Title of project: Designing a Teacher Orientation Course for English as a Foreign Language Faculty at Saudi Arabian Universities: the case of a private university in Riyadh.

A thesis submitted to Middlesex University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Professional Studies in Applied Linguistics

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Abstract

This study took place at an English language Centre (Foundation Institute at a university) in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, to address the problem of English instructors’ attrition. After studying the related literature, that connects the faculty attrition to the implementation of a purpose-made faculty professional development programmes, it was evident that popular TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) courses that instructors had attended prior to their joining the university were unable to answer this problem. The purpose of the present research is to interrogate the top-down model of educational expertise and to improve educational provision in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teacher education. A mixed methods approach was conducted to research the topic and relevant instruments were designed. After careful local stakeholders’ mapping, students who joined the Foundation, students who finished the English programme at the Foundation, and English instructors at the Foundation were selected. A 93 Likert-scale items questionnaire was distributed to 170 students who joined the Foundation Programme, and a series of interviews were conducted with 24 students who finished the English programme and 9 EFL (English as a Foreign Language) instructors. After collecting the data, these were analysed using descriptive statistics for the quantitative data and grounded theory to find the major themes in the interviews. The major findings from the quantitative data reveal that Saudi students of English are motivated to learn English, despite their poor English language learning experiences during basic education; while the qualitative data suggest that EFL students are low language learning strategies users. Finally, the findings show that the
EFL instructors are not aware of either the Saudi Arabian educational context, or the Saudi culture before arriving in the Saudi Kingdom, and they would welcome an induction before they join the Foundation Centre. The data from the three research instruments were used to inform the design of a unique of its kind bottom-up orientation course, based on the specific sociocultural context that prepares newly-employed EFL instructors more efficiently for dealing with Saudi students, informing them about effective teaching English methods and materials development, and dealing with administrative issues.

**Keywords:** English as a Foreign Language (EFL), Professional development, Saudi Arabia, Individual differences in learning, Intercultural Awareness, Teacher orientation course
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**Disclaimer:** The views expressed in this document are mine and are not necessarily the views of my supervisory team, examiners or Middlesex University
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GLOSSARY


**CELTA**: Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults. Administered by Cambridge English based in England. This acronym refers to a specific, branded TEFL certificate course (TESOL, 2018).

**EAP**: English for academic purposes.

**EIL**: English as an international language.

**EFL**: English as a foreign language. English language programs in non-English-speaking countries where English is not used as the lingua franca. It is also used in some U.S. university programs where international students study English and are likely to return to their home countries after graduation or finishing course work (TESOL, 2018).

**EL/ ELL**: English learner/ English Language Learner. This acronym is being used more often to refer to a student in an ESL or EFL program (TESOL, 2018).

**ELF**: English as a lingua franca.

**ELP**: English language proficiency.

**ELT**: English language teaching.

**ESL**: English as a second language. English language programs in English-speaking countries where students learn English as a second language.

**ESOL**: English to speakers of other languages. Used to describe elementary and secondary English language programs. It is also used to designate classes within adult basic education programs. Similar to EAL, it recognises that many students know multiple languages (TESOL, 2018).

**GCC**: Gulf Cooperation Countries (Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Kuwait, Oman, Bahrain).

**IELTS**: International English Language Testing System. An international standardised test of English language proficiency for non-native English language speakers. The test is jointly developed and administered by the British Council, Cambridge English Language Assessment, and IDP Education, and is used by most Australian, Canadian, British, and New Zealand institutions of higher education (TESOL, 2018).
**IEP:** Intensive English program. Usually refers to a university program designed to help students improve their English before matriculating.

**Intercultural Communication:** an interdisciplinary field of research that studies how people communicate and understand each other across group boundaries or discourse systems of various sorts including national, geographical, linguistic, ethnic, economic, religion, occupation, class or gender-related boundaries and how such boundaries affect language use (Richards, 2002).

**KSA:** Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

**L2:** Second language.

**Language Attitudes:** the attitudes which speakers of different languages or language varieties have toward each other’s languages or even to their own language. Expressions of positive or negative feelings toward a language may reflect impressions of linguistic difficulty or simplicity, ease or difficulty of learning, degree of importance, elegance, social status, etc. Attitudes toward a language may also show what people feel about the speakers of that language. Language attitudes may have an effect on foreign language learning. The measuring of language attitudes provides information which is useful in language teaching, teacher training, and language planning (Richards, 2002).

**LEP:** Limited English proficient. Often used to describe the language skills of students in ESL or EFL programs. This term was more widely used in the past and is sometimes still used in policy and legislation. However, this acronym has fallen out of favor because it is based on a deficit model of language learning (TESOL, 2018).

**LLS:** Language Learning Strategies

**Motivation:** the driving force in any situation that leads to action. In the field of language learning, it refers to a combination of the learner’s attitudes, desires, and willingness to expend effort in order to learn the foreign language. Motivation is generally considered to be one of the primary causes of success and failure in second/foreign language teaching (Richards, 2002).

**NEST / NS:** Native English Speaking Teachers / Native Speakers.

**NNEST:** Non Native English Speaking Teachers.

**PBL / PBI:** Project-Based Learning / Project-Based Instruction.

**RSA:** Royal Society of Arts. Partner in the Oxford Cambridge RSA group, which administers a variety of exams for lifelong learning.

**SLA:** Second language acquisition.

**TEFL:** Teaching English as a foreign language. Often used to refer to teacher education programs in EFL.
**TESL:** Teaching English as a second language. Often used to refer to teacher education programs in **ESL**.

**TESOL:** Teaching English to speakers of other languages. A professional activity that requires specialised training. It is also used to refer to TESOL International Association, as well as its signature event, the annual TESOL international convention (TESOL, 2018).

**TOEFL:** Test of English as a foreign language. A standardised test developed by ETS (formerly Educational Testing Service) used to measure the English language ability of nonnative-English-speaking students applying to U.S. institutions of higher education (TESOL, 2018)
PREFACE: Personal motivation for the research

I joined the language centre at a university in Saudi Arabia in 2011, along with six new male English teachers. Four out of the six newly employed members were native English speaking teachers (NEST) most of them from North America, a Jordanian colleague and myself were non-native English speaking teachers (NNEST).

The first day we had to report at the English Language Centre, we had the induction. The orientation course took place over three-four hours and mainly was about admin duties, like attendance taking, using the online platform, without any substantial insight into the actual teaching approach.

No wonder that the problems started very early: one of the NEST colleagues resigned after the first three days of teaching telling us that he preferred teaching Korean students to Saudis. After a few days, another NEST colleague entered the office shouting because some of his students called him ‘kelp’ (dog) which is a very insulting word in Arabic. Another colleague was complaining about management practices. It seemed that we all experienced students lacking the willingness to study English. In general, I felt I was not prepared to teach Saudi students, but eventually, I became more acquainted with the students after nearly a year.

At the beginning of my third year at the Centre I was appointed as the Professional Development Coordinator, and apart from my instructional duties, I had to design professional development opportunities for the English instructors at the Centre. Wearing this hat, I organised two international conferences open to all English instructors in the area, among them a conference on motivation, since all instructors complained about “students’ low motivation”.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The Saudi Arabian governments have invested a lot in education to turn the Saudi economy from an oil-driven to a knowledge-based economy. Knowledge of English plays a vital role toward this goal; instruction of English is introduced as early as the elementary school, with daily classes, and the universities in the Kingdom use English as the Medium of Instruction (EMI). Students who want to follow tertiary education studies after high school attend a programme prior to their university studies that will sharpen students' English language competency and soft skills. This programme comes under different names, such as Preparatory Year Programme (PYP), Foundation, English Language Centre Programme, or Intensive English Programme, and it is usually offered by the universities and in some limited cases by educational companies from the private sector.

Most private and public universities rely on expatriate English teachers to teach English at the Preparatory Year Programmes of the universities. Many of these instructors are Native English Speaking Teachers (NEST) who are recent Master in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (MA TESOL) graduates/ CELTA holders or come to the Middle East for the first time. Upon their arrival, English teachers attend a short orientation course at best or are thrown in the deep waters of instruction at worst. Employers believe that instructors’ prior studies are enough to handle the Saudi students and the challenges that teaching and living in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) present, so an orientation course is not necessary. Thus the majority of the universities in KSA do not offer an orientation course to the newly joining Faculty (Al-Hazmi, 2003).
For many instructors, the first difference comes with gender segregation in the Kingdom. Male and female staff and students use different entrances to buildings, or even different buildings and campuses or if they are in the same classroom, usually a partition keeps them separate. Another difference is that English teachers are surprised to find that Saudi university students’ English proficiency is not up to the required level, especially after ten years of studying English in General Education. Most teachers attribute this to “students’ low motivation” and “negative attitudes toward the English language”.

However, all these differences are a part of the considerations for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) faculty beginning to teach in the KSA, and new staff needs to be well-informed before they start their instructional duties. An orientation course which will be informed by several stakeholders from the Saudi socio-educational context, rather than a general orientation course, usually designed elsewhere and presents the best-practices at an ESL context, is highly needed.

The present chapter serves as the introduction to the research study. It provides the background to the research, the research aims, the research questions, and concludes with a short overview of the thesis structure.
1.2 Purpose, Aims, and Objective

The purpose of the present study is to interrogate the top-down model of educational expertise in EFL teacher education and to provide alternative professional opportunities to improve educational provision in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). Although top-down courses, such as introductory TEFL courses and MA TESOL programmes can be instrumental in presenting best practices and the theoretical background to novice EFL instructors, they are designed in BANA (Britain, Australia, North America) countries, having in mind the ESL students in those countries, and by no means, these courses may be offered for EFL faculty’s professional development who teach overseas (Moore-Jones, 2014; Dogancay-Aktuna, 2006). To fulfil this purpose, the aim of the present study is the development of bottom-up EFL professional development courses that are informed by research at the local context, i.e. the views, beliefs, and practices of stakeholders like students and instructors should inform the design of professional development courses. To achieve this aim, the objective of this research is the design of an EFL faculty orientation course for EFL instructors who want to teach English at Saudi Arabian universities.

Students come to the university with their own set of beliefs and attitudes developed by the social and educational context, and their past experiences to learn English. On the other hand, instructors arrive with their views, a top-down training and most might have had to adjust their beliefs and practices to the context. This bottom-up research might inform beneficial professional development opportunities preparation and attrition of faculty. Although there are EFL teacher training courses, these do not prepare the teacher-trainees adequately for teaching in the Gulf and especially in Saudi Arabia, since these courses adopt a rather culture-free approach, since they are not culturally-bound to any
country. Thus, the development of a tailor-made orientation course that would address the social and educational contexts in Saudi Arabia. An orientation course that would inform newly hired teachers of the Saudi educational context, the EFL students’ individual differences (i.e. motivation, attitudes, strategies, etc.), as well as the knowledge of existing EFL faculty who are aware of the ELT context in Saudi Arabia.

1.2.1 Distinctive Contribution to Knowledge

There is substantial research on the importance of cultural awareness in education (Belli, 2018; Alrashidi & Phan, 2015), on motivation and attitudes of Saudis toward learning English in journals, (for instance, Alqahtani, 2017; Al Mamun Bhuiyan, 2016b) and even PhD theses (Massri, 2017; AlShehri, 2014) on parental influence on Saudi students (Al Mamun Bhuiyan, 2016a), on Saudi students’ strategies to learning English (Meniado, 2016), and the problem of EFL teacher high turn-over at Saudi universities is being recognised (Iqbal, 2010). However, there is a gap in connecting this research to the development of an EFL teacher orientation course. Since the possibility that there will always be EFL instructors available to come and join the Saudi universities exists, the faculty attrition issue has been recognised but has not been appropriately addressed. Thus, the first distinctive contribution to knowledge is linked to theory: intercultural communication should be a basic component in an EFL faculty induction course. Thus a body of the Saudi Arabian sociocultural knowledge should be built and inform the intercultural communication component of the course. The second contribution is linked to practice: to conceptualise and provide the practical design of a bottom-up EFL faculty orientation course can address the issue of the EFL faculty attrition, as well as potentially improve the lives of learners and teachers of ELF in KSA. A part of the practical distinctive contribution of the present research study is the stakeholders’ mapping. To design the orientation course, several
stakeholders contributed -by answering the questionnaires, or being interviewed- to pro-
vide information about the Saudi socio-educational context; i.e. students about their high
school English language learning experiences, students about their English language ex-
periences at the University Language Centre and Instructors who lived and taught in the
Saudi university.

1.3 The Saudi Arabian Context

Saudi Arabia occupies most of the Arabian Peninsula. The Kingdom is strategically lo-
cated as a crossroad among three continents: Europe to the north, Asia to the east and
Africa to the west (Jamjoom, 2012).

Riyadh, the country’s capital city, is the largest of the thirteen Saudi Emirates, with a
population of about seven million. The second-largest city of four million people, Jeddah, is
the Red Sea port and the primary entrance for Muslim pilgrims to Mekkah and Medinah.
Jeddah is considered to be Saudi’s commercial centre, with a cosmopolitan outlook due to
hundred of years of contact with the international pilgrimage, as well as the international
port (Jamjoom, 2012).

The beginning of the Saudi Arabian nation lies in the partnership between the ruling
family of Al-Saud and the Mohamed bin Abdul Wahhab’s puritanical Muslim movement of
the 18th century. “The essence of Wahhabism lies in a fierce monotheism and the indivisi-
bility of state and religion…. it declares jihad on Muslims who were perceived to have de-
viated from the true path of Islam” (Jamjoom, 2012: 44).

King Abdul-Aziz Al Saud laid the basis of the current Saudi Arabian state on 8th Jan-
uary 1926. By 1932, he unified the country and established the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
The partnership between the ruling family and Wahhabism “continued and the new king-
dom was (and continues to be) ruled under the Islamic Shari’a law” (Jamjoom, 2012: 45).
Wahhabism is a crucial factor to consider when analysing education, the curriculum, the teaching materials and teaching methods. Its importance as a factor in all governmental decisions cannot be underestimated. The state justifies this by the special significance of the country as a birthplace of the Prophet and Islam.

The other significant factor is the substantial wealth generated by oil discovery and export which has allowed Saudi Arabia to undergo rapid development and import a disproportionate number of expatriates. In 2003, the ratio of employees in the Kingdom was 55.1% expatriates to 44.9% Saudis. Most Saudi employees (46.9) were employed in the public sector (e.g. banks) (Table 1.1) while a significant number of Saudis were unemployed. In education, the ratio is more revealing as 90% of the faculty at private universities, and 40.2% at public universities are from outside KSA, most of them from Western countries (Hamdan Alghamdi, 2014), while English teachers in General Education (Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary schools) are predominantly Saudis (Al-Sheghayer, 2014a).

Table 1.1: Manpower Structure by Occupation and Nationality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Group</th>
<th>Percentage Share: Total</th>
<th>Percentage Share: Saudis</th>
<th>Percentage Share: Expatriates</th>
<th>Share of Saudis</th>
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<td>Administrative</td>
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<td>Scientific and technical Professions</td>
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<td>Clerical</td>
<td>7.2</td>
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<td>7.2</td>
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<td>Service Workers</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>46.9</td>
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<td>Agricultural Workers</td>
<td>8.4</td>
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<td>8.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Production and Similar Workers</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>49.5</td>
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<td>All Occupational groups (%)</td>
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<td>100.0</td>
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<td>All Occupational Groups (Number)</td>
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<td>3,516,393</td>
<td>4,313,750</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Ministry of Economy and Planning-Central Department of Statistics, UNDP-Saudi Arabia, 2003, p82)
1.3.1 Saudi schooling and attitudes toward Western Civilisation

A Saudi high school student sits at his desk, opens a textbook titled Monotheism and reads on the topic of Judgement Day: “…the Hour will not come until Muslims will fight the Jews, and Muslims will kill all Jews”. These extreme views in the textbooks reflected the views of the Kingdom’s anti-Western stance until the 1990s (Sennott, 2002).

Despite poll findings that highlight considerable opposition among Arab public opinion toward the Western culture, Arab parents and students are more eager than ever to seek out Western-style university education. More specifically, polling in 2010 from numerous organisations revealed predominantly negative views of the western countries, especially the United States; e.g. 75% of Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates citizens expressed unfavourable views, in Jordan 63% and 83% of the Palestinian Territories support Anti-Western groups (Kull, 2011). Tessler (2003), from the University of Michigan, reported that in 2002, that young Arabs (under 25) shared favourable opinions about the US education, they had mixed beliefs about freedom in the US and as far as politics was concerned Arabs were firmly against; 90%, 53% and 3% respectively. As they grow older their positive views declined, e.g. 65% have positive views about the US education, 45% about the US freedom and only 3% about politics (Tessler & Gao, 2005).

Some significant reasons, mentioned in the literature, for the divergence between the Euro-American values and the Islamic values are the gender roles, the sexual behaviour, the views on family and religion and the US-led western policy on Israel. These topics, from the researcher’s experience (although this list is not exclusive), are considered banned in EFL textbooks, and relevant discussions in class are very risky; more specifical-ly:
• The status of the woman has improved in the Western world, which still that is not the case in the Islamic countries (Mazrui, 2004), until very recently (2017) women could not even drive a car, or be spectators at sports events (until 2018).

• The pre-marital sex and homosexuality, which are considered ‘haram’ (illegal and punishable) according to the Muslim religion (Mazrui, 2004).

• In the West, a young person can leave the family house upon completion of the 18th year (or earlier in some cases) while in the Arab World, a person can leave the family house only to get married.

• The Western Atheism has shocked the traditional Muslim people (Mazrui, 2004) and

• The favourable treatment of Zionism over the Palestinian brothers has angered many Muslims (Lacey, 2009).

Three significant events formed the current education in Arab countries. The first one was the Iran revolution in 1979: the Shah, the Western-favoured monarch who modernised Iran, was deposed and a theocratic state was established. The second was the siege of the Grand Mosque in Mecca, again in 1979, by a group of young Sunni Muslims who protested against the Western-type reformations in Saudi Arabia. The last event was the terrorist attack in the US, on September 11, 2001 (Lewis, 2003).

The response of the Arab monarchs in 1979 was an even more heavily religious-based education curriculum (Lacey, 2009), which created millions of pious but unemployed young people. Even in the present days, the subject of religion occupies a good part of the syllabus at different levels, i.e. starting with 50% of the set curriculum in elementary school and gradually declining to 30% in secondary and 20% in tertiary. Until 2001, the primary, secondary and higher education had followed the traditional Qur’anic teaching and doctrines, the Saudi youth was the ticking time bomb (Bradley, 2005). The response of the Arab monarchs in 2001, after the World Trade Center attack, was to open up their markets
and since US visas were then difficult to be issued (Lacey 2009), western universities opened campuses in the GCC countries, and these universities are still mushrooming (Ghabra & Arnold, 2007).

However, according to Sennott (2002), the Saudi connection to the September 11th events brought external as well as internal pressure for change, but still, the reformation is on-going. Whereas old school textbooks were replaced by ones showing some tolerance among Christians, Jews and non-Wahhabi Muslims, according to the Center for Religious Freedom of Hudson Institute (2009) “basically continue to propagate an ideology of the inferiority of other religions” (See Appendix E for excerpts from Saudi Ministry 2007-2008 textbooks). Furthermore, Swan and Smith (2001) found that in many areas of the Arabian peninsula, western values and influences are very unpopular since there is a long history of distrust between the Arab World and the Western countries, the USA and Britain, in particular. However, according to the researcher’s experience, change takes place gradually, and many of the points raised in the literature seven or ten years ago are not witnessed now.

English is the leading foreign language enjoying a prestigious position in many countries, including Saudi Arabia, especially after the discovery of oil in the region, the founding of Arabian-American Oil Company (Aramco) in 1944 and the end of World War II. English is neither a national nor an official language in Arabia, but it is the most widely taught foreign language at all stages of the educational system, from elementary school through higher education (since 2005). Many Saudi learners started studying English during upper secondary education; although very recently, in 2012, English was introduced to elementary schools (or even pre-school in some cases). However, the problem is that most students are far from attaining the desired level of proficiency (Al-Seghayer, 2014a) either in receptive or productive skills or in both. Despite being exposed to English instruction for a
long time at different levels at school, the reasons for the poor foreign language skills of students have long been a matter of discussion among educators. Although a considerable amount of time, effort and money are spent, learners are unable to go beyond the basic level, and they experience difficulty in developing their level of proficiency unless they are highly self-motivated (Karahan, 2007).

Despite the recent (post-2000s) desire of Arab leaders to transform their populations into ‘knowledge societies’, schools and universities fail to prepare students adequately for the demands of the 21st Century (Labidi, 2010). More recently, Khan (2011) confirmed that in spite of proper lesson planning, highly qualified instructors, curriculum and effective administration, the English language learning process seemed to be futile. Al Zubeiry (2012) attributed the students’ low English proficiency to their low motivation to learn and use English. This view appears to be true across the nations in the area, especially the Gulf nations: in Iran (Sayadian & Lashkarian 2010), in Jordan (Haq, 1982), in Libya (Youssef, 2012), in Saudi Arabia (Khan, 2011; Al Zubeiry, 2012), in the UAE (Randal et al., 2010). More specifically, in the study conducted by Haq (1982), it was concluded that the vast majority of Arab students fumble in their writing skills.

Khan (2011) stated that in the Arab educational context, Arabs face linguistic barriers, lack of motivation of the students and teachers, lack of dedication and commitment and lack of teaching/learning strategies training and professional development.

In April 2012, Dr Mohammed Errihani, an Arab-American professor at Purdue University, at his plenary talk at King Saud University, stressed that the most daunting challenges that Saudi students face in studying in the US are poor study skills, over-dependence on “wastah” (knowing someone in power who can help them), lack of motivation, poor soft skills, such as time management and lack of integration of language skills with the new technology (Arab News, 2012).
What Professor Errihani proposed was a new idea of curriculum development, or better a centrally designed curriculum that identifies the “processes of inquiry and deliberation that drive teaching and learning” (Richards, 2013: p.15); processes such as investigation, decision-making reflection, critical thinking, making choices, cooperating with others, and so on. Content is chosen based on how it promotes the use of these processes and thus “education, as induction into knowledge, is successful to the extent that it makes the behavioural outcomes of the students unpredictable” (Stenhouse, 1970: in Richards, 2013:15).

1.3.2 Saudi Vision 2030

The declining dependency on oil forced Saudi Arabia to devise a vision and a mission to transform its economy. So In 2016, to ensure the prosperity of the Saudi Kingdom, King Salman bin Abdulaziz and the Crown Prince Mohammed bin Salman launched an ambitious plan that aims to transform the Saudi economy in line with other developed countries in the West. Vision 2030 seeks to develop the Kingdom using an investment-based model (Yusuf, 2017). Education is at the heart of this plan as the Kingdom will need “educated and skilled workforce” (Yusuf, 2017, p. 111). The question remains if the current social and religious reality in Saudi Arabia, as shown above, can co-exist with its emerging economic reality, in a fast-changing world and at a volatile region such as the Middle East, especially since the Arab Spring and the wars in Syria and Yemen.

Although background literature about Vision 2030 and English language is scarce, and English is never mentioned directly in the Vision 2030 handbook, improving English language learning is related to the successful implementation of the Vision 2030 (Al-Zahrani & Rajab, 2017) as English is the lingua franca (ELF) that will help Saudis maintain economic relationships in the international arena. However, the main obstacle is still the stu-
dent's low English language competency as well as their low motivation to learn English (Yusuf, 2017). Mitchell and Alfuraih (2017) also believed that English language learning is the tool for the Kingdom’s economic growth and while they agreed with Yusuf (2017) that students' English language level is below the expectations after studying English for ten years, they strongly supported that Vision 2030 provides the need for English teachers' professional development programmes in several areas, such as pedagogies, curriculum, and teaching practicum.

1.3.3 A New Urban Culture

Currently though, through the explosion of technology and particularly with the increased profits from the petrochemical industry, Saudi Arabia has experienced a significant change, and students of this generation are experiencing many attractive sources to distract their focus from the studies. On the other hand, the smartphones connected to the social media, the influences they receive from the western countries, even their diet habits or clothes multiply the opportunities for students to use English; as Miller and Caudet (2010) stated:

“The explosion of the market for mobile phones and the internet during the last five years has opened the door to a completely new way of writing in vernacular Arabic, either in Latin or in Arabic script. In Latin script, numbers have been used to represent Arabic letters in an iconic way: 7 for the pharyngeal ح and 3 for the pharyngeal ة. In many chat sites, one finds code-mixing of different languages (English-standard Arabic and vernacular Arabic ('aamiyya) for the Middle East, French-standard Arabic and vernacular Arabic (dariija) for North Africa) as well as an integration of icons, etc. We are witnessing a move towards a free written expression, which was not available before and which may have im-
important repercussions on the relationship between writing and language norms more generally.” (p. 248)

Together with the internet, social media such as Facebook, Twitter and YouTube foster a quick world-wide view of western culture. Saudi Arabia’s cities are witnessing new urban cultures and construction sites heavily influenced by western civilisation, e.g. Burj al Mamlakah, Burj Al Faisaliah and King Abdullah Financial District (KAFD) in Riyadh, and even educational institutions such as King Abdullah University of Science and Technology (KAUST), or King Saud University, influenced by the skyscrapers and university campuses typically found in the Unites States of America (USA).

Many Arabs have embraced aspects of Western life. Kabsah, a home-made dish of rice, with spices, and chicken, might not be Saudi’s youth first option anymore, as the chains of fast-food restaurants are mushrooming across the Arab world: McDonald’s in Cairo, Costa Coffee in Beirut, Fatburger in Riyadh, KFC in Sana’a, Yemen. Even in small towns like Nizwa, Oman, a Pizza Hut restaurant can be found. American food is popular. American clothes are popular; numerous students come to the class in a thobe (the long white traditional outfit for men), wearing baseball caps, or Nike shoes.

The vast majority of the clerks at the popular malls, the food courts and the western hypermarkets, i.e. Carrefour, or Danube, etc. are non-Arabs. Usually, they originate from the Philippines, and as they do not speak Arabic, they communicate in English with the clients. So Saudis, especially in urban areas, use English every day to buy food, clothes, and groceries. My students confirmed that younger Saudis usually hold the entire conversation in English, whereas older generations use only content words in English, though especially older women use content words in English, mixed with Arabic.

Nearly every house of the upper and middle class in Saudi (both classes constitute more than 80% of the Kingdom’s population) has employed at least one Asian or African
maid. The language of communication between the family members and the maid is English(es), so the children grow up learning an English-pidgin variety. Regarding youth speech, Miller and Caudet (2010) stated that: “Arabic-based youth speech forms appear to be at the crossing of various influences: popular vernacular means of joking and teasing, interaction with American youth speech, the influence of Black American style through hip-hop for all, etc. In this sense, youth speech, as well as the emergence of a ‘youth’ social category associated with mobile phones, leisure, music, commercials, etc., represent the quintessence of a new globalised category” (p. 248).

All official documents and correspondence in the public sector, need to be written in Arabic, however in almost all banks, businesses, hospitals, universities, and the private sector, English is the lingua franca, even for written documents. This unprecedented spread of English in the area is not without additional socio-political problems. There are many, as Randall and Samimi (2010) confirmed, “within the ... Arabic communities who are deeply concerned with the effect that such a language shift is having on the quality of the Arabic language…” (p.45). As I experienced from my students, there had been a debate about the necessity to preserve and spread the Arabic language and Muslim religion. It is a goal of the governments in the Arabian Peninsula to preserve and protect Arabic culture and language, and the governments make every effort through legislation to do so (Al Baik, 2008). In Dubai, the National Strategic Plan for 2016 specifically emphasises the need to enhance the Arabic language and local culture in society. The central theme of a major conference, organised in 2008, The Year of National Identity, was the degradation of the Arabic language. However, Randall & Samimi (2010), challenged the inconsistency between intended objectives to enhance Arabic language and culture and the reality on the streets and in the business world where English is used systematically.
1.3.4 Teaching English in General Education

One difference between classes in the Western world and Saudi Arabia is that all students in Saudi schools attend gender-segregated schools, with girls having only female teachers and boys only male teachers.

First of all, students attend the primary school which is six years (grades 1st-6th), then the intermediate school for three years (grades 7th-9th) and finally the secondary school for three years (grades 10th-12th). The school week is from Sunday to Thursday. In the primary schools, students attend six classes per day, in the intermediate and secondary schools they have seven classes per day. The school year is divided into two semesters of 18 weeks each.

English is introduced in 4th grade, and it is the only foreign language taught in the General Education. In primary level English is taught twice per week for 45 minutes each class, while in intermediate and secondary levels English is taught four times for 45 minutes each class.

The English teachers in General Education are predominantly from Saudi Arabia. At the primary level, 97% of the English teachers are from Saudi Arabia, while at an intermediate level the Saudi English teachers are 94%, and in secondary level 92% (Al-Seghayer, 2014a). The essential qualification to teach English in General Education is a Bachelor in English offered by many universities in the Kingdom; however, previous training is not a prerequisite to teach (AlFahadi, 2014). Therefore, many of the Saudi EFL teachers are unsuitable for teaching English due to their poor English language proficiency as well as their lack of knowledge on the profession (Al-Seghayer, 2014a).

The English textbooks used in General Education are Saudi Arabian culture-bound, as Alrashidi & Phan (2015) stated: “The Ministry of Education presented the English syllabus considering the beliefs, customs, values, and traditions of Saudi Arabian Society” (p.37).
These textbooks contain the student’s book, a workbook, audio-visual material, and the teacher’s book. The student’s book is an all-skills book providing students with exposure and practice of reading, listening, speaking, and writing skills. The workbook offers extra training in mainly grammar and vocabulary, while the teacher’s book offers tips for the teachers and the key to the activities, as well as photocopiable material. The teacher’s book adopts an adherence to the communicative language teaching approach.

In the actual class, there are several challenges. Among them, the over-reliance on translation to teach English and thus lack of real-world practice, the students’ low motivation, the students’ negative attitudes, and the lack of resources, i.e. data projectors, CD players, language labs, etc. (Alrashidi & Phan, 2015). As a result and despite the nine years of English instruction, students’ English proficiency is rather weak, and this has been reported in schools and universities (Rajab, 2013; Khan, 2011).
1.4 Higher Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

The wealth from the oil revenue had an impact on the development of the Saudi educational system. Since at the start of the oil exploitation, in 1938, the new Saudi Kingdom lacked skilled workers to assist the economy in thriving, thus soon it became imperative that the young Saudi school graduates should be able to join the country's labour market (Jamjoom, 2012). In the next decades, the Saudi education system enjoyed a rather slow development until a wave of rapid growth in the 2000s when technology and knowledge-driven global economy led the Government to give this sector highest priority for further development.

At the time of King Abdul-Aziz (1932-1953), the country had no tertiary education establishments. The first Saudi students to pursue higher education were sent in 1926 on a scholarship to Al-Azhar University in Egypt, mainly for religious studies (Jamjoom, 2012). However, the government soon realised the necessity of having its own higher education system and thus began to build and expand it.

Between 1949 to1960, the first college, with a Faculty of Sharia (Jurisprudence), was opened in Makkah in 1949. Approximately five years later, two colleges started their operations in Riyadh: the College of Jurisprudence and the College of Arabic Language. In 1957, King Saud University was established, which consisted of four colleges. The four colleges were the Faculty of Literature, Faculty of Science, Faculty of Management Sciences and Faculty of Pharmacy (Jamjoom 2012).

Between 1961 and 1980, more tertiary education institutions were established in different cities across the Kingdom. Among the existing eight universities, two were Islamic universities, while King Fahad University for Petroleum and Minerals specialised in engineering and geosciences (Bashshur, 2004; in Jamjoom, 2012). At the same time, the pro-
profession of teacher for General Education was becoming more appealing to the Saudi youth, so they were studying at the teacher training colleges and women’s colleges to secure their degree in education. “Female enrolment in these colleges has been relatively high, perhaps because teaching was the only profession available to women besides working in the health sector” (Jamjoom, 2012: 67).

Between 1981 and 2009, several post-secondary and tertiary institutions were established, most notably King Khalid University in the southern region, in 1998, as well as new forms of higher education were formed (private higher education institutions and community colleges). By 1998, the Saudi Kingdom had eighteen universities.

The sharp increase of the oil price in the 1970s, with all the social and economic development, brought to the country, “…affected Saudi attitudes toward certain professions and thus toward the type of higher education institutions Saudi students may choose to enrol in” (Jamjoom, 2012; p 70). University education is also important for social prestige and status apart from future employment prospects. Most importantly, it seems that university education is still highly regarded among all social classes. In arranged marriages, as Jamjoom (2012) confirmed, a university degree is a crucial aspect of the ability to get married and based on the researcher’s observations, the “price” of the bride goes up if she holds a bachelor’s degree.

Secondary school students prefer tertiary education for the fact that it is free. Public education in the KSA (from kindergarten to university) is provided for free to Saudi citizens. Furthermore, all Saudi students of higher education in the KSA receive monthly stipends of around $250. The university student stipends “constitute a great deal of the higher education budget, an amount that would be more than sufficient to build new universities” (Jamjoom, 2012; p.71). Al Khazim (2003) criticised the Saudi government for
their performance in reforming education to encourage government officials to work harder, and thus enhance the quality of education. Certain public universities have only recently begun to charge tuition fees for a programme for students who failed to be admitted in the regular programmes. In this programme, the courses are offered at night or in the late afternoon. The notion of tuition was introduced in the Saudi higher education system through the newly emerging private higher education sector.

After the great boom in national income, due to high oil prices between 1975-1985, the decline in oil prices in 1996 and consequent shrinkage of government income had a major impact on education expenditure (Jamjoom, 2012). Also, starting in 1991, the Saudi Governments started to pay for the costs of the Kuwait War. According to Niblock and Malik (2007), some Arab countries, including Saudi Arabia, financed 80% of the Kuwait war; due to this war, the Saudi Arabian Government incurred huge debt which affected its budget. This situation is only replicated in 2015 with low oil prices and Saudi Arabia financing two wars, in Syria and Yemen. The consequences of the current situation in education are not still visible.

The Kingdom entered the 2000s with a healthy financial outlook. The Saudi administration “was released from the burden of the debt generated by the Kuwait War, and the price of oil has increased steadily” (Jamjoom, 2012: 72). The allocated budget for higher education has increased by more than 200% between the years 2005-2009, from around $3 billion to around 10 billion US dollars (MOHE, 2010). More recently, the money allocated to the education system was skyrocketed to 25% of the Kingdom’s total budget (MoF, 2013). This budget would account for the current expansion in the Saudi higher education system. In the past ten years, under the late King Abdullah, Saudi Arabia has spent lavishly on higher education. A quarter of each yearly budget goes toward education and voca-
tional training; 2010's allocations, amounting to $16.5 billion, represent a 52.4% increase over those of 2009. The King Abdullah Scholarship Programme has sent more than 90,000 Saudis from middle and low-income families to pursue graduate studies abroad (Lindsey, 2010).

