Construct4a - Construct4b	.03438	.30338	.04379	-.05372	.12247	.785	47	.436
	Pair 5	Construct5a - Construct5b	-.15625	.43949	.06343	-.28386	-.02864	-2.463	47	.017

a. No statistics are computed for one or more split files

Independent Samples Test

Survey			Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
										95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
			F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Edu	Construct1a	Equal variances assumed	.087	.769	-1.322	46	.193	-.22396	.16943	-.56501	.11709
		Equal variances not assumed			-1.322	46.000	.193	-.22396	.16943	-.56501	.11709
	Construct1b	Equal variances assumed	.185	.669	-1.555	47	.127	-.25658	.16496	-.58843	.07527
		Equal variances not assumed			-1.554	46.702	.127	-.25658	.16509	-.58875	.07559
	Construct2a	Equal variances assumed	.148	.703	-1.075	46	.288	-.20139	.18725	-.57831	.17553
		Equal variances not assumed			-1.075	45.979	.288	-.20139	.18725	-.57832	.17554
	Construct2b	Equal variances assumed	.163	.688	-1.214	47	.231	-.18722	.15422	-.49748	.12304
		Equal variances not assumed			-1.218	46.430	.229	-.18722	.15374	-.49660	.12216
	Construct3a	Equal variances assumed	2.006	.163	-2.668	46	.011	-.31806	.11923	-.55805	-.07807
		Equal variances not assumed			-2.668	42.283	.011	-.31806	.11923	-.55862	-.07749
	Construct3b	Equal variances assumed	1.334	.254	-2.329	47	.024	-.25083	.10769	-.46747	-.03419
		Equal variances not assumed			-2.319	44.096	.025	-.25083	.10817	-.46883	-.03284
	Construct4a	Equal variances assumed	.645	.426	-1.642	46	.107	-.25625	.15606	-.57038	.05788
		Equal variances not assumed			-1.642	44.696	.108	-.25625	.15606	-.57062	.05812
	Construct4b	Equal variances assumed	1.070	.306	-2.190	47	.034	-.30167	.13774	-.57876	-.02457
		Equal variances not assumed			-2.197	46.434	.033	-.30167	.13730	-.57797	-.02536
	Construct5a	Equal variances assumed	2.884	.096	-.753	46	.455	-.14583	.19364	-.53561	.24394
		Equal variances not assumed			-.753	40.304	.456	-.14583	.19364	-.53710	.24543
	Construct5b	Equal variances assumed	.259	.613	-.896	47	.375	-.15917	.17773	-.51672	.19838
		Equal variances not assumed			-.893	45.386	.377	-.15917	.17828	-.51815	.19982
Non-Edu	Construct1b	Equal variances assumed	.370	.546	-1.248	46	.218	-.19767	.15834	-.51639	.12105
		Equal variances not assumed			-1.251	45.933	.217	-.19767	.15802	-.51577	.12042
	Construct2b	Equal variances assumed	.494	.486	-3.152	46	.003	-.57652	.18288	-.94464	-.20840
		Equal variances not assumed			-3.174	45.732	.003	-.57652	.18163	-.94219	-.21085
	Construct3b	Equal variances assumed	.584	.449	.187	46	.852	.02904	.15510	-.28315	.34124
		Equal variances not assumed			.186	44.272	.853	.02904	.15584	-.28499	.34307
	Construct4b	Equal variances assumed	.593	.445	-.811	46	.422	-.15757	.19438	-.54883	.23370
		Equal variances not assumed			-.818	45.377	.418	-.15757	.19272	-.54564	.23051
	Construct5b	Equal variances assumed	.685	.412	1.030	46	.308	.19478	.18914	-.18593	.57549
		Equal variances not assumed			1.038	45.563	.305	.19478	.18768	-.18309	.57266

Test: Between Edu group and Non-Edu in Time 2

Tests of Normality for Edu group and Non-Edu in Time 2

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Survey	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Construct1b	Edu	.118	49	.085	.968	49	.195
	Non-Edu	.117	48	.096	.954	48	.058
Construct2b	Edu	.195	49	.000	.954	49	.055
	Non-Edu	.181	48	.000	.960	48	.104
Construct3b	Edu	.124	49	.058	.961	49	.108
	Non-Edu	.087	48	.200*	.976	48	.434
Construct4b	Edu	.154	49	.005	.968	49	.198
	Non-Edu	.152	48	.007	.948	48	.034
Construct5b	Edu	.259	49	.000	.823	49	.000
	Non-Edu	.205	48	.000	.854	48	.000

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Group Statistics

	Survey	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Construct1b	Edu	49	3.7657	.58570	.08367
	Non-Edu	48	3.6053	.55127	.07957
Construct2b	Edu	49	3.5850	.54233	.07748
	Non-Edu	48	3.5104	.69054	.09967
Construct3b	Edu	49	3.8095	.39382	.05626
	Non-Edu	48	3.6646	.53126	.07668
Construct4b	Edu	49	3.7878	.50068	.07153
	Non-Edu	48	3.6125	.67030	.09675
Construct5b	Edu	49	4.3980	.62065	.08866
	Non-Edu	48	4.3333	.65504	.09455

