

**Teacher Cognition in EFL Teaching:
A Study of Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers of English for
Arabic-Speaking Students in Egypt with a Particular Focus on Vocabulary**

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Dedication

To my late grandmother who told me to study languages because they would open up the world for me. To my parents who tried to accommodate my early questioning of the nature of things. To my wife, Safa, whose presence in my life is a joy and a blessing. To my sons, Ezeldin, Zeyad and Omar, who have patiently waited for me to come home.

Abstract

Starting in the 1990s (Borg, 2003; Burns et al., 2015), studies on language teacher cognition and its role in language teaching and learning drew more on the cognitivist paradigm to investigate teachers' mental processes and actions while paying less attention to the role of affect and sociocultural factors and their influence on cognition (Burns et al., 2015; Li, 2020). Besides, studies attempting to investigate the influence of social contexts focused more on the school or the classroom context rather than the wider sociocultural/sociohistorical milieus. There is also paucity in LTC research regarding NNESTs. This study implemented and integrated the concepts of language-game (Wittgenstein, 1953), perezhivanie (Vygotsky, 1994/1935) and habitus (Bourdieu, 1977) to explore NNESTs' cognitions in teaching EFL in general and English vocabulary in particular while focusing on their past and present as both EFL learners and teachers.

The study participants were in-service EFL teachers in public schools in Egypt. The data were collected in four phases using questionnaires (including open and closed questions), Q sorts, semi-structured interviews, and classroom observations. Quantitative data were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics (including exploratory factor analysis), and data from Q sorts were analysed using Q factor analysis. Qualitative data from the questionnaire were analysed using content analysis, while interview and observation data were analysed using thematic analysis.

The findings revealed the role of language-games (or socially regulated use of language) in framing teachers' concepts and convictions regarding several aspects of learning and teaching. They also revealed how lived experiences (perezhivaniya) and socially constructed emotions form an integral part of teachers' cognitions, and how, together with socially structured dispositions (habitus), they influence their perceptions and practices as NNESTs. The findings also suggested how teachers' cognitions about power relations based

on sociocultural and sociohistorical factors are in interplay with their practices in language teaching.

Whether in teaching English or its vocabulary, the findings showed that the teachers' prior learning experiences with their sociohistorical dimensions along with current multi-layered contextual factors influenced teachers' cognitions in several ways that would defy simplistic comparisons looking for alignment between their cognitions and their practices.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BALLI	Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory
CFA	Centroid factor analysis
CLT	Communicative language teaching
EFA	Exploratory factor analysis
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELT	English language teaching
EMOE	Egyptian Ministry of Education
ESL	English as a second language
FL	Foreign language
ICT	Information and communications technology
IMMR	Innovative mixed-methods research
L1	First language
L2	Second language
LTC	Language teacher cognition
LTI	Language teacher identity
ML	Maximum likelihood
MMR	Mixed-methods research
MT	Mother tongue
NIE	(American) National Institute of Education
NNEST	Non-native English-speaking teacher
PAF	Principal axis factoring
PCA	Principal component analysis
PLE	Prior learning experience
Q	Q methodology

RQ	Research question
SA	Standard Arabic
SCT	Sociocultural theory
SLTE	Second language teacher education
TBLT	Task-based language teaching
TESOL	Teaching English for speakers of other languages
TL	Target language
TSR	Teacher-student relationship
VLS	Vocabulary learning strategy
VTS	Vocabulary teaching strategy

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Yes, teach him according to the speech of old;
then he shall be a pattern for offspring of the great,
So that understanding shall sink in by means of him,
each heart a witness to what he has said.

No one is born wise.

*The Maxims of Ptahhotep,
ca.2380- 2342 B.C., ancient Egypt
(as cited in Foster, 2001, p. 188)*

My interest in language learning and teaching started early. I was fascinated by people in English-speaking films using a language I could not understand except through subtitles in standard Arabic. When English was officially introduced to me as a student, I remember teachers who pronounced it differently from what I used to hear in those films. I found out later that they did not specialize in it at university, and as non-specialists, they were counted on to teach it based on textbooks. I remember that many of them did their best to teach us words and grammar rules, and then more words, grammar rules and exam-oriented drills. Later, when I joined the English language department at the university stage, I recall a lecturer who told us to forget everything about English we had learned at school. It was at that time that I relied mainly on my self-learning skills to re-learn the language while involving myself in its written and spoken forms of culture and literature.

When I chose to teach English, I preferred to teach it to university students. I was aware of the struggle English teachers experience in pre-tertiary schools. However, with my long journey of teaching English to university students and initial teacher education students in Egypt and the Gulf states, I realized that part of my conceptualization of teaching, as a job and a process, and learning, as a path to knowledge and skills, is based on my experiences as a human being and a teacher. I also realized that when it comes to vocabulary, neither the colleagues I met nor the friends and acquaintances I made who teach in pre-tertiary stages have one specific approach in mind based on what they studied or learned by themselves. Most of their approaches were the outcome of trial and error. I always asked myself: what is

the point of being in English teacher? Is there any kind of achievement or fulfilment in it? Do I teach English the way I learned it? Do students need more fluency or more accuracy? What makes teaching English so challenging sometimes? What makes me feel more willing to adopt a certain method in teaching? Do experts and designers of materials really know what would work with my students? What do I really teach when I teach vocabulary? What is the best way to introduce and consolidate vocabulary? Do I believe that non-traditional methods work better for all students? These questions, among others, led me to the area of language teacher cognition (LTC). The more I read, the more I became interested in investigating the hidden world of language teaching or “the ‘hidden pedagogy’ of the classroom” (Burns, 1992, p. 57), especially among colleagues who teach younger students, as they are the ones who may face more challenging situations than teachers of adults, experts or teacher educators. They are the ones who introduce the ‘unknown’ language to younger students.

While thinking of the nature of the many questions I had in mind, I also thought of the several dimensions teaching as a job has. A major dimension is the social nature of teaching as a process. Teachers do not make a product, serve a client or finish a task; they socially interact with learners while introducing knowledge, explaining concepts, guiding, facilitating, organizing, and managing, among other activities, while multitasking. They are often expected to care about their image and practices outside the classroom where students and students’ parents encounter them accidentally. Together with this social dimension comes the psychological dimension of the teacher as a human being with all his or her own histories, emotions, experiences and personality characteristics that cannot be simply excluded from his or her role as a professional teacher.

My questions about the social and the psychological evoked philosophical issues as well. The questions I had were about language and the connection between the inner and outer worlds of those who teach it. Having audited a course in philosophy of language at

Stanford University, I studied Wittgenstein's statement that "the limits of my language are the limits of my world" (Wittgenstein, 1922, section 5.6). His statement made me reconsider the influence of language, including my native language, and it also seemed relevant to my questions about language teaching.

Considering the foregoing, the theoretical framework I adopted was developed to approach the philosophical, social and psychological dimensions of language teaching. Accordingly, I consulted the works of Ludwig Wittgenstein (1889-1951), especially his later philosophy, Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934), with a focus on his sociocultural theory, and Pierre Bourdieu (1930-2002), with his theory of practice. Most specifically, I drew on three concepts developed by the three scholars, i.e., *Sprachspiel* (language-game) by Wittgenstein, *perezhivanie* by Vygotsky and *habitus* by Bourdieu. The three concepts were combined in a conceptual/theoretical framework to explore LTC in teaching English and its vocabulary among in-service NNESTs in Egyptian public schools.

In order to introduce the reader to the purpose of this thesis, the following brief definitions are offered for these key concepts. It should be noted, however, that for each one of them, there is still controversy over the right definition, and the following ones are mainly based on my understanding of the three scholars' writings as well as explanations proposed by later writers.

- *Sprachspiel* (language-game): a concept that refers to how using a language is like playing a game, where rules govern it as an activity. These rules are supposed to be known to and recognized by all players of a certain community; hence understanding and viewing the world take place accordingly. In the same vein, language as a game means that word meanings (concepts) come from language as an activity or language in use and in accordance with the rules its 'players' are familiar with.

- *Perezhivanie*: a Russian word that is used by Vygotsky to refer to a lived experience in the sense that this experience includes cognitive, emotional and environmental (social) factors that are in interplay at the time of the experience and may have future influences on the psychological development of the person.
- *Habitus*: originally a Latin word that means disposition, character and attitude. In Bourdieu's terms, it refers basically to the same meanings, yet with a focus on dispositions that a person develops based on the influence of community and the person's pursuit of a space within this community. Such dispositions develop with time and lead to cognitive, emotional and physical manifestations that become second nature to the person (i.e., subconsciously adopted).

1.1 The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore in-service NNEST's cognition in teaching EFL with a particular focus on teaching vocabulary to public school students in Egypt. The focus is on what teachers think, know and believe about teaching EFL in general and English vocabulary in particular, and how their cognitions, including emotions, are shaped by sociocultural factors. Also, the study aims at exploring how teachers' cognitions, as situated in the sociohistorical/sociocultural context, are reflected in their practices.

With reference to teachers' individual development as professionals, Feryok (2012) states that "early experiences mediate later developments because they are the basis for orienting to individual action" (p. 106). So, this study begins by exploring EFL teachers' experiences as language learners and how they contributed to teachers' beliefs and 'oriented' teachers' development as professionals. It also considers how several aspects and different stakeholders are involved in the process. Therefore, the study aims at exploring the beliefs and perceptions of in-service teachers and how external factors shape, influence and develop their cognition, including teachers' emotions as part of their cognitions. It also considers

sociocultural factors that influence teachers' cognitions about themselves as EFL teachers. To achieve these goals, multiple research tools were utilised to collect in-depth data that could help with making the unobservable comprehensible.

1.2 Research Questions

The current research aims to answer four specific questions:

- 1) How do non-native English-speaking EFL teachers perceive themselves as learners of English in general and English vocabulary in particular?
- 2) What are non-native English-speaking EFL teachers' cognitions about teaching English, especially vocabulary?
- 3) How do sociocultural factors contribute to forming teachers' cognitions about teaching EFL and its vocabulary?
- 4) How do teachers' cognitions influence their practices in teaching EFL and its vocabulary?

1.3 Why Vocabulary?

Vocabulary is the basic element of language without which all verbal language manifestations are not possible. McCarthy (1990) notes:

no matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wide range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way. (p. viii)

There is more than one way to define vocabulary; however, for the purpose of this study, vocabulary is defined as the repertoire of lexical items, including words and phrases, that a language learner should know (in terms of form and meaning), memorize and use to communicate effectively (see Nation, 2001; Neuman & Dwyer, 2009). This effective communication is possible through learning using vocabulary in productive and receptive skills. Within this umbrella definition, and for the sake of a more operational definition,

vocabulary in this study is also viewed as the number of words that a language learner needs to learn in order to progress from one level or grade to another.

As Schmitt (2019) notes, there is no one unifying theory of vocabulary learning, and the theories that addressed the issue were limited to certain dimensions including the role of first language and the focus on form and meaning, yet “there are still none that explain how the many different components of lexical mastery are developed” (p. 262). Taking this into consideration, one can imagine the challenge that NNESTs face when it comes to teaching vocabulary in a way that makes it possible for their students to learn it effectively or, supposedly, master it.

Vocabulary development in learners is a fundamental part of L1 and L2 acquisition, and any deficiency or shortcomings in vocabulary development can have negative effects on other language components and skills. Words are also the main carriers of culturally bound connotations and specific uses that are mostly familiar to the L1 speaker but may be unknown to a non-native speaker, whether a teacher or a learner. Lee and Hirsh (2012) argue that:

one of the main difficulties facing L2 learners is the vast number of words they need to acquire in order to become effective users of their L2. Teachers might well understand this need but might not know how best to support their students in this endeavor. (p. 80)

However, it is not clear whether Egyptian EFL teachers have appropriate knowledge of vocabulary or vocabulary instruction. Also, many of the studies conducted on teaching EFL in Egypt have focused mainly on language skills, particularly reading and writing, and when vocabulary is addressed, it is mainly viewed as blocks that help build these skills rather than a major component in itself (e.g., Abdelhafez, 2010; Ahmed & Rajab, 2015; Elian, 2017; Latif, 2012).

In a governmental endeavour to set national standards for teaching EFL in public schools, the Egyptian Ministry of Education (EMOE) issued the National Curriculum Framework for English as a Foreign Language (NCFEFL) in 2012. It contains all the guidelines that teachers should follow in teaching EFL and its skill components, including vocabulary. Teachers are required to follow those guidelines, and they usually get observed two or three times a year by ‘inspectors’ who used to be senior teachers and were promoted to this position merely for their experience, but not necessarily their qualifications. The NCFEFL states that:

The overall aim of the *English as a Foreign Language (EFL)* curriculum is to equip learners linguistically and to enhance their ability to communicate successfully in a global society. The EFL curriculum is designed to equip learners with the necessary English language skills to pursue their higher studies or to enter the labour market. It is essential that those completing Grade 12 achieve the expected level of competence in the four language skills in English according to the standards developed by The National Authority of Quality Assurance and Accreditation of Education (Egyptian Ministry of Education, 2012, p. 5).

With regard to vocabulary, some of the standards or learning outcomes for Grades 10 to 12 expect students to be able to “identify and correctly use idioms, proverbs and figures of speech” (p. 78) or to “identify and correctly use common collocations” (p. 78). The framework and the NAQAAE standards do not explain what idioms or common collocations teachers are supposed to teach, and textbooks do not help much in making things clear as to how this can prepare students for university studies or the labour market.

Moreover, the whole framework refers to teachers as executors of those guidelines or *orders*, and it does not seem to consider their input or what they think when it comes to reality test or practical application of the theoretical standards (see Barnard & Burns, 2012).

In a situation like this, and when we know that EFL teachers in Egypt “allocate much more instructional time and effort to grammar and vocabulary than to the other language skill components” (Latif, 2012, p. 78).

With the above in mind, it seems plausible to explore language teacher cognition of NNESTs in Egypt with a focus on vocabulary as an essential language component that pertains to every skill. It is also a component that has no unifying theory to cover how it is learned or acquired effectively, hence teachers seem to have their own developed cognitions as to what works from their own perspectives and in their own contexts. In light of this, one can assume that understanding how teachers perceive vocabulary instruction could be a pathway to understanding how they teach EFL in general. Furthermore, the fact that vocabulary instruction is underresearched in Egypt makes it relevant to investigate it from the perspective of teachers. This investigation can also offer teachers, stakeholders and policy makers with the practical outcome of an LTC study that primarily focuses on abstract or hidden aspects of teachers’ inner worlds by providing a concrete picture of what teachers think and do in vocabulary instruction as an essential part of language teaching.

1.4 Research Design

This study utilised an interpretive approach in which contextualization gives meaning to phenomena, and thus teacher’s cognitions were interpreted in light of the context or social field with its different dimensions.

The methodological aim was to maximise the richness and accuracy of data. Therefore, after using a questionnaire with closed and open items (phase 1), Q methodology was used (phase 2) to help understand and explore the participating teachers’ cognitions about English language teaching (ELT). Q methodology is a systematic, scientific way of studying subjectivity that has been vigorously used in psychology and social studies. Since this study investigates cognition including emotions, this methodology can be a credible tool

for understanding and interpreting the participants' subjective perceptions of reality. Video recordings of participants' hand movements were used as a supplementary procedure to further explore their hesitations about sorting statements and what they may indicate.

Semi-structured interviews were also used (phase 3) to collect in-depth data from participating informants and to investigate their individual cognitions. Following the interviews, observation sessions were conducted (phase 4) with some informants to investigate any links between their reported cognitions and their actual practices.

1.5 Organization of the Thesis

This thesis consists of ten chapters, including the current introductory chapter. The general layout of the remaining nine chapters is as follows:

- Chapter two provides an overall view of the context of the study with a focus on sociohistorical aspects pertaining to education in Egypt in general and EFL education in particular. The chapter also explores sociocultural dimensions that could be relevant to the study of LTC.
- Chapter three provides a review of the key studies that are most closely related to the aims of this thesis with a focus on research studies that contributed substantially to the development of LTC research, whether in general education or second language learning and studies that ushered in the sociocultural turn in LTC.
- Chapter four presents the theoretical/conceptual framework of the study, which is based mainly on Bourdieu's concept of habitus while integrating and incorporating Wittgenstein's concept of *Sprachspiel* (language-game) and Vygotsky's concept of *perezhivanie* in an attempt to broaden the scope of understanding and fathoming LTC.
- Chapter five addresses the methodology employed in this study, where it discusses the rationale behind the mixed-method approach. It also presents an explanation of the

research instruments and procedures while providing information about sampling and demographic characteristics of participants.

- Chapters six to nine are dedicated to presenting, analysing and discussing the findings of the study. Due to the extensive amount of data yielded by the four instruments and the attempt to cover several multidimensional aspects of teacher's cognitions in both EFL and vocabulary teaching and learning, it seemed more befitting to devote four chapters that address the four questions while incorporating discussion of findings to make it easier to the reader to find connections. Chapter six addresses findings related to RQ1 about teachers prior learning experience. Chapter seven is focused on their cognitions about EFL teaching and learning as current in-service teachers, whereas chapter eight presents findings related to their cognitions about vocabulary teaching and learning. Chapter nine reviews and discusses findings related to social factors and their influences in shaping teachers' cognitions.
- The last chapter, chapter ten, concludes the study and discusses implications of the findings in addition to possible methodological and practical implications that could lead to a better understanding of LTC as well as better approaches in policies and teacher education programs related to language learning and teaching.

Chapter 2: The Context

This chapter provides an overview of the context of the study by shedding light on some sociohistorical and socio-political aspects while relating them to language learning and teaching in the Egyptian context.

2.1 The History: A Socio-political Linguistic Overview

This study took place in Egypt. With a population of 100,388 million people as of the latest 2017 census (UN Statistics Division, 2019), today's Egypt stands as the most populous Arabic-speaking country with its geographical, historical and political position, which is "of great influence in the Middle East region" (Schaub, 2000, p. 225). Building its ancient civilization around the River Nile, it started as one of the oldest states in the world where early settlers created agricultural communities that were ultimately run by monarchs known as the Pharaohs. Due to its position and natural resources, throughout history, Egypt has witnessed several conquests and has been ruled, for short or long periods of time, by different colonial powers, all bringing along their native languages. At the time of the Arab conquest, around 640 CE, the Egyptian-Coptic and Greek were the languages most commonly used (Bassiouney, 2014). The Egyptian-Coptic is a language developed from the ancient Egyptian language, and it is still used in liturgical services by Orthodox Christians in Egypt, but it is not used as a vernacular language anymore (Wilfong, 2018).

Since the Arab conquest, Islam has ultimately become the predominant religion, and Arabic, the language of the Quran, has gradually become the language mostly spoken in Egypt. However, as Holes (2004, p. 31) argues, "the written language of administration remained at first Greek, with Arabic beginning to replace it from the beginning of the eighth century".

Bassiouney (2014) argues that the caliph Abd al-Malik ibn Marwān (685–705 CE) played a major role in Arabizing most countries of the Islamic empire. She notes that

“according to the traditional narrative, he made a drastic change in the administration of Egypt, by declaring that in order for Egyptians to keep their jobs in the administration of Egypt, they would have to learn Arabic” (p. 10). Since that time, Arabic has grown to be the dominant language in the country. From that time, and like all Arabic-speaking countries, Egypt has been a diglossic community where Arabic has its standard version, *fusha* or standard Arabic (SA), which is a classical version of the language that is mostly used for formal, religious and educational purposes, and *'amiya* or Egyptian colloquial Arabic, a local version or dialect of Arabic.

With the Ottoman conquest and rule of Egypt (1517-1798), Arabic remained the language of the community, while Turkish became the language of the government and statesmen (Winter, 2003). With the French conquest in 1798, the year viewed by many as the end of the Ottoman rule in Egypt, the Egyptians had their first large-scale contact with a European language; however, the three years the French troops spent in Egypt did not influence the position of Arabic among the community. Suleiman (2008) notes that Arabic language, especially SA, was used by Egyptians as a way of “textual resistance” (p. 30) in the sense that they identified themselves with it in order to resist the French. Although the French tried to use written Arabic to communicate with the community leaders and scholars, their use of it showed little awareness about its rules and principles. Al-Jabarti, one of the historians of the time, saw this lack of awareness as an indicator of French misunderstanding and deception (See Mitchell, 1991).

Following the departure of the French from Egypt, Mohamed Ali, an Albanian-Ottoman officer, also known among many Egyptians as the builder of modern Egypt, came to power in 1805 and started making the new Egyptian state that gradually gained its independence from the Ottoman empire. In his pursuit of independence, he created a modern

army and “founded countless educational, medical and infrastructural bodies to serve it” (Fahmy, 1997, p. 13). However, as Ibrahim (2010) argues:

Ali’s (1805–1849) fascination with the French model and its military education inspired him to create a similar military education system in Egypt (Badran, 2006). Unwittingly, Ali introduced three characteristics of the current Egyptian education system. First, he created a schism between the modern secular schools that he established and the traditional religious education, crowned by Al-Azhar University, which was already widespread (Hyde, 1978). Second, he introduced an extreme version of French centralization (Galt, 1936). Egyptians reinforced the centralized and rigid nature of the education system since the majority of them were apathetic and afraid to take on responsibility and thus left decisions to top officials who also sought and kept power (Ibrahim and Hozayin, 2006; Melieka 1966). Third, Ali conscripted Azhari students into modern schools and recruited unqualified Azhari sheikhs to teach in modern schools, which reinforced the traditional approach of memorization and rote learning used at Al-Azhar¹ (Heyworth-Dunne, 1939). (p. 503)

During the British occupation of Egypt (1882-1922), English language started to show more presence in the country though it was not introduced in all schools. With the start of the 20th century, it gradually became the language of instruction in public schools until it lost its place to Arabic in 1925 (Egyptian Ministry of Education, 1964; Latif, 2017). During that time, English was taught in fee-paying schools, which were not affordable for most Egyptians (Cochran, 2008). The British, like Mohamed Ali, had little interest in educating the majority of Egyptians (Cochran 2008; Heyworth-Dunne 1939; Sayed, 2006), and their educational

¹ Founded in 970 CE in Cairo, Al-Azhar is “the apex of Egypt’s Islamic educational system, and an Islamic university of worldwide renown” (Reimer, 1997, p. 54) that has been mainly concerned with Islamic studies and teachings, and it has offered its educational programs and degrees to thousands of Egyptians and international students since its early beginnings.

policies were based on pragmatic purposes and aimed at a certain number of candidates who could serve those purposes, among which were “producing obedient clerks” (Cochran, 1986, p. 19). At the same time, “tuition-free modern education was completely prohibited, and parents had to pay for their children’s education” (Ibrahim, 2010, p. 503). This move made the majority of Egyptians resort to the traditional and mostly theological form of education known as *kuttab*. In *kuttab*, young children received Arabic literacy education based on memorization and rote learning, which prepared them for further religious education at Al-Azhar University. It should be noted here that “until 1906 there were only three government secondary schools in the country, and until 1902 these schools together were turning out fewer than one-hundred graduates a year in a country of eleven million” (Reid, 1977, p. 356).

In all cases, the Egyptians realized the possibilities of social mobility created by education in its available forms. Starting with Mohamed Ali’s plans to create a modern state, they saw some of their children getting positions in certain state sectors as an outcome of their education or after coming back from their educational missions. And when modern education was not available, they relied on traditional education that could lead to religious or educational positions that also helped with social mobility. However, and especially toward the end of the British occupation of Egypt (1922), governmental jobs were kept for those who learned English (Schaub, 2000), especially at the fee-paying schools and public universities run by the state. Nonetheless, French remained dominant in foreign-language private schools until after the end of the British occupation (Cochran, 1986).

Starting with the 1952 revolution and to the present, all Egyptian regimes have endorsed free education to all Egyptians, while encouraging teaching English in public schools. Nevertheless, As Abdelhafez (2010) points out, English lost some of its popularity after what was known as the tripartite aggression on Egypt and the departure of the last British troops in 1956 under the reign of Nasser (1956-1970), who supported Arabic and pan-

Arab nationalism. During the reign of former President Sadat [1970-1981], English “regained popularity due to the “open door” policy which required English to be taught in public schools” (p. 33) on a wider scale. English remained a subject in preparatory and secondary schools, taught by mostly Egyptian non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) from 1945 until 1993, when it was decided it would be taught to the last two grades of the primary stage. In 2003, English was reinstated as a required subject in all stages of pre-tertiary education, including all the grades of the primary stage.

The “open door” economic policy adopted by the government in the 1970s made Egypt “an outward-looking market-oriented capitalist economy in which the private sector plays a dominant role.” (Löfgren, 1993, p. 407). With more international and foreign companies coming to invest in Egypt, English as an international language started to gain increasing popularity among the Egyptians in the 1970s due to the opportunities provided in the job market for those who could speak it. Since 1970s till the current time, English has been one of the means of social advancement for many Egyptians who are aware of its educational importance, especially for studying certain majors in universities, as well as its economic importance in finding a relatively lucrative job. In this regard, Shaub (2000) notes:

More than two decades ago, Imhoof (1977) labelled the drive towards English ‘a kind of national hysteria’ (p. 3), adding that adult evening classes at private English institutes were filled with Egyptians from all backgrounds and classes; everyone from university post-graduates to housewives to military personnel to doormen all sharing ‘the aim of participating in a better economic life with English language skills one short avenue to [their] objective’ (p. 3). Twenty years later, this ‘hysteria’ is still apparent. (p. 228)

This drive has also continued to the present, with the rising awareness among the new generations of how mastering English makes it possible to enrol in certain majors in local and international universities or find a rewarding job locally, abroad or even online.

2.2 Current Education System in Egypt

According to public education policies in Egypt, the pre-tertiary schooling system is divided into mainly three stages:

- The primary stage: grades 1 to 6 for students ideally aged between 6 and 12.
- The preparatory stage: grades 7 to 9 for students ideally aged between 12 and 15.
- The secondary stage: grades 10 to 12 for students ideally aged between 15 and 18.

Both primary and preparatory stages are compulsory by law and referred to as ‘basic education’. All students in both stages study the same curricula authorized and distributed by EMOE. As for the secondary stage, there are two tracks: general and vocational.

The general track, also known as the *thanawiyyah ‘ammah*, is for those who usually get higher marks in the last grade of the preparatory