According to the Ministry's of Higher Education website (2015), the number of public universities in the country has risen from seven to twenty-one, and there are twenty-four new private universities; a number of them, i.e. King Saud University, King Abdulaziz University and King Fahad University of Petroleum and Minerals, now appear in world university rankings. The language of instruction at schools is Arabic, but at universities across the Kingdom, as well as in all GCC countries, the medium of instruction has changed from Arabic to English (ELI: English as a Language of Instruction). The development plan calls for nearly doubling the number of university students, from 860,000 to 1.7 million, by 2014 (Lindsay, 2010). Last but not least, the King Abdullah Foreign Scholarship Program does its best to make sure that Saudi students receive the best academic support and attend the best universities in the world. Saudi Arabia sent 34,139 students to study in the United States in the academic year 2011-2012 (Institute of International Education, 2012), making it the fourth largest provider of international students to US colleges after China, India and South Korea, according to the most recent annual report by the US Institute of International Education.
1.5 The Immediate Research Setting and Context

The immediate setting is a privately owned institute of higher education, which was established in 2001 and promoted to a university in 2008, by King Abdullah Bin Abdulaziz Al Saud. Now, it is a comprehensive university (an institution that offers undergraduate and postgraduate degrees) pioneering in fields of business administration and computing. The university has forged close bonds with Western universities and companies (Oxford University, Washington State University, University of Munich, as well as the HSBC Bank and Microsoft). Following the Saudi doctrines for gender segregation, the university has two separate campuses, one for men and one for women, with total coverage of more than 65,000 square metres.

The studentship origin is mainly (more than 80% of the students) from Saudi Arabia, but there are students from other Arab countries, apart from Saudi, such as Jordan, Yemen, Palestine, Syria, Egypt, and Lebanon.

The Foundation Programme’s English department is a partnership of the university with an English Language Centres Corporation having its headquarters in the USA. Other Language Centres of the same corporation can be found in several universities across the USA. All language centres, no matter if they are in the USA or Saudi Arabia, follow a similar English curriculum, with the same performance projects, and the same teaching approach.

According to the Centre’s curriculum, English is taught at eight levels, from real beginners (CEFR A1-) to independent users (CEFR B2+). Each course lasts eight weeks and runs for five days per week, four hours per day. At the end of the third week and on the eighth week, students sit for internal, teacher-prepared, level exams and according to their scores, as well as their general language proficiency, students move to the next level or repeat the course. At the end of the English programme, students have to sit for an exter-
nal exam - the TOEFL ITP, designed and externally marked by the Educational Testing Services, as the university requires an external body to assess the freshmen’s level of English. Students have to score at least 543 out of 677, as this score corresponds to the CEFR Level B2+ and this level is in line with other universities in the area.

The Centre, in their Curriculum Manual (2014), states that their teaching approach is based on the premise that “the learning is done by the learner” (p. 6). The manual also promotes a student-centred, communicative approach to English language teaching focusing on students’ needs, learning styles, individual differences, and “cultural conditioning” (p. 6) without giving further details about the aforementioned issues. The manual also refers to the materials used during the programme. The Centre has adopted a no-textbook stance, as textbooks can dominate the lesson, moving the focus away from the students’ needs.

Instead, the manual suggests the incorporation of project-based learning in the teaching procedure. The students with the teacher will agree on a project, and students, individually, in pairs or groups, will work together to materialise the project. Throughout the project, there are a series of micro-tasks that should be developed by the teacher to assist learners master the language skills (reading, writing, speaking, listening) and language systems (grammar, vocabulary, discourse). The manual also suggests the utilisation of extensive homework activities, such as independent listening and reading: The student or the teacher selects a piece of authentic English material and a) if it is an aural text, students listen to it several times and write the transcript (p. 9) and b) if it is a written text, students read it and write an in-class summary (p. 13). The assessment is based on portfolio work (student’s language competency throughout the course) and teacher-generated tests. As it can be understood, the high school graduates from the Saudi General Education system
joining the language centre will experience a novel approach, without books, with extensive homework, with chiefly Western instructors.

As regards the training of newly employed EFL instructors, the Centre’s management offers a three-hour orientation/induction seminar familiarising the new instructors with the online platform and the assessment practices used at the centre. There is no extensive reference to the ‘cultural orientations’ or the classroom methods and procedures. Many teachers have found information elsewhere, e.g. the internet. Even a quick search on the internet about ‘Teaching English in the Gulf’ will show the remuneration opportunities, and maybe a brief guide especially for female teachers who need to wear the abaya outdoors at all instances.

When the researcher joined the university, he received by email the university’s HR Facts, Help, and Advice (2012) booklet which informed the new instructors about the rules of conduct within Saudi Arabia. Among these rules was the proper attire at work and outside work, rigorous adherence to cultural norms, i.e. views on time, country-specific traditional clothing, topics to avoid in class, and rules of conduct between genders. More specifically, the guide was mentioning that the shirt for men should be with a collar, and ties should be knotted to the top collar-button, formal dress trousers (not cargo or jeans) and only formal dress shoes are acceptable. As for women, a long casual dress is only acceptable for work, under the abaya. Regarding alcohol, the booklet was stating “alcohol is forbidden, and life goes on very nicely without it” (p.6). Regarding the understanding of time in the Middle East, the booklet mentioned “In Saudi Arabia, time is elastic. See you at 8, means 8:30, or 9:00. At the university, we are very strict about the meaning of time-management… and adhere to time” (p.4). However, in actual practice things were rather different, and students are allowed to enter the class even 30 minutes after the start of the class and that the policy for late students was at the discretion of each instructor.
Another document new EFL faculty received was the University Labour Organisation (June 2010), that clearly stated that all instructors should be readily available for eight hours every day, five days per week (Chapter 7, article 68). Instructors should be in their offices if they do not teach, and that the employee “shall accept inspection” at any time (Chapter 7, article 73). The term for being in an office all these hours is ‘seat-warming’, and it is typical in most universities in the Arab world. The management will ask the instructors to write reports, submit them on the internal online platform (there is no access to the platform from a computer outside the university) or participate in meetings, committees, just to ensure that teachers have enough work to do for the hours are required to be in the office. When new English instructors arrive, they receive this email from the management: “please have your cell phones with you at all instances from 08:00 to 16:00. Sometimes the Assistant Director or the Instructional Coordinator might need you to cover classes”. Several times instructors were informed that from 08:00 to 16:00 on the working days they were at the disposal of the management, even if they had finished classes and office hours.
1.6 Faculty Induction Courses and Teacher Education Programmes

When a faculty joins a department there should be a staff induction course. However, in Saudi Arabia, as Al-Hazmi (2003) argued, the staff induction programmes at universities and schools, if there is any, are inadequate for the proper preparation of the EFL teachers. Thus as Alhamad (2018) and Cross (1995: cited in Al-Hazmi, 2003) pointed out, an untrained teacher faces the socio-cultural demands of the context is at the expense of the quality of learning. The research site offered a four-hour staff induction course that was about the necessary ‘nuts and bolts’ of housekeeping issues, like the online platform for attendance taking and the students’ grading system. No reference was made to teaching approaches, common challenges, materials development, alternative assessment, or even the social constraints etc. Shah et al. (2013) confirmed: “it is fundamental for EFL teachers to acquire the contextual knowledge because it will develop not only their teaching skills but also the norms of practice expected of them in an educational institution both inside and outside the classroom” (p.107). Moreover, Asiri (2017) claimed that to achieve the teaching aims in the classroom successfully, EFL teachers need to be aware of and more knowledgeable, as well as more understanding about the social context. Syed (2003) confirmed that the cultural distance between the learners and the NEST teachers is a serious factor in the Gulf EFL classroom (p.339). Although a NEST teacher brings diversity into the classroom, there is a wide gap in the limited knowledge of the local sociocultural context. Ideally, the non-Saudi EFL teachers should learn about the sociopolitical context upon assuming their teaching positions in the Kingdom.

Pearch and Marutz (2005) and Hawthorne (1991) successfully linked a thoroughly designed induction course for new faculty - as a primary reason- to the staff retention rates. In Saudi Arabia the academic staff turnover rate is very high (Abdul-Cader & Anthony, 2014) and detrimental to the institution. The institution has to pay the new faculty medical
exams, flight tickets, a room at a nice hotel for some days and a furnished apartment later, as well as the expenses for the Saudi visa. A high level of staff turnover rate means a loss for the institution (Ton & Huckman, 2008).

Another recent trend is to employ English faculty who hold a teaching qualification, i.e. CELTA, or more recently (2017) Cengage’s Teacher Education Course. Such short courses (most of them are 100-120 hours) offer an overview of the teaching methodology without any reference to the specific social and educational context, as Al-Seghayer (2014b) rightly argued: [These courses are] “a western-type of instruction hopelessly trying to fit in a Saudi Arabian context, without taking into consideration the Saudi culture, the local education system, or even the students’ needs, motivation and attitudes toward EFL” (p.146).
1.7 Research Questions

Based on the research objective outlined at the beginning of this chapter, the research questions below form the basis for the aim that local stakeholders may inform the design of bottom-up EFL professional development courses, and in line with the objective of the design of a teacher induction course that would orient new EFL instructors who join Saudi universities more effectively, since it will be culture-specific and better address their needs:

1) Are newly employed EFL instructors ready to teach Saudi students?

That was my first question when I arrived in Saudi Arabia. I many times experienced colleagues who could not put up with the cultural practices in the Kingdom. Many teachers left the country even before the end of their three-month probation period.

2) Does a top-down TEFL course prepare EFL instructors to teach English at Saudi universities, or a bottom-up orientation course that will be informed by data from local stakeholders is needed?

The majority of EFL instructors who join Saudi universities are academically qualified, with an MA in TESOL, or skilled as practitioners holding a teaching certificate, so top-down prepared.

3) If such an orientation course is to be designed, what components should be included?

4) Do students’ educational experiences and individual differences, i.e. motivation, beliefs, strategies, etc., in secondary education, influence their attitudes towards English
language learning? Do students change these attitudes after studying English at the tertiary level?

Students have spent 8 to 10 years (or even more years) studying English in General Education. Have they developed their own beliefs, practices, strategies, and expectations during this time?

5) What are the instructors’ views on the English language learning context in Saudi Arabia?

Instructors, upon their arrival to the Kingdom will be benefitted from advice shared by more experienced colleagues who are familiar with the context and the academic and administrative challenges new instructors face.
1.8 Thesis Overview

Chapter 1 was an introduction that provides the research questions and provides a background to the context that the research was materialised. Chapter 2 concerns the theoretical background of the study, the literature review, and results from relevant research projects in the Arab Gulf area. The underlining philosophical paradigms, research methods, sampling, collection tools and ethical considerations are included in chapter 3. Chapter 4 covers the ground in the process of developing and applying the necessary research instruments. The findings and analysis are included in chapter 5. Chapter 6 provides for the design of the EFL teacher orientation course, as well as a crash course for EFL programmes that have limited numbers of hours in order to prepare their staff members. Chapter 7 includes the conclusion, recommendations and suggestions for further research. Finally, Chapter 8 contains the academic and professional development of the researcher during the DProf years.
Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The reforms of the late King Abdullah, have created a modern state with more than 1 million university graduates and many research centers. Since 1995, King Abdullah (the Crown Prince, and King from 2005 to 2015) has invested in higher education: the Kingdom now has approximately 60 institutes of higher education (before 1995, the number was ten) and all of them use English as the language of instruction.

Although English is now prevalent across the GCC tertiary education, students, from the Wahhabi-controlled curriculum at school, are still struggling to adjust to an English language university and the new reality that they need to be able to communicate and excel in the English language to graduate.

This chapter explores the relevant background literature regarding students’ attitudes towards English, their motivation to learn the lingua franca, the language learning strategies used by students; furthermore, this chapter will present the relevant background regarding teachers’ beliefs, and it lays the foundations for the principled implementation of a faculty orientation course at a university level in a Saudi Arabian context.
2.2 New EFL Faculty Orientation Programmes

The newly-appointed faculty arrives at the new institution being clueless about the students, the teaching methods, the social context, and management expectations, among other queries, and the new institution should have the means to provide these faculty with an orientation programme that would serve in the transfer of knowledge. If there is not any orientation programme, the newly-appointed instructors will require “a minimum of three years before they achieve a significant degree of institutional acculturation” (Morin & Ashton, 2004: 240).

Although the literature successfully links a well-designed induction course to the higher retention rates of the new faculty (Pearch & Marutz, 2005; Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002; Kennedy, 1991) and the increased job satisfaction levels (Sorcinelli, 1994), there is little research done on faculty orientation courses. Most studies on orientation programmes are for nursing faculty (e.g. Morin & Ashton, 2004; Hitchcock, et al., 1992), whereas in the ELT field the lack of relevant research is rather surprising.

There are several studies in pre-service teacher education courses, for instance, Yesilbursa (2011) researched NNESTs’ pre-service EFL courses and suggested using written reflections in these courses, or Busch (2010) who suggested the implementation of a second language acquisition course in teacher education programmes. However, both studies were not taking into consideration the needs of the newly employed EFL faculty.

After a detailed search of the available literature, the researcher found only a limited number of relevant studies (Alhamad, 2018; Kourkouli, 2015; Fenton-Smith & Torpey, 2013; Young, 2009). Alhamad’s research focus was on the challenges the novice Saudi Arabian EFL teachers face at schools. He concluded on the need for incorporation of TESOL methods courses in the induction programme since most EFL teachers were following very traditional teaching methods. Kourkouli specifically researched the induction
courses for Greek EFL teachers in Greek schools to find the effectiveness of these courses and eagerly proposed the use of experiential activities, i.e. microteaching, etc. to make the orientation programme more relevant to the faculty. However, the educational contexts of Alhamad’s and Kourkouli’s studies concerned the basic education in Saudi Arabia and Greece respectively, not at the university level as the scope of this research.

Relevant studies of orientation courses for new EFL faculty in tertiary education were limited in scope: Fenton-Smith & Torpey (2013) researched the process of orienting twenty-two NESTs at only one tertiary education institution in Japan -which raises questions about the impact of the results- using a pre-orientation, an immediate post-orientation, and delayed post-orientation surveys to find the shortcomings of the orientation programme at that university. Young (2009) interviewed the newly hired ESL instructors at an American university to evaluate the induction programme offered by that specific university.

Within the Saudi Arabian tertiary education context, the orientation programmes for newly-employed EFL faculty are scarce if any (Qureshi, 2006: cited in Hamdan Al-Ghamdi, 2014; Zohairy, 2012). Al Shehri et al. (2013) stated that induction courses at Saudi universities are rare, however, Saudi Arabian medical colleges started offering orientation courses for newly appointed medical educators, quite recently. Elyas and Picard (2010) attributed the lack of EFL in-service training in KSA to the status of English as an auxiliary language and the traditional teaching methods at schools. Elyas and Picard confirmed that English is still seen with scepticism in the Kingdom.

As for the content of the orientation programmes, the available literature does not give a specific layout, quite the opposite actually; some researchers provide us with generic frameworks, for instance, Fink (1992) proposed that a successful orientation programme should provide the new faculty with:

- sessions on teaching methods
• access to campus resources

• experiential activities that boost active learning and interaction

Similarly, Fenton-Smith & Torpey (2013) proposed “a framework of four meta-functions: academic, civilian, administrative, and interpersonal” (p. 16). The administrative function should include topics to assist the new faculty member to become a functional employee; the academic function should provide the knowledge so that the instructor is functional in class; the civilian should include the cultural background knowledge that the new employee needs to become functional in society, and the interpersonal one to assist the new instructor to bond social relationships and minimise the emotional instability. Furthermore, Fenton-Smith & Torpey disagreed with the majority of studies (e.g. Kourkouli, 2015; Fink, 1992) on the incorporation of experiential activities in the orientation programme, since their, however limited, sample believed these activities were a waste of time.
2.3 Motivation and Attitudes

One common phrase that a new EFL teacher will hear in Saudi Arabia is that the students are not motivated, or they have negative attitudes on learning English. Searching the literature we can find many published or unpublished papers on motivation and attitudes of Arab students learning English, such as Al-Tamimi & Shuib (2009), Makrami (2010), Randell & Samimi (2010), and Al-Zubeiry (2012). The results are far from conclusive since as Lightbown and Spada (2014) stated that individual differences, such as motivation and attitudes, might change from one context to another.

2.3.1 Motivation

It is vital for instructors to understand their students’ motivational characteristics (Matthews, 2008) since motivation can be as crucial as cognition in the classroom (Lepper & Chabay, 1988). Furthermore, instructors who are aware of their students’ motivational profiles can provide more successful “interventions to support student foreign language learning” (Matthews, 2008: 612).

Motivation comes from the Latin verb ‘movere’ which means ‘to move’, and it denotes the force behind the moves of a person to complete specific tasks or set priorities, or even make choices (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011). As Corder confirmed four decades ago, “given motivation, it is inevitable that a human being will learn a second language if they are exposed to the language data” (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2009: 1). Motivation, according to Ormrod (2012), is an internal state that “arouses us to action, pushes us in particular directions, and keeps us engaged in certain activities” (p.426). Even if we are capable of learning/acquiring knowledge (and skills), motivation often determines if and to what extent we learn it, especially if the processes necessary for learning (i.e. behaviour and cognition) are under our control. Furthermore, once we have learned how to do something, motiva-
tion is mainly responsible for whether we continue to do it. Learners’ motivation tends to be reflected in personal investment, in cognitive, emotional, and behavioural engagement in certain activities. In general, motivation increases time on task, an essential factor affecting learning and achievement in a particular domain (Ladd & Dinella, 2009).

**Motivational Theories for EFL**

This section will present a short overview of the theories on motivation with their major shortcomings to explain the reasons why this study will research the instrumental, integrative, and developmental orientations of student stakeholders. Although these terms were introduced 40 years ago, are still relevant and have influenced newer theories.

**Social-Psychological model**

One of the early models of Motivation to learning a second language was Gardner and Lambert’s (1972) Social Psychological Model which underlined that a person could effectively learn a foreign language provided a consideration of three factors: their motivational level, their attitudes to the foreign language and their ethnocentric predispositions.

**Socio-Educational Model**

Gardner (2000, 1985) and his colleagues were the first to begin explaining the connection between motivation and attitude but also the relationship between second language acquisition and proficiency. More specifically, Gardner sees attitudes as components of motivation in language learning, “motivation ... refers to the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes toward learning the language” (p.10). Gardner’s central concept in this model is ‘integrativeness’ which refers to “an openness to identify, at least in part, with the target language community” (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; 126). Integrativeness and attitudes toward language learning, through motivation, affect language learning achievement. Gardner be-
lieved the motivation to learn a foreign language is determined by basic predispositions and personality characteristics such as the learner’s attitudes towards the target language society, people, culture, and language, the learner’s motives for learning, and generalised attitudes (Gardner, 1985).

Motivation in second language (L2) learning is a complex phenomenon as Lightbown and Spada (2014) stated who defined it in terms of two factors: on the one hand, language learners’ communicative needs, and, on the other, their attitudes towards the L2 community. If learners need to speak the second language in a wide range of social situations or to fulfil professional ambitions, they will perceive the communicative value of the second language and will, therefore, be motivated to acquire proficiency in it. Likewise, if learners have favourable attitudes towards the speakers of the language, they will desire more contact with them.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) coined the terms Instrumental Orientation (language learning for more immediate or pragmatic reasons) and Integrative Orientation (a component of Integrativeness, involves interaction with the target language community for personal growth and cultural enrichment). An integratively motivated learner would probably continue learning a language even if he is not compelled to or when external incentives are removed. Conversely, an instrumentally motivated learner would probably quit language learning once the minimal or desired expectation is achieved or when the adverse contingency for not learning the language is no longer present. Gardner also developed a questionnaire, so the learners’ orientations in motivation can be identified. The Attitudes and Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) is still widely used for their good reliability and validity (Dordi-Nezhad, 2015; Gardner & Smythe, 1981), and it has been translated in many languages.
Research has shown (Lightbown and Spada, 2014) that these types of motivation are related to success in second language learning, but the distinction is not always as clear as it was in the research context in which the contrast was first described. Saville-Troike (2012) supported that no particular type of motivation “… appears to have any inherent advantage over the other in terms of L2 achievement” (p. 188).

Apart from the Gardner and Lambert’s (1972) Instrumental and Integrative Orientations, Cooper and Fishman (1977) added a third type of motivation, the Developmental Orientation to motivation which refers to doing something “for personal development or personal satisfaction” (p. 243). Thus, travelling, watching English films, or reading English books for pleasure are common activities of the Developmental Orientation to motivation.

One of the main arguments against the Socio-Educational Model is that in some learning environments with the spread of English as a Lingua Franca it is difficult to distinguish between these two types of orientation to the target language and its community, since interacting with British or Americans is not meaningful any more (Lamb, 2004). The Gulf States, in particular, are among these learning environments. Hastings (2015) believed that as English has achieved the status of a lingua franca in the Gulf, students’ motivation to learn the language “…can no longer be seen as a choice between integrative motivation…and instrumental motivation…” (p.8), since these are multicultural states with a large number of expatriate workers living among the local population. Furthermore, recent work emphasises the dynamic nature of motivation (Dornyei, 2001) and tries to account for the changes that take place over time. Finally, the incorporation of technology in the learning process has made communication with native speakers much easier, especially among younger people for online gaming, further blurring the importance of integrativeness (Al-Hoorie, 2017).
Despite the arguments against the Socio-Educational Model, the AMTB is still widely used, as it is appealing for researchers. The AMTB partly informed the instrument for this research.

**The Process Model of Motivation**

Dornyei (2009) agreed with Gardner that “motivation is one of the main determinants of second/foreign language learning achievement” (p. 273). In Dörnyei’s Process Model (2001), motivation was seen as a dynamic quality which changes over time. Motivation is increased or decreased in response to a wide variety of influences. In addition to changing over time, the process model looks at how different factors can influence motivation at different stages in the learning process. His model of motivation consists of three phases. The first phase, 'choice motivation' refers to getting started and to set goals, the second phase, 'executive motivation', is about carrying out the necessary tasks to maintain motivation, and the third phase, 'motivation retrospection', refers to students' appraisal of and reaction to their performance. With the Process Model, Dornyei made motivation more relevant to the language teaching process.

**L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS)**

Dornyei (2009) attempted to uncover the cognitive factors of Integrativeness by tapping the L2MSS theory, which comprises the:

a) the Ideal L2 self: students’ future proficient L2 user self

b) the Ought-to L2 self: the attributes students need to have to materialise their ideal L2 self

c) the L2 Learning experience: the curriculum, the instructor, the peers, etc.

Dornyei and Ushioda (2011; cited in Alqahtani, 2017) considered Dornyei’s Ideal L2 self as the most significant construction of the theory that it explained more than 40% of the variance in the intended learning effort. The Ought-to L2 self plays a pivotal role in
contexts where the expectations of the family provide motivation (Dornyei, Csizer, and Nemeth, 2006; cited in Alqahtani, 2017), as is the case in the Arab society. However, the Ideal L2 Self that has received much attention in the literature polarised the researchers who do not seem to agree with each other, as there is a range of conclusions in the studies (Al-Hoorie, 2018). For instance, Ghanizadeh & Rostami (2015) stated that the L2MSS model is verifiable in the teaching context, whereas in a study in Saudi Arabia, the Ideal L2 Self was found not to be consistently correlated with competency in language learning (Moskovsky, et al., 2016).

5 Ts of Motivation

Renandya (2013), taking for granted that motivation is a dynamic construct and sensitive to the L2 learning context, attempted to make motivation more relevant to the teaching process. He referred to five classroom-specific factors as the “5 Ts of Motivation”: the teacher, the teaching methodology, the text, the task, and the test. Renandya’s view on how to increase and protect students’ motivation is very appealing; however more studies are needed to verify it.

Positive Psychology Movement in SLA

Recent studies (Gkonou et al., 2016; MacIntyre et al., 2016: cited in Al-Hoorie, 2018) emphasising emotions like enjoyment, empathy, happiness, and love in second language acquisition. This movement is entirely new, and further research is needed.

Cultural Influences on Motivation

Cultural influences have some effect on motivation and reason to suspect that this influence might be substantial. The answers that participants give on surveys will be affected by their concepts of an ideal L2 self which heavily influenced by cultural values (Schmidt, Boraie & Kassabgy, 1996). Therefore, a severe problem arises if the theories of motivation are continent-bound, e.g. American perspectives reflect American culture, etc. whereas
there is no substantial Arab theory on the motivation of learning English. However, Bakar, Sulaiman & Rafaai (2010) coined the term ‘religious motivation’ as a valid construct of its entity when investigating the motivation of Muslims in learning English with the sole purpose of spreading the Quran and other Islamic doctrines to people of other countries.

2.3.2 Attitudes

Student’s language attitudes toward English language learning provide useful insight to language teachers. Especially new faculty members should be aware of the individual differences of their students, i.e. motivation, attitudes, strategies, etc., as knowledge of these areas can help them understand where their students are coming from and plan lessons more successfully.

Language attitude studies may be characterised as: (1) those which explore general attitudes toward language and language skills (e.g. which languages or varieties are better than others, to what extent literacy is valued); (2) those which explore stereotyped impressions toward languages and language varieties, their speakers, and their functions; and (3) those which focus on applied concerns (e.g. language choice and usage, and language learning). Underlying each focus of study are questions of the nature of language attitudes, their causes, and their effects. One reason language attitudes are of particular interest to ethnographers is that individuals can seldom choose what attitudes to have toward a language or variety. Attitudes are acquired as a factor of group membership as part of the process of enculturation in a particular speech community, and are thus fundamental to its characterisation. It is because attitudes toward communicative performance are generally culturally determined that they are so strongly influenced by the social structure of the community in question (Saville-Troike, 2003). Robert Gardner and his colleagues have shown a clear link between a learner's attitudes toward the second or foreign language
and its community, and success in second language learning (Masgoret and Gardner 2003).

However, Lightbown and Spada (2014) confirmed that it is difficult to predict whether positive attitudes produce successful learning or successful learning generates positive attitudes, or whether both are influenced or generated by other factors. Although the research cannot “…prove that positive attitudes and motivation cause success in learning, there is ample evidence that positive motivation is associated with a willingness to keep learning” (p.65). Much research has supported that motivation is a critical factor for successful and sustained language learning (Renandya, 2015, Javid, Ashmari & Farooq, 2012; Tamimi & Shuib, 2009; Gardner, 2006; Lifrieri, 2005; Dorneyi, 2001).

Horwitz (1986) developed the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) so that instructors and researchers might understand that students bring their ideas about language learning to the classroom and that these attitudes can, in turn, influence learner effectiveness in increasing their language proficiency. According to O’Donnell (2003):

Horwitz used her inventory first with American students, who had made the transition from secondary to undergraduate studies in foreign language studies. The author’s inventory includes sections eliciting survey participants’ beliefs about the difficulty of language learning, foreign language aptitude, the nature of language learning, learning and communication strategies, and motivations and expectations about language learning (p. 38).

Certainly, within a Saudi Arabian context and with careful translation, the use of such an instrument would help uncover students’ attitudes and beliefs after six years of English language study at the secondary level, those “preconceived notions about language learning, [which] would likely influence a learner’s effectiveness in the classroom”(ibid; p. 39).
2.3.3 Research on Motivation and Attitudes in the Arab Gulf Context

Several studies have dealt with the motivation and attitudes of the Arab learners of English, which reveals the interest in the area. Al-Seghayer referred to two studies that concluded that Saudi undergraduate students are missing the intrinsic motivation to learn English (Javid et al., 2012, and Liton, 2012: cited in Al-Seghayer, 2014b). The reasons that Al-Seghayer attributed to the low intrinsic motivation and negative attitudes were:

- the students' beliefs that they do not need to be proficient in English, rather than the minimum competency to pass the exams,
- the weak support and encouragement by their parents,
- the little exposure to communicative activities in the English language learning process.
- the lack of authentic materials.

Reading and listening materials are not stimulating for the students (Liton, 2012; cited in Al-Seghayer, 2014b). The modern ELT materials are aligned to the new national curriculum and “adhere to Saudi Arabian culture and principals”. (Mitchell & Alfuraih, 2017: 320). The elimination of the target culture in the English textbooks violates one of the fundamental principles in language teaching: “While all languages share universal characteristics, there are aspects of language that are culturally specific” (Nunan, 2007: 200). Thus, by producing target culture-free EFL textbooks, as in the case of Saudi Arabia, the learners will not understand the culturally specific aspects of the target language.


AlQahtani (2017) based on Dornyei’s L2 Motivational Self System theory and surveyed 194 Saudi cadets in a military college and he reported that a strong linear relationship ex-
ists between “reported learning effort and language learning attitudes” (p. 169) and between language learning attitudes and Ideal L2 self. That might indicate that participants were aware of the importance of English in their careers, so they exhibited positive attitudes. Another study, based on Dornyei’s L2 Motivational Self System, conducted by Al Otaibi (2013), despite the limitation of the number of participants (33 Saudi female EFL students) found that the Ideal L2 self has a significant motivational effect on learner’s self-regulated process in language learning. Mallalah (2004: cited in AlOthman & Shuqair, 2013) attributed Kuwaiti secondary students’ high instrumental motivation to learn English to their very positive attitudes toward the native English teachers in the school. The issue of instructors increasing students’ motivation, has received a lot of attention worldwide, in KSA more precisely, one of the latest studies was conducted by AlRabai (2014) who recruited 437 EFL learners (divided into control and experimental groups) and 14 EFL teachers for ten weeks and after using three instruments, before and after the end of the 10th week, concluded that teachers’ motivational intervention, although rarely used, led to increased students’ motivation to learn EFL.

As far as attitudes are concerned the literature seems polarised, there are studies according to which the Saudi students’ attitudes toward learning English are negative (Shehdeh, 2010: cited in Al-Seghayer, 2014b; Khan, 2011). On the other hand, Javid et al. (2017) distributed questionnaires to 132 students at a university in Saudi Arabia. This study found that EFL learners held positive attitudes toward the target language, the target culture, and the English people. Furthermore, this study reported that Saudi university students have a preference toward friendly instructors who use the target language (i.e. English) consistently in the lesson. In a similar vein, Golam Faruk (2014) reported that Saudis held positive attitudes toward the English language, although he based his conclusions on others’ research findings. He believed these positive attitudes are the effect of the USA in-
fluence on the Saudi economy and the favourable to ELT changes in the Saudi English Language Education Policies. Golam Faruk suggested that the education policies in Saudi Arabia used English as the vehicle to spread Islamic teachings to the rest of the world.
2.4 Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

Language learning strategies are considered necessary because students who use them learn more effectively. Instructors should be aware if their students are successful language learning strategies users, and which strategies they prefer. At the same time, instructors need to focus on their students’ LLS training. Ellis (1994) confirmed that competent students use LLS more frequently and know how to choose the right strategy for the right task.

Oxford (1990) presented a learning strategies classification, according to which there are two types of LLS: direct (table 2.1) and indirect (table 2.2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct Strategy Category</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Memory Strategies</td>
<td>Storage and retrieval of new information, i.e. mental links.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Strategies</td>
<td>Understanding and production of language, i.e. analysis, finding the gist, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensatory Strategies</td>
<td>Overcoming gaps in knowledge, i.e. guessing from co-text, synonyms.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indirect Strategy Category</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive Strategies</td>
<td>Learners control their own cognition, i.e. planning, organizing, self-evaluation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective Strategies</td>
<td>Learners’ regulation of their emotions, attitudes, and motivation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Strategies</td>
<td>Learners’ communication using the target language.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similar to Oxford’s classification of LLS, Cotterall and Reinders (2004) suggested that three different types of strategies are important in language learning: a) cognitive strategies, b) metacognitive strategies, and c) social/affective strategies. Cognitive strategies are mainly used for learning and using the target language (table 2.3).
### Table 2.3: Cognitive strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cognitive Strategies</th>
<th>Learning the target language</th>
<th>Using the target language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rehearsal</strong>: saying or writing something many times</td>
<td>Approximation: choosing a more general word than the target word to express the meaning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Elaboration</strong>: making links between new information and already known</td>
<td>Paraphrase: describing the word</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Metacognitive strategies help language learners to manage, monitor and thus individualise their learning. The most common metacognitive strategies are: a) planning the organisation of written or spoken language and b) monitoring while performing a task.

The last type of strategies, social/affective, are things students do to manage their feelings and their interaction with others (table 2.4).

### Table 2.4: Social/Affective Strategies

| Social Affective Strategies |  |
|-----------------------------|  |
| **Cooperation**: learners work together to solve a problem | **Questioning for clarification**: asking questions to assist understanding | **Self-Talk**: repeating a positive statement as a way of boosting confidence and reducing stress |

Table 2.3: Cognitive strategies

Table 2.4: Social/Affective Strategies
2.4.1 Research on Language Learning Strategies in the Arab Gulf Context

AlAhdal and AlMa’amari (2015) distributed the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990) to 160 EFL teachers and learners in schools in Qassim, Saudi Arabia. They found that the learning strategies mostly used by Saudi learners are Cognitive and Metacognitive. Saudi students do not prefer using Memory strategies, and according to the EFL teachers in the study, instructed students to learn by heart (Memory strategy) language items (words, chunks, grammar rules, etc.) will not lead to autonomy and success in the language learning process. The use of Compensatory strategy was found to hinder Saudi learners’ learning progress. Finally, EFL students and teachers reported low use of Affective strategies. The same findings were reported by Alhaysony (2017), who distributed the SILL to 134 English majored students at Aljouf University in Saudi Arabia. According to this study, Saudi students preferred the use of Cognitive and Metacognitive strategies, whereas Memory and Affective strategies are not commonly used. Alhaysony also reported that Saudi students were “…moderate to low users of strategies” (p. 24). The studies above clearly suggest that Saudi EFL learners do not use the whole spectrum of English language learning (ELL) strategies, and they require ELL strategy training.
2.5 Teachers' Beliefs

When instructors join a new affiliation come with their own sets of beliefs. These beliefs can refer to teaching, dealing with students, dealing with management, administrative duties, among others. By understanding these beliefs, a teacher orientation course can be more successful in informing new instructors that some of these beliefs might not apply to the socio-educational context of the country.

Beliefs are ideas and theories that teachers hold about themselves, knowledge (epistemology), pedagogy, content, language learning, assessment, their students, their students’ language learning individual differences (motivation, attitudes, aptitude, anxiety, beliefs, etc.), as well as societal context, culture and ethics. “Teachers’ beliefs are considered stable constructs derived from their experiences, observations, training … and serve as a source of reference when teachers encounter new ideas.” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010: 541). Teachers’ beliefs mostly stem from their families, their own experiences as learners, their practice on the profession and their observations of other colleagues, as well as, their professional development events (such as: pre-service, in-service, conferences, reading the literature) (Levin & He, 2008).

According to empirical research, teachers’ beliefs influence their actions in class, the methods used, the feedback given to students, among other things (Levin et al., 2013). Therefore, these beliefs should play a significant role in teacher education (Kagan, 1992). However, there is little research on the development of teachers’ beliefs (Levin, 2014). If only teacher educators were aware of the teacher-trainees’ beliefs, they could “provide more targeted feedback to support teachers’ professional growth and career development” (Levin, 2014: 50).

To study teacher-trainees’ beliefs, Horwitz (1985) developed a 34-item survey, titled Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI). BALLI has been used extensively in
research studies (Peacock, 2001; Kern, 1995) to investigate not only teachers’ beliefs but also trainees’ and even students’ beliefs. Peacock (1999) suggested that teachers and students come to class with different sets of beliefs and the conflict of teachers’ and students’ beliefs is a major reason for tension in class.

In the Saudi context, there is not much research on teachers’ beliefs, apart from Asiri (2017) who suggested that the Saudi English Teachers’ beliefs originate from religious, political and economic factors. However, the researcher within this literature review, could not find any studies related to Western English teachers’ beliefs in the Saudi educational context.
2.6 Target Culture in Language Learning

As culture and language are interconnected (Nunan, 2007), the design of an orientation course for English language teachers needs to address the dominant cultural trends in the context, i.e. Saudi Arabia.

Culture is the relationship between the core beliefs and values, and the patterns of behaviour, art, and communication that the target group produces, bearing in mind that these beliefs and values are continually being negotiated within the group (Corbet, 2003: 20). Another definition came from Brown (2000) that language and culture are “intricately interwoven” (p. 177). In the EFL classroom, the most common ways to present the cultural aspects of the target language are the teacher and to incorporate these aspects in the textbooks. In KSA, the EFL textbooks are target culture-free, since “…the spread of foreign traits… may result in eroding the rich and enduring Saudi culture, customs, and identity…” (Alrashidi & Phan, 2015: p. 40). Many Muslim scholars attacked English, but most importantly the western culture ideology that comes with the teaching of English; most notably Karmani (2005; cited in Elyas, 2008) accused English of being a tool for linguistic imperialism and de-Islamisation of the Muslim Countries. Consequently, Camlibel (1998; cited in Belli, 2018) reported that more than half of the EFL teachers considered the cultural element in ELT as unimportant. On the other hand both Belli (2018) and Elyas (2008), who conducted small-scale, context-bound studies in Turkey and Saudi Arabia respectively, reported that most EFL students responded positively in the incorporation of the cultural awareness into the language learning process.
2.7 Saudi Arabian Sociocultural Context

A very appealing, despite the criticism it has received, theoretical framework that offers an insightful overview of the socio-cultural context in GCC is Hofstede's five-dimensional model (Hofstede, 2001). The dimensions: power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty/avoidance and long-term orientation were developed based on a statistical method. Hofstede’s results (graph 2.1) provide us with preliminary considerations for the present study as well as offer hints regarding the educational and management setting.

![Graph 2.1: Hofstede’s Five-Dimensional Model: Saudi Arabia (Hofstede Centre, 2016)](image)

Power distance is defined as the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions, organisations within a country, or even within the family, expect and accept that power is distributed unequally. Saudi Arabia scores very high on this dimension (95%) which means that hierarchy in an organisation, i.e. university, family, etc. is seen as reflecting inherent inequalities, centralisation is popular, subordinates expect to be told what to
do and, the ideal director is an autocrat (Hofstede, 2016), a “rigid, authoritative hierarchy (p153)” (Cassell & Blake, 2012).

Individualism addresses the degree of interdependence a society maintains among its members. In individualistic societies, people are supposed to look after themselves and their direct family members, whereas in collectivist societies, people belong to groups that take care of them in exchange for loyalty. Saudi Arabia (25%) is considered a collectivist society. In collectivist societies employer/employee relationships are perceived in moral terms, hiring and promotion decisions take account of the employee’s in-group, and an offence leads to shame and loss of face (Hofstede, 2016).

Masculinity indicates that society will be driven by achievement and success, whereas a feminine community emphasises the quality of life and standing out from the crowd is not admirable. Saudi Arabia (60%) is rather a masculine society, where managers are expected to be decisive and assertive (Hofstede, 2016).

The uncertainty/avoidance dimension has to do with the way that a society deals with the fact that the future is uncertain. Saudi Arabia (80%) has a preference for avoiding uncertainty, maintains rigid codes of belief and behaviour and people are intolerant of radical behaviour and ideas. There is an inherently emotional need for rules -even if the rules never seem to work (Hofstede, 2016).

Long-term orientation describes how every society has to maintain some links with its past while dealing with the challenges of the present and future. Normative societies, which score low, prefer to keep time-honoured traditions, whereas societies which score high, take a more pragmatic approach (Hofstede, G., Hofstede G.J., & Minkov, M., 2001). Saudi Arabia (36%) seems to be a normative society that has a strong concern with establishing the absolute truth; people tend to be prescriptive in their thinking, they exhibit great
respect for traditions, a small propensity to save for the future, and a focus on quick results (Hofstede, 2016).

Several research studies used Hofstede’s Cultural Dimensions theory to explain the cultural context in the GCC area. For instance, Theodoropoulou (2015) attributed Qatari university students’ indirectness (reading between the lines) in emails to the power distance in Qatari society. Karolak and Guta (2015), interviewed 17 female Saudi students in order to identify their cultural identities during the interactions between Saudi students and culturally diverse teachers. Karolak and Guta found that in today’s globalised world, Saudi students through technology have access to other cultures, and this makes Saudi cultural identities more dynamic and subject to change. In UAE, Daleure, et al. (2015) used Hofstede’s theory to understand the family involvement in the higher education of the students. The researchers found that although Emirati parents support academically and financially their offsprings, they rarely "provide an atmosphere conducive to studying at home and assisting with college work" (p.99).

On the other hand, Hofstede’s model has received criticism regarding the validity of the constructs to research the dimensions. One of these studies was by Oshlyansky, et al. (2006), who received 1428 questionnaires based on Hofstede’s Value Survey Module (2001) from university students from 11 countries with diverse socio-cultural context, among them Saudi Arabia, France, South Africa, and the US. The study concluded that Hofstede’s dimensions for each country could not be replicated, apart from the dimension of individualism.
2.8 Project-Based Learning (PBL)

Although project-based learning is not among the goals of the present research, the immediate research site adopted PBL as the instructional approach. In recent years, an increasing number of language educators in the Kingdom have realised that students finish high school without having acquired the necessary skills and knowledge to enter their professional career or academic studies turned to project-based learning and teaching as an effective means of promoting meaningful student engagement with language and content learning. Through projects students develop language skills, but also the soft skills needed such as interpersonal skills, organisation skills, and research skills incorporating new technology while accessing sources and becoming more knowledgeable citizens of the world; “…the skills that Arab students lack…” (Errhani, 2012: cited in Arab News, 2012). Projects can be incorporated into different learning contexts, such as L2 classrooms and teacher education courses (Stoller, 2002).

According to Richards and Schmidt’s (2010) concept of a project in teaching is “an activity which centres around the completion of a task, and which usually requires an extended amount of independent work, either by an individual student, or a group of students” (p. 428). Project-based learning is a student-centred approach to learning where students’ inquiries pursue knowledge. Project-based learning is a key strategy for fostering independent thinkers. Students solve real-world problems, that are highly valued in the given society, by designing their inquiries, planning their learning, devising their research tools, and implementing a multitude of learning strategies. The implementation of project work in class involves three phases:

Phase 1. Planning: the scope and content of the project and if this project serves students’ needs.
Phase 2. Implementing: Students’ carry out their tasks, while the teacher facilitates the procedure, offers feedback, and monitors students’ performance.

Phase 3. Presenting/ Reporting: Students’ final projects are presented in class and, formal feedback is given.

Projects can be linked to real-world concerns and issues, like designing a leaflet for tourists describing the advantages of the GCC union. They can also be tied to students’ inclinations, interests, talents, etc. According to Stoller (2002: 110), Project-Based learning offers several advantages:

- it focuses on content learning and topics of interest to students, rather than on specific language items
- it is student-centred, though teacher offers support and guidance
- it is cooperative since students can work in closed or open groups, sharing expertise and ideas
- it leads to authentic integration of all language skills, simulating real-life tasks
- It builds students’ confidence and improves their language skills and cognitive abilities
- it culminates in an end product with a high value in the society.

Gou (2006: cited in Khanh, 2015) added that the instructor’s workload on material development can be reduced since students are providing the resources for their projects.

Finally, both Renandya (2015) and Stoller (2002) agreed that PBL is stimulating, challenging, empowering, exciting and thus potentially motivating, since there is a strong link between student motivation and student interest.

Project-based learning and teaching effectiveness have been researched extensively in especially the US elementary and secondary education since the late 80s. Brown, Collins & Duguid (1989) reported gains in students’ achievement in school subjects if the
classroom situation resembles real-world problems. Gallagher et al. (1992) also found benefits in college students’ problem-solving capabilities, but also the development of soft skills, i.e. working autonomously when needed, seeking relevant information, etc. students also favoured the inclusiveness of the task. In the UK, Boaler (1999) conducted a longitudinal study, which was the only of its kind about PBL, with British secondary students who followed a PBL programme and reported gains in students’ achievement in math. Bilgin et al. (2015) conducted a study in a Turkish institution and the treatment group that followed a PBL-informed instruction produced better performance toward science. Meyer (2015) reported that students who attend PBL schools have a positive perception of soft skills, in particular, time management, critical thinking skills, and collaboration. Although most studies conclude that PBL is effective in class, there is a limited number of studies that showed insignificant effects on students’ academic achievement (Ayan, 2012; Chang & Tseng, 2011: cited in Biglin et al., 2015).

Every good project needs to fulfil three criteria. Firstly, students must perceive the work as personally meaningful, so to be motivated; secondly, it needs to be well-designed and well-implemented, and thirdly, the instructors need to be didactically updated and well-informed about the benefits of the project-based approach. Currently, practitioners still have to struggle with entrenched beliefs, i.e. exams, curriculum standards, attitudes to error, learning priorities, etc. (Harmer, 2007).
2.8.1 Project-Based Instruction (PBI) in Arab Gulf Universities

In Saudi Arabia the notion of project-based learning in higher education has been introduced after 2000 when the present research site signed the agreement with the Language Centres Corporation; however, there is no relevant research on the effectiveness of the programme on the Saudi students. The first documented introduction of project-based learning in tertiary education was from Alsamani and Daif-Allah (2016) who designed a project-based ESP course for 86 students (control and experimental groups of 43 students each) of computing and information technology at Qassim University, in Saudi Arabia. The researchers noticed that the course improved the students’ motivation, communicative, and cooperative skills, and the subjects of the experimental group improved their soft skills, i.e. interpersonal, lifelong learning, critical thinking skills, as well as continuous learning out-of-the-classroom. In the same vein, Mohammed (2017) developed a project-based general education course for 62 female students at a university in the Emirates. The course Mohammed implemented, was offered for one semester (14 weeks) and by the post-course survey showed that PBI developed students’ research skills, critical thinking, presentation skills, and communication skills.
2.9 Organisational Change

In a higher education setting, organisational change is a “constant feature of life” (Mulà et al., 2017: 805) and professional development accommodates organisational change via professional learning and reflection for an effective response to issues that undermine professional practice.

The design of a faculty orientation course, as the research objective, supports this constant feature of life in an academic institution, since through workshops, mentoring, and sharing ideas and reflections, the new instructors can respond more effectively to uncharted for them areas, such as teaching English to the Saudi young adults. Organisational change must generate management practices and skills that are productive toward the new mission and strategy. In an academic setting involving faculty in the commitment to change is believed to be essential (Kolmos et al., 2016), since the organisational development needs to be based in establishing a consensus and participation between management and faculty.

2.10 Conclusion

In conclusion, the above topics can give the reader the context for the background of EFL instruction in Saudi Arabia. Knowledge of motivation and attitudes of Saudi students may offer a window of the problems faced by instructors today. The limited use of language learning strategies from Saudi EFL students shows to educators that students need language learning strategy training. Another important topic that is revisited was the teachers’ beliefs, and the importance of these beliefs in teacher education was highlighted. Finally, Hofstede’s model is reviewed and its application to explain the socio-cultural context of the GCC.
Chapter 3: Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter begins by providing the philosophical beliefs of the researcher as an educator and the reason why this paradigm is in line with the present research. This chapter briefly discusses the aim of the study, as well as the research questions as they were stated in the introduction. Then, issues related to research methods, the sampling, the profiles of participants, and the procedure of data collection and analysis will be stated. Finally, the issue of ethical considerations will be presented.

3.2 Philosophical Paradigm

People hold several philosophical beliefs and schemata about the ontology and epistemology, which influence the way gnosis (the Greek word for knowledge) is interpreted and constructed. These beliefs form the basis of each researcher’s definition of the methodology used to study an issue related to education.

The philosophical paradigm of Pragmatism accepts the importance of the natural world and at the same time acknowledges the social aspects of the world, including culture, language, as well as human institutions and subjectivity in truth (Johnson & Onwegbuzie, 2004). After comprehending the ontological and epistemological assumptions presented by several philosophical paradigms, the “pragmatist credo of what works” (Kourieos-Angelidou, 2011; p 94) is an appealing methodological tool for the present research.

Pragmatism starts with the “production of doubt” (Murphey, 1961: 161), when the current belief system does not match with our experiences, it produces unintended results, and the hypothesis of an alternative belief should be put forward and be tested again (Bridges, 2017). The current research starts with a realisation that a top-down teacher-ori-
entation course, which was designed elsewhere targeting teachers in a Western country, “does not work” in Saudi Arabia. It might result in the attrition of the staff, so the development of a context-appropriate bottom-up faculty orientation course, could be set forward as an alternative professional development opportunity.

Pragmatism, on the other hand, has its weak point, and this is technology. The technological advances develop so rapidly that people do not have time to establish a belief system or to identify a problem, but keeping abreast of technology produces new needs.

3.3 Researcher’s Stance

Research is the cornerstone of every competent practitioner and simultaneously an obligation to my students, the institution and the professional community. Research can forge essential paths between fields of studies and enriches the learning/teaching experience in an academic institution. More specifically, ethnographical research can construct an account of a discrete setting which is grounded in the collected data and “which incorporates a conceptual framework that facilitates understanding of social action at both an empirical and theoretical level” (Pole & Morrison, 2003: 4). Personally, as an educator, my research addresses broad questions of applied linguistics and interculturalism. It focuses primarily on enhancing learning/teaching practice in the classroom, as well as in a teacher education setting. Currently, my research interests include enquires into language learning and teaching as a social and cultural phenomenon, and I continuously strive to:

- identify cultural norms in language learning.
- research practices and outcomes in teaching and learning.
- integrate research findings to pedagogy.
- disperse knowledge, either formally, i.e. in presentations and journals, or informally in evaluating teachers and informal talks.
3.4 Research Aim, Objective, and Questions

As mentioned in the introduction chapter, the main aim of the current study is research that involves stakeholder mapping to inform a bottom-up design of professional development courses. The objective of the present research is the design of an EFL faculty orientation course. Although many courses are serving the same purpose, i.e. several TEFL certificate courses, they are all externally designed and follow a top-down approach. Whereas this course follows a bottom-up approach to design, as several key stakeholders will contribute to it. First of all, the new students at the university whose background, individual differences in learning (i.e. attitudes, motivation, parental influence, etc.) and expectations are monitored via a questionnaire. The students who are exiting the preparatory year, whose attitudes, are identified via a series of interviews. Finally the instructors who share their beliefs toward teaching and their teaching approaches in the socio-educational context in Saudi Arabia. The knowledge gained from the stakeholders will form the basis on top of which the EFL faculty orientation course will be designed.

The research questions below form the basis for identifying these micro-aims, provide the socio-educational context in Saudi, which is necessary for the design and implementation of a teacher orientation course:

1) Are newly-employed EFL instructors ready to teach Saudi students?

2) Does a top-down TEFL course prepare EFL instructors to teach English at Saudi universities, or a bottom-up orientation course that will be informed by data from local stakeholders is needed?

3) If such an orientation course is to be designed, what components should be included?

4) Do students' educational experiences and individual differences, i.e. motivation, beliefs, strategies, etc., in secondary education influence their attitudes towards English
language learning? Do students change these attitudes after studying English at the tertiary level?

5) What are the instructors’ views on the English language learning context in Saudi Arabia?

3.5 Research Approaches

3.5.1 Quantitative Research

Quantitative research involves instruments that will produce numerical data and these could be analysed further by employing statistics (Dornyei, 2007). Questionnaires, either paper-based or online, are among the most common research instruments under quantitative research. Researchers who employ surveys may use different types of questions, from yes/no questions to ranking, Likert scale and the semantic differential.

Questionnaires are widely used because of their advantages; a. the low cost in materials, money and time (Denscombe, 2010); and b. the views of a number of respondents can be documented at the same time. On the other hand, questionnaires present some limitations as well, among them: a. the statements or questions in the questionnaires may be limiting the views of the respondents (Gable, 1994), and b. the researchers cannot be sure of the truthfulness of the respondents (Denscombe, 2010).

3.5.2 Qualitative Research

Qualitative research involves instruments “attempting to make sense of, or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them” (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994: 2: cited in AlShehri, 2013). The most common instruments for qualitative research are interviews. The interviews come in three types depending on the control over the questions and answers: a. structured interviews have tight control over the format, b. semi-structured
interviews allow for some flexibility and c. unstructured interviews focus on the intvievees’ speaking their minds.

Researchers employ interviews because of the depth of information it can be generated and the increased validity in the sense that “data can be checked for accuracy” (Denscombe, 2010: 202). However, interviews have some drawbacks: a. they are time-consuming to record and transcribe the data, and b. the objectivity of the researcher can influence the analysis of the data.

3.5.3 Mixed-Methods Research

Mixed-methods research combines qualitative and quantitative research instruments to ensure a broad and deep level of understanding and validation of data (Johnson et al., 2007).

Mixed-methods research is usually associated with the pragmatist paradigm, which acknowledges the societal importance in language learning. As stated above, both qualitative and quantitative methods come with a set of drawbacks: questionnaires lack depth, whereas interviews, due to time limits, involve a small sample. The main attraction of mixed-methods research has been the fact that by using both qualitative and quantitative approaches, researchers “…can bring out the best of both paradigms, thereby combining quantitative and qualitative research strengths” (Dornyei, 2007: 45). They can be combined to triangulate findings, so they can be mutually verified (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

The mixed-methods approach has been recommended by many researchers who study motivation and attitudes of Saudi students toward ELL (Alkaabi, 2016; AlShehri, 2013). It is about observing, recording, analyzing and attempting to uncover the attitudes and motivation that students have toward English language learning. The integration of
qualitative and quantitative data enabled the researchers to answer the research questions based on different evidence taking into account the deeper meaning and significance of the culture, including contradictory beliefs, behaviours, and emotions.

The present research follows a mixed-methods approach; an approach for “collecting, analysing, and interpreting quantitative and qualitative data in a single study” (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006: 474). Following a mixed-method approach proved to be the best way to complete this research, because of the number of the new students (a bit less than 200 new students joined the language centre that academic year) a questionnaire proved a handy instrument to investigate these students’ language learning individual differences, because of the time constraints, and the results should be measurable (Gardner, 1985). The results uncovered students’ English language learning background and their individual differences toward English language learning (i.e. motivation, attitudes, parental influence, etc.). Whereas, with students who are exiting the language centre and faculty, purposefully designed semi-structured interviews investigated in depth the students’ attitudes, optimal classroom activities, LLS used on the one hand and instructors’ beliefs, and preferred teaching methods on the other. The data from quantitative and qualitative instruments, i.e. questionnaires and semi-structured interviews are merged and integrated to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the topic (Creswell, 2012). Mixing the two approaches, especially incoming students and exiting students provided insight into students change of attitudes toward English language learning and culture. Also, students’ motivation to learn English is viewed differently by the students themselves and their instructors. Besides, using multiple methods in a research design would also help to “give a fuller picture and address many different aspects of phenomena” (Silverman, 2000: 50). The project deliverables can lead to further research and applicability to a different context.
3.6 Research Design

Three instruments were involved in this research (Figure 3.1). A questionnaire distributed to the university students who recently joined the English Language Centre. This instrument uncovered the motivation and attitudes of the students toward ELL, and their parents’ influence toward learning English. The second instrument is a series of interviews with the students who, following a project-based learning method, finished the language programme. This instrument uncovered the students’ attitudes toward the method and the activities, as well as the strategies used to learn English.

These two instruments are related to uncover the students’ change of individual differences in learning (i.e. motivation, attitudes, strategies, parental influence) in the PBL class. The third instrument is a series of interviews with the Centre’s English instructors, to show their beliefs in teaching English in Saudi Arabia. The conclusions of the research will provide the necessary socio-educational context for the design of the Faculty orientation course.
3.7 Data Collection Procedures and Analysis

3.7.1 Procedure

This research was conducted to provide the necessary background knowledge needed for the design of the bottom-up EFL Faculty orientation course. The stakeholders provided their views in order to identify Saudi students’ motivational and attitudinal orientations, among others, in learning the English language via a project-based learning method and the instructors’ views on teaching English in the Saudi tertiary education. As it was discussed in 3.4, to achieve this objective, three research tools were used namely, surveys, interviews for students and for teachers.

Before requesting the permission to conduct the research at the university, the ethical approval from the Ethics Committee at Middlesex University was obtained. Then a letter was written by the researcher and reviewed by his Advisor to explain the objective of the present research. This letter was handed over to the Director of the English Language Centre at the university to obtain the permission to conduct the research at the site. The approval was granted in August 2014.

The questionnaires were distributed to all newly-registered male students at the Language Centre in September 2014. The number of incoming students was 194. Out of these students, 173 returned their questionnaires, but three had completed only the demographic questions and nothing else, so these three questionnaires were removed from the research sample. Most of these students had recently graduated from high school that they predominantly used the L1 (Arabic), and they had to adapt to an English medium of instruction university. These 170 students could inform the research by providing data about their background, i.e. language learning experiences in General Education, and their language learning individual differences, i.e. attitudes and motivation. In November 2014 interviews were arranged with 24 randomly selected students who were exiting the project-
based language course. These students provided insight on attitudinal change during their studies at the university, as well as their preferred LLS. Finally, in December 2014 - January 2015, a convenience sample of 9 instructors, who worked at the Language Centre following a project-based teaching method, were agreed to be interviewed. The instructors’ opinions, beliefs, and background were useful to triangulate the data, in addition to shedding light on the instructors’ readiness to teach in Saudi Arabia.

3.7.2 Data Analysis

The questionnaires were collected, and serial numbers from 1 to 170 were added. For nominal data, such as demographic questions, the existing classifications were used, i.e. country of origin and percentages. For ordinal data, descriptive statistics was used, as it adds precision to the way research is dealt with (Denscombe, 2007). Numbers, a Macintosh programme, was used for descriptive statistics to present the data in a more structured and detailed way. More specifically, the measurement of the central tendency with the mean score (M), median, mode, and the dispersion of data with standard deviation (SD), apart from percentages and raw numbers. Macintosh Numbers was also used for the design of the pie charts and bars.

The recordings from the interviews, after serial numbering, were transcribed and AT-LAS.ti (8th edition) was used in order to code the responses and then using axial codes to identify the themes, according to Grounded Theory (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). The Grounded Theory was chosen since it focuses on the significant and relevant issues in the research, and it is in line with the practical issues stated in Pragmatism (Glaser and Strauss, 1967).
3.8 Participants

3.8.1 Sampling

The research population in this study was a representative sample of Saudi male students, coming from the middle socioeconomic class, studying English at the Language Centre at the university. The students who recently joined to study English at the Language Centre and the students who are exiting the Language Centre. The research population also included English instructors who were teaching English at the Centre.

Although, according to Cohen, et al. (2007), the minimum sample size recommended for quantitative research is thirty people, in this research, the sample of the quantitative research was 170 students, so the findings would be as representative as possible of the motivation and attitudes of those participating in this study. The focus was on understanding this culture-sharing group of students and using the group to develop a deeper understanding of their sources of motivation and attitudes toward English language learning.

The site that the research was conducted was the university’s male campus facilities. However, due to gender segregation practices and the cultural restrictions, the male researcher could not have access to the Women’s Campus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method of Inquiry</th>
<th>Incoming Students</th>
<th>Outgoing Students</th>
<th>Instructors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phase 1: Survey</td>
<td>170</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase 2: Ss Interview</td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Phase 3: Is Interview</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total</td>
<td>87.6%</td>
<td>53.3%</td>
<td>42.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.1: Sampling
3.8.2 Student-Participants: Incoming Students’ Profiles

The survey was distributed to all 194 male students who had recently (less than one month) joined the college and 170 of these questionnaires were used (table 3.1), a percentage of 87.6% and it was a very high return rate. The reason for the high return rate was that the Director endorsed this research and sent an email to instructors teaching level 1, asking them to distribute the questionnaire to the new students, allowing them 25 minutes to complete it during class. Unfortunately, not all sections were completed. Some students left the semantic differential scale part unanswered, and during the data analysis, this part in the questionnaires was excluded. Thus the semantic differential scale part was completed by 156 students. After checking with the classes, I found out that students who had an Arab, non-Saudi, instructor, left the differential scale part of the survey blank. After checking with Arab instructors who were educated in western universities, the differential scale is not a common concept in the Arab world.

The 170 students who completed the surveys in phase 1 represented a solid English proficiency level; according to their placement test, these students were at a false beginner (CEFR A1) level of English competency (Council of Europe, 2001). However, they represent a rather solid population in terms of age, ranging from 18 to 26 (M=19.10), 96% are Saudis with 4% from other Arab countries, namely Syria and Egypt, 71% of them are coming from Riyadh and the rest from other cities in the KSA. Three students are from other Arab nations but resided in KSA. They seemed to come from an educated family background with most of their parents had graduated from high school (32% of fathers and 38% of mothers) and a considerable percentage of their parents hold university degrees (29% of fathers and 26% of mothers).

All students (Saudis and non-Saudis) had attended general education in Saudi Arabia, 53% of them have attended a private high school, 40% a public school, while a small
number, of 7%, graduated from an international school. Although more than half of them (57%) had studied English for 850 compulsory hours, in their primary and secondary education, and 41% had received out-of-school English lessons to improve their proficiency, their placement test results showed an A1 CEFR level in English. The students’ low results in the placement test, highlighted their low achievement in English after general education. The majority of the students (more than 64%) received funding from the King Abdullah Scholarship Programme to attend higher education.

3.8.3 Student-Participants: Outgoing Students’ Profiles

Twenty-four students were randomly selected for interviews out of the 45 students attending the last level of the Foundation Programme. The researcher used the odd numbers of students on the roster. Half of these (51%) students have attended all eight levels at the English Language Centre, so they have received 640 hours of English instruction at the language programme. All of them will sit for the TOEFL-ITP (Test of English as a Foreign Language - Institutional Testing Programme) which will measure their proficiency level. The advantage of selecting the sample at random is that it would be representative, though could include less motivated individuals in the sample. Some interviewees were giving concise answers, without further explaining their responses.

3.8.4 Teacher-Participants’ Profiles

Nine teachers agreed to be interviewed regarding their beliefs on teaching English in Saudi Arabia. The researcher had sent an email to the all 21 male English Faculty at the language Centre, and nine instructors agreed to be interviewed. Using a convenience sample means that the participants are more motivated since they selected to be interviewed; but the sample might not be representative of the population. The nine instructors
were mainly from western countries, five were from the USA, one from Canada, one from Poland, and one from India, while one was from Syria. Their ages ranged from 27 to 64 (M=35.88), their teaching experience from 4 to 35 years (M=11), and their teaching experience in Saudi ranged from 6 months to 4 years (M=2.61). Nearly all instructors had taught in different countries before Saudi, five of them had taught in South Korea, three in Europe and one did not have any previous experience. Regarding qualifications, the vast majority of the instructors held a Master degree in teaching, as this was the minimum requirement to get a position at a university in Saudi Arabia, and thus could be classified as highly experts in English education. One instructor had majored in literature, one in education-literacy and one in Middle Eastern studies. As for training, four out of nine held a teaching qualification, at the certificate level; CELTA or Cert.TESOL, from a teacher education institution. Finally, regarding their future plans, three of them wanted to pursue a PhD, one wanted to become a teacher trainer, and one wanted a career change.
3.9 Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues are of great importance, and they were considered in this research. Before the commencement of this research, permission was granted by the English Language Center at the Saudi university. The Director of the Centre informed all English instructors who were teaching students at Level 1 (CEFR A1) and Level 5 (CEFR B1+) to ensure their cooperation and assistance to the researcher. All respondents, both students and instructors, agreed to be interviewed, and none of them withdrawn the interviews. All participants’ interests and identities were protected. Participants were informed that participation was voluntary, anonymous, confidential (Cohen et al., 2007), and were free to withdraw at any point in the research. The informed consent form (the participants’ agreement to take part in the research) was reviewed by the researcher’s advisor and the document was translated in Arabic as well (Appendix D), following Patton’s (2002) procedure. Informed consent was obtained by participants before them taking part in the research.

Copies of the questionnaire were given to Level 1 instructors to distribute it to their students. The purpose of the research was written on the consent form in both English and Arabic as the cover page of the questionnaire. The instructors allocated time for the students who wanted to fill out the questionnaire and give it back to them. The researcher assured the students in person about the options to withdraw and about the measures that would be undertaken to keep the data confidential and anonymised. The Level 1 classrooms have movable chairs with writing board tablets for each student and they were arranged in rows, so students could not share their answers with their classmates. Then participating students handed in their questionnaires to their instructor and each instructor put them into big brown envelops and delivered these to the researcher. The researcher locked all envelops into a secure closet.
All interviews (both students who are finishing the English programme and the instructors) were conducted in an empty classroom on the second floor of the IT college (nowadays the area of the College of Architecture). The particular classroom was away from other classrooms, well-lit with natural sunlight from the 5 windows, and permission to conduct the interviews in this classroom was granted from the college. Especially for the interviews with the instructors, this classroom was preferable, as the faculty offices were designed using cubicles for each instructor; thus anonymity, as well as confidentiality, could not have been ensured in the instructors’ offices.

Confidentiality was also ensured by deleting all names or even any identifying information of the participants and serial numbers were added to each instrument. All 170 questionnaires were numbered from 1 to 170, the 24 students’ interviews were numbered according to the level section they come from: 7 students from section 1 (1.1 to 1.7), 1 student from section 3 (3.8), and 16 students from section 5 (5.1 to 5.16). The interviews with the nine instructors were given the letter ‘I’ (for Instructor) and a serial number (I1 to I9). All participants were also informed that data would be used only for the purposes of the present research and the materials would be safely stored until the end of this study and they will be destroyed right after the successful submission of the thesis.
3.10 Conclusion

This chapter covered the research methodological aspects. Notably, the philosophical background that informed the research methods, the sampling and information about participants' profiles and concluded with the ethical issues and my stance as an insider-outsider to the project. The next chapter will provide more information about applying this methodology.
Chapter 4: Project Activity

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the process of applying the research methodology and the design of the relevant research instruments, i.e. the questionnaire, and the interview questions for the students and the English instructors. This chapter also provides information about the process of administering the three research instruments and later analysing the data. Finally, this chapter will explain the development of the EFL faculty orientation course.

4.2 Instruments

4.2.1 Survey

The first method of inquiry is a questionnaire (Appendix A) which consisted of 93 items. Students indicated their attitudes and motivation toward ELL within a six-point Likert scale (1: strongly agree to 6: strongly disagree) format based on selected sections from Horwitz’s (1988) Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) and Gardner’s (2004;1985) Attitudes and Motivation Test Battery (AMTB).

Questions 1 to 7: Positive and negative attitudes among Saudi learners stemming from the ethnic origin, historical events, geopolitical concerns, and positioning were expected to affect learner attitudes towards the target language and culture. e.g. Individuals of Palestinian origin were expected to have a negative attitude towards the USA due to the partiality of US Administration that favours Israel, at the expense of Palestine and Palestinian people. One could assume thereof that the attitude of Palestinian students to learning the target language is also negative or at best prejudiced. This kind of assumption, however,
might or might not be borne out by the data collected over a period of time, e.g. in the academic year as students progress through subsequent levels of instruction.

It is believed that parents’ educational attainment is connected to offsprings’ positive attitudes towards language learning (Hartas, 2011; Hoff & Tian, 2005). Given the power of family values and role status of senior members in the Arab culture, offspring could be more likely to adopt parental attitudes and beliefs. This needs to be further addressed and substantiated through witting and unwitting evidence in the course of this research.

Scholarships are typically granted to less affluent students who are less likely to have travelled broadly, socialised with non-Arabs, used the target language to communicate, travelled and become familiar with different behavioural norms and cultures. Students who come from wealthy families, on the other hand, are expected to have led a more cosmopolitan lifestyle that provides access to all the above and have therefore adopted a positive attitude towards all or most things western. However, given individual choices within a changing social context, this belief needs to be investigated further.

Questions 8 to 18: It is not uncommon for Saudi parents to speak English to their children in real-life contexts in an attempt to help them develop the desired language proficiency as early as possible. As a matter of fact, the researcher had observed many Saudi parents talking to their children in English. In addition to it, many times he had seen parents reading English fairy tales to their toddlers in the Jarir Bookstores in Riyadh. It is not clear, however, whether this practice is consistent with the attitude held towards an English speaking culture. Attitudes tend to differ depending on the domain, i.e. US education and science are highly regarded, whereas official US policy is scorned. The existence or lack of consistency between observable practices and prevalent attitudes deserves further investigation.
School curricula for ELT define several goals including intercultural communication, aiming at the achievement of Level B2+, Independent/ Proficient User (CEFR- Common European Framework, having evolved for international purposes). Since the current curriculum has not been in effect for more than four years, not all graduates have had the opportunity to study English from 4th Grade through to 12th Grade. The level of competence manifested in the performance of 1st-year university students ranges from beginner to CEFR B2+ or advanced level. A portion of high school students attends language classes offered by private language institutes, in addition to English classes within their school. The extent to which such classes contribute to successful performance remains to be seen. Further, research is justified to investigate this factor.

Questions 25 to 28: Given the students’ lack of preparedness upon entering tertiary education and having to study the TL (Target Language) through a project-based approach, it was paramount that learner perceptions and experiences in secondary school were identified as a means of identifying strengths and weaknesses and informing a more complete learner profile.

Inviting learners to self-assess and identify their perceived strengths and weaknesses can be quite revealing in terms of prevalent practices and priorities in secondary school, as well as learner views on what constitutes evidence of learning/ development/ success. Interestingly, learner perceptions of strengths and weakness tally with outcomes of formal assessment tools, including the language placement test administered before university entry.

Prevalent attitudes/ views on written language affect the production of a written text. Lack of a firm basis, through for example, phonics, combined with the different status and related features of written Arabic increase difficulty and intensify inhibitions, often leading students to avoid writing altogether. For instance, students tend to leave out unstressed or
even stressed vowels: ‘ppl’ or “pipl” instead of “people”, ‘phon’ instead of “phone”, transferring encoding conventions from Arabic. Awareness of such factors and the willingness to remedy through systematic practice on the part of instructors can help redress these issues more effectively and provide the support needed. Findings gained from the further investigation are expected to inform ways of dealing with such difficulties.

Course objectives/ aims and the way they affect teaching/learning approaches can be detrimental or beneficial to the development of fluency and communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). Should the course precede a formal exam, overall proficiency in the target language is demoted as a secondary concern or lower, and course work clones task-types included in the given examination as many times as possible with a view to familiarising students with the test format and developing the necessary strategies to ‘pass’ with a good mark. Questions 29 to 32, are used to detect primary objectives along the lines discussed above. Although, the issue of “teaching the test-testing the test” has been ongoing, it remains unresolved in practice. As such, it constitutes one more relevant factor than can inform potential tutors and prevent hasty conclusions about learners.

Questions 33 to 37: Parental influence and expectations can extend beyond the reinforcement of a given attitude and take on a more active role supervising, assessing or helping students learn the target language, complete assignments etc. Parental support or interference, depending on qualitative factors, can, in turn, affect learner autonomy; reduce learner confidence and sense of achievement. As this parameter can affect learning outcomes, its inclusion is fully justifiable in the context of this research and the requirements of project-based learning.

Prompting learners to qualify their impression of past English lessons along a continuum, gives them ‘license’ to be negative or positive to varying degrees. As practitioners, we often make untested assumptions as to what is interesting, boring, appealing or unap-
pealing to learners within a given age group. The scale used in questions 38 to 50 is designed to elicit learner answers that may or may not correlate with teacher expectations and assumptions.

Questions 51 to 57: Additional sections of this instrument pertained to integrative and instrumental orientations as well as parental involvement in student language learning drawn from Gardner’s Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (1985). Gardner’s (1985) semantic differential scale was also used to elicit attitudes towards their English lessons in their last year of study in secondary school. Data on integrative and instrumental motivation can be revealing as to the individual learner’s self-image in addition to the effect of practical circumstances and incentives. However, given a number of variables, such as changing circumstances and personal factors, findings/outcomes are likely to vary at different points of time, in a year. Mismatched expectations can also prove troublesome, e.g. having believed that one would gain more respect through the knowledge of a foreign language, one finds out that reality differs! The issues raised for the practitioner regarding communication and mentoring of the particular learner cannot be disregarded. Tutors need to consider ways of updating and testing the validity of claims regarding beliefs and expectations.

Questions 58 to 62: Language aptitude “the natural ability to learn a language, not including intelligence, motivation, interest, etc. …thought to be the combination of various abilities, such as oral mimicry, phonemic coding, ability, grammatical sensitivity, … the ability to infer language rules …etc.” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010) and related beliefs are likely to affect learner performance and development. If for example results indicate that a learner strongly agrees with the last statement, then failure to perform/learn is likely to have adverse effects on the learner’s confidence and ability to learn something that “Everyone can learn …".
Questions 63 to 71: Findings on The Nature of Language Learning were expected to reveal “the ideas that learners have concerning different aspects of language, language learning and language teaching that may influence their attitudes and motivation … and have an effect on their learning strategies and learning outcomes” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010) Consequently, the information in this area is key as it helps the researcher and practitioner to identify and address or redress specific needs.

Answers obtained through questions 72 to 77, revealed learner abilities and strategies that are necessary for the utilisation of available knowledge resources to express or understand the meaning to the best of one’s abilities, i.e. compensatory strategy, avoidance strategy (Tarone, 1981). Interestingly, communication strategies are crucial in exam-oriented courses that include an interactive speaking component. However, they would seem to clash with the product-oriented approach adopted by most exam prep courses, e.g. TOEFL, IELTS.

Questions 78 to 93: Finally, the last group of questions addressed widely held beliefs about the two English speaking communities (UK and USA) that are more frequently used as linguistic models and are regarded with approval, disapproval, admiration or dislike among other feelings. As such widely held beliefs might be based on facts/ knowledge and thus substantiated or based on partial information and thus qualify as unsubstantiated assumptions, further investigation is expected to yield key information about views on target cultures. Findings can, in turn, be used to identify positive or negative bias which will require attention if ultimate goals aiming at the development of successful intercultural communication are to be upheld.

Neither the Likert-scale, nor the semantic-differential scale was originally created to be used specifically in a Saudi EFL context, and therefore, both were translated with care. The survey was first translated by a postgraduate student, checked by several Arabs with
teaching experience and finally checked and back-translated to English by a Syrian professor who specialises in language education issues. Although Gardner’s work has been under considerable scrutiny by critics both the AMTB and Horwitz’s BALLI (1988), continue to be used for their superior psychometric qualities (Dordi-Nezhad, 2015; MacIntyre, 2002; Carter, 2002; Kuntz, 1996). The content and face validity for the questionnaire were established by a panel of two faculty members of a teacher training institute, approved by Cambridge University ESOL to run teacher education courses, and one postgraduate student at near-native English language attainment (C2 level). The current questionnaire constitutes a thorough sample that covers the majority if not all the raw data intended to be captured. Its finalisation will further be refined during Part II.

4.2.2 Interviews

The interviews took place in October and November 2014 and the interviewees were male students who were finishing the English programme at the Centre. Another data collection tool of the utmost importance is the interview since it is flexible and enables multi-sensory channels to be used (Cohen et al., 2007) verbal, non-verbal, spoken and heard. A series of interviews (Appendix B) were used in an effort to obtain unique information or interpretation from the interviewees to detect their motivation after having studied in English, their favourite classroom activities and the strategies they deployed in order to learn and become proficient in English. For this qualitative research, the main purposes are:

1. Obtaining unique information or interpretation held by the person interviewed
2. Collecting a numerical aggregation of information from many persons
3. Finding out how tertiary education has changed students’ views on English language learning
4. Building a list of classroom learning activities that transformed their attitudes on learning English.

A question that can be added would be whether or not they are interested in attending more English language training courses to improve their proficiency in the English language and their attitudes toward the English language and the culture of the English speaking world. The question about continuing attendance is of great importance in order to find out about their desire to learn and develop their language skills, and a primary component of language learning motivation (Gardner, 2006).

The interview questions asked students to:

1) describe if their educational experiences at the university influence their attitudes towards English language learning.

2) comment on the role teachers play in influencing students’ motivation to learn English.

3) comment on the role their parents play in shaping their motivation to learn English.

4) present their reasons for learning English and the future use of the language.

5) describe their favourite classroom learning activities.

6) describe their preferred learning strategies.
4.2.3 Teachers’ Beliefs Interviews (Appendix C)

The aim is to see if it is possible to identify a coherent system of beliefs about teaching that may account for different approaches to education. According to Richards & Schmidt (2010), language teaching consisted of ideas and theories that teachers hold about themselves, teaching, language, learning and their students. Teachers’ beliefs are thought to be stable constructs derived from practitioners’ experiences, reflection on their experiences, observations, training and other sources, such as: their responses to innovation, possible resistance to methods, activities, materials, etc., and function as a frame of reference when teachers encounter new ideas, sometimes impeding the acceptance of new ideas or practices.

In teacher education, a focus on belief systems is considered important since teacher development involves the development of skills and knowledge that adhere to specific principles and thus the development of new belief systems or modification of existing belief systems. Johnson (1994) identified three underlying assumptions underlying this growing body of research: “Teachers’ beliefs have an effect on what teachers do in the classroom insofar as beliefs affect perception and judgment. Teachers’ beliefs are fundamental in learning to teach in that they influence how new information about learning and teaching is interpreted and how it becomes classroom practice. Understanding teachers’ beliefs has an important role to play in improving teacher education. However, research in this area has also shown that beliefs can be remarkably resistant to change and that teacher education programs may have a little real effect on a teacher’s classroom behaviour” (p. 439).

To put all these in effect, the interview started with demographics to find the teachers’ professional data, e.g. education and training background, their reasons for coming in Saudi Arabia, the views they held before arriving in the Kingdom and if these views are altered. Finally, they were asked about their favourite teaching approach/method.
4.3 Procedures

4.3.1 Piloting

Piloting was undertaken to check whether the Arabic translation of the student questionnaire was appropriate to the context, could be read with ease, and to detect and resolve any misunderstanding that might occur during the actual use of this survey. Ten students at the elementary level received the sample and were asked to complete it and underline with a red pen any questions or parts that they felt were not clear. After they finished the questionnaires, the researcher had short interviews to verify the coding with the students who noted down their queries. Three students were not sure of the exact translation in Arabic of one (the same) word on the questionnaire. More specifically, in the question No 40, Saudis use another word for the word “repetitive” which is different from the standard Arabic. The researcher asked for the help of proficient Arabic speakers to check the original word versus the students’ term. These professors concluded that this word could be translated into both words in Arabic. So their word in Arabic was also included inside the parenthesis. This enabled the researcher to develop consistency and accuracy.

Similarly, the outgoing-students interview questions were tested, and minor changes were made, although these questions were in English.

4.3.2 Data collection procedures

The survey was distributed to 194 newly registered students at the English Language Centre of the University for the Academic Year 2014-2015, at the beginning of the Fall semester (September 2014). Usually, two hundred new students register at both faculties. Although my initial estimate of 50% of the students who can complete the survey, would be a satisfying return rate, 173 students returned the questionnaire, but 3 participants had filled out only the first page of the questionnaire. So the sample of incoming students con-
sisted of 170 questionnaires. All new students have to sit for the university entrance exam, which tests their competency in the English language. They were asked to fill out the survey, upon completing the exam, making it clear that this is not compulsory and that no time limit had been set for the completion of the questionnaire. They were informed that it takes 20-25 minutes to fill it out. The majority of the students completed the survey within 20-25 minutes.

Regarding the interviews, the procedure the researcher followed was to interview twenty-four students who are at the last level of the Foundation programme, about to exit the language centre and nine instructors. The interviewees were asked to comment on their views (attitudes), preferred teaching and learning approaches, experiences and processes that help them learn the language, and the role that English can play to their future plans. The interviews were used as parallel research tracks with the surveys and contributed qualitatively to the survey findings. The interviews were conducted in October and November 2014, at the campus, in an empty classroom where there was absolute privacy. Before conducting the interviews, both students and instructors were briefed on the aims and procedures of the interview and informed consent from the interviewees was granted.

To minimise the interviewees’ reluctance to expose their true responses and honest views and to ensure better and valid results, they were informed that their answers would be treated with complete confidentiality. In order to increase the interviewees’ thinking time and lack of depth in the interviewees’ responses, since grounded theory needs rich data (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) for concepts to be identified, the hard copies of the interview questions were distributed two days before the actual interview. In that way, the interviewees were more at ease with the questions and had more time to think their responses and to ensure that their responses provide the researcher with enough input. Nearly all of them used the hard copies to take notes. The hard copies were collected after the inter-
view. Moreover, ethical issues related to the culture and nature of the interviewees and the policy of the Centre were taken into consideration when conducting the interviews. An audio recorder was used in order to record the interviewees, combined with brief notes taken by the interviewer. Although, it is common to video record the subjects, in this case, due to the cultural restrictions, video record was treated with scepticism and concern that it would result in the unwillingness of the subjects to participate. The data obtained from the interviews were in the form of impressions (Seliger & Shohamy, 2008), field notes, and written transcripts.

As mentioned, in detail in 3.7, all participants were not the researcher’s students, they were over 18 years old, and before administering the survey and conducting the interviews permission was obtained by the Director of the English Language Centre and the time was arranged with the faculty and students. Prior to supplying material, all participants granted informed consent; so they were informed of the objectives and significance of the study and reassured that the collected data would be anonymous and their responses will be treated with confidentiality.

4.4 Conclusion

This chapter dealt with the researcher’s beliefs, ideas and reasons behind the design of the research instruments, the application of the research project and the activities the researcher undertook to administer the tools. The next chapter presents the findings that were emerged from different research instruments after they were administered and analysed.
Chapter 5: Findings and Discussion

5.1 Introduction

The findings from the sample examined, i.e. students and instructors emerged the Saudi socio-educational context which is essential for the orientation course for the new EFL instructors. As it was referred to in methodology, descriptive statistics were used to analyse questionnaire data, identifying the mean, the mode, and the standard deviation, apart from the percentages. The audio files from interviews with the exiting students and the instructors were transcribed, read very carefully line-by-line, and coded. Then axial codes were assigned to identify the themes and extract relevant items that focus as much as possible on the syllabus design of EFL faculty orientation course, i.e. educational practices at the university, as well as social and cultural factors.
5.2 Students’ starting the English Programme: Questionnaire Results

5.2.1 English Language Proficiency

The data about the students’ language proficiency reveal that although students have studied English for a number of years during their General Education studies, their target language proficiency is still low. The 170 incoming students who completed the questionnaire had started learning English at elementary school (M: 12.54 years old) and 43% of the participants attended extra English classes at an English language institute during their General Education years to improve their command in the L2. However, all these years of receiving English input did not culminate in an improved English language command. When they registered at the university, and after taking the placement test at the English language centre, their level was below CEFR A1 (elementary level). The lack of English language command after General Education seems to agree with other researchers who commended on Saudi students’ poor English language ability after high school (Rajab, 2013; Khan, 2011).

5.2.2 English Language Teaching in High School

Most students (52%) rated very clearly their past years of learning English at school as necessary (Graph 5.1), useful and meaningful, but unrewarding (41%) (Graph 5.2).

Graph 5.1: Semantic Differential Scale of Students’ Impressions of the Past Years’ English Lessons:
Q46: Necessary Vs Unnecessary
Graph 5.2: Semantic Differential Scale of Students’ Impressions of the Past Years’ English Lessons:

Q49: Unrewarding Vs Rewarding

As Table 5.1 shows, the participants confirmed the English lesson in high school was quite structured, focusing on grammar instruction, the communicative opportunities in the class were scarce, while 64% of the students responded that they rarely or never had listening practice in class.

Moreover, 47% of the respondents confirmed that translation was commonly used in class. These findings are in line with the existing research in KSA; Alrashidi and Phan (2015) reported that English teachers in Saudi Arabian schools employ grammar-translation as a teaching method, since their English proficiency is limited (Al-Seghayer, 2014a). Also, Assalahi (2013) stated that grammar translation method is so deeply engraved in the Saudi ELT context that even if English teachers want to implement the communicative language teaching method, they have to revert to translation. On the other hand, Albesher et al. (2018) found that the purposeful use of Arabic in the English class speeds up the learning process. Furthermore, Alrashidi and Phan (2015) commented on the poverty of available audiovisual resources in the English language classroom.
According to 60% of the respondents reported that their English teachers in high school were not aiming at developing their students’ communicative competence (Q 30: Table 5.2), while on the other hand, the purpose of the students who attended the English classes was to develop their communicative fluency in the L2, as the 77% of the students responded (Table 5.2).

Table 5.2 Students’ attitudes on English fluency

Although there is no relevant research on the topic of Saudi students’ purposes for studying English, many researchers stated that students in Saudi General Education see
English as a compulsory subject that they just need to pass without much effort (Ashraf, 2018; Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013).

### 5.2.3 Parental Influence

Students who filled out the questionnaire responded that their parents encouraged them to study English during their high school years. Still, their responses were quite polarised when the question was coming to the actual support, i.e. homework (Table 5.3). Parents understand the importance of English as a lingua franca, and they encourage their offsprings, as 76% of the students confirmed (Table 5.3, Q 36, Strongly Agree and Agree). The students whose both parents graduated from tertiary education reported that their parents were more convinced that knowledge of English is vital for their children as they live in an international era (Mean: 1.69; SD: 1.09; VAR: 1.3). Although it seems that parents could understand the importance of English, a surprising 42% of the respondents stated that their parents didn’t help them much with home assignments. Finally, 16% of the students indicated that their parents did not encourage them to become fluent in English.

The relevant literature stresses the importance of parental influence, as it is essential for students’ command in the English language (Al-Qahtani and Al Zumor, 2016). The findings also support Hofstede’s Power Distance and Individualism dimensions (2001), and Daleure et al. (2015) who found that although parents provide academic support to their children, this support is rarely conducive to learning. More specifically, parents will buy English books and movies for their children, they will support them academically and financially, as in all collectivist cultures, but at the same time parents will keep a distance, and they will rarely deal with demonstration of language skills to their offsprings how to develop their reading and listening skills.
Table 5.3 Parental Influence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q No</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>1 Strongly Agree</th>
<th>2 Agree</th>
<th>3 Slightly Agree</th>
<th>4 Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>5 Disagree</th>
<th>6 Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>During my high school years, my parents tried to help me with my English homework</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>1.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>My parents feel that because we live in an international era, I should learn English</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>During my high school years, my parents encouraged me to become as fluent in English as possible.</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.4 Students’ Motivation to Learn English

Motivation has been characterised as one of the most critical factors that can influence the success or the failure of an EFL programme (Dornyei, 1994). The questionnaire included questions on Integrative and Instrumental motivation, based on Gardner’s AMTB (2004, 1985). Students are studying English to be more at ease with the foreigners who speak English (Q 52: 89% confirmed agreement) because they appreciate culture (Q 53: 84% verified agreement), and they might stay in an English-speaking country in the future (Q 51: 70% confirmed agreement). On the other hand, students do not seem to be so instrumentally motivated. Students will need English for their future career and to be more knowledgeable in their jobs (Q 54: 67% and Q 55: 73% verified agreement). More than half of the respondents are planning to continue their studies in an English-speaking country (Q 56). Only 45% of the respondents believed that people would respect them more.
because they know English (Q 57). A simple statistical analysis of the two orientations (Table: 5.4) show that the respondents have an apparent inclination toward Integrative motivation (personal fulfilment).

Table 5.4 Integrative Vs Instrumental Motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Orientation</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>VAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Integrative</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>2.98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This study found that students manifest strong integrative orientation as well as instrumental orientation to motivation mainly related to the use of English in their future careers. The relevant literature in the KSA context confirmed that students are motivated, however, the literature on the motivational orientation is not in any way conclusive. For instance, the current findings agree with Massri (2017) who reported high integrative motivation of students in KSA toward English, whereas Elsheikh et al. (2014) found that students at KSA universities are instrumentally motivated but integratively demotivated.

Other studies researched the dichotomy Intrinsic versus Extrinsic motivation; the purpose of doing something is inherently interesting versus doing something for gaining external rewards, i.e. money and job (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Intrinsic motivation is a part of Integrativeness. Researchers, who study students motivation to learn English in KSA, concluded that students in Saudi Arabia are motivated, but they lack intrinsic motivation to learn English (Javid et al., 2012, and Liton, 2012: cited in Al-Seghayer, 2014b). The findings of this study support Massri (2017) and show the possibility of a very recent alteration in the motivational orientation of university students learning English in Saudi Arabia.
5.2.5 The Nature of Language Learning

Respondents believe that learning English means learning grammar (Q 63) and lexis (Q 66) (85% and 82% respectively), as Table 5.5 shows, while using translation is an essential element of learning the target language (75%). 87% of the students also agreed that communicative competence is the purpose of learning English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q No</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>1 Strongly Agree</th>
<th>2 Agree</th>
<th>3 Slightly Agree</th>
<th>4 Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>5 Disagree</th>
<th>6 Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>63</td>
<td>The most important part of learning English is learning the grammar</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66</td>
<td>The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning vocabulary words</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>Practicing English conversation will help me improve my English</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>Learning about the differences between English and Arabic will help me improve my English</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67</td>
<td>The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from my native language</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.5 Nature of Language Learning

The elements of a very traditional language teaching approach could be easily discerned from the respondents’ answers. The English teachers in General Education, due to their limited English language proficiency and lack of pedagogical knowledge (Al-Seghayer, 2014a), follow very traditional teaching methods, based on Grammar Translation and memorisation of vocabulary lists. Thus, students believe that a teaching approach based
on analysis of grammar, memorisation of lexis, and the translation is the successful ap-
proach to learning English (Q 65, Q 67), as a consequence of their exposure to such in-
structional methods during their school years.

5.2.6 Learning and Communication Strategies

Excellent English pronunciation seems to be a significant aim of English language
learning in KSA, as 75% of the students responded (Q 72). Thus the Audio-lingual method,
repeat and practice, is a way to achieve this aim (Q 74), according to 80% of the students
who strongly agree and agree with the respective statement (Table 5.6). At the same time,
students favour avoidance strategies such as being silent (Q 73) until they can use English
correctly (54%), while they lack word-attack skills in reading comprehension. 51% of the
students confirmed various degrees of agreement that reading comprehension may not
take place unless all lexical items are meaningful to the readers, which confirms the lack of
respective reading comprehension strategies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q No</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>1 Strongly Agree</th>
<th>2 Agreement</th>
<th>3 Slightly Agree</th>
<th>4 Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>5 Disagree</th>
<th>6 Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>SD</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>72</td>
<td>It is important to speak English with excellent pronunciation</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73</td>
<td>You shouldn’t say anything in English until you can say it correctly</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74</td>
<td>It is important to repeat and practice a lot</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76</td>
<td>I can’t understand a text, unless I know the meaning of every word in it</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.6 Communication Strategies

The importance of excellent English pronunciation is stressed in the English curriculum
in Saudi Arabia, which has adopted only the Standard American Accent as a model (Al-
shammari, 2015). The avoidance strategies employed by the students could be a sign of
lack of ELL strategies, as Saudi students are low users of ELL strategies (Alhaysony, 2017).

5.2.7 Students Attitudes toward English Culture

Respondents have understood that knowledge of English culture plays a pivotal role in using English (Q 68), as 79% of them show different levels of agreement (Table 5.7). Most students also see life in the USA as a highly desirable model (71%). Students have positive views about the AngloAmerican tertiary education system (77-78% confirmed agreement), as well as scientific contributions made by Americans (75%). Most respondents seem to favour the American people (81%). As far as the students' favourite sport is concerned, respondents seem not to particularly support American or British football clubs (m 3.73).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q No</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>1 Strongly Agree</th>
<th>2 Agree</th>
<th>3 Slightly Agree</th>
<th>4 Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>5 Disagree</th>
<th>6 Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>68</td>
<td>It is important to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78</td>
<td>Americans are very friendly people</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>Most of my favourite football teams are British or American</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82</td>
<td>American universities are the best</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83</td>
<td>British universities are the best</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84</td>
<td>American scientists have made the most significant contributions in their areas of study</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>91</td>
<td>Life in the USA represents a highly desirable model</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Many researchers confirmed that Saudi students’ attitudes toward English culture are very favourable (Hagler, 2014), especially if they have enough exposure to English mass media (Alrahaili, 2014). Akram (2015) went a step further and reported that Saudi students at a PYP in Jubail, wanted to look like English people because they were impressed by the Western culture.

The surprising fact was that more than half of the students consider life in the US as a desirable model and this finding disagrees with the cultural homogeneity in terms of Saudi traditions, Arabic language, and Islamic identity (Al-Seghayer, 2005; cited in Alrahaili, 2019). This discrepancy could be attributed to the profile of the respondents. These middle-class students come mainly from urban areas of the Kingdom where the Western lifestyle is more prevalent, and they study at an American-affiliated institution.

5.2.8 Summary of Quantitative Evidence

The respondents confirmed that they came to the university from a rote-learning favoured secondary education system, where English is viewed as a compulsory subject to master the linguistic competence, through discrete-item practice activities (grammar, vocabulary). Still, the students’ communicative competence (i.e. listening and speaking opportunities) in English was neglected. Grammar translation and memorisation of lists of words with their equivalent in Arabic were usually utilised as the method to teach English in General Education. As a consequence, students lacked the general English language command.

The parental influence seems important; all students reported that their parents encouraged them to study English, however the parents’ practical help, i.e. assisting their children with homework, was minimal.
The incoming students reported high levels of motivation, with integrative motivation distinctively higher than instrumental motivation. Of course, other reasons may explain this difference, such as the socio-economic background of the students, or the western influence on the capital city of the Kingdom. The present study confirms past studies that Saudi university students are motivated (either integratively or instrumentally) to learn English. Regarding English language learning strategies, the incoming students reported that they favour avoidance strategies, i.e. avoiding attempting to use the language or read a text if they are not sure about the content.

Finally, the incoming students reported very positive attitudes toward British and American cultures, educational systems, and scientific progress. The students considered that the target culture could not be separated from the target language. Thus, culture and language should be linked together.
5.3 Students Exiting the English Programme: Interviews

The interviews with the twenty-four students who were finishing the English programme were recorded, and the transcripts were carefully read line-by-line and coded, as it was explained in the methodology chapter. Then using axial coding, six themes came up:

1. Attitudes toward learning English
2. Parental encouragement/ Family influence
3. Students’ preferred language learning strategies
4. Teachers’ qualities
5. Developmental motivation
6. Preferred teaching activities and topics

The emerged six themes above provided evidence toward the planning of the EFL faculty orientation course. The students provided qualitative evidence about their English language learning experiences during their studies at the English Programme.

5.3.1 Attitudes toward Learning English

All interviewees confirmed that studying English at the Language Centre helped them change their attitudes to ELL and they view English. A number of the students also mentioned that they liked the teaching approach (i.e. Project-based learning). Some of the students revealing responses were:

Yes, because before I came here, I thought differently about people, but when I communicate with the people who have more experience here at the university, I changed all… If you don’t understand me, tell me teacher, I can explain (prompt from the researcher: please). For example before I came here I thought… oh English is very difficult, how can I learn English in the future and I had a lot of mention… No… things in my mind, but when I use it here at the university and when I learn it here at the university, I think in a different way… I think it’s easy (Student 5.1).
As the student mentioned, the English instructors at the university used a different method based more on developing students communicative competence and students seemed to appreciate this teaching method more than the rote-learning that students received previously during the secondary education.

Another student referred to the English culture in a very positive light. He appreciated the differences between the local culture and the target language culture and linked culture awareness to successful communication:

Yes, because you have to understand their cultures. They like things we don’t do and we like things they don’t do, so we have to understand other cultures to communicate (Student 5.13).

According to Gardner (2005), Integrativeness involves -apart from the integrative orientation- the students’ positive attitudes toward learning the target language and an openness to the target language culture. The interviewees’ responses in this study revealed very positive attitudes toward learning the target language and also the target culture. This finding is in line with recent research that Saudi students held very positive attitudes toward English language learning and target language culture (Javid et al., 2017). On the other hand, Shah and Elyas (2019) reported that Saudi students, especially the ones from rural areas, are prejudiced against English, as they do not see a practical value in learning the language of the non-believers. Khan (2011) found that the lack of everyday exposure to the target language, as it is common in rural areas in the Kingdom, may result in weakening students’ motivation to learn the language. The participants in this study come mainly from major urban areas where exposure to English in daily life is ensured due to the numbers of expatriates in the urban areas of the Kingdom.
5.3.2 Parental Encouragement / Family Influence

Parents play a pivotal role in the interviewees’ English language learning process. Twenty, out of twenty-four, students reported that their parents would watch English films with them, since the time they were schoolchildren.

My parents encourage me to watch films, because they wanted me to practice English everyday, you know, because I’m at this university, they want me to learn faster (Student 5.2).

Some students also reported that their parents considered input very important and it is linked to other productive skills like reading and writing:

Yes, also my father wants me a good speaker in English and also a good writer in English. That’s why he told me read books to get the spelling (Student 5.1).

Although parents provide films and books for their offspring, it seems they rarely supervise the progress, and the students lose their enthusiasm soon. The comment below is characteristic:

Yes they gave me books in English, but I don’t read them every day (Student 5.2).

Parents, siblings, and the wider family have also proved an invaluable resource for the students to practice English at home:

Yes, at home with my friend from America he used to teach me English, because all people speak English and all my family speak English… my father, my mother, my brothers… all (Student 5.8).

Most interviewees confirmed that their family members influence them to follow university studies at the particular university:

When I was a [high school] student many people told me about the university. My brother also told me to join because this university has high standards and I had a good image in my mind about the university (Student 5.14).
According to Al-Qahtani and Zumor (2016), parental influence is one of the factors that contribute to successful language learning. In this study, the outgoing students reported that their parents encourage them since their early years to receive input in English, from films, books, and discussions in the TL at home. The findings of parental encouragement tend to agree with Daleure et al. (2015), who found that although parents provide academic support to their children, this support is rarely conducive to learning.

5.3.3 Students’ Preferred Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

The interviewees reported very moderate use of LLS. The vast majority of them confirmed that the use of technology is their usual strategy. Even when the question was about their preferred LLS while having difficulties in a conversation, their responses included the use of technology:

*I use the dictionary in my mobile phone…because it’s easy and fast* (Student 1.1).

Another student’s comment shed light to a common practice of students in writing classes:

*I use Mr Google Translator to write something* (Student 5.3)

The common practice in writing is to write an essay in Arabic and then they translate it in English using Google Translate.

Apart from the extensive use of technology as a language learning strategy (LLS), many students reported indirect social strategies, i.e. they ask someone who is more knowledgeable, to translate for them:

*When I have some words and I don’t know… for example the pronunciation, I ask the teacher to read it and I put the word in to my mind* (Student 5.4)
Eleven students referred to direct cognitive strategies, i.e. students rehearse their production and make links between the information they know and the new one, or even the use of paraphrasing:

… absolutely, yes for example I learn words from here [the university] and then I go to the family business and I talk to the workers there and I feel confident and all that is coming from the university (Student 5.12).

A number of the interviewees also reported use of indirect metacognitive strategies. These strategies assist language learning and allow students to “manage and monitor their learning” (Cotterall & Reinders, 2004: 4):

In writing, I love to make brainstorming, even if I don’t have a paper, so I get the information organised and get more information (Student 5.6)

The current findings on LLS agree with the relevant research in the area. Alhaysony (2017), Al-Ahdal and Al-Maamari (2015) found that Saudi students are low users of cognitive and metacognitive strategies while memory strategies are rarely used. This study found that university students in KSA mostly refer to resources, i.e. technology, translation, and people who are more competent in TL for assistance. The interviewees reported frequent use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and none of the interviewees reported use of memory and affective LLS. It is evident that EFL teachers need to explicitly train their students to use the whole spectrum of LLS effectively.

### 5.3.4 Teachers’ Qualities

Nearly 85% of the interviewees consider the instructor as the most crucial factor that affects students’ attitudes toward learning English. They reported that their teacher motivates them to excel in language learning.

For sure the teacher motivates me and when I have questions, after class I go to the teacher to help me (Student 5.8).
The interviewees also described the qualities of the teachers who encourage them to learn English. Although in international research about the ideal teacher, knowledge of the subject matter usually comes among the top three, the interviewees focused more on the personal qualities of the teacher rather than his expertise:

*I like the teacher who is happy and very friendly in the class because… if any… teacher is boring, all the people..err.. in the class… they will not be coming in the class* (Student 5.4)

In general terms students, from their comments, seem to prefer an easy-going instructor, who knows how to use motivational language, gives them real-world practice and is attentive to the students’ needs. Some comments from the students were:

*When he encourages me… when he gives me practice, answers questions, presentations, without giving us a lot of homework… he will encourage me* (Student 5.7).

One comment from a student presents a clear preference to the teachers who are more lenient:

*Every teacher here is helping us to be motivated and learn. Teachers who are polite, not very strict especially with the attendance* (Student 5.9).

Only one of the interviewees mentioned that a teacher who knows how to incorporate technology in class would motivate him. Of course, a couple of students referred to specific examples even mentioning the name of the instructor (which has been deleted) to show his appreciation for the link between classroom practice and the real world:

*When we wrote an essay about a movie, teacher M… brought the movie in class to watch it* (Student 5.16).

On the other hand, the interviewees commented on the teachers’ qualities that discourage them from learning English; and again, the personal qualities prevail. Students
seem to avoid ‘angry’ teachers as this adjective was mentioned by the majority of the interviewees:

*Some teachers, sometimes, are angry... maybe they don’t want to, but students feel it and they have problems learning the language* (Student 5.6).

Only a handful of students referred to teachers who do not provide opportunities for communication in class and the teacher-talking time exceeds the student-talking time:

*When they are angry and talk very fast, and we cannot ask questions and... they don’t stop talking* (Student 1.6).

Two students mentioned the negative experiences toward English language learning because of the lack of encouragement they used to receive by their English teachers in high school:

*I like the teacher who makes me comfortable without any confusion points. For example in high school when I don’t pronounce... errr... when I don’t know pronunciation of a word, they laugh... they shouldn’t... you understand, teacher?* (Student 5.1).

Massri (2017) reported similar students’ negative experiences in the EFL class in Saudi high school. Student 5.1 commented on the way feedback is offered in class. Mosbah (2007) researched the topic of feedback in the Saudi class and suggested that teachers should receive training to develop their techniques on how to offer corrective feedback to students.

The surprising finding was that none of the interviewees mentioned something substantial about the educational qualifications or the knowledge of the target language of the teacher, and they focused on personal traits. International research places knowledge of the subject matter as among the top two-three characteristics of effective teachers (Witcher et al., 2003). However, research that was done in Saudi Arabia with Saudis and Yemeni college students revealed that the socio-affective qualities of the teachers prevail (Mah-
moud & Thabet, 2013). In the same vein, according to the findings of this research, the interviewees want good-tempered, caring teachers who respect their students’ needs. The difference in the research findings, between international and local research, might be attributed to the fact that KSA is a highly collectivist society (Hofstede, 2001) and teachers are expected to take care of the groups’ (i.e. class) needs in exchange of loyalty to the teacher.

5.3.5 Developmental Motivation

Developmental motivation refers to activities relating to personal development, such as travelling, watching films from the target language country, and English books. All interviewees (twenty-four out of twenty-four) cited travelling as an incentive to learn English. The participants, from their responses, are well aware that they need English to travel abroad as English is the Lingua Franca:

I was very interested in learning English…it’s one of my priorities…in my life, because I’m the kind of person who travels and English…helps…helps me communicate with the whole world (Student 5.11).

One comment shows students’ awareness of the importance of English to do business in the international arena:

I learned English when I travelled in Australia… err outside Saudi Arabia. Because if you know English it’s the language people use when you do business or you travel (Student 5.12).

The participants also included watching English films as another incentive to learn the target language. The majority of students mentioned that watching movies helped them learn English:

Yes, because my high school, was a government school, so we didn’t learn English… we used the government books and we learned the ABC… I taught English to myself, I watched shows without subtitles and books and novels (Student 5.13).
One student mentioned that watching films helped him in checking his pronunciation:

\textit{I watch movies, so I listen to words correctly} (Student 5.6).

The interviewees confirmed that travelling motivates students to learn English. The finding in this study is in line with research done in the Arab world that students, who travel abroad, are motivated to learn the target language (Al Samadani & Ibnian, 2015).

As for watching films in English, and it might be due to parental influence, the participants of the present study reported very positive attitudes toward watching English films. Films, according to the interviewees, help students consolidate knowledge of the target language to be used for communication. This finding agrees with research done in Saudi Arabia, and Massri (2017) referred to college students’ desire to watch films in English.

Another result is that the participants are well aware of the importance of the English language, as a lingua franca, to travel, do business, and get entertained. This finding is clearly in line with one of the core elements of Vision 2030 (Al-Zahrani & Rajab, 2017) that English will help Saudis maintain economic relationships in the international arena.

5.3.6 Preferred Teaching Activities and Topics

The participants were asked to report their favourite teaching activity. Most of them selected real-world tasks -in line with the project-based learning approach- that will assist their communicative competence, as well as social and business soft skills:

[In class I like] research task, group work, group presentations, and individual presentations (Student 5.16).

Students seem to favour working in groups, rather than pair-work, as this will increase communication within the group and sharing of ideas:

\textit{… discussion, problem solving, group work: mostly I prefer to work in groups, because there are comments from the other students that help us}
understand better and give us more ideas, group presentations, project work (Student 5.9).

Many participants also referred to specific topics that they like dealing with in class. Students appreciate topics that present the target language culture:

...self-development topics and about cultures, because a person needs to learn things about other cultures (Student 3.8).

Other students mentioned topics related to Saudis favourite pastime activities, as well as some entirely unexpected in this culture topics:

When the teacher chooses topics we like… football, cars and girls (Student 5.16).

In general, participants reported interest in the target language cultural issues, and they have a clear preference to the development of soft skills, i.e. student collaboration, presentations, research tasks, etc., as these activities are commonly incorporated in the PBL-informed EFL classroom. This finding is in line with Meyer (2015), who reported that students who attend PBL schools have a positive perception of soft skills, i.e. collaboration, etc. The new EFL faculty, in order to plan more successful courses, need to be aware of the students’ preferred topics.

5.3.7 Summary of Qualitative Evidence: Students Exiting the Programme

Students who are exiting the English language programme reported positive attitudes toward English language learning after studying at the Centre. A teaching approach that focuses on raising students’ communicative competence, such as project-based learning, was highly favoured by the interviewees. They also commented on the classroom activities they are constructive toward building their communicative competence. The interviewees directly linked target language culture to successful language learning.
Parents play an essential role in students’ English language learning process. According to the interviewees, their parents buy books and films for their offspring to improve their English language competency. However, according to the research sample, parents rarely supervise their children progress in language learning.

The interviewees reported that they are low language learning strategies users, and they appeared to need guidance from their EFL teachers to raise their language learning strategies.

The interviewees also commented on the personal characteristics of the EFL teacher. According to the students, a friendly teacher, who is attentive to their needs, can motivate them further in the target language process.

These findings can be utilised in the EFL faculty orientation course, as many of these are not common knowledge and new EFL instructors should be aware of.
5.4 EFL Instructors Teaching at the English Programme: Interviews

The interviews with the nine EFL instructors from the English Language Centre were recorded, and the transcripts were carefully read, line by line, and coded, as it was described in the methodology chapter. Then using axial coding, seven themes came up:

1. Teachers’ beliefs toward the Saudi education system
2. Teachers’ beliefs toward teaching English
3. Teachers’ beliefs toward their students
4. Teachers’ beliefs toward management
5. Teachers’ beliefs toward technology
6. Teachers’ beliefs toward the culture
7. Teachers’ self-efficacy

The seven themes above provided evidence toward the planning of the EFL faculty orientation course. The EFL instructors provided qualitative evidence about their English language teaching experiences at the English Language Centre, as well as their experiences living in Saudi Arabia. These themes are presented in order of importance to new EFL faculty members since the interviewed instructors reported significant changes in their initial beliefs.

5.4.1 Teachers’ Beliefs toward the Saudi Education System

The interviewed EFL instructors held negative opinions toward the education system in Saudi Arabia. They commented on the students’ low standard of English after the General Education and ten years of studying English and the need to re-introduce the basics to EFL students:

The school [General Education] has produced disappointing results for most students. We need to start with ABC at the university (Instructor 9)
Many also commented on the wastah (favouritism) system that is helping students pass from the general education to the university without having the necessary knowledge, skills and critical thinking to receive tertiary education:

...getting used to wastah was a challenge. The educational standards are very low here and it took time me to acclimatise (Instructor 6)

The participants’ beliefs toward the Saudi education agree with the research done by Rajab (2013) and Khan (2011), who both found that Saudi students lack English competency after the General Education, lack critical knowledge (Khan, 2011). They depend heavily on the wastah system (Errihani, 2012) instead of developing their skills. This is something expected in collectivist societies (Hofstede, 2001) that someone else will take care of the groups’ needs. So, students do not have to try hard, and the teacher will help them pass on to the next level.

One participant referred to the bureaucracy in education, as well as to the lack of proper teacher development opportunities.

The education system here is very low. Pretty demanding bureaucracy, non existent professional development (Instructor 2)

The lack of teacher development courses in the Saudi education system has been identified by Alrabai (2016) as one of the possible factors behind the students’ low English competency.

5.4.2 Teachers’ beliefs toward Teaching English at the Institution

Most participants commented on the Project-based Learning approach endorsed by the English Language Centre. Although they found that PBL is an interesting and promising approach, they also believe it is difficult to be implemented due to the untrained and uninformed instructors and the low-proficiency level students who are used to more tradi-
tional teaching methods to learn English during their school studies. Thus, teachers revert to more conventional methods:

The approach espoused by the English Language Centre is a worthy and valid one, but it is predicated on a teacher that is creative and gifted with the techniques required for a student-centered classroom. I also admit that more than half of my classes are geared towards grammar practice and intensive learning. I do not think the project-based approach holds much water, especially in terms of the beginners (Instructor 6).

Assalahi (2013) researched the topic of traditional teacher-centred and form-focused teaching methods in Saudi schools, and he attributed the use of the traditional instruction methods to the “prevailing contextual factors” (p. 589), among them insufficient in-service training, lack of pedagogically informed instructional materials, the rigid curriculum, and the students’ lack of motivation. The participants in this study reported that they reverted to more form-focused methods because they were facing these contextual factors.

I’ve become less convinced that I can affect change with the majority of my students. I find demotivating forcing students to do work when they have no desire to be in the class (Instructor 1)

Four out of nine instructors suggested that changes directed by the Centre are so frequent that the actual benefits of PBL cannot be discerned:

…the ‘approach’ ‘promoted’ by my current institution is confused at best. It claims to be project based, but it is not. The program changes so often that it has lost sight of its original approach…if it really had one (Instructor 8)

Thus more traditional methods are espoused, and published EFL textbooks were introduced:

…a task-based, learner oriented, problem solving approach that is gradually being replaced by canned exercises from textbooks (Instructor 9)
The EFL instructors seemed deadlocked between the PBL approach they see is not working and their lack of knowledge, from their previous studies, to suggest a more viable teaching method:

...the methodology and some theories studied in a master programme might not fare well. For example, advanced language teaching and advanced research skills are difficult to put forth to these students (Instructor 3)

Although these instructors are academically qualified to teach English, they appeared to be uncertain of a proper teaching method to use in the particular context:

I lack theory and sometimes I feel I am too easy with the students (Instructor 7)

From the participants’ responses, it becomes evident that these instructors were not adequately prepared to teach English in Saudi Arabia. Their uncertainty of the value of teaching methods for these students could be one of the factors they feel they:

...cannot affect change with students (Instructor 1).

All instructors held MA degrees, most of them in TESOL, so they might be aware of the instructional methods and approaches; however, it seems they lack the practical skills to apply these methods and approaches. Indeed, studies have linked the content knowledge to success. Pedagogical content knowledge of methods and approaches in EFL teaching has been considered an essential stepping stone to teachers’ success (Al-Seghayer, 2017). In the same vein, Harmer (2007) emphasised the importance of teachers being didactically updated. EFL teachers need to be aware of the existing instructional methods and approaches and have enough experience in implementing and combining these instructional methods according to the students’ needs.

Despite the above, teachers have experienced many rewarding moments in class. Most reported when students understand the tasks and achieve their goals, as the most rewarding aspect of teaching:
I like when I see a student improve—have the “aha” moment or when they do well on a project and show concern and try to understand what I am presenting or teaching (Instructor 7)

One instructor mentioned learner autonomy as his most satisfying aspect of teaching in KSA:

…university-age students who realise that they must take responsibility for their own learning instead of expecting the teacher to teach them (Instructor 9)

The idea of students’ accountability was mentioned by most instructors during the interviews, as they felt they were held accountable for students’ low achievement. One participant suggested the introduction of high-stake exams at every level so that:

…it would foster more of a sense of personal accountability and responsibility, and would serve to weed the students who are just taking up space (Instructor 6)

The instructors, apart from teaching, also had to develop their instructional materials.

In my current job, I am expected to make my own materials. There are few guidelines or restrictions as to the sources I may/should draw upon (Instructor 8).

Most instructors confirmed that they choose materials from authentic sources like current affair news, but also online sources like:

I usually design activities based on current events, like Ted Talk, Breaking News English, Green Planet, On the Media, and students seem to like talking about current issues (Instructor 5)

These instructors choose the materials based on students’ interests that would spark discussions in class. Instructor 8 referred to emergentist perspectives in second language acquisition, i.e. language is acquired step-by-step paying attention to the input we receive:

The best materials are authentic materials (made for native speakers) that are culturally and/or personally relevant to the students. Authentic materials give real-world practice…not contrived. Moreover, language is a “use” skill.
Therefore, a student’s acquisition of the language (beyond simple learning) is directly correlated the real-not contrived-thoughts they are cognitively processing (Instructor 8)

Indeed students have little opportunity to practice English communication away from the classroom (Ashraf, 2018). Especially if these students are not from large urban areas, as the sample population in Ashraf’s study.

All instructors raised the importance of knowledge of the Saudi culture to develop teaching materials:

…knowing Saudi culture is a must if I am to designed appropriate tasks that students will partake in (Instructor 1)

Most researchers concluded that the EFL instructional materials that were used in Saudi Arabia are inappropriate due to several reasons, among them the lack of linguistic complexity (Rahman, 2013), absence of the target language culture, and Saudi cultural inappropriacy (Ashraf, 2018). On the other hand, knowledge of the local culture in order to develop instructional materials was emphasised by Shafaei and Negati (2008: cited in Jabeen and Shah, 2011) who believed that ostracising the learners’ culture from the teaching materials would result in ineffective language learning.

5.4.3 Teachers’ Beliefs toward Students

Most participants reported that their students are not motivated, and they attribute this low motivation to cultural issues; they specifically mentioned wastah (clout) as a reason to explain students’ low language competency:

Students are not very motivated, the wastah system is prevalent
(Instructor 3)

According to instructors, students in KSA lack motivation; for some of them, this is the main problem they face in teaching English in the Saudi Kingdom:
The least satisfactory part of my work is that students are lacking motivation (Instructor 9).

This finding is incongruent with the outcome in this study that students rate themselves as more integratively motivated to learn and use English. This finding supports the suggestion that cultural differences influence motivational constructs (Heine & Hamamura, 2007) and behaviours. The instructors’ culture and the educational experience could influence the definition and the attributes of a motivated student. For instance, the instructors judge the students’ motivation based on their views and norms of a motivated student, i.e. involvement in class and their achievement, as in many western societies, as one instructor put it:

…positive feedback from continuous and formative assessment, measurable improvement from basic skill level (Instructor 3)

Whereas the students in this study confirmed they learned English in a very traditional environment, some families and clerics viewed English as a threat to Arabic and Islam, their teachers could have been very authoritarian. Although students are genuinely motivated to learn English, they could not implement it in a way someone from the Western world could understand. The comment from an instructor shows that acquaintance with the local culture is imperative to understand students’ background:

When I came here, I was expecting students who were motivated to learn and had decent study skills even though my research and others told me otherwise…from teachers currently in the ME, [now my views have been] …modified as I understand the culture more (Instructor 7).

In the same vein, most instructors believed that their students have negative attitudes toward English language learning because English is a compulsory subject to be taught since their early years:
Many students have a negative attitude. I believe because they are not learning because they need a good job, they are learning to please others and hang something on the wall (Instructor 7).

Another instructor attributed students’ negative attitudes to English language learning on the contrived discreet-item exercises (multiple choice questions, true/false, activities that one item is tested and there is only one right answer) that the students were exposed to since their early years at school:

…generally negative attitudes because they have been forced to learn English through schoolboy-type exercises that are perceived to produce grades, but little real progress in using the language (Instructor 9).

The students in this study reported very positive attitudes toward English language learning. They see English as the lingua franca; however, the teachers’ beliefs are different.

Another topic discussed with the instructors was the language skills and systems that students are competent at and the ones they find challenging. According to all instructors, students are quite skilled in oral communication:

…they are nuanced and communicative speakers, and are good language students because they put effort into conversation (Instructor 6).

Other instructors attribute this oral competency on the penetration of western media and technology:

They are strong in communication - because of travelling and strong western influence through music, movies and social media (Instructor 5).

On the other hand, all participants believed that students' reading and writing skills need work. Most instructors attributed this to the Saudi oral culture (Ong 2012):

…reading and writing, since these are not skills that are promoted heavily. The culture focuses more on oral skills and memorisation (Instructor 3).
One instructor went further, and they commented on general biases against the written medium:

*reading/writing, because of cultural bias in favour of speaking/listening*  
(Instructor 1)

While instructor I7 attributed students’ poor writing skills to their past educational experiences:

*…writing; the primary and secondary years have been poorly taught according to the students and other professionals I have spoken with about the topic* (Instructor 7)

Ong (2012) contrasted oral cultures that history and literature are passed on from generation to generation via the oral medium, to chirographic cultures, where there are hard copies of historical and literary documents, images, etc. available. Saudi is an oral culture, whereas most of the western world are chirographic cultures.

Instructors were asked to comment on students’ language systems. Most instructors believed that students are quite confident with spoken discourse:

*…discourse. While requiring varying degrees of effort, most can get their message across, although with vocabulary and grammar usage far out of line with their discourse levels* (Instructor 8).

Some attribute this confidence to cultural reasons, as an oral culture:

*…discourse. This is a speaking/talking society* (Instructor 2)

On the other hand, nearly all instructors agreed that grammar is a challenging language system for the students. Instructor I6 contrasted languages to explain the reason why grammar and then vocabulary are challenging for students, as English and Arabic belong to different language families with very few loans between them:

*Grammar is always a challenge. There are few similarities between Semitic languages and Germanic ones like English. A student must have a firm grasp of the basics before any real progress can occur. Vocabulary is also challenging for much the same reason; there are few direct cognates*
Although, students in this study stated that communication in General Education class was rare and the background literature confirmed that exposure to English in class was minimal (Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013), instructors in this research believed that students are more confident with oral communication and spoken discourse.

5.4.4 Teachers' Beliefs toward Management

The management team at the English Language Centre consisted of an Executive Board of seven people. The Executive Board members were the director, two assistant directors, and four level coordinators. The director was overseeing the Human Resources Department as well.

During the interviews, the instructors were asked to share their beliefs about management practices. All instructors reported radical change in their initial impressions about dealing with management:

[I expected] a more caring and trustworthy management but I was met with a team where employees bore the sacrificial burden (Instructor 3)

Before joining the Centre, instructors' beliefs about management were influenced by their previous affiliations:

I expected management practices similar to those I have known in other contexts but expectations were modified (Instructor 9)

More than half of the participants mentioned that dealing with management was the most demanding aspect of their work at the Centre.

…management is much different here. More formal and averse to feedback. Authoritarian!! (Instructor 6)
Among others, the participants felt that management was not exceptionally informative during their interview when they applied for the position:

…being given insufficient and/or conflicting expectations from management (Instructor 4)

Even after joining the Centre, the instructors felt that the management was not informative:

…didn’t expect to be left in the dark about so many things (Instructor 2)

Other instructors mentioned that the administration did not emphasise essential issues, i.e. instruction:

I expected a lot of bullshit, and it is here. Management is bureaucratic, they are concerned about the dress code, reports, being punctual, but not with the actual teaching quality (Instructor 2)

According to the Saudi Ministry of Employment, all the upper management employees should be Saudis. Management at a Saudi university reflects the social layering of the general Saudi society. Hofstede (2001) coined the term ‘Power-Distance’ dimension and Saudi Arabia scores very high on this dimension (95%) which means that hierarchy in an organisation, i.e. university, family, etc. is seen as reflecting inherent inequalities, centralisation is popular, subordinates expect to be told what to do, and the ideal director is an autocrat (Hofstede, 2001), a “rigid, authoritative hierarchy” (Cassell & Blake, 2012: 153). Thus, instructors need to understand that these management practices are deeply engraved in the society.
5.4.5 Teachers' Beliefs toward Technology

Computer literacy courses were introduced in Saudi General Education since the mid-1990s, and most secondary schools were equipped with computer labs (Alshumaimeri, 2008)

The participants held mixed beliefs about technology. As mentioned above (5.4.2) instructors use the internet a lot to develop the instructional material. Most participants believe that the internet is a handy resource that would help students’ linguistic competency due to constant exposure to English:

*Exposure to the web comes into play when considering extrinsic and intrinsic motivations. The internet being what it is, allows a wide field for potential growth. A student may pursue a hobby, cultivate a friendship, or learn about the world. If he confines himself to doing all of these in English, there is no possible way that he cannot grow* (Instructor 6).

Whereas other instructors believe that students lack critical thinking skills and the motivation to use the available technology effectively:

*No, they have little ability to utilise the tools available [on the internet] and little desire to learn* (Instructor 1).

Thus, students do not use language learning strategies effectively, and they rely exclusively upon the internet, i.e. instead of using a word-attack strategy to understand a word from co-text, which is essential for language development, students might check the dictionary on their phone:

*...along with the positive, technology opens new avenues of avoiding cognitive engagement: cheating via plagiarism, electronic dictionaries, grammar checking apps* (Instructor 8)

As far as inclusion of the internet in class, older in age instructors followed more traditional stance, although they found the internet useful for students’ language proficiency.
They believe that mobiles and computers have no place in the classroom, so they forbid the use of technology in class:

*Students can use it as much as possible, but never during class time, unless research is being undertaken in the library* (Instructor 6)

On the other hand, some instructors mentioned that teachers should incorporate the internet in their classes and moreover that teachers ought to keep up with technology:

*…this means instructors have to be as up to speed with the technology as their students. Otherwise, it will likely become just a crutch for students, hampering language development, for instance, students copying from the internet, completely bypassing any acquisition* (Instructor 8)

The instructors in this study, although some were cautious, most held favourable views toward using the internet and other technological advances in education. Instructors reported that the internet has the potential to assist students’ English language development if properly channelled. This finding is in line with research done in the US where it was found that instructors are still hesitant to incorporate technology in the language classroom (Hennessy et al., 2005). If the technology is used, EFL teachers do not take full advantage of the latest technology (Arnold & Ducate, 2015).

### 5.4.6 Teachers’ Beliefs about Culture

The participants referred to the students’ need to be aware of the target language culture, as they see that language and culture are interconnected, and one influences the other. Instructor I8 went a step further to include various cultures connected to a language. For instance, English can be tied to the British, American, Australian, etc. cultures.

*…they [language and culture] are definitely integral to each other. However, English, Spanish, and Arabic -possibly a very few others- are unique in the sense that these languages are tied to many various national cultures* (Instructor 8).
This will make it more challenging for the instructor who will not be able to refer to all cultures connected to the target language. Instructors will usually introduce their home culture:

*Students in KSA have no general knowledge. Talking to them, for example, about the UK is like reinventing the wheel. Culture is one of the most important things the students should be aware of* (Instructor 2).

The instructors understand the connection between the language and the culture. This finding agrees with the literature that there strong ties between language and culture, and language cannot be taught effectively without reference to culture (Nunan & Choi, 2010). On the other hand, the EFL textbooks in Saudi have excluded the target language cultural elements.

All participants strongly emphasised that knowledge of the local (Saudi) culture is vital to ensure success in their TEFL job in Saudi Arabia. More specifically, since instructors need to develop the teaching materials and adapt their teaching techniques, they need to understand the culture of the students:

…knowing Saudi culture is a must if I am to designed appropriate tasks that students will partake in. It determined everything that I choose to use in the class and modify the approaches I take (Instructor 1).

Another instructor stressed the importance of being familiar with the Saudi culture, in order to avoid specific topics in his teaching approach:

*Here, culture makes me exclude many things in my teaching* (Instructor 4)

Instructor 3 also considered knowledge of the local culture as very important in order to prepare the classes more successfully:

*I tailor my preparation and accommodate the learning style of the culture* (Instructor 3)
Another cultural issue that all instructors referred to was wastah (clout, favouritism). They said that students’ over-reliance on wastah, blocked them from investing real effort into learning English:

One area that needs serious improvement is inter- and intra-course structure from the program level; also consistency across campus and less wastah. There is a great deal of inconsistency, and many students are passed along to the next level without being anywhere near ready (Instructor 8).

As mentioned above (5.4.1), the idea of wastah has been part and parcel of a collectivist culture (Hofstede, 2001), as is the case with Saudi Arabia. In any case, instructors need to be aware of the idea of wastah since their probation period. Being aware will assist them in their teaching and administrative duties.

5.4.7 Teachers’ reported Self-Efficacy

Teacher efficacy has been coined as a term by Soodak & Podell (1997) to research teachers’ sense of effectiveness in class. According to Bandura (1997), teacher’s efficacy can affect the instructional environment and their teaching techniques. High sense of efficacy means confident teachers, whereas a low sense of efficacy is connected to teachers who feel they cannot affect their student’s learning process (Eslami & Fatahi, 2008).

Instructors reported mixed levels of efficacy. On the one extreme end of the continuum were instructors who did not want to take any initiative to modify their teaching techniques:

…you have to do whatever is asked of you (Instructor 3)

On the other hand, some instructors reported that they occasionally try new instructional techniques with their students:

I would modify my techniques/strategies if the new methods didn’t compromise the integrity of the learning process (Instructor 8)
Most instructors who reported they modified their teaching techniques to ensure students’ involvement, mentioned that they try to make their lessons relevant to the students’ needs, interests, and recommendations:

…altered class structure and assignments to their recommendations
(Instructor 1)

Trying to make their lessons fun and engaging were also mentioned:

…not actively as much. I do not feel that arguing or setting high expectations for the students accomplishes much. I merely try to keep the classes as engaging as possible, and allow the students to decide for themselves
(Instructor 6)

Other instructors commented on issuing performance warnings to students whose English competence is low suggested by the management. These warnings were issued to students whose test results were poor.

I have tried to make the lesson fun, I have attempted issuing academic performance warning notices to students…academic performance warning notices are the only approach I know of from the school (Instructor 7).

Other instructors mentioned they were trying to empathise with their students and connect their learning in class with the student’s goals:

I try to empathise with the students, as much as possible, and explain the end-game picture to them as it will play out from their perspectives
(Instructor 8)

Instructor 2 presented high self-efficacy by immersing in the local culture so he can understand his learners better and thus informed his teaching approach:

…yes, by immersing in the culture, the sense of humour and learning their rules (Instructor 2)

Another instructor mentioned he also tried to “bribe” the students, by using:

…stickers, food, leaving early, recognition (Instructor 4)
Most instructors confirmed their willingness to modify their instructional techniques to make their students more attentive and to assist their language development. The next question was if these interventions were successful. The teachers’ beliefs on their efficacy were rather disappointing:

…typically unsatisfactory; students feel they’ve acquired enough communicative ability to meet their needs, student engagement/interest did not measurably improve (Instructor 1)

Instructor 7 considered that students should be responsible for their learning:

…every student and class is different. I would have to say less than satisfactory. I can only assume that if a student is motivated to learn, he will get the most out of what is being presented in class (Instructor 7).

The disappointing results of instructors’ self efficacy can increase the sense of helplessness when they are dealing with the students (Gibson & Dembo, 1984: cited in Eslami & Fatahi, 2008).

5.4.8 Summary of Qualitative Evidence: Instructors teaching at the Programme

The instructors who participated in this study reported significant changes in the beliefs about the Saudi education system. They commented on students’ poor English language skills after studying English for ten years in General Education. The instructors referred to students’ lacking critical thinking skills and the necessary language learning strategies; as instructor 9 commented: “we need to start with ABC at the university” to pinpoint the disappointing results of the school system. In addition, all instructors were aware of the effects of students’ over-reliance on wastah to their self-dependency and risk-taking in the classroom.
The teaching approach promoted by the Centre is Project-based Learning (PBL); however, the interviewed instructors believe that all teachers do not follow PBL principles. Most instructors-participants, although academically informed about several teaching approaches, are not familiar with the practices of PBL and they support more traditional communicative approaches. Also, they found that students who were accustomed to very traditional grammar-translation methods during their basic school years were not ready for a teaching approach that endorses self-autonomy, such as PBL. The instructors referred that the real benefits of PBL cannot easily be discerned due to the frequent changes directed by the Centre. However, the experienced and academically informed instructors seemed unable to suggest a more viable teaching approach due to their lack of professional practice.

Instructors are also responsible for developing their teaching materials. Most instructors confirmed that their students appreciate the inclusion of current events in their lessons; thus instructors make use of culturally-appropriate authentic content from the internet in their classes. Most interviewed instructors confirmed that knowledge of the Saudi culture is imperative in materials design.

Instructors believed that their students lack the needed motivation to learn English and they are lazy, due to wastah, however, they all confirmed that students have strong communicative skills in English and they attributed it to either the prevalent Western influence, through media, in Saudi Arabia, or that Saudi is an oral culture.

Instructors reported radical changes to their attitudes toward the management practices at the Centre, as they had expected western management practices when they joined the university. Instructor 6 commented: “management is much different here…authoritarian”. The management at the Centre reflects the social stratification that is apparent in the Saudi culture Hofstede (2001).
Instructors’ views on technology were somewhat mixed. Although they agreed that technology is a superb tool for learning the language, they were hesitant to incorporate it in their classes fully. Some commented that due to students’ dependency on technology, they are unable to develop their language learning strategies; students rely on technology to get the answer quickly, so they are reluctant to use higher-order thinking to develop their LLS.

Instructors believed that language and culture are interconnected, and one influences the other. At the same time, they were interested in learning the Saudi culture further, as this will make them more successful in their teaching. Most of the interviewees commented on students’ over-reliance on wastah and this blocked students from investing real effort into learning the target language.

Finally, instructors commented on their self-efficacy. Most instructors, due to demands from the management, the cultural restrictions, as well as students’ attitudes, reported that they were hesitant to make changes that affect the instructional environment. The moderate results of instructors’ self-efficacy may increase their sense of helplessness in the classroom.
5.5 Conclusion

The data analysis provided invaluable information to the design of the orientation course, as to the teaching procedures and techniques preferred by Saudi university students and EFL instructors. Data that correlated with successful performance informed the theoretical basis of a teacher orientation course. The data were processed to address and prioritise the factors that need to be taken into consideration when applying relevant principles to a range of cultural and educational contexts. Factors such as the learning context, students’ attitudes, normative ways of acting and interacting, the challenges in the L2 classroom (Johnson 2009), as well as a deep understanding of the teachers’ thoughts, knowledge and beliefs that influence what practitioners do (Borg, 2009). It is imperative, therefore, that the set of principles and practices for orienting the EFL tutors in Saudi universities were determined. This chapter has presented and discussed the results of this quantitative and qualitative study. Based on the finding, the students join the university having positive attitudes toward the English language as a medium of global communication. Still, the past instructional practices during their school years disappointed them. The English instruction in school is based on rote-learning, and rules memorisation, whereas any attempt to use the target language for communicative purposes, is unsuccessful. Students in major cities in the Kingdom use English in their everyday life outside the university, mainly due to the number of expatriate workers who staff malls and restaurants. Students reported high levels of motivation, especially integrative motivation, toward English language learning, despite their school experiences. An EFL teacher orientation course should inform new instructors of students’ past experiences in English language learning before university.

The students who exit the English language programme at the university reported positive attitudes toward English language and English language learning at the Centre. They
highly valued that English language learning at the university focuses on communication. They reported low use of language learning strategies, mainly because they rely upon technology to find the answer effortlessly. Their parents provide English books and movies to their children, however they rarely follow-up to check if their children watched the movie or read the book. An EFL faculty orientation course needs to inform teachers of the teaching approaches students prefer and how to incorporate technology in class. Also, teachers need to be aware of the language learning strategies and how to train English learners successfully to use them.

The instructors who participated in the study reported major alterations in their beliefs about the Saudi education system. Students join the university, and they lack the necessary English language skills. Teachers argued that due to students' reliance on wastah, they are lazy. Instructors felt unprepared to teach English in Saudi Arabia, due to cultural differences, lack of professional practice, and their experiences with management practices. For these reasons, the interviewed instructors reported very moderate self-efficacy as teachers. New EFL instructors should be aware of the importance of culture by examining the stereotypes they held before arriving at the Saudi Kingdom. Since many interviewees reported low-self efficacy, mainly due to lack of professional training, a module that will inform EFL instructors of the current English language teaching and learning approaches should be added.

The next chapter will discuss and present the design of the EFL faculty orientation course in line with the findings from the study.
Chapter 6: Designing the Faculty Orientation Course

6.1 Introduction

It is evident from the findings that English language teachers need to be more knowledgeable and aware of the attitudes, competencies and skills required for effective intercultural communication in and out of the formal learning/teaching context. Teacher education to date has focused more on linguistic analysis and teaching approaches with emphasis on learner age-group, materials and procedures that can promote learner-centredness and contribute to prolonged or short-term goals and objectives, including formal summative assessment.

Given the nature of the target language as a lingua franca and the pragmatic considerations of the global context, intercultural communication is no longer a desirable but idealistic or impractical competence. In fact, it was set and defined as a specific competence and learning outcome in CEFR more than a decade ago. Intercultural awareness and intercultural competence are essential for teaching English as an international medium around the globe. This insistence on the development of learners’ intercultural knowledge, according to Sercu (2005), requires a shift of professionalism in English language teaching.

Currently, in Saudi Arabia, the orientation courses offered to new EFL instructors, if there is any, are inadequate (Al-Hazmi, 2003). Most employers rely on the training the instructors had before hiring them, i.e. an MA in TESOL or a CELTA. In these contexts, most teachers of English are required to focus on teaching/learning skills and techniques, along with language systems and skills. Culture appears to be a shortened secondary component in teacher education courses, if and when included.
The proposed bottom-up orientation course for EFL faculty at Saudi universities gives equal emphasis to the local culture as well as to the academic and professional development of the English instructors who recently joined Saudi Arabian universities.

### 6.2 Pedagogical Framework

According to findings from this study, instructors might be knowledgeable about the teaching methods, but they lack the practical application skills (5.4.2) and the cultural knowledge to apply these methods successfully (5.4.6). Thus, a top-down orientation course that would be based on lectures and the best practices, will not provide the necessary input and the practical skills instructors are in need of. On the other hand, “bottom-up and classroom-oriented approaches…are particularly amenable to achieving an appropriate balance between theory and practice” (Nunan, 2004: 178).

Task-based learning is a bottom-up approach, which can provide the practices, the instructional strategies, and the theoretical background that EFL instructors need to attend to the cultural and educational context in Saudi Arabia. Task-based instruction is very flexible (Willis & Willis, 2007) and offers teacher-trainees insight into the practical and theoretical rationale behind the tasks (Van den Branden, 2006). The coordinator will act as a “true interactional partner, negotiating meaning and content…eliciting and encouraging trainees’ output” (Van den Branden, 2006: 217).

The proposed Faculty orientation course consists of three modules; each module has a number of topics. Each topic will consist of three task cycles: Pre-task, Task, and Post-task (Table 6.1). At the pre-task cycle, the coordinator will distribute the material to the instructors. Since the orientation course will be bottom-up, some of the course materials will be developed at the Centre, other come from published and online sources, and they will consist of viewing materials, but also text resources: i.e. instructors’ past lesson plans,
video/audio recordings of past semester’s instructors teaching in classes (permission will needed), YouTube videos of everyday life in Saudi Arabia (films, interviews, news broadcasts), students’ written or verbal output (texts or recording), instructors’ reflection journals, EFL textbooks, case studies, TEFL literature, and TEFL methodology literature and worksheets.

Table 6.1: Task-based Instructional Framework (modified from Willis, 1996)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-Task Cycle</th>
<th>Task Cycle</th>
<th>Post-Cycle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to topic and task. The course coordinator explores the topic with the instructors, distributes the relevant to the topic material, and assists instructors to understand the task instructions and prepare.</td>
<td>Instructors do the task in pairs or small groups, while the coordinator monitors and assists groups if needed.</td>
<td>Discussion of the task results. The coordinator provides a summary of the theoretical aspects highlighted in the discussions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Planning</td>
<td>Report Groups prepare to report to the class how they did the task, what they decided, or found out.</td>
<td>Groups present their (written or verbal) reports or demonstrations, exchange reports and compare results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge focus</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Although task-based instruction was originally developed to be used in the EFL classroom, there have been limited attempts to use it as a framework in teacher education courses. The major drawback of incorporating TBI is that sustain efforts needed by the relevant stakeholders, i.e. school management, teacher educators, and policymakers. Nevertheless, the attempts to include TBI in teacher development courses were successful in different contexts, i.e. Turkey (Willis, 2016), Japan (Jackson, 2012), and Flanders (Van den Branden, 2006).
6.3 Course Objectives

This course, which is the present research’s distinctive contribution to knowledge, as it is the first of each kind in Saudi Arabia, introduces the work of teaching English and the context in which instructors do that work in Saudi Arabia. Course content is focused on promoting cultural understanding as well as providing a framework for instructors to devise and implement ways that optimise learning opportunities for all university students. Illustrations of the teaching situations and dilemmas will be examined concerning the cultural and socio-economic background of the students. A scheme for teacher education that EFL instructors can be used to build upon the cultural knowledge and used resources will be developed.

By the end of the proposed course, we (teachers) will be able to:

- Examine our assumptions about effective teaching, learning, communication among cultures and successful learner and teacher attitudes.
- Study approaches and methods that experienced instructors have employed in the settings and the dilemmas that might arise in pursuing these practices in Arab society.
- Develop a working understanding of the context of teaching English in Saudi Arabia including the demographics of the school and university population, the current landscape of tertiary education, religious and historical influences, as well as the Ministry of Education policies and education trends.
- Simulate and engage with teaching practices to raise participant awareness of the relationship between instructor expectations and student opportunities.
- Develop our understanding and capacity to be culturally sensitive and competent instructors throughout our professional development.
- Increase our awareness of Muslim religion, culture and intercultural competence in the classroom and hone our skills in developing learning materials that increase students’ abilities in these areas.
6.4 Course Syllabus/ Main Focus Areas

The main course areas can be organised linearly, or integrated. Reflective teaching/learning is one of the main requirements as a means of ensuring ongoing development before and while practising. (Interactive input sessions, workshops, research projects, video, face-to-face interaction, discovery, presentations, case studies, etc.).

The proposed course consists of three main focus areas organised in relevant modules (Table 6.2):

- Module 1: Intercultural Communication (Table 6.3)
- Module 2: Learner Awareness/ Language Learning Awareness (Table 6.4)
- Module 3: Teaching and Learning (Language teaching methodology) (Table 6.5)

Each planned module component will take about 3 hours, and it can be completed in a month, while the instructors are pursuing their teaching assignments during their three-month probation period. If the Centre Directors believe there is not much time for all three modules, there is a shorter module (6.6) focusing on intercultural communication, as instructors felt that knowledge of the local culture is essential.

Table 6.2: Faculty Orientation Course: main focus areas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Module 1: Intercultural Communication</th>
<th>Module 2: Learner Awareness/ Language Learning Awareness</th>
<th>Module 3: Teaching and Learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal Experiences</td>
<td>Personal Experience</td>
<td>Learners: Age Focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Video</td>
<td>Loop Input/ (participants are required to participate in a foreign/second language course – target language/culture (depending on case))</td>
<td>Learners: Adolescents/ Young Adults</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Module 1: Intercultural Communication</td>
<td>Module 2: Learner Awareness/Language Learning Awareness</td>
<td>Module 3: Teaching and Learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stereotypes (reasons, consequences, attitudes, how to control them)</td>
<td>Reflective learning</td>
<td>Learners: Adults</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bridging Gaps</td>
<td>Identifying strengths and difficulties</td>
<td>Learners: Professionals (Sectors: law, finance, marketing, management)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify Shared Ground</td>
<td>Dealing with challenge</td>
<td>Learners: EAP (Academic Skills)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dealing with conflict/adversity/negative attitude</td>
<td>Developing skills and strategies</td>
<td>Learners: SLA Focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finding out about cultures</td>
<td>Participant/learner journals (diaries)</td>
<td>Learners: Learning in Context [pragmatic/semantic/discourse interface]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values and Norms</td>
<td>Relating outcome/acquired knowledge/awareness to teaching practice</td>
<td>Learners: Classroom Management/Interaction (Setting up tasks/activities, monitoring, correction, learner-focus, learner autonomy, teacher roles, learner roles, optimizing resources, timing, sequencing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broadening your scope</td>
<td>Different scripts/teacher-talk</td>
<td>Systems: Teaching and Learning Vocabulary</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intercultural communication</td>
<td>Different scripts/learner-talk/interlanguage</td>
<td>Systems: Teaching and Learning Grammar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic Cultures</td>
<td>Genres (types and features)</td>
<td>Systems: Teaching and Learning Phonology</td>
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<tr>
<td>Institutional Cultures</td>
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<td>Systems: Spoken and Written Discourse</td>
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<tr>
<td>Educational Cultures</td>
<td></td>
<td>Systems: Theoretical and Research Background (overview), semantic/syntactic-morphological/pragmatic interfaces</td>
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<tr>
<td>More Cultures</td>
<td></td>
<td>Systems: Task-types, learning objectives, procedures</td>
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<tr>
<td>Multicultural/Multilingual Social Contexts</td>
<td></td>
<td>Skills: Developing Writing Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Module 1: Intercultural Communication</td>
<td>Module 2: Learner Awareness/ Language Learning Awareness</td>
<td>Module 3: Teaching and Learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>On the spot (dealing with challenges)</td>
<td>Skills: Developing Speaking Skills</td>
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<td>Skills: Developing Listening Skills</td>
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<td>Skills: Developing Reading Skills</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Skills: Sources of comprehension/ knowledge, task-types, text-types, learning objectives, procedures, cognitive processes</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Materials &amp; Resources: Materials Overview</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Materials &amp; Resources: Published Material (range of publishers, current and past)</td>
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<td>Materials &amp; Resources: Materials Evaluation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Materials &amp; Resources: From text to practice (interpreting, adapting and implementing materials and techniques)</td>
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<td>Materials &amp; Resources: Films and Videos (what, why, how)</td>
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<td>Materials &amp; Resources: Learner-led projects (setting up, guidance, development, presentation)</td>
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<td>Materials &amp; Resources: Open sources (selection and use)</td>
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<td>Assessment &amp; Testing: Assessing Learning</td>
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<td>Assessment &amp; Testing: Assessing Speaking</td>
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<td>Assessment &amp; Testing: Assessing Reading</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Assessment &amp; Testing: Assessing Listening</td>
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<tr>
<td>Module 1: Intercultural Communication</td>
<td>Module 2: Learner Awareness/Language Learning Awareness</td>
<td>Module 3: Teaching and Learning</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Assessment &amp; Testing: Assessing Writing</td>
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<td>Assessment &amp; Testing: Assessing Accuracy (lexical, grammatical)</td>
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<td>Assessment &amp; Testing: Assessing Individual Development</td>
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<td>Assessment &amp; Testing: Needs Analysis</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Assessment &amp; Testing: Task types, formal and informal/ ongoing assessment</td>
<td>International Tests Overview</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Approaches: Teaching Approaches and Learning Theories (Principles, Materials, Techniques – reading and video)</td>
<td>Approaches: Eclectic Approaches</td>
</tr>
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</table>
6.5 Module 1: Intercultural Communication

The Intercultural Communication Module (Table 6.3) whether integrated or stand-alone, has been designed to address tutor expectations and attitudes as indicated by the findings of the current study and the background literature. Course and task objectives aim at raising intercultural awareness in a manner which can contribute to more effective instructor-learner communication and restrict the mismatch of teacher/learner expectations.

As behaviour tends to vary depending on specific communication contexts, i.e. setting, roles, relationship, etc., it is important to prevent newly arrived non-Saudi tutors from drawing sweeping conclusions as to what might constitute acceptable behaviour overall. Instructors’ references on a rigorous behavioural code across the board in all cases, tend to be associated with stereotypes based on incomplete, unchecked information. The Saudi educational context and religious/cultural practices demand strict segregation between genders. The university (research-site) -as the vast majority of tertiary educational institutions- has separate campuses for men and women. Women can visit the males’ campus, but there will be a wooden partition to separate men and women. Men cannot visit the females’ campus. Unmarried women are not allowed to mix with men. However, men and women use cellphones as well as applications and social media such as Path, WhatsApp, and Twitter to communicate (Miller & Caudet, 2010).

Undoubtedly, one could eventually obtain the above types of information after living in the country for some time. However, instructors are not in a position to take indefinite time acclimatising and learning about behavioural norms as they are expected to communicate with their learners, colleagues and management upon arrival. Given the fact that the teacher is the primary factor that affects attitudes toward learning English according to students (5.3.4), instructors should be familiar with the social context, behavioural norms and students’ background and expectations. Having access to the type of information that
provides a more realistic view of different aspects of life and society in Saudi Arabia can empower instructors and promote more effective communication with students. As the interviewed instructors confirmed, checking assumptions, beliefs, and stereotypes appears to be imperative to ensure a smoother and more effective “landing” into the Saudi reality. All shops close five times a day, for approximately 20 to 30 minutes each time for prayer. The capital Riyadh adheres to religious rules rigorously. It is not uncommon, however, to find that towns in different areas are more or less flexible and tolerant overall, depending on the number of expatriates in the city, for instance, Jeddah is a lot more tolerant as it is a port. Therefore, a newly arrived tutor should not assume that the larger the urban centre, the greater the tolerance and or degree of westernisation. It is important for new arrivals anywhere to take a step back and observe before taking action. Naturally, this might conflict with inherent tendencies of one’s personality as would probably happen with one who tends to plunge into encounters with the greatest of confidences, initiating greetings, handshake, and so on. It is, however, the key to the evolution of more effective and eventually more sophisticated intercultural awareness. All such issues would be catered for in relevant sessions, through case studies, problem-solving, video or live viewing, role simulations and role-plays.

The interviewed students reported that they enjoy interacting with foreigners (Table 6.3). This might be due to their exposure to western films, videos and games as well as the attitude to all things American aside from the value systems and religion (Swan & Smith, 2001). As confirmed by findings, parental attitudes towards English are positive in their majority, but they fail to support language development on a day to day basis (5.3.2). Due to a large number of expatriates from Western countries, as well as from the Far East, Saudi society is a de facto multilingual society. The English language learning context is
not typical of EFL, since young Saudis, as findings show, will use English outside their classes, at home, in shops and with friends.

To date, the GCC governments have provided for their citizens in many respects including free education, generous scholarships for higher and postgraduate studies abroad, employment in the public sector or funding for entrepreneurs. Young Saudi men are guaranteed successful employment, regardless of their academic performance. This state of affairs has contributed to a rather complacent attitude on the part of young males who are reluctant to take risks or exert themselves intellectually in an effort to utilise their potential. Many of the instructors commented on the ‘wastah’ system that governed the institution and the society (5.4.6). According to the researcher’s experience, students who are related to an important individual can bend the rules more easily, and they brag about it. Maybe the Saudi students' low achievement levels can be partly attributed to the “wastah” system (Errihani, 2012: in Arab News, 2012). Awareness of such factors is key to interpreting student attitudes and behaviours whether affected or genuine and directly affect a tutor’s view of his/her students as, for example, motivated, indifferent, or simply exhibiting a predictable behavioural norm and attitude that will not set them apart from peers. This is merely one of the points which demonstrate the interrelation or intercultural communication issues and learner factors, researched and discussed in depth in teaching theory and psycholinguistics.
6.5.1 Module 1: Content and Organisation

1. Each component (2 – 19) can be dealt with as a stand-alone component in one long (3-hour session or longer) or split into two parts and combined with components from Modules 2 and 3.

2. The sample tasks have been designed to reflect the TBI cycles. The Pre-Task Cycle, where the material (viewing tasks, or written resources) is given to groups and tasks will be explained, the Task Cycle includes the research tasks, and presentations (components 10, 11, 14, and 16), and the Post-Task Cycle provides group discussions and feedback by the coordinator.

3. Viewing tasks, as discussed above, can be increased to accommodate videoed material from a wide range of sources, e.g. films, interviews, debates, televised news, news broadcasts, shows etc.

4. Research Tasks can be spread over a number of sessions or organised as separate units.

5. This module aims to equip participants with “finding out” skills that can be used in a wide range of social, professional or other contexts which are NEW to varying degrees.

6. Hands-on reflective tasks aim to modify attitudes, manage/eliminate/reduce bias, to identify shared ground between and among interacting parties, regardless of cultural affinities and origins or preconceptions.

7. The background literature and findings have informed the contents of the components. More specifically, a) components 2 and 3 examine instructors’ beliefs and stereotypes before coming to Saudi Arabia; b) components 4-9 deal with cultural practices in the Kingdom (i.e. gender segregation, religious practices, prayer times, wastah, collectivist society, haram practices, etc.), the educational context (i.e.
General Education practices, religious textbooks at schools, attitudes toward English and Western countries, elimination of Western cultures in the EFL textbooks, views of students on Western culture etc.), the university and the Centre (power distance of management, topics that should be avoided, views on time, students’ views of Western culture, etc.), other professionals at the university or the area, and age-related cultural views (i.e. parents); c) components 13, 17, 18, and 19 deal with the expats’ presence in the Saudi Kingdom (teachers, CEOs, etc.) and acquaintance of the students with aspects of other cultures (i.e. films, food, sports, etc.) d) component 15 deals with solving problems on-the-spot after groups are presented with cultural challenges.

Table 6.3: Module 1: Intercultural Communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Tasks/Assignments</th>
</tr>
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</table>
| 1         | **Course orientation:**  
  - Course manual  
  - Study and research  
  - Library resources  
  - Online resources  
  **Course syllabus/ Modules**  
  1. Intercultural Communication  
  2. Language Learning Awareness  
  3. Teaching and Learning | TASK: Hands-on **Reading task**, i.e. Read the course manual and find out ...(questions and/or headings for notes)  
  **N.B. This is related to learning to learn and providing a purpose for reading and identifying relevant information in the manual. Tasks will focus on factual information, e.g. library resources, links etc. and course content, e.g. module content** |
| 2         | **Intercultural Communication 1:**  
  - Defining “culture”  
  - Values and Norms  
  - Finding out about cultures  
  - Broadening your scope | TASK: Identifying behavioural norms in professional, social, academic domains.  
  **Viewing task:** observing behaviour/ body language  
  **N.B. Broad, inclusive definitions of “culture” that can accommodate different types of cultures, i.e. ethnic, institutional, professional etc.** |
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<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Tasks/Assignments</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
<td><strong>Intercultural Communication 2:</strong></td>
<td><strong>TASK:</strong> evaluating stereotypes, “What people say about us”, truths and misconceptions</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Stereotypes (reasons, consequences, controlling/managing stereotypes, redressing assumptions)</td>
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<td>▪ Personal experiences</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Point of view: Identifying shared ground</td>
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<td><strong>4</strong></td>
<td><strong>Intercultural Communication 3</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Effective Communication (point of view, perception, attitude, active listening/ observation, skills and strategies)</td>
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<td>▪ Managing conflict/ adversity/ negative attitude</td>
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<td>▪ Checking assumptions/ finding out</td>
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<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td><strong>Intercultural Communication 4:</strong> Ethnic Cultures</td>
<td>TASK: Case Studies Evaluating communication contexts/ selecting optimal options/ solutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Values and norms</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Assumptions and facts</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Point of view</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Communication (written, spoken, varieties/ register)</td>
<td>SET UP RESEARCH TASK 1: Assign different ethnic cultures and/or domains to groups. Data collection and presentation. [compulsory tutorial prior to presentation.]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
<td><strong>Intercultural Communication 5:</strong> Institutional Cultures</td>
<td>TASK: Case Studies Comparing communication contexts/ selecting optimal options/ solutions</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Values and norms</td>
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<td>▪ Assumptions and facts</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Point of view</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Communication (written, spoken, varieties/ register)</td>
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<td><strong>7</strong></td>
<td><strong>Intercultural Communication 6:</strong> Educational Cultures</td>
<td>TASK: Case Studies Evaluating communication contexts/ selecting optimal options/ solutions</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Values and norms</td>
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<td>▪ Assumptions and facts</td>
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<td>▪ Point of view</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Communication (written, spoken, varieties/ register)</td>
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<td><strong>8</strong></td>
<td><strong>Intercultural Communication 7:</strong> Professional Cultures</td>
<td>TASK: Case Studies Evaluating communication contexts/ selecting optimal options/ solutions</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Values and norms</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Assumptions and facts</td>
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<td>▪ Point of view</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Communication (written, spoken, varieties/ register)</td>
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<td>Component</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td><strong>Intercultural Communication 8</strong>: More Cultures (e.g. age-related, generation, area, etc.)&lt;br&gt;▪ Range, identifying markers&lt;br&gt;▪ Values and norms&lt;br&gt;▪ Assumptions and facts&lt;br&gt;▪ Point of view&lt;br&gt;▪ Communication (written, spoken, varieties/ register)</td>
<td>TASK: Case Studies&lt;br&gt;Evaluating communication contexts/ selecting optimal options/ solutions&lt;br&gt;SET UP RESEARCH TASK 2: Assign different institutional, educational, professional cultures and/or domains to groups.&lt;br&gt;Data collection and presentation. [compulsory tutorial prior to presentation].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td><strong>Intercultural Communication 9</strong>&lt;br&gt;Participant presentations followed by Q/A and discussion (Research Task 1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td><strong>Intercultural Communication 10</strong>&lt;br&gt;Participant presentations followed by Q/A and discussion (Research Task 2)</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td><strong>Intercultural Communication 11</strong>&lt;br&gt;▪ More cultures “The way we do things around here …”&lt;br&gt;▪ Finding out&lt;br&gt;▪ Identifying distinguishing features/ identity markers</td>
<td>Research Task 3: Social networking&lt;br&gt;Creating groups&lt;br&gt;Reaching out and finding out online&lt;br&gt;Exchanging information&lt;br&gt;Observing behaviour/ language (online)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td><strong>Intercultural Communication 12</strong>&lt;br&gt;▪ Multicultural/ Multilingual Contexts&lt;br&gt;▪ Past and present&lt;br&gt;▪ Change management&lt;br&gt;▪ Evolving cultures&lt;br&gt;▪ Evolving communication</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td><strong>Intercultural Communication 13</strong>&lt;br&gt;Participant presentations followed by Q/A and discussion (Research Task 3)</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td><strong>Intercultural Communication 14</strong>&lt;br&gt;▪ “On the spot” – dealing with challenge&lt;br&gt;▪ Identifying/ defining shared ground&lt;br&gt;▪ Managing bias&lt;br&gt;▪ Redressing assumptions</td>
<td>Task: Viewing/ video/ film&lt;br&gt;Features/ Evaluation&lt;br&gt;Role Simulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td><strong>Intercultural Communication 15</strong>&lt;br&gt;▪ Participant demonstrations/ role simulations, followed by Q/A and discussion (Research Task 3)</td>
<td>Task: Identifying similarities and differences between cultures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Component</td>
<td>Content</td>
<td>Tasks/Assignments</td>
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</table>
| 17        | **Intercultural Communication 16**  
  - Members of different cultures  
  - Interviewing online or face-to-face (if feasible)  
  - Modifying views | Task: data collection  
Analysing interviews  
Identifying shared ground |
| 18        | **Communication 17**  
  - Global cultures in progress 1 | Research Task 4: Identifying and evaluating trends (e.g. in global professional and/or academic settings, social settings etc.) |
| 19        | **Intercultural Communication 18**  
  - Global cultures in progress 2 | Task: Viewing task/ selected bites |
| 20        | **Intercultural Communication 19**  
  Conclusions  
  Guidelines  
  The participant-observer  
  Keeping an open mind  
  Checking assumptions  
  Learning in progress |
6.6 Module 2: Learner Awareness/language Learning Awareness

The Learner Awareness/Language Learning Awareness module (Table 6.4) addresses issues of language acquisition/learning from the point of view of the learner, activating tutor perceptions and learning processes in a Task-based Instruction (TBI), hands-on experiential manner. It also explores techniques and cumulative systems of gathering crucial learner-related information on an individual as well as a group/class basis. EFL Trainee tutors actively participate in the English language planned course as learners in order to best experience and evaluate teaching approaches and outcomes from their viewpoint -in line with what Al-Seghayer (2014b) proposed. They are also required to maintain a diary/log of their experience with comments and queries having reflected on each one of their language learning sessions. Language sessions cover a wide range of objectives/learning outcomes with a focus on systems, i.e. syntax/grammar, vocabulary, discourse as well as receptive and productive language skills, i.e. reading, listening, speaking, writing. This module is instrumental for native speakers (NEST) whose language learning experience is restricted or non-existent. Although prevalent language teaching/learning theories have drawn from studies in both first and second language acquisition, NS tutors invariably lack the awareness required if they have only or mostly used their mother tongue, regardless of how well educated or articulate they might be. Helping people learn the target language in a NNEST context, requires a more closely targeted theoretical background, i.e. applied linguistics, sociolinguistics, intercultural competence, managing diversity as well as the ability to select and implement appropriate principles and techniques effectively in a given learning context.

As each learning context involves individual learners, it is also important for tutors to identify and take into consideration individual learner factors, e.g. motivation, attitude, aptitude, learning style, multiple intelligences, background, to obtain optimal learning out-
comes. Instructor comments about student motivation in the Saudi context varied interestingly. Some instructors seem to consider self-motivation as manifested in dedicated academic pursuit commendable as opposed to the type of motivation demonstrated by learners who are interested in more practical and less literary outcomes. It is also noteworthy that most students indicated a vested interest in further language development for better spoken communication, professional advancement and online communication as well as texting. These findings do not appear to be in sync, in the sense that learners who are genuinely interested in using the language effectively are regarded as lacking motivation (5.4.3). On the other hand, if one takes into consideration prevalent behavioural norms on the part of young Saudis in combination with the complacency caused by a “secure” future, one is required to contemplate different options and attempt to interpret observed behaviours through a culturally informed spectrum as indicated earlier. It is also evident that different tutors tend to employ various means in their attempt to approach and involve or preferably engage learners in sessions. For example, a particular tutor mentioned failed attempts of ingratiating himself through humour, encouragement and so on (5.4.7). Although students appreciate real communication with their language teachers, they appear to primarily be affected by the teacher’s personality, at least initially (5.3.4). They also respond well to genuinely exciting tasks that they can relate to real life, provided that content is not restricted to their list of “boring” topics (5.3.6).

The development of interpersonal relations between students and teachers is an ongoing process that can only be initiated by a willingness to “get to know” each other. In this sense, learner awareness requires teachers to find out as much as they can about their students directly, e.g. questionnaires, discussions or indirectly, i.e. through observation. One of the most essential roles of a teacher who invests in effective communication in
class is that of the participant-observer, followed by reflection and recording of findings for future reference.

In this sense, Module 2 of the Course operates as a humanistic bridge between intercultural communication (Module 1) and Module 3: Teaching and Learning

### 6.6.1 Module 2: Content and Organisation

1. Each component (1 – 15) can be dealt with as a stand-alone component in one long (3-hour session or longer) or split into two parts and combined with components from Modules 1 and/ or 3. These components have been informed by the findings of this study.

2. The sample tasks have been designed to reflect the TBI cycles. The Pre-Task Cycle, where the material (reading and viewing tasks) is given to groups and tasks will be explained, the Task Cycle includes the research tasks, the learning journals, and the workshops (components 8-15), and the Post-Task Cycle provides group discussions and feedback by the coordinator. TBI is quite flexible, so the course coordinator might decide to weigh the task cycles differently (Willis, 2016), depending on the needs and background knowledge of the instructors and give emphasis on more hand-on activities.

3. Reading tasks can provide the necessary background for the instructors, and can be journal articles, and worksheets.

4. Viewing tasks can be increased to accommodate videoed material from a wide range of sources, e.g. videos of sessions/lessons, interviews, debates, talks, seminars, presentations, testimonials (teachers, learners of varying backgrounds and nationalities)
5. Research Tasks can be spread over a number of sessions or organised as separate units.

6. The aim of this module is to raise participant awareness of language and language learning in context, and to sensitise them to the diverse needs and processes involved.

7. The L2 sessions provide a hands-on basis for reflection and identification of processes, procedures involved, as well as their impact on different learners.

8. The ongoing Learning Journal serves multiple purposes. It fosters systematic reflection, evaluation and analysis of module input as well as L2 sessions and research tasks. It also prompts learners to organise and record thoughts and experiences in a principled manner and provides a cumulative, realistic report of their development.

9. The components contents have been informed by the findings from this study, mainly the surveys with the new students and the interviews with the outgoing students. More specifically, a) components 2-4 refer to background knowledge of instructional approaches (i.e. language and language learning theories), as instructors mentioned limited awareness of other appropriate instructional approaches. Also, these components present the distinction between acquiring the mother tongue and learning a second language. b) Components 5 and 6 deal with the awareness of individual differences (i.e. an overview of students’ attitudes toward language learning and motivation, as well as discussion of present study findings); c) components 8-15 deal with findings from this study, namely students’ preferred and challenging language skills (reading, speaking, listening, and writing), the language systems they feel confident (grammar, vocabulary and discourse), material development guided workshops for each skill and system, as instructors need to develop their materials (lack of guidance on how to develop materials is mentioned
in this research study); and awareness of language learning strategies and strategies that students use. d) component 15 gives a chance to the instructors to refer to their learning journals and reflect on their changing beliefs.

Table 6.4: Module 2: Learner Awareness / Language Learning Awareness

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Tasks/ Assignments</th>
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| 1         | **Learner awareness/ Language Learning Awareness 1:**  
  **Module orientation:**  
  ▪ Course Manual/ Module 1 section  
  ▪ Reflect and identify  
  ▪ Library resources  
  ▪ Online resources  
  **Learning Background/ Learner experience**  
  Questionnaires which can be used by participants to interview each other, make notes and discuss personal learning experiences. | Reading task: (hands-on task)  
  i.e. Read the module 2 section of the course manual and find out … (questions and/or headings for notes)  
  N.B. This is related to learning to learn and providing a purpose for reading and identifying relevant information in the manual. Tasks will focus on factual information, e.g. library resources, links etc. module content  
  Questionnaires (with questions and/or headings will be used for participants to interview each other and make notes, instead of being completed silently by each person about themselves. As participants are likely to share some experiences and viewpoints as well as differ in certain aspects, doing this in an interactive manner that fosters communication will assist the development of overall awareness, reflection and conclusions. |
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<th>Component</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Tasks/ Assignments</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td><strong>Learner awareness/ Language Learning</strong></td>
<td><strong>Reading task:</strong> Language theories overview: jigsaw reading and group presentations</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>Awareness 2:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Viewing task:</strong> Language lesson or excerpts from series of lessons demonstrating different approaches which have been inspired/affected by different language theories</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Language Theories</td>
<td><strong>N.B. The focus of this viewing task is on learning theories rather than teaching approaches which will be dealt with more systematically in Module 3/ Teaching Learning</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Learner Factors PART 1</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- L1 and L2 Acquisition/Learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td><strong>Learner awareness/ Language Learning</strong></td>
<td><strong>Reading task:</strong> Learning Theories overview: jigsaw reading and group presentations</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>Awareness 3:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Viewing task:</strong> Language lesson or excerpts from series of lessons demonstrating different approaches which have been inspired/affected by different learning theories</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Learning Theories</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Learner Factors PART 2</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- L1 and L2 Acquisition/Learning Personal experiences</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Point of view: Identifying shared ground (a)</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td><strong>Learner awareness/ Language Learning</strong></td>
<td><strong>Reading Task 1:</strong> L1 Acquisition/ Case Studies Evaluating and identifying real/potential impact on teaching/learning approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Awareness 4:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Reading Task 2:</strong> L1/ L2 Acquisition/ Psychology of Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- L1 and L2 Acquisition/Learning</td>
<td><strong>Learning journal : Reflection and account of personal learning experiences/ identifying learning theory/ personal response</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Similarities and differences</td>
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<td>- Relevance and impact (relevance re. age groups/ different learners)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Component</td>
<td>Content</td>
<td>Tasks/ Assignments</td>
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</table>
| 5 Learner awareness/ Language Learning Awareness 5: | ▪ L2 session 1 – introductions/ greetings, personal information  
▪ Reflecting and identifying individual learning styles and differences Part 1  
▪ Identifying individual strengths and weaknesses (personal view/ peer view) | Reading Task: Learning styles/ Learner Factors  
RESEARCH TASK 1: Reflection and research task (Reflection catered for via Learning Journal/ Research task to be carried out via design and use of data collection tools, e.g. questionnaires, observation, focusing on peer views and experiences)  
Learning journal: Reflection and account of personal experience re L2 session/ views on peer performance |
| 6 Learner awareness/ Language Learning Awareness 6: | ▪ L2 session 2 – Asking for/ obtaining and providing information - celebrities  
▪ Reflecting and identifying individual learning styles and differences Part 2  
▪ Identifying individual strengths and weaknesses (personal view/ peer view)  
▪ Exchange and discussion. | TASK: Case Studies (Begin recording data collected via research task on peer views and experiences as part of a case study)  
Reading Task: Learner Factors/ Motivation  
Learning journal: Reflection and account of personal experience re L2 session/ views on peer performance |
| 7 Learner awareness/ Language Learning Awareness 7: | ▪ L2 session 3 - Focus on language input/ Presenting and practicing new language  
▪ Reflecting and identifying cognitive processes/ language learning  
▪ Form and meaning  
▪ Identifying stages L2 lesson and techniques  
▪ Comparing with expectations and assumptions about learning an L2 | RESEARCH TASK 2: “What constitutes effective learning?”  
Carry out open research (involving members of wider community) on expectations and assumptions regarding learning/ the good learner/ preferred procedures and processes  
Learning journal: Reflection and account of personal experience re L2 session/ views on peer performance |
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<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Tasks/ Assignments</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8 Learner awareness/ Language Learning Awareness 8:</td>
<td>- L2 session 4 (loop input)/ Focus on listening  - Reflecting and identifying sources of comprehension/ process  - Expectations and assumptions as incentives or inhibiting factors  - Identifying stages of L2 lesson and techniques/ listening  - Exchange and discussion. Workshop: Hands-on developing listening/ viewing task on topic of interest/ authentic interview/ presentation/ report in L1 accompanied by listening task (task types simulating task types used in L2 learning).</td>
<td>Reading Task: Listening skills/ children/ adults N.B. Articles, excerpts from titles on listening skills will be distributed to participants. Depending on total group size individuals/pairs/groups will read, take notes and present content to the rest of the participants. The material produced by individuals/ pairs/groups will be posted electronically and shared. Learning journal: Reflection and account of personal experience re L2 session. Expectations, assumptions and facts regarding listening and understanding content using L1/ Workshop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Learner awareness/ Language Learning Awareness 9:</td>
<td>- L2 session 5 (loop input)/ Focus on reading  - Reflecting and identifying sources of comprehension/ process  - Expectations and assumptions as incentives or inhibiting factors  - Identifying stages of L2 lesson and techniques/ reading  - Exchange and discussion. Workshop: Hands-on developing reading task on challenging topic (e.g. current affairs, corporate practices, climate, sustainability, health, genetics or other) in L1 accompanied by tasks (simulating task types and stages used in L2 reading skills development).</td>
<td>Reading Task: Reading skills/ children/ adults N.B. Articles, excerpts from titles on reading skills will be distributed to participants. Depending on total group size individuals/pairs/groups will read, take notes and present content to the rest of the participants. Notes on all material will be posted electronically and shared. Learning journal: Reflection and account of personal experience re L2 session/ views on peers Expectations, assumptions and facts regarding reading and understanding content using L1/ Workshop</td>
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<td>Component</td>
<td>Content</td>
<td>Tasks/ Assignments</td>
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| **10** | **Learner awareness/ Language Learning Awareness 10:**  
- L2 session 6 (loop input)/ Focus on speaking  
- Reflecting and identifying skills and strategies/ spoken language  
- Expectations and assumptions as incentives or inhibiting factors  
- Identifying stages of L2 lesson and techniques/ speaking  
Exchange and discussion. | **Reading Task:** Features of spoken discourse; accuracy, fluency, Appropriacy  
**Varieties of English Phonology**  
**Learning journal:** Reflection and account of personal experience re L2 session/ views on peers  
Expectations, assumptions and facts regarding speaking in context. |
| **11** | **Learner awareness/ Language Learning Awareness 11:**  
- L2 session 7 (loop input)/ Focus on writing  
- Reflecting and identifying skills and strategies/ written language  
- Expectations and assumptions as incentives or inhibiting factors  
- Attitudes to writing/ challenges and strategies  
Workshop: Developing writing tasks (based on writing tasks used in advanced proficiency examinations/ essay title)  
Process writing: Stages (drafting, editing, re-drafting, editing, finalising, proof-reading) | **Reading Task:** Writing skills  
*N.B. Articles, excerpts from titles on writing skills will be distributed to participants.*  
*Depending on total group size individuals/pairs/groups will read, take notes and present content to the rest of the participants. Notes on all material will be posted electronically and shared.*  
**Learning journal:** Reflection and account of personal experience re writing/ workshop task  
Expectations, assumptions and facts on writing/ Assessing content/ style  
Exchange and peer evaluation |
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<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Tasks/ Assignments</th>
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</table>
| **12**    | Learner awareness/ Language Learning Awareness 12:  
- L2 session 8/ Focus on vocabulary  
- Reflecting and identifying stages, techniques and learning strategies  
- Meaning, language and memory  
- Word grammar  
- Expectations, assumptions and principles – dealing with lexis/ a learner’s viewpoint  
Workshop: Developing vocabulary learning worksheets, selected excerpts from language lessons demonstrating vocabulary learning strategies. | RESEARCH TASK 3: Recording and analyzing brief (4 to 7-minute) exchange and/or talk between: a) native speakers  
b) non-native speakers  
Identifying salient features, similarities and differences, vocabulary.  
Reading Task: Selected articles/ chapters on the form and meaning of words/ lexis.  
Learning journal: Reflection and account of personal experience re L2 session/ views on peers  
Expectations, assumptions and facts regarding vocabulary |
| **13**    | Learner awareness/ Language Learning Awareness 13:  
- L2 session 9/ Focus on interlanguage/ learner-talk [utilising available resources]  
- Focus on communication  
- Using available language resources  
- Developing communication strategies  
Workshop: Viewing/listening  
Selected excerpts from language sessions with adults, demonstrating type of interlanguage and compensation strategies.  
Issues of accuracy vs. Appropriacy/ register in context | Viewing/listening task: Viewing/listening and/ or transcript of classroom communication.  
Identifying and analyzing chunks of interlanguage/ comparing with optimal options of expression (in similar context).  
Reading Task: interlanguage/ learner-talk  
Accuracy vs. fluency  
Learning journal: Reflection and account of personal experience on classroom discourse (L1 and/or L2).  
Expectations, assumptions and facts. |
| **14**    | Learner awareness/ Language Learning Awareness 14:  
- L2 session 10/ Focus on teacher-talk/ classroom discourse  
- Effective classroom communication/ features  
- Addressing learners  
- Checking understanding/ concept  
- Ineffective language/ instructions  
Workshop: Viewing/listening  
Selected excerpts from language sessions with adults, demonstrating types of teacher-talk and outcomes/ learner response | Analysis/ Evaluation task:  
Analyzing chunks of teacher-talk/ evaluating impact and matching with appropriate level/s of instruction.  
Reading Task: interlanguage/ learner-talk  
Accuracy vs. fluency  
Learning journal: Reflection and account of personal experience on classroom discourse/ teacher-talk.  
Expectations, assumptions and facts. High frequency teacher-talk samples and outcomes. |
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<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Tasks/ Assignments</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15 Learner awareness/ Language Learning Awareness 15</td>
<td></td>
<td>Reading task: Written and oral discourse/ Genre/ features, frequency, relevance The role of context and content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Genre [different genres (written/oral discourse) salient features]</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Comparing genres</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Context, content and concept</td>
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<tr>
<td>Workshop: Overview</td>
<td></td>
<td>Professional Development Sources, e.g. publications (books, journals, articles, forums)</td>
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<tr>
<td>• What I expected</td>
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<td>• What I assumed</td>
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<tr>
<td>• What I found out</td>
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<tr>
<td>• What I learned</td>
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<tr>
<td>Participants use their notes/journals to exchange and discuss views and progress. Individual and group conclusions.</td>
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6.7 Module 3: Teaching and Learning

Findings indicate that students do not possess the required level of English, at entry, although they have had approximately 900 hours of English instruction during their school years. While a general English course will help the students learn general English, ESP / EAP and the development of soft skills will be more beneficial for their university studies, as well as for the country, as Vision 2030 suggested, having attained a threshold level of English.

Why is it necessary for teachers to attend an SLA / TEFL methodology module?
To begin with, this is a widely researched and developed area in teaching methodology, applied linguistics, theories of language, studies of language acquisition, to name a few. It would, therefore, seem negligent, if not blatantly wasteful, not to utilise all the work that has been carried out along with relevant findings as learning/teaching procedures involved through decades. Embarking upon this type of learning context with views of English Arts, combined with ELL in the best of cases, would seem to perpetuate the never-ending circle of a futile rediscovery of things already revealed and evolved. Being a native speaker of a language is not a reliable measure of the type of language awareness that ESL/ ELT teachers are required to have.

In addition to this, the strictly regulated social context should not lead one to assume that learners’ exposure to the target language is restricted, nor that traditional rote-learning is likely to be expected or welcomed. Findings point out that students are appreciative of more humanistic, learner-centred approaches that provide opportunities for spoken communication. The fact that English is often spoken at home or in public in shops or even among friends adds a different dimension to learner attitudes and communicative awareness; also the fact that instructors believed that oral communication is the skill that students feel confident with, whereas students do not have much communicative practice
at schools, shows that the teaching/learning practices are not common in other TEFL contexts. In this respect, tutors need not be concerned about persuading learners about the usefulness of the target language or altering attitudes to learning it, as learners are in their majority positively disposed to both further exposure as well as further development.

Task-based instruction, as any type of tailor-made, teacher-designed course requires ongoing needs assessment, research and topic selection, engaging learner-oriented task design and follow up. These place a lot of responsibility and challenging work upon the teacher as instructor, facilitator, manager, mentor, participant-observer, assessor as well as course and materials designer. In order for practitioners to make principled decisions and meet the demands of such courses/learning context, they need to have a thorough theoretical and practical grounding. As most MA courses tend to focus more on theory or at best principled analysis, Module 3 (Table 6.5) has been designed to guide practitioners in the reasoned implementation of relevant principles and techniques and ensure to some degree the sharing of a collective meaning for widely used terms such as ‘discourse’. It is evident from Instructors’ comments that different people refer to different things through the use of the word ‘discourse’. It is also likelier that some of the instructors use the word to refer solely to spoken discourse. Given some of the Saudi learners’ needs, it would be best to ensure uniform use of the term to refer to spoken and written discourse or specify which if required. Naturally, this is merely a fine example but sufficient to illustrate the potential communication problem among practitioners.

Nearly all instructors referred to the Saudi culture as an oral culture. This might be attributable to the preference students show towards speaking, or they are familiar with the distinction between Oral and Chirographic Cultures (Ong, 2012). Survey results and interviews support this preference. Written English, i.e. reading and writing is considered demanding for Arab students, mainly due to the difference in scripts and directionality. How-
ever, given the specific academic context and the students’ further studies or career aspirations reading and writing need to be developed systematically with attention to different genres as required by the specific field of study or communication context.

As far as the strategies that students use to overcome difficulties, the use of resources on the internet is extensive. From the interviews seems that Arab students use dictionaries, online translators, but unfortunately, in the researcher’s experience, they also tend to usually transfer the text verbatim rather than paraphrasing the entry. Writing conventions and rules need to be addressed as a component of academic skills.
6.7.1 Module 3: Content and Organisation

1. Each component (1 – 29) can be dealt with as a stand-alone component in one long (3-hour session or longer, components 2, 3 and 4 will take much longer) or split into two parts and combined with components from Modules 1 and 2.

2. The sample tasks have been designed to reflect the TBI cycles. The Pre-Task Cycle, where the material (reading and viewing tasks) is given to groups and tasks will be explained, the Task Cycle includes the research tasks, microteaching, and the workshops, and the Post-Task Cycle includes group discussions, self/peer evaluations and feedback by the coordinator. TBI is quite flexible, so the course coordinator might decide to weigh the task cycles differently (Willis, 2016), depending on the needs, practical experience, and background knowledge of the instructors and emphasise more hand-on activities.

3. Reading tasks can provide the necessary background for the instructors, and can be TEFL methodology books, but also journal articles from Saudi Arabia, and worksheets.

4. Viewing tasks can be increased to accommodate videoed material from a wide range of sources, e.g. videos of teachers showing best practices, videos of teachers using different ELT methods, and in-house prepared videos of sessions/lessons.

5. Research Tasks can be spread over several sessions or organised as separate units.

6. The aim of this module is to raise participant awareness of language teaching methods, skills and systems; and to sensitise them to the diverse needs and processes involved.
7. The sessions provide a hands-on basis for microteaching, self/peer reflection sessions, and identification of processes, procedures involved as well as their impact on different learners.

8. The components contents were chosen based on the findings from this research study: a) components 2 and 3 include the most common instructional methods and approaches and videoed material using these practices, since instructors reported lack of awareness of other possible TEFL methods/approaches (5.4.2), as well as low self-efficacy (5.4.7). b) Component 4 provided information about individual differences (i.e. motivation, attitudes), learning styles, but as Module 2 was about awareness of these factors, Module 3 is focused on exploiting these factors in class, e.g. how to initiate motivation and how to protect motivation. c) Components 5-9 are about teaching language systems (i.e. grammar, vocabulary, phonology, etc.), as instructors mentioned that teaching some systems is a challenging task. d) Components 10-11 refer to classroom management and available technological resources. The inclusion of the topics was dictated by instructors’ mixed views on the use of technology in class (5.4.5), and use of form-focused instruction as they see it more appropriate since learners are familiar with rote-learning approaches, instead of learner-centred approaches as students are more favourable of. e) Components 12, 13 and 20 are referred to lesson planning and syllabus design, as instructors reported a “confused approach” and inclusion of “canned exercises from textbooks” (5.4.2). Particular reference is made to CEFR descriptors, as most instructors are not Europeans and CEFR is mainly a European framework. f) Components 14-16 are about working with students of different age groups. Although university students are usually young adults, there were cases that students were older than the instructors, or in some cases, instructors were assigned to teach
younger learners, so that these components can be optional on the discretion of the coordinator. g) Components 17-18 are about the different teaching contexts (i.e. EAP and for professional purposes), and the inclusion of these are at the discretion of the course coordinator. English for professional purposes was mentioned by some students as they are aware that English is needed to do business. Furthermore, being able to do business in the international arena is one of the pillars of Vision 2030. h) Components 21-24 are about teaching language skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading, writing). Students reported that listening and speaking were rarely exploited at schools. As for reading and writing, instructors mentioned that students face challenges with these skills. i) Instructors mentioned limited guidance on developing or adapting suitable instructional materials, so components 25-26 deal with this issue and capitalise on relevant components of Module 2. k) Modules 27-28 deal with assessment and in-house prepared tests, as test development is among the tasks of the instructors.
### Table 6.5: Module 3: Teaching and Learning

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Tasks/Assignments</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1</strong> Teaching and Learning 1: <strong>Module orientation:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Timetable and sessions (F2F and online)</td>
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<td>▪ Syllabus and assignments</td>
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<td>▪ Resources and tutorials</td>
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<td><strong>Teacher Roles</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Learner Roles</strong></td>
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<td><strong>2</strong> Teaching and Learning 2:</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Approaches and Methods PART 1</td>
<td>Reading task: Teaching Approaches 1/ overview: jigsaw reading and group presentations</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Demonstration/ teaching approaches/methods PART 1</td>
<td>Viewing task: Language lesson or excerpts from series of lessons demonstrating different techniques from different approaches</td>
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<td>(Grammar Translation, Audio-Lingual, Direct Method, Silent Way, Community Language Teaching)</td>
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<td><strong>3</strong> Teaching and Learning 3:</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Approaches and Methods PART 2</td>
<td>Reading task: Teaching Approaches 2/ overview: jigsaw reading and group presentations</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Demonstration/ teaching approaches/methods PART 2</td>
<td>Viewing task: Language lesson or excerpts from series of lessons demonstrating different techniques from different approaches</td>
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<td>(Functional Approach, Communicative language teaching, Task-based learning, Cognitive Approach, DOGME, CLIL, eclecticism)</td>
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<td><strong>4</strong> Teaching and Learning 4:</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Learner Individual Differences</td>
<td>Reading task: Overview: jigsaw reading and group presentations</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Learning Styles</td>
<td>Group A: Learner Differences</td>
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<td>▪ Multiple Intelligences</td>
<td>Group B: Learning Styles</td>
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<td>▪ Getting to know your learners/ Research Tools</td>
<td>Group C: Multiple Intelligences</td>
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<td><strong>5</strong> Teaching and Learning 5: <strong>Language in Context</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>SYSTEMS/ Grammar PART1</strong></td>
<td>Reading/Viewing task: Reading, interpreting and executing lesson plans.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Context</td>
<td>Viewing and identifying relevant stages and tasks from a series of lessons.</td>
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<td>▪ Features of communication in context</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>SYSTEMS/ Grammar PART 2:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Presentation options</td>
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<td>▪ Practice options</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Principles of lesson planning (introducing new language)</td>
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<td>Component</td>
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| 6 | **Teaching and Learning 6: Facilities and Resources**  
- Visual Resources/ Technology PART 1  
- Types of visual/technical resources (e.g. flashcards, photos, video, film, electronic material)  
- Purpose and use  
- Selection criteria (including cultural factors, age, perception, access)  
  
Micro-teaching (using VAs for grammar presentation/practice), self-/peer evaluation  
  
Workshop:  
Selection and decision making/ appropriate resources | RESEARCH TASK 1: Selecting 5 ELT titles (coursebook and/or skills), identifying and evaluating available visual/electronic material and supplementing and/or replacing with alternative material (hard and/or soft) |
| 7 | **Teaching and Learning 7: Language in Context**  
  
SYSTEMS/ Vocabulary PART1  
- Lexis in Context/ Discourse  
- Form and meaning  
- Two-word/ multi-word phrases  
- Collocations  
  
SYSTEMS/ Vocabulary PART 2  
- Selection criteria  
- Working out meaning/ using clues  
- Vocabulary tasks  
- Task planning workshop  
- Micro-teaching/self-/peer evaluation | **Reading task:** Overview: Vocabulary, teaching and learning lexis, aspects of meaning, senses (semantics), collocations, reading and group presentations |
| 8 | **Teaching and Learning 8: Language in Context**  
  
SYSTEMS/ Grammar and Vocabulary PART3  
- Lexical skills and strategies  
- Aspects of meaning and use in discourse (spoken/written)  
- Lesson planning workshop (grammar/vocabulary)  
- Micro-teaching  
- Self-/peer evaluation and adaptation | RESEARCH TASK 2 (Materials and Resources (M&R)): Selecting 5 ELT titles (coursebook and/or skills), identifying and evaluating lexical content, presentation techniques, task types and use, lexical skills and strategies |
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<th>Component</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Tasks/Assignments</th>
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| **9** | **Teaching and Learning 9:** Language in Context  
SYSTEMS/ Phonology PART1  
- Segmental Features, Stress/rhythm  
Sounds (problem sounds, weak vowels)  
Tasks and techniques  
SYSTEMS/ Phonology PART2  
- Suprasegmental Features, connected speech, chunking, stress and intonation  
- Varieties of English (examples of native and non-native speech) | Reading task: Overview: Phonology PART 1  
Segmental features  
Reading task: Overview: Phonology PART 2  
Suprasegmental features  
International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)  
Transcribing sounds.  
Transcribing chunks/ discourse |
| **10** | **Teaching and Learning 10:** Managing teaching and learning  
Classroom Management PART 1  
Managing people  
- Basic techniques  
- Giving instructions, setting up activities  
- Checking understanding  
- Engaging and involving learners  
- Interaction patterns  
- Teacher/ Learner roles  
- Learner-centredness  
- Communication in the classroom  
- Classroom Discourse  
- Online communication  
- Online discourse | Reading/Viewing task:  
Reading, interpreting and executing lesson plans.  
Viewing and identifying relevant stages and tasks from a series of lessons.  
Micro-teaching: peer-teaching/ setting up, managing and wrapping up tasks  
(tasks selected from current published material print or digital)  
Evaluating and adapting rubrics / teacher role/ adaptation/ classroom communication |
| **11** | **Teaching and Learning 11:** Managing teaching and learning  
Classroom Management PART 2  
Managing and optimizing resources  
- Using available resources/ technology  
- Classroom display: posters, students’ work etc.  
- Use of classroom space  
- Worksheets/handouts: for class, homework, self-access  
- Monitoring and recording learner outcome  
- Correction and development  
- Learner profile templates/ design and completion  
- Identifying and catering for individual learner needs | Reading task:  
Effective classroom management (principles and techniques)  
Remedial work  
Constructive error management  
Individual Learner Factors  
Designing and keeping records, diaries  
Assign each area to a different group/ pair of participants to read, summarise and present.  
Follow up discussion: Issues and solutions/ confidence and flexibility |
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<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Tasks/Assignments</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td><strong>Teaching and Learning 12:</strong> Course Planning and Syllabus Design 1:</td>
<td>RESEARCH TASK 3 (Materials and Resources (M&amp;R):: Evaluating courses/ selected ELT courses Features/ components/ progression / coverage / teaching/learning approach / target learner group Scope and Sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Principles of course design</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>Course levels:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Levels/ CEFR / coursebook correlations (samples)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td><strong>Teaching and Learning 13:</strong> Course Planning and Syllabus Design 2:</td>
<td>Reading Task: Background reading Syllabus Design Assign one or more syllabus types to groups/pairs to read, note-take and summarise in writing. Exchange summaries and hold a Q&amp;A meeting face2face or online.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Principles of syllabus design</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Syllabus Design (past and present)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Approach/ Focus/ Priorities</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>Course levels:</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Levels/ CEFR / coursebook correlations (samples)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td><strong>Teaching and Learning 14:</strong> Working with young learners (K-G6)</td>
<td>Reading Task: Background reading Young Learners Cognitive and Affective Development Critical Thinking Creative Thinking Integrative Learning Collaborative Learning Psychology of Language L1 acquisition (The Articulate Mammal)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Cognitive and Affective Development</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Assumptions, Expectations, Communication</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Factors and impact on teaching/ learning practices</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Developmentally Appropriate Practices (finding out and implementing)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Collaborative learning/ social skills</td>
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<td>▪ Support and development (scaffolding, literacy)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ L1 and L2 acquisition</td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td><strong>Teaching and Learning 15:</strong> Working with adult learners:</td>
<td>Reading/ Viewing Task: Video / observation of adult learner class Identifying factors Teaching techniques Individual learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Learner factors</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Teaching implications/strategies</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Expectations, objectives, outcomes</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Learning background and implications on learning/teaching practices</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Learner attitudes – confidence</td>
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<td>▪ Assessment</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>Classroom discourse:</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ T/L talk, Q types/ learner responses</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Language grading</td>
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<td>Component</td>
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<td>Tasks/Assignments</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>16</strong></td>
<td><strong>Teaching and Learning 16:</strong> Working with Young Adults/ Adolescents:</td>
<td><strong>Reading Task:</strong> Background reading Working with Adolescents/ The In-betweens. Learner factors Motivating Learners Diversity as a learning asset <strong>Reading/ Viewing Task:</strong> Video / observation of adolescents’ class Identifying individual factors/ related attitudes and norms Teaching techniques Involving and engaging learners <strong>Classroom discourse:</strong> T/L talk, Q types/ learner responses Language grading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Learner factors ▪ Teaching implications/strategies ▪ Expectations, objectives, outcomes ▪ Learning background and implications on learning/teaching practices ▪ Learner attitudes – confidence ▪ Assessment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>17</strong></td>
<td><strong>Teaching and Learning 17:</strong> EAP – English for Academic Purposes</td>
<td><strong>Reading Task:</strong> Background reading English for Academic Purposes. Learner factors/ Learning background Cultural differences/ similarities Register/ Style/ Conventions Academic Genres <strong>Viewing Task:</strong> Video / lecture/ seminar/ workshop in academic context Student testimonials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Learner characteristics/ background ▪ Age range ▪ Syllabus areas/ learning outcomes ▪ Standards and performance ▪ CEFR correlation ▪ Qualifying exams ▪ Language proficiency tests ▪ Materials</td>
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<td>Component</td>
<td>Content</td>
<td>Tasks/Assignments</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>18</strong></td>
<td><strong>Teaching and Learning 18: EPP – English for Professional Purposes</strong></td>
<td><strong>Reading Task</strong>: Background reading English for Professional Purposes. Learner factors/ Learning background Cultural differences/ similarities Cultural norms Needs Analysis Syllabus Design Catering for different learning outcomes <strong>Reading/ Viewing Task</strong>: Video / samples of representative exchanges/ written communication Participant testimonials <strong>Research Task/ Analysis</strong>: Contrastive Analysis L1 / L2 norms and expectations Overcoming work-related stereotypes CEFR descriptors</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Learner characteristics/ background
- Age range
- Syllabus areas/ learning outcomes
- Standards and performance
- CEFR correlation
- Qualifying exams
- Language tests
- Materials
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Tasks/Assignments</th>
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</thead>
</table>
| 19        | **Teaching and Learning 19:** English as an international medium | **Reading Task:** Background reading  
English as a Lingua Franca  
Cultural differences/ similarities  
Cultural norms  
Syllabus features that cater for English as a global medium  
Strengths and inadequacies  
Evolution  
Training/ Understanding different speakers of English  
Communicating with different speakers of English  
Tolerance and Facilitation  
Converging and Diverging Varieties of English  
**Reading/ Viewing Task:**  
Video / samples of representative exchanges/ written communication  
Participant testimonials  
**Research Task/ Analysis:**  
Contrastive Analysis  
L1 / L2 norms and expectations  
Managing stereotypes  
CEFR descriptors/ pros and cons |
| 20        | **Teaching and Learning 20:** Course Planning and Syllabus Design 3: Syllabus Overview | **Reading Task**  
Syllabus Design  
(Approaches and Syllabi)  
Needs Analysis and Syllabus Design  
CEFR – impact and implications  
**Research Task/ Analysis:**  
Comparing syllabi  
Structural vs. Lexical  
Flexible Syllabi  
Task-based Syllabi  
Content-based Syllabi |
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Content</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>21</strong></td>
<td><strong>Teaching and Learning 21:</strong> Developing Listening Skills 1:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Listening process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Lesson procedures/staging</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Learner problems/causes/teaching solutions</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Top-down/bottom-up processing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Raising expectations/ utilising knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Developing Listening Skills 2:</strong></td>
<td>Audio and video in listening lessons (authentic &amp; coursebook materials)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lesson planning workshop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Micro-teaching/ self-/peer evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Assessing Listening</strong></td>
<td>Listening in context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Content and understanding</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Objectives/ Learning outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spoken Discourse/ features</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Phonology</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Sub-skills and strategies</td>
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<tr>
<th>Tasks/Assignments</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reading Task:</strong> Background reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding spoken language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Features and difficulties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing listening skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training learners to listen (stress, rhythm, intonation/ new and given information)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sources of comprehension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activating knowledge/ schemata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Listening/ Viewing Task:</strong> Video / observation of listening lesson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying individual factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principles and techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involving and engaging learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying clues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning/ Materials Design</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search and select authentic presentation, discussion or film exchange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design tasks</td>
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<tr>
<td>Microteaching</td>
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<td>Component</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| **22**    | **Teaching and Learning 22:** Developing Speaking 1:  
  - Speaking activities  
  - Lesson staging  
  Classroom management  
  **Developing Speaking 2:**  
  - Spoken discourse  
  - Communication strategies  
  - Lesson planning workshop  
  Micro-teaching/ self-/peer evaluation  
  **Assessing Speaking**  
  - Accuracy/ fluency  
  - Communication impact  
  - Purpose  
  - Register/ style  
  - Range  
  - Sub-skills and strategies  
  **Monitoring spoken language:**  
  - Monitoring  
  - Types of error/causes  
  - Correction  
  - Giving feedback | **Reading Task:** Background reading  
  Spoken Discourse  
  Developing Speaking  
  Fluency vs. Accuracy  
  Phonology  
  Features of Spoken Language  
  Communication Strategies  
  **Reading/ Viewing Task:**  
  Video / observation of speaking lesson  
  Monitoring learner production  
  Delayed correction/ feedback  
  Focus on communication strategies  
  (Role plays, role simulation, problem solving, games) |
| **23**    | **Teaching and Learning 23:** Developing Reading Skills 1:  
  - Written discourse/ genre  
  - Reading process  
  - Lesson procedures/staging  
  - Learner problems/causes/teaching solutions  
  **Developing Reading Skills 2:**  
  - Using texts (authentic & coursebook materials)  
  - Lesson planning workshop  
  - Micro-teaching self-/peer evaluation  
  **Assessing Reading**  
  - Ongoing assessment  
  - Communication impact  
  - Purpose  
  - Register/ style  
  - Range  
  - Sub-skills and strategies | **Reading Task:** Background reading  
  Developing Reading Skills  
  Interactive Reading  
  Cognitive processing  
  Utilising types of knowledge  
  Perception and interpretation  
  **Planning and Peer Teaching:**  
  Search and select appropriate authentic text for target learner group (young adults, adults, EAP or other)  
  Use learner profile and design lesson/ tasks (in teams)  
  Team-teach (microteaching) |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Tasks/Assignments</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td><strong>Teaching and Learning 24:</strong> Developing Writing Skills 1: ▪ Context: audience, purpose, etc. ▪ Writing process ▪ Lesson staging ▪ Writing activities</td>
<td><strong>Reading Task:</strong> Background reading ▪ Written Discourse ▪ Developing Writing Skills ▪ Genre/ text-types ▪ Process and staging ▪ Focus on content, genre, language ▪ Note-taking ▪ Organizing notes ▪ Planning ▪ Editing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Writing 2:</strong> ▪ Written discourse ▪ Coherence, cohesion ▪ Information structure ▪ Lesson planning workshop ▪ Micro-teaching/ self-/peer evaluation</td>
<td><strong>Loop input</strong> ▪ Participation in all stages of a writing session (paper) ▪ Reflection and identification of stage objectives, outcomes and follow up ▪ Evaluating impact/ meaning (exchange and review/ evaluate) ▪ Re-write incorporating peer/ reader comments. ▪ <strong>Evaluation/ correction</strong> ▪ Genuine learner samples/ different levels ▪ Evaluating content, genre/ discourse features, language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Assessing Writing</strong> ▪ Criteria (e.g. content, conventions, language) ▪ Communication impact ▪ Purpose ▪ Register/ style ▪ Range ▪ Sub-skills and strategies</td>
<td><strong>RESEARCH AND EVALUATION TASK</strong> ▪ Course materials evaluation (coursebook / print and/or digital) ▪ Group evaluation of 4 titles/ courses and presentation ▪ Target learner groups to represent different age groups and/or types of course, e.g. professional adults, university students, adolescents aiming at set standards (set by exams, institution etc.) ▪ <strong>Design task:</strong> Materials adaptation, class trial, evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Monitoring learners' written language:</strong> ▪ Types of error/causes ▪ Correction techniques ▪ Giving feedback ▪ Writing progress reports</td>
<td>▪ <strong>Content</strong> ▪ Tasks/Assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td><strong>Teaching and Learning 25:</strong> Adapting materials/ catering for learners abilities and needs: ▪ Evaluation (principles/criteria) ▪ Selection ▪ Adaptation principles/in practice ▪ Lesson planning/activity design workshop</td>
<td>▪ Evaluation (principles/criteria) ▪ Selection ▪ Adaptation principles/in practice ▪ Lesson planning/activity design workshop</td>
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<td>Component</td>
<td>Content</td>
<td>Tasks/Assignments</td>
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</table>
| 26        | **Teaching and Learning 26: Needs Analysis, Materials Design and Management** | **Viewing Task/ class observation:** Video / observation of language session with adolescent or adult learners  
Focus on learner interaction/production  
Monitor and make notes  
Select and organise remedial areas  
Evaluate communication impact  
Compare and prioritise identified areas  
**Materials Design and Management**  
Prepare remedial session  
Peer-teach and evaluate |
| 27        | **Teaching and Learning 27: Assessment/Testing 1:**  
- Principles of testing  
- Types of test/formal assessment  
- Purposes of tests/formal assessment  
- Ongoing assessment  
- Principles of test design & administration | **Reading Task:** Background reading  
Testing  
Types of Tests  
Question types  
Test design and trial  
Test and task evaluation  
**RESEARCH AND EVALUATION**  
Past Exam Papers |
| 28        | **Teaching and Learning 28: Exam preparation classes 1:**  
- Speaking and listening papers  
- Test formats  
- Assessment criteria and standards  
- Teaching strategies  
- Lesson planning workshop  
- Micro-teaching/ self-/peer evaluation | **RESEARCH AND EVALUATION**  
Past Exam Papers  
CEFR Descriptors  
Identify and evaluate question types  
Compare and relate to published material tasks for Exam Prep courses  
**Exam preparation classes 2:**  
- Reading and writing papers  
- Use of English/grammar & vocabulary papers  
- Test formats  
- Assessment criteria and standards  
- Teaching strategies  
- Lesson planning workshop  
- Micro-teaching/ self-/peer evaluation |
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<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Tasks/Assignments</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td><strong>Teaching and Learning 29: Professional Communication</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Roles, channels, medium</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Institutional/cultural norms</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Administrative criteria</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Preventing and/or managing conflict</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>Professional Development</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Further development/ training</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Sources of information</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Critical decision making</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>Current Trends in Teaching/ Learning</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Impact on content, priorities, techniques</td>
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<td>▪ From Grammar/Translation to Content and Language Integrated Learning</td>
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<td>[Course Evaluation]</td>
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6.8 Intercultural Communication – A short induction course

Due to time restrictions and faculty limitations, the complete three-module version of the course might not be feasible in some cases, especially when a professional development coordinator is not available. Given appropriate teaching qualifications, including methodology training, institutions might have to cater for the intercultural component over a short period, as a face-to-face or blended course. Additional resources can be made available online with or without accompanying worksheets for individual study or further training. The short version presented below (Table 6.6) can be completed within 10 to 36 contact hours.

Table 6.6: Short Induction Course

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Tasks/ Assignments</th>
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</table>
| 1         | **Intercultural Communication 1:**  
  ▪ Defining “culture”  
  ▪ Values and Norms  
  ▪ Finding out about cultures  
  ▪ Broadening your scope | TASK: Identifying behavioural norms in professional, social, academic domains. Viewing task: observing behaviour/ body language  
  *N.B. Broad, inclusive definitions of “culture” that can accommodate different types of cultures, i.e. ethnic, institutional, professional etc.* |
| 2         | **Intercultural Communication 2:**  
  ▪ Stereotypes (reasons, consequences, controlling/managing stereotypes, redressing assumptions)  
  ▪ Personal experiences  
  ▪ Point of view: Identifying shared ground | TASK: evaluating stereotypes, “What people say about us”, truths and misconceptions |
| 3         | **Intercultural Communication 3**  
  ▪ Effective Communication (point of view, perception, attitude, active listening/ observation, skills and strategies)  
  ▪ Managing conflict/ adversity/ negative attitude  
  ▪ Checking assumptions/ finding out | TASK: Case Studies  
  Evaluating communication contexts/ selecting optimal options/ solutions  
  Transfer of communication context/ speech act in different cultures/ similarities, differences, remedies |
<table>
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<th>Component</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Tasks/ Assignments</th>
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</table>
| 4 | **Intercultural Communication 4: Ethic Cultures**  
  • Values and norms  
  • Assumptions and facts  
  • Point of view  
  • Communication (written, spoken, varieties/ register) | TASK: Case Studies  
  Evaluating communication contexts/ selecting optimal options/ solutions  
  SET UP RESEARCH TASK 1: Assign different ethnic cultures and/or domains to groups.  
  Data collection and presentation. (compulsory tutorial prior to presentation.) |
| | **Intercultural Communication 5: Institutional Cultures**  
  • Values and norms  
  • Assumptions and facts  
  • Point of view  
  • Communication (written, spoken, varieties/ register) | TASK: Case Studies  
  Comparing communication contexts/ selecting optimal options/ solutions |
| | **Intercultural Communication 6: Educational Cultures**  
  • Values and norms  
  • Assumptions and facts  
  • Point of view  
  • Communication (written, spoken, varieties/ register) | TASK: Case Studies  
  Evaluating communication contexts/ selecting optimal options/ solutions |
| | **Intercultural Communication 7: Professional Cultures**  
  • Values and norms  
  • Assumptions and facts  
  • Point of view  
  • Communication (written, spoken, varieties/ register) | TASK: Case Studies  
  Evaluating communication contexts/ selecting optimal options/ solutions |
| | **Intercultural Communication 8: More Cultures (e.g. age-related, generation, area, etc.)**  
  • Range, identifying markers  
  • Values and norms  
  • Assumptions and facts  
  • Point of view  
  • Communication (written, spoken, varieties/ register) | TASK: Case Studies  
  Evaluating communication contexts/ selecting optimal options/ solutions  
  SET UP RESEARCH TASK 2: Assign different institutional, educational, professional cultures and/or domains to groups.  
  Data collection and presentation. |
| | **Intercultural Communication 9**  
  Participant presentations followed by Q/A and discussion (Research Task 1) |  |
| | **Intercultural Communication 10**  
  Participant presentations followed by Q/A and discussion (Research Task 2) |  |
6.9 Instructor-trainees’ Contribution to the Training Course

After the completion of the train-the-trainers course, an evaluation form (Appendix K) will be distributed (physically or online).

The main aims that an evaluation form is needed are:

- Diagnostic feedback to the trainer about the effectiveness of their teaching (Kiely & Rea-Dickins, 2005).
- A measure of the quality of the course, to be used in course improvement.
- A further contribution to enriching the course, uncovering subtle facets of the teaching context and the culture.
- A demonstration of quality assurance at course implementation level.
- A means of getting trainees to reflect on their skills development.
- A means of persuading trainees to engage with planning more informed and context-specific language courses.
6.10 Conclusion

This chapter capitalised upon the findings of the present research, and these were included in an orientation course that would inform EFL instructors upon their arrival in Saudi Arabia. The modules were developed to address the significant issue that EFL instructors face in Saudi Arabian universities, i.e. the issue of EFL faculty attrition, and potentially improve the lives of EFL teachers and learners. The first module is about the theoretical distinctive contribution of this research study; that intercultural communication should be a basic component of the course, in order to inform newly hired EFL instructors about the Saudi culture; the second module’s goal is to raise instructors’ awareness about the students and the language learning process; and the third module focuses on teaching, material design, and test development. A shorter orientation course on intercultural communication is also included for institutes that do not have the necessary resources to run the full course.
Chapter 7: Conclusions and Recommendations

7.1 Conclusions

The current research was initiated when the researcher witnessed EFL instructors’ attrition from an English Language Centre at a university in Riyadh. Searching the relevant literature, the researcher realised that there is a correlation between faculty retention and a thoroughly designed induction course. A specific and meticulous methodology (i.e. to undertake stakeholder research) was followed to develop an EFL faculty orientation course for new instructors who join the Foundation Centres at universities in Saudi Arabia. The relevant stakeholders were identified, and research instruments were designed for each group of stakeholders. The students who joined the Centre offered insight about English language teaching at the Secondary Education system, as well as about the students’ language learning individual differences (motivation, attitudes, beliefs, learning experiences, etc.) toward English language learning. The students who finished the English language programme at the Centre shared their views about English language teaching and learning during their study at the Centre, as well as the positive attitudes they held toward English language learning and English culture. The last group of relevant stakeholders was the EFL instructors who shared their beliefs and experiences toward English language teaching at a Saudi Arabian university. The data were collected and carefully analysed. Then the findings from the three research instruments and suggestions from the relevant literature were used to design an EFL faculty orientation course that can be offered to the newly joined EFL instructors by the universities in Saudi Arabia. This planned course is expected to contribute to the success of English lecturers’ mission by further ensuring the training of the faculty, along with the cultural environment that they operate in.
The following comprises issues that emerged by the specific research have already been incorporated in the EFL faculty orientation course, which is the main practical contribution of this research; however these issues are expected to support educational organisations in Saudi Arabia and possibly publishing houses that sell textbooks in the Kingdom toward a similar direction in the enhancement of cultural awareness:

1. Saudi students are both integratively and instrumentally motivated to learn English, though they showed a clear preference for integrative motivation. However, they were born in a society that values English speakers. Learning English for Saudi (predominantly) students is a one-way approach to furthering their education.

2. Saudi students tend to value the western way of life, the English higher education, but not the US policy, especially in the Middle East. A number of them referred to the favouritism that the USA shows to the State of Israel. They made a clear link between learning the target language and the target culture.

3. Students are poor users of language learning strategies (LLS), and they need the training to become more effective LLS users.

4. Students’ parents provide constant encouragement to their offspring by speaking to them in English, buying English books and movies, and providing for them the means to travel abroad, especially to the US.

5. The number one factor that motivates Saudi students to learn English is their teacher. Unfortunately, especially under the new regulations for hiring, most teachers who are employed in the Gulf, work predominantly for remuneration, and they do not care that much about professional development or developing the profession.

6. The management practices at the Centre have to do more with maintaining appearances rather than instructional ability. Several instructors mentioned that the ad-
ministrative work, set by the management, is substantial and certainly not what they had expected.

7. Although the internet is a useful tool in language education, Saudi students seem to lack the necessary critical thinking skills to use it effectively.

**7.2 Recommendations**

The first contribution of this research is the design of a bottom-up EFL faculty orientation course which was informed by the research outcomes which could constitute a framework. The implementation of the course can prepare the way for a shift in teacher education.

The current research has already had a major impact on my professional practice, my way of thinking. Discussing the results with my colleagues helped them see a pattern in their professional practices in the Gulf areas. The perceptions of the Saudi Arabian society in English language learning will prevail, and any change in cultural attitudes will be gradual since it requires time.

This framework that was derived from research done with local stakeholders (students and instructors) can be a significant step forward to including intercultural communication as a very vital part of programmes preparing English teachers to work in the Gulf. However, a framework cannot be a panacea, but it provides a possibility for improved EFL teacher development opportunities.

My recommendations have emerged from the research findings. Teacher education programme designers (i.e. CELTA) claim that teacher education programmes should prepare their teacher trainees to accept positions in other parts of the world and also make them interculturally aware of the multicultural strengths that their students bring in class.

My recommendations are as follows:
1. There should be a shift in EFL teacher education programmes. Apart from teaching language and linguistic skills and classroom management, teacher educators should give equal focus to the intercultural communication of their teacher-trainees.

2. Employers and institutions around the world should be aware of these EFL teacher education programmes and suggest that their prospective employees, and faculty members have attended and successfully completed these programmes.

3. The parachute effect: as educators, we need to understand our learners and the socio-educational context before we categorise them as ‘not motivated learners’. We cannot see our learners through the lenses of our own culture and educational practices, as parachuters who landed in a country and suggest changes.

4. Partnership models between these EFL teacher education programmes and schools/universities should be encouraged. In this way, the EFL faculty orientation course is constantly revised, since research is on-going and the outcomes can inform new EFL teacher education programmes.

5. Mentoring schemes should be encouraged for newly employed faculty members. Regular peer observations, followed by discussions, and combined with a range of feasible collaborative teaching practices should be introduced and implemented to ensure ongoing development and foster more open-minded attitudes, should be applied at institutions.
Chapter 8: Reflections and Reflective Learning

8.1 Introduction

When I first embarked upon my DProf voyage little did I know about the way it would transform me. It was not only the “fundamental change in my perspective” (Cranton, 1996: 80) regarding my profession but also the skills I had to develop to address the challenges to complete this voyage. This chapter presents my reflections on the years of my study for the DProf.

8.2 Change in my Perspective

As soon as I arrived in Saudi Arabia and started teaching, I realised that my previous knowledge of TEFL methodology that was successfully implemented in the Greek EFL context was not enough to tackle the challenges in this new context. My initial frustration was shared by some new colleagues, let alone the colleagues who found the job so challenging, and they had to resign soon after their arrival.

This frustration gave me the motive to research teaching English in Saudi Arabia. Instead of ascribing to the popular belief projected by several colleagues and the relevant literature that Saudi students are not motivated to learn English, I decided to research the Saudi students’ English learning experiences since they first started learning English at the elementary school. I obtained significant depth and range in knowledge about Saudi university students’ past learning English experiences, as well as their motivation and attitudes toward English language learning, by effectively combining the literature and the research, especially the questionnaire to the incoming students who have just graduated from high school.
My next step was somehow to share this knowledge with my colleagues in the form of a short induction course. However, past Saudi students’ English learning experiences would not be enough for a novice teacher to plan their lessons. Thus the interviews with students who are finishing the English programme at the Foundation and the EFL instructors were added.

My perspective also changed when it comes to the design and the development of research instruments. At first, I was very hesitant to adapt the questionnaires that were widely used, i.e. Gardner’s AMTB (2005), but soon I realised that I had to do it, or else my survey would have been more than two hundred items, and that would be time-consuming for the participants. By preparing drafts of the questionnaire and seeking feedback from my advisor, my supervisor, as well as to a colleague-researcher, I quickly learnt the common pitfalls and how to avoid them. The mixing of the methods was a challenge, and so I needed time and continuous feedback by the most knowledgeable others, in order that the questions would not backfire.

An essential change in my perspective is the bottom-up course design in teacher education. It was apparent that an EFL teacher education courses I attended that were top-down designed in the UK, or the USA, did not equip me to teach EFL in Saudi. Thus, with the knowledge I gained from this research, I evaluated currently existed teacher education programmes and designed a way to implement and inform these programmes to make them applicable to the new EFL instructors who join a Saudi Arabian university.

Nevertheless, my major change in perspective is that the local culture is critical in the design of an EFL teacher education course. As Byram and Grundy put it: “… a differentiated view of learners as human beings with feelings and identities which have to be taken into account…” (2003: 1). The top-down EFL teacher education courses are not developed with a local culture in mind; thus the EFL teachers trainees are destined to develop frustra-
tion when they move to teach English in another country. In the same way, I felt like a parachuter who jumps from the aircraft, lands in another country and tells the locals how successful English language teaching is done in their country to follow the same model.

8.3 Publications

My research in the Saudi Kingdom also helped me identify the cultural and contextual implications in general English language teaching, not directly related to my research. For instance, when my students were using ‘must’ they rarely expressed the same degree of obligation that ‘must’ carries in English grammar. This was not directly related to my DProf research but helped me identify the modalities of necessity and obligation (Pitychoutis, Kozanoglou, & Oganesyants, 2018) that seem to be culturally bound.

During my teaching in Saudi, and later in Oman, I had the opportunity to develop teaching materials for my students. On many occasions, while I was piloting the material, students were reluctant to discuss some topics, such as politics, relations between genders, as these topics were considered taboo in the classroom. This gave me an idea of writing with colleagues another manuscript on the taboos in ELT and the need for the educators to be aware of the sociocultural and socio-pragmatic context (Mirza, Belalem, & Pitychoutis, under review).

8.4 Reflection on Challenges

The greatest challenge I faced with was to protect my motivation level. When I enrolled to the DProf programme I was highly motivated, I had recently finished my Master’s in TESOL, having a very good mark, so I thought the DProf programme, in the same field, would have been very accessible to me. However, soon I realised that I had to find ways to
protect this initial motivation, since the DProf programme takes several years to be completed.

Furthermore, finding a way to safeguard my initial motivation was crucial to avoid the burnout especially when I have had to combine studies with a full-time job, having many responsibilities, as PD coordinator initially, to as the acting Head of an English Department more recently. Thus finding time in a day to be productive in both tasks, as a doctoral student and as a professional, was particularly cumbersome.

Having a clear goal in my mind, and a reason why I needed to advance in my career were the fundamental forces for me to keep going and adequately safeguard my initial motivation. Furthermore, attending teachers’ conferences, talking to colleagues about their own doctoral experiences, reading online journals and doctoral theses, watching videos of people sharing their experiences, or discussing tips on different chapters of a thesis, the MDX webinars, and most importantly the face-to-face and Zoom meetings with my supervisors kept my motivation high enough to continue with the programme.

My other challenge was the access to resources. The university libraries I have had access to either did not have the books I needed, or they had the past editions of the books. To solve the problem, I had either to buy the ebook, or to find the pages I needed in Google Books, however not the latest edition again. The MDX library helped me enormously with the subscriptions to expensive journals.
8.5 Conclusion

The doctoral process taught me a lot about the profession as well as about myself; it has changed me in many ways. I realised the power of culture and cultural attitudes upon EFL teacher education, and I appreciate my students background more, as a result of this research. Finally, the DProf has made me more confident and more knowledgeable in my work and at the same time more self-conscious about my inner strength and my career goals.
References


Karahan, F. (2007) ‘Language attitudes of Turkish students towards the English language and its use in a Turkish context’, *Journal of Arts and Sciences, 7*.


Appendices

A. Survey Protocol (English and Arabic version)

B. Outgoing Students’ Interview Protocol

C. Teachers’ Beliefs Interview Protocol

D. Consent form

E. Excerpts from Saudi Textbooks and translation

F. Course Evaluation Form
Appendix A: Survey Protocol
(English and Arabic version)
**Demographic Information**

1. Age:

2. Home town:

3. Country:

4. Your father’s education level: Some Schooling/ High School Diploma/ University graduate/ Postgraduate

5. Your mother’s education level: Some Schooling/ High School Diploma/ University graduate/ Postgraduate

6. What kind of high school did you go to? Public / Private / International

7. Are you on a scholarship programme for this university?

**English Language study before entering university**

8. Started studying English before entering intermediate school. Yes No

9. I started studying English at the age of ________

10. I began studying when I entered my first year of intermediate school. Yes No

11. I did not study English outside of school. Yes No

12. I studied at an English language institute. Yes No

*If you answered Yes to question 12 please answer the questions 13 -15*

13. How often did you attend classes at this institute? __________________________

14. I studied at the institute so I could prepare for my exams. Yes No

15. I studied at the institute so that I could improve my English proficiency. Yes No

16. I spoke English with my family Yes No

17. If yes, on which occasions and for what purpose? __________________________

18. Have you stayed in an English speaking country? Yes No

   If yes, how long? __________________________
About your High School English classes (choose the best response)

Always often sometimes rarely never

19. When I studied English in high school, I studied English grammar.

20. When I studied English in high school, I did listening practice.

21. When I studied English in high school, we translated English into Arabic.

22. When I studied English in high school, I practiced English conversation during class.

23. When I studied English in high school, I spoke English in class.

24. When I studied English in high school, I had to learn everything through home study.

How would you rate your English proficiency? (choose the best response)

No ability can a little can fairly well can very well

25. English speaking ability:

26. English writing ability:

27. English reading ability:

28. English listening ability:

High school English classes (continuation)

1: strongly agree / 2: agree / 3: slightly agree / 4: slightly disagree / 5: disagree / 6: strongly disagree

29. My high school teacher taught English with the purpose of preparing us for entrance examinations (Qiyas, Quodarat).

30. My high school teacher taught English with the purpose of making us fluent in the language.

31. I studied English with the purpose of preparing for entrance examinations (Qiyas, Quodarat).

32. I studied English with the purpose of becoming fluent in English.
Parental Influence

1: strongly agree / 2: agree / 3: slightly agree / 4: slightly disagree / 5: disagree / 6: strongly disagree

33. During my high school years, my parents tried to help me with my English homework.

34. During my high school years, my parents thought that I should devote more time to my English studies.

35. During my high school years, my parents stressed the importance of English for university entrance examinations (Qiyas, Quodarat).

36. My parents feel that because we live in an international era, I should learn English.

37. During my high school years, my parents encouraged me to become as fluent in English as possible.

Semantic Differential Scale of students’ impression of the past years’ English lessons

38. Meaningful

39. Enjoyable

40. Monotonous

41. Effortless

42. Good

43. Interesting

44. Clear

45. Worthless

46. Necessary

47. Appealing

48. Useless

49. Unrewarding

50. Exciting
Integrative Orientation
1: strongly agree / 2: agree / 3: slightly agree / 4: slightly disagree / 5: disagree / 6: strongly disagree

51. One reason that I am studying English is because I may stay in an English speaking country some time in the future.

52. Studying English is important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with foreigners who speak English.

53. Studying English is important to me because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate English language literature and culture.

Instrumental Orientation
1: strongly agree / 2: agree / 3: slightly agree / 4: slightly disagree / 5: disagree / 6: strongly disagree

54. Studying English is important for me only because I’ll need it for my future career.

55. Studying English is important for me only because it will make me a more knowledgeable person.

56. Studying English is important for me only because I will continue my studies at a university in an English speaking country (e.g. USA, UK, Australia, Canada, etc.)

57. Studying English is important for me only because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of a foreign language.

Foreign Language Aptitude
1: strongly agree / 2: agree / 3: slightly agree / 4: slightly disagree / 5: disagree / 6: strongly disagree

58. People from my country are good at learning foreign languages.

59. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.

60. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.

61. Some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages.

62. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.
The Nature of Language Learning

1: strongly agree / 2: agree / 3: slightly agree / 4: slightly disagree / 5: disagree / 6: strongly disagree

63. The most important part of learning English is learning the grammar.
64. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other academic subjects.
65. Learning about the differences between English and Arabic will help me improve my English.
66. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning vocabulary words.
67. The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from my native language.
68. It is important to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language.
69. Playing games in English will help me improve my English.
70. Practicing English conversation will help me improve my English.
71. If students are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be hard for them to get rid of these mistakes later on.

Learning and Communication Strategies

1: strongly agree / 2: agree / 3: slightly agree / 4: slightly disagree / 5: disagree / 6: strongly disagree

72. It is important to speak English with excellent pronunciation.
73. You shouldn’t say anything in English until you can say it correctly.
74. It is important to repeat and practice a lot.
75. I feel shy speaking English with other people.
76. I can’t understand a text, unless I know the meaning of every word in it.
77. I prefer to remain silent if I am not sure about a specific word or form.
Attitudes toward Foreign Culture

1: strongly agree / 2: agree / 3: slightly agree / 4: slightly disagree / 5: disagree / 6: strongly disagree

78. Americans are very friendly people.
79. Most of my favorite actors are either British or American.
80. Most of my favorite football teams are British or American.
81. British culture has contributed a lot to the world.
82. American universities are the best.
83. British universities are the best.
84. American scientists have made the most significant contributions in their areas of study.
85. Advancement in space travel and research is exclusively attributable to the USA.
86. British doctors are considered to be the best in their field.
87. Ground breaking medical treatment has been pioneered exclusively by American researchers.
88. US foreign policy would benefit from radical changes.
89. Advancement in technology is mainly attributable to American experts.
90. Life in Britain represents a highly desirable model.
91. Life in the USA represents a highly desirable model.
92. The USA is renowned for its cuisine and healthy eating.
93. The world’s top businessmen are American.
معلومات ديموغرافية

1. العمر:
2. مسقط الرأس:
3. الدولة:
4. المستوى التعليمي للأب: غير حاصل على شهادة/ثانوي/جامعي/دراسات عليا
5. المستوى التعليمي للأم: غير حاصل على شهادة/ثانوي/جامعي/دراسات عليا
6. نوع المدرسة الثانوية التي درست بها؟: علمي/ادبي/تقنية
7. هل انت ضمن منحة في هذه الجامعة؟

مرحلة دراسة الإنجليزية قبل الجامعة

8. ـ بدأت دراسة الإنجليزية قبل مرحلة المتوسطة

لا

نعم

9. ـ بدأت دراسة الإنجليزية في عمر_________

لا

نعم

10. بدأت دراسة الإنجليزية في أول سنة متوسطة

لا

نعم

11. لم ادرس الإنجليزي خارج المدرسة

لا

نعم

12. درست الإنجليزي في معهد تعليم لغة إنجليزية

لا

نعم

ـ إذا كان جواب السؤال 12 نعم اجب عن السؤال 13-14-15

13. كم غالبا حضرت حصص بهذا المعهد؟_______________

لا

نعم

14. درست بهذا المعهد لاحضر لامتحاناتي

لا

نعم

15. درست بهذا المعهد لازداد من كفاءتي باللغة الإنجليزية

لا

نعم

16. أتحدث الإنجليزية مع عائلتي

لا

نعم

17. إذا نعم... ما هي المناسبات التي تدعيك لتحدث الإنجليزي مع العائلة وما الغاية؟____________________________

لا

نعم

18. هل اقت في دولة متحدثة باللغة الإنجليزية؟

لا

نعم

ـ إذا كان الجواب نعم كم المدة؟____________________________
 بالنسبة لدروس الانجليزية في المرحلة الثانوية (اختار الجواب الاسب)

دايمًا   غالباً   احياناً   نادراً   ابداً

19. عندما درست الانجليزية في الثانوية, درست القواعد الانجليزية -------
20. عندما درست الانجليزية في الثانوية, إذن تدربت سماعة -------
21. عندما درست الانجليزية في الثانوية, ترجمنا من الانجليزية الى العربية -------
22. عندما درست الانجليزية في الثانوية, تدربت على محادثات انجليزية خلال الدروس ----
23. عندما درست الانجليزية في الثانوية, تحدثت الانجليزية خلال الدروس ----
24. عندما درست الانجليزية في الثانوية, اضطررت ان اتعلم كل شيء خلال الدراسة في المنزل------

كيف تقيم كفاءتك باللغة الانجليزية؟ (اختار الجواب الاسب)

غير قادر   استطيع قليلا   استطيع إلى حد ما   استطيع بشكل ممتاز

25. استطاعتك التحدث باللغة الانجليزية -------
26. استطاعتك الكتابة باللغة الانجليزية -------
27. استطاعتك القراءة باللغة الانجليزية -------
28. استطاعتك الاستماع باللغة الانجليزية -------

دروس الانجليزية في المرحلة الثانوية (تكملة)


29. مدرس الانجليزي في الثانوية علمنا بهدف تحضيرنا لدخول امتحانات القبول الجامعية (القياس-القدرات) -------
30. مدرس الانجليزي في الثانوية علمنا بهدف جعلنا طليقى اللسان باللغة الانجليزية -------
31. درست الانجليزية بهدف الدخول لامتحانات القبول الجامعية (القياس-القدرات) -------
32. درست الانجليزية بهدف ان أصبح طليق اللغان باللغة -------
تأثير الأهل

|---|-----------------|-----------------|----------------|-------|----------|
33. خلال مرحلة دراستي الثانوية، حاول والداي مساعدتي في واجبات اللغة الإنجليزية المنزلية----
34. خلال مرحلة دراستي الثانوية، اعتقد والداي أنه يجب أن أكرس المزيد من الوقت لدروس اللغة الإنجليزية----
35. خلال مرحلة دراستي الثانوية، شدد والداي على أهمية اللغة الإنجليزية لامتحانات قبول الجامعة (القياس-القدرات)----
36. يعتقد والدي أنه من المهم تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية لأننا نعيش في عصر عالمي-------
37. خلال مرحلة دراستي الثانوية، شجعني والداي أن أصبح متحدث بطلاقة باللغة الإنجليزية قدر الإمكان -----

كيف تصنف دروس الإنجليزية في السنوات الماضية

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38. دو هدف |         |                 |     |      |     |      |       |              |
39. ممتع   |         |                 |     |      |     |      |       |              |
40. رتب   |         |                 |     |      |     |      |       |              |
41. دون بذل جهد |       |                 |     |      |     |      |       |              |
42. جيد |         |                 |     |      |     |      |       |              |
43. مثير للاهتمام |     |                 |     |      |     |      |       |              |
44. واضح |         |                 |     |      |     |      |       |              |
45. عدم القيمة |       |                 |     |      |     |      |       |              |
46. ضروري |         |                 |     |      |     |      |       |              |
47. جذاب |         |                 |     |      |     |      |       |              |
48. عدم الفائدة |       |                 |     |      |     |      |       |              |
49. ذو تأثير |         |                 |     |      |     |      |       |              |
50. مشوق |         |                 |     |      |     |      |       |              |
التحريض الذاتي


51. من أحد أسباب تعلمي للإنجليزية هو احتمال أقامتي في أحد البلدان المتحدثة بـ الإنجليزية في المستقبل
52. دراسة الإنجليزية مهمة بالنسبة لي لانها تسمح لي بسهولة التعامل مع الآخرين المتحدثين باللغة الإنجليزية
53. دراسة الإنجليزية مهمة بالنسبة لي لانها تسمح لي بفهم وتقدير كبر للأدب والثقافة الإنجليزية

التحريض الخارجي


54. دراسة الإنجليزية مهمة بالنسبة لي فقط لانني احتاجوا في مهنتي المستقبلية
55. دراسة الإنجليزية مهمة بالنسبة لي فقط لانها تجعلني شخص ذو اطلاع
56. دراسة الإنجليزية مهمة بالنسبة لي فقط لانني اناوي متابعا دراستي في جامعة في بلد متحدث باللغة الإنجليزية (الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية - بريطانيا - أستراليا - كندا - الخ)
57. دراسة الإنجليزية مهمة بالنسبة لي فقط لان الاخرون سيحترمونني لمعرفتي بلغة أجنبية

كفاءة تعلم لغة أجنبية


58. الناس في بلدي جيدون في تعلم اللغات الأجنبية
59. لدي قدرة ممتازة في تعلم اللغات الأجنبية
60. النساء أفضل من الرجال في تعلم اللغات الأجنبية
61. بعض الآخرين لديهم قدرة ممتازة في تعلم اللغات الأجنبية
62. الجميع يستطيع تعلم التحدث بلغة أجنبية
# بنية تعلم اللغة

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<td>لا اتفق قليلاً</td>
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63. أهم شيء في تعلم الإنجليزية هو تعلم القواعد.
64. تعلم لغة أجنبية يختلف عن باقي المواد الأكاديمية (الجامعية).
65. فهم الاتجاهات بين العربية والإنجليزية يساعدني في تحسين لغتي الإنجليزية.
66. أهم شيء في تعلم لغة أجنبية هو تعلم مفردات (كلمات) اللغة.
67. أهم شيء في تعلم الإنجليزية هو تعلم كيفية الترجمة من لغتي الأم.
68. من المهم معرفة الثقافة الأجنبية لكي تستطيع التحدث بلغة أجنبية.
69. اللعب بالألعاب الإنجليزية يساعدني في تحسين لغتي الإنجليزية.
70. التدرب على محادثات بالإنجليزية يساعدني في تحسين لغتي الإنجليزية.
71. إذا سمح للطلاب بارتكاب أخطاء في البداية، سيكون من الصعب التخلص من هذه الأخطاء وتصحيحها.

## استراتيجيات التعلم والتواصل

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72. من المهم التحدث بالإنجليزية بطريقة فظ ممتازة.
73. يجب أن لا تتحدث أي شيء بالإنجليزية قبل أن تتعلم قوله بطريقة صحية.
74. من المهم أن تعيد وتتدرّب كثيراً.
75. أشعر بالخجل عند التحدث بالإنجليزية مع الآخرين.
76. لا استطيع فهم النص الا اذا استطعت معرفة معنى كل كلمة يحتويها هذا النص.
77. أفضل أن أبقى صامت اذا لم اكن متأكد من كلمة معينة أو عبارة.

## المواقف تجاه الثقافة الأجنبية

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78. الأمريكيون أشخاص ودودون جداً.
79. معظم الممثلين المفضلين لدي هم من اميركا أو بريطانيا.
80. معظم فرق كرة القدم المفضلة لدي هم فرق اميركية أو بريطانية.
81. الثقافة البريطانية ساهمت وقدمت الكثير للعالم.
82. الجامعات الأمريكية هي الأفضل.
83. الجامعات البريطانية هي الأفضل

84. العلماء الأمريكيون قدمو اسمهم للمساعدة في مجالات دراساتهم

85. التقدم في مجال السفر وأبحاث الفضاء يعزى حصراً إلى الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية

86. الدكتوروات البريطانيون يعتبرون الأفضل في مجالهم

87. العلاجات الطبية الرائدة تم تقديمها واكتشافها بشكل حصري من باحثين أمريكيين

88. السياسة الخارجية للولايات المتحدة قد تستفيد من تغييرات جذرية

89. التقدم التكنولوجي يعزى حصراً إلى خبراء أمريكيين

90. الحياة في بريطانيا تمثل نموذج مرغوب فيه للغاية

91. الحياة في الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية تمثل نموذج مرغوب فيه للغاية

92. تشتهر الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية بالمطبخ والأكل الصحي

93. أهم رجال الأعمال في العالم هم من الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية
Appendix B: Outgoing Students’ Interview Protocol
1. Your expectations prior to your university studies about:

   Teachers
   Teaching Approach
   Materials
   Standards
   Assessment
   Progress/Development
   Home study/Homework
   Assignments

2. Did your expectations stem from:

   Prior learning experience
   Comments from others
   Personal views about tertiary education
   Information about the university

3. Have your expectations been borne out/ met?  YES/ NO

4. Have your expectations been modified?  YES/ NO

5. Indicate if your expectations have been:

   A. altered completely
   B. altered partly
   C. not altered

6. Which factors affect your attitude to learning English? Prioritize the factors below. Number in order of importance:

   Teacher
   Materials
   Topic
Interview Questions for Students

Approach
Level
Assessment
Encouragement
Practice
Relevance
Degree of difficulty
Sense of achievement
Involvement / participation

7. Were you interested in learning English prior to joining the university? Why? Why not?
(Think about factors that affected your motivation, e.g. teacher, amount of homework, assessment, approach, type of practice, participation etc.)

8. Are you interested in learning/ developing your command of English at university?   YES/ NO

9. Has your attitude to learning English changed? Why? Why not?

10. Which teacher behaviors and attitudes motive you to participate and learn?

11. Which teacher behaviors and attitudes discourage you from participating and learning?

12. Which topics do you find more interesting and are willing to work on?

13. Which topics do you find least interesting and are less willing to work on?

14. Is travel an incentive to learning English?
15. Are you expected to communicate in English
   
   A. when you travel
   B. when you speak with friends from other countries
   C. with family members
   D. with staff
   E. with friends from Saudi Arabia

16. Do your parents speak English at home?

17. Do your parents encourage you to watch films in English?

18. Do your parents encourage you to read in English?

19. Do you use English in public? (while shopping, meeting friends etc.)

20. Do you find the work you do in your English classes, at university beneficial in a real life context? (in social exchange, academic skills, professional exchange, self-study etc.)

21. Have classes added to your knowledge about English speakers and their culture?  YES/ NO

22. Have classes modified your attitude towards English speakers and their culture? YES/ NO  if YES, in what way has your attitude been modified?

23. Which classroom activities do you find more enjoyable and/or useful?

   Research task
   Roleplay
   Games
   Problem Solving
   Discussion
Groupwork

Pairwork

Individual Presentation

Group Presentation

Poster

Project work

Other, specify

24. Which strategies do you use to overcome difficulties when speaking?
e.g. you don’t remember a word
you need to use a tense that you are uncertain about

25. Which strategies do you use to overcome difficulties when reading?
e.g. there are unfamiliar words/phrases in the text
there is a lot of information
some information/ ideas are not presented explicitly

26. Which strategies do you use to overcome difficulties when listening?
e.g. fast speech
connected native speaker speech
accent/pronunciation
too much irrelevant information

27. Which strategies do you use to overcome difficulties when writing?
e.g. organization
expressing ideas clearly
presenting events
summarizing
connecting ideas
Appendix C: Teachers’ Beliefs Interview Protocol
Teacher Beliefs

Personal and Professional Data

Years of teaching experience: ______________________

Academic qualifications/degrees: ______________________

Professional training:

<table>
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<th>Date</th>
<th>Duration</th>
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Years of teaching experience in the Middle East: ______________________

Teaching experience in other countries: ______________________

Target age groups: Young learners / Adolescents / Young Adults / Adults

Teaching/Learning context:

Elementary School / Middle School / High School / 2-year College/ University /
Company / Training Institute

Publications: _______________________________________________

Research: __________________________________________________

Future plans: _______________________________________________

1. What made you decide to become a language teacher?
   a. reasons, stimuli associated with your experience as a student? [Favorite subjects, favorite teacher/s, sense of achievement/ success]
   b. family-oriented reasons? [Parents who are/were teachers]
   c. career development or research interests

2. What prompted you to accept a teaching position in the Middle East?
a. cultural values and norms (in different areas and/or in relation with social status of a teacher)
b. gainful employment
c. working conditions and benefits (including remuneration)
d. working abroad
e. personal and professional development
f. family obligations
g. career development
h. other: (please specify)

3. What were your expectations prior to your arrival in the Middle East, regarding,
   a. Lifestyle [homes, shopping, sports facilities, services, etc.]
   _________________________________________________________________
   b. Social context/ people [attitude, willingness to communicate, behavioral norms]
   _________________________________________________________________
   c. Education [standards, teaching/learning context, administrative requirements, potential for development, resources]
   _________________________________________________________________
   d. Learners/ University students [age, background, norms and values, plans and aspirations]
   _________________________________________________________________
   e. Peers/ colleagues
   _________________________________________________________________
   f. Administrative requirements [communication with students, punctuality, office hours, dress code, behavioral code, curriculum, committee work, meetings, etc.]
   _________________________________________________________________
   g. Management [human resources, facilities, hierarchy, responsibilities, etc.]
   _________________________________________________________________
   h. Chore allotment [who does what, e.g. cleaning, car wash, repairs etc.]
   _________________________________________________________________
   i. Widely held/ normative beliefs and expectations regarding teachers and the teacher’s role [social status, image, qualifications, behavior, etc.]
4. Have your views and beliefs about the areas listed above (in item 3) been modified, radically altered, remained unchanged. Please comment briefly.

<table>
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<th>Remained the same</th>
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<td>Chore allotment</td>
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5. Which teaching/learning approach/approaches do you adhere to more closely? Please give reasons.

- Have your views changed since you started teaching in the Middle East? In what way and for what reasons?

- Did your original views/preferences regarding approaches agree with the views and expectations of students: employers: other stakeholders: (please specify)

6. Which aspects of teaching do you consider most rewarding/satisfactory?

Which aspects of teaching do you consider most demanding/least satisfactory?

7. What do you think your strengths are as a teacher?

What do you think your weaknesses are?
8. What is your idea of a successful lesson? Please give an example/ Describe part of a lesson or activity.

9. What is your idea of a “good learner”? Is it the same as your idea of a “good students”? Which of the two would you consider most stereotypical and why?

- Which factors/ features do you associate with a “good learner”?

- Which factors/ features do you associate with a “good student”?

Do your views regarding learning and learners coincide with views held by:

a. the institution
b. learners
c. colleagues
d. other professionals in the field (Please specify group or type of individual)
e. parents/ employers
f. broader social context (in this country/ other countries)

10. In your view, what constitutes evidence of successful learning? Do your students share your view? What about other stakeholders? (institution, parents, wider social context)

11. Have your views and practices as a teacher been influenced by your own experiences as a learner?

- Which of your experiences have had greater impact on your development as a teacher? (positive or negative experiences)

- Can you describe your most memorable experience?
• To what extent have you been influenced by the approaches/techniques used by your own teachers?

• Can you describe one of your favorite teachers? What did you like about him/her?

• Describe one of your least favorite teachers? What did you dislike about him/her?

12. Do you prefer to teach young learners, adolescents or adults? Please give reasons.

13. What type of material/s are you expected to use?

• What type of material/s do you use?

• What type of material/s do you prefer to use? Please give reasons.

14. Which language skill/s do you consider more relevant and/or necessary for your students? Please justify.
   a. receptive:  a.1. listening  a. 2. reading
   b. productive:  b.1. speaking  b. 2. writing

15. Which language skill/s is/are regarded more highly as evidence of learning by your students?

16. Which language skill/s do your students have most difficulty with? Why do you think this is so?
17. Which language skill/s are your students most confident in? Why do you think this is so?

___________________________________________________________________

18. Which language systems do you consider more relevant, useful and/or necessary for your students? Please justify.

   a. Grammar
   b. Vocabulary
   c. Discourse

19. Which language system/s is/ are regarded more highly as evidence of learning by your students?

___________________________________________________________________

20. Which language system/s do your students have most difficulty with? Why do you think this is so?

___________________________________________________________________

21. Which language system/s are your students most confident in? Why do you think this is so?

___________________________________________________________________

22. Which language system/s do your students focus on mostly (are more interested in)? Why do you think this is so?

___________________________________________________________________

23. Do your students demonstrate a negative or positive attitude towards learning English? Why do you think this is so?

___________________________________________________________________

24. Would you say that your students are motivated to learn English? Why? Why not?

___________________________________________________________________

25. Have you attempted to modify negative student attitudes?

___________________________________________________________________

• What techniques/strategies have you employed to modify negative student attitudes?

___________________________________________________________________

• What was the outcome? Was it satisfactory, less than satisfactory or unsatisfactory? Why do you think this was the case?
• Would you modify your techniques/ strategies to ensure a higher degree success? (according to your definition of success above)

• Which aspects would you modify?

26. Have you attempted to motivate students who lacked motivation?

• What techniques/ strategies have you employed to increase motivation?

• What was the outcome? Was it satisfactory, less than satisfactory or unsatisfactory? Why do you think this was the case?

• Would you modify your techniques/ strategies to enhance results?

• Which aspects would you modify?

27. What are your views on the approach promoted by the institution? Please give reasons.

28. Do you feel that you would prefer to use a different approach? Why? Why not?

29. Which are, in your view, the strengths of the language program in your institution?

30. Which areas, in your view, that could be improved/ developed further?

31. What type of diagnostic tools do you use to determine your students’ needs?

32. How do you assess your learners’ progress?
• What type of tools do you use? Please provide examples.

• Is self-assessment/ self-evaluation included in your syllabus?

• What are your students’ views on self-assessment/ self-evaluation? (Please state prevalent views)

• Do you think these views are justified? Why? Why not?

33. Are there particular examinations/ tests that are popular among your students and other stakeholders?

• If yes, please provide examples.

• Do you think that your courses cater for the needs of such examinations/ tests? Why? Why not?

• Do you think catering for such examinations would have an impact on student attitudes?

• Would student attitudes be affected in a positive or negative manner? Please justify.

• How would your attitude and teaching approach be affected in this case?
34. What are your views on language and culture?

- How do they affect your teaching approach and the materials you use?

- How do they affect task design and classroom management?

35. What are your views as a teacher on the use of the internet by your students?

- Do you think it is constructive in terms of language development? Why? Why not?

- Do you think it has a positive effect on language development? If so, please specify.

- Do you think it has a negative effect on language development? If so, please specify.

- Does use of/ exposure to the web affect student attitudes to learning the target language? If so, in what way?
Appendix D: Consent Form
Consent Form

DProf Thesis Title: Attitudes and Motivation of Saudi Students in Higher Education - design and implementation of a teacher education course.

Researcher: Konstantinos M. Pitychoutis
Doctoral Student
Middlesex University, London
Email: pitychoutis@gmail.com

By signing below, I agree to:

• Take part in the above study
• Fill out the questionnaire
• Take part in one-on-one interviews
• The use of anonymous quotes in publication of the thesis

I understand that my participation is anonymous, voluntary and I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reasons.

Signature:
Date:

номож موافقة

اطروحة دكتوراه بعنوان: سلوك ودوقاع الطلاب السعوديين في التعليم العالي - تصميم وتنفيذ دورة لتعليم المعلمين.

الباحث: كونستانتينوس بيتيخوتيس
طالب دكتوراه
جامعة ميدلسكس، لندن
pitychoutis@gmail.com: البريد الإلكتروني

في حال التوقيع أدناه، اوافق على النايل:

• أن أكون جزءًا من الدراسة
• مان الاستبان
• المشاركة في المقابلة الفردية
• استخدام الإفتراضات المجهولة في نشر الرسالة

أدرك أن مشاركتي مجهولة وطوعية ولدى الحرية في الانسحاب في أي وقت دون إبداء أي أسباب.

التوقيع:
التاريخ:
Appendix E: Excerpts from Saudi Textbooks
(and English translation)
2007-2008 Academic Year
Excerpts from Saudi Ministry of Education
Textbooks for Islamic Studies: Arabic with
English Translation

Center for Religious Freedom of Hudson
Institute

With the Institute for Gulf Affairs
First Grade

Monotheism and Jurisprudence (Lesson 8)

pp. 29-30 Arabic, 2007-2008
كل دين غيب الإسلام باطل.

قال الله تعالى: "وَمَن يَنْتَفِعْ عَنْ آدَمَ مِنَ الْإِسْلَامِ وَمَنْ يَنْتَفِعْ عَنْ مُحَمَّدٍ مِّنَ الرَّسُولِ يُؤْمِنَ" (سورة آل عمران: 25).

إذاً، إذا كنت مسلمًا لا أفعل غير الإسلام دينًا.
ما أساس الإسلام؟
أملاً الفراغ التالي بما يناسبه من الكلمات التالية:
(الإسلام- النار).
كل دين غير دين الإسلام دين. لا يقبل الله دين الإسلام دينًا. الذكر الدليل.
ضمن إشارة (✓) عند المواطن التي يتشهده فيها المسلم:
في الأذان عند الطعام بعد الفراغ من الوضوء بعد الغطاس.
My Religion is Islam

The foundation of Islam is the profession of faith that there is no deity other than God and Muhammad is God's Prophet.

Every religion other than Islam is false.

God said, "If anyone desires a religion other than Islam (submission to Allah), never will it be accepted of him; and in the Hereafter He will be in the ranks of those who have lost (All spiritual good)." (Qur'an 3:85)

Thus, I am a Muslim and I will not accept any religion but Islam.
For Discussion

What is the foundation of Islam?

Fill in the blanks with the appropriate words (Islam, hellfire):

Every religion other than _____ is false. Whoever dies outside of Islam enters _____.

God accepts nothing but Islam as a religion. Cite the proof.

Put a check mark next to the occasions when a Muslim recites the profession of faith.

During the call to prayer
When eating
After completing the ablution
After sneezing

For the teacher:

Note the hadith of Mu'adh. When the Prophet sent him to the people of Yemen, he ordered him to call upon them first and foremost to profess that there is no deity but God. Cited in Al-Bukhari (number 7372) and Muslim (number 19).

Explain the great significance of the two professions of faith, and that they are the first gates through which the servant enters Islam.

Give examples of false religions, like Judaism, Christianity, paganism, etc.

Explain that when someone dies outside of Islam, hellfire is his fate.

Lesson goals:

1. For the student to point out the foundation of Islam.
2. For the student to treasure the religion of Islam.
3. For the student to understand that any religion other than Islam is false.
أولًا واجب علينا هو الإيمان بالله تعالى، وتحتَّي البَحْقَ الإيمان بالله لا بد أن نعرف منْفَعَة الإيمان، ثم نعمل به:

1. نعرف منْفَعَة الإيمان
2. نعرف أنَّ الإيمان أوِّل واجب
3. نعمل بذلك

منْفَعَة الإيمان بالله:
فهو أن نعتقد أن الله هو الإله المعبد وحده دون من سواه، ونخلص جميع أنواع العبادة كلها لله، ونثبتها عن كل معبد سواه، ونحب في الله، ونتعبض في الله.
هذه سورة إبراهيم التي من رَبَّت عنها سندنها وهذه هي الأُميَّة النبي أُخْبِر الله بها في قوله: 
(سورة البقرة: الآية 44).

(سورة المنهاج: الآية 44).
Lesson Two

True Belief

Our primary obligation is to believe in God. In order to exercise our belief in God, we must know the meaning of belief. We act on the following:

1. We know that belief is a primary obligation
2. We know the meaning of belief
3. We act on this

To believe in God means that you believe God is the only deity to be worshipped, without any beside Him. You sincerely engage in all forms of worship of God and deny them to any object of worship other than Him. You love in God and you hate in God.

This is the creed of Abraham, and whoever rejects it debases his soul with folly. This is the example God gave: "There is for you an excellent example (to follow) in Abraham and those with him, when they said to their people: "We are clear of you and of whatever ye worship besides Allah: we have rejected you, and there has arisen, between us and you, enmity and hatred for ever, unless ye believe in Allah and Him alone." (Qur'an 60:4)
Training Course Evaluation Form

Date:

1. Please indicate your level of agreement with the statements below:

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<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
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<td>The objectives of the course were clearly defined.</td>
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<td>Participation and interaction were encouraged.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The topics covered were relevant to my work.</td>
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<tr>
<td>This course will be useful in my work.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The content was organized and easy to follow.</td>
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<td>The trainer was knowledgable on the topic.</td>
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<td>The course materials were helpful.</td>
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<td>The time allotted for this course was sufficient.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The course objectives were met.</td>
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</table>

2. What did you like most about this course?

3. How do you hope to change your practice as a result of this course?

4. Please make suggestions about other ways the training course could be improved?

5. What additional training courses would you like to have in the future?

Thank you for your feedback!