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Construct 1b	Equal variances assumed	.069	.794	1.388	95	.168	.16039	.11554	-.06898	.38976
	Equal variances not assumed			1.389	94.851	.168	.16039	.11546	-.06884	.38962
Construct 2b	Equal variances assumed	2.088	.152	.593	95	.555	.07462	.12593	-.17538	.32462
	Equal variances not assumed			.591	89.104	.556	.07462	.12624	-.17622	.32545
Construct 3b	Equal variances assumed	1.397	.240	1.529	95	.130	.14494	.09482	-.04330	.33318
	Equal variances not assumed			1.524	86.637	.131	.14494	.09511	-.04410	.33399
Construct 4b	Equal variances assumed	3.104	.081	1.461	95	.147	.17526	.11996	-.06290	.41341

	Equal variances not assumed			1.457	86.975	.149	.17526	.12032	-.06389	.41440
Construct 5b	Equal variances assumed	1.343	.249	.499	95	.619	.06463	.12954	-.19255	.32180
	Equal variances not assumed			.499	94.473	.619	.06463	.12962	-.19271	.32197

Descriptive: Overall Constructs

Descriptive Statistics

Survey		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Edu	Construct1a	48	3.8278	.59158
	Construct1b	49	3.7657	.58570
	Construct2a	48	3.5521	.64975
	Construct2b	49	3.5850	.54233
	Construct3a	48	3.8924	.43906
	Construct3b	49	3.8095	.39382
	Construct4a	48	3.8385	.55026
	Construct4b	49	3.7878	.50068
	Construct5a	48	4.2813	.66769
	Construct5b	49	4.3980	.62065
	Valid N (listwise)	48		
Non-Edu	Construct1a	0		
	Construct1b	48	3.6053	.55127
	Construct2a	0		
	Construct2b	48	3.5104	.69054
	Construct3a	0		
	Construct3b	48	3.6646	.53126
	Construct4a	0		
	Construct4b	48	3.6125	.67030
	Construct5a	0		
	Construct5b	48	4.3333	.65504
	Valid N (listwise)	0		

Question 4 + 11 q11b

Survey			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Edu	Valid	1.00	1	2.0	2.0	2.0
		2.00	5	10.2	10.2	12.2
		3.00	14	28.6	28.6	40.8
		4.00	21	42.9	42.9	83.7
		5.00	8	16.3	16.3	100.0
		Total	49	100.0	100.0	
Non-Edu	Valid	1.00	3	6.3	6.3	6.3
		2.00	2	4.2	4.2	10.4
		3.00	15	31.3	31.3	41.7
		4.00	18	37.5	37.5	79.2
		5.00	10	20.8	20.8	100.0
		Total	48	100.0	100.0	

Descriptive Statistics

Survey		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Edu	q4	45	3.0444	.70568
	q11	45	2.2222	1.06363
	q4b	49	3.0204	.66112
	q11b	49	3.6122	.95342

	Valid N (listwise)	45		
Non-Edu	q4	0		
	q11	0		
	q4b	48	2.9167	.53924
	q11b	48	3.6250	1.06441
	Valid N (listwise)	0		

Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Test Statistics[a]

	q4b - q4
Z	-4.495[b]
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

a. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

b. Based on positive ranks.

Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Test Statistics[a]

	q11b - q11
Z	-1.382[b]
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.167

a. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

b. Based on negative ranks.

Mann-Whitney Test

Ranks

	Survey	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
q4b	Edu	49	49.84	2442.00
	Non-Edu	48	48.15	2311.00
	Total	97		
q11b	Edu	49	49.00	2401.00
	Non-Edu	48	49.00	2352.00
	Total	97		

Test Statistics[a]

	q4b	q11b
Mann-Whitney U	1135.000	1176.000
Wilcoxon W	2311.000	2352.000
Z	-.381	.000
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.703	1.000

a. Grouping Variable: Survey

Pearson's r simple correlation between the constructs of BALLI prior to and after teaching practice

Paired Samples Correlations[a]

Survey			N	Correlation	Sig.
Edu	Pair 1	Construct1a & Construct1b	48	.948	.000
	Pair 2	Construct2a & Construct2b	48	.858	.000
	Pair 3	Construct3a & Construct3b	48	.850	.000
	Pair 4	Construct4a & Construct4b	48	.836	.000
	Pair 5	Construct5a & Construct5b	48	.757	.000

Appendix: (22) How mean and standard deviation scores are interpreted

Table (A): Interpretations of the Mean value range

The Mean value range	Interpretation
1.00 – 1.80	Strong disagreement
1.81 – 2.60	Slight disagreement
2.61 – 3.40	Neutrality
3.41 – 4.20	Slight Agreement
4.21 – 5.00	Strong agreement

The above table was constructed following the steps below (Alatwi, 2019; Ramos, 2021):

1- Number of categories of Likert scale is 5

2- The range = max – min = 5-1 = 4

3- Dividing the range by number of categories = 4/5 = 0.80

4- The first interval of the Mean value range is: 1 to 1+0.80 = 1 to 1.80

5- Therefore, we add 0.80 to the next interval, and so on.

With regards to the interpretation of the standard deviation (sd), it is interpreted as follows: If a distribution is normal, then the mean plus or minus two standard deviations will encompass about 95 percent of all the scores in the distribution (Fraenkel, Wallen, Hyun, 2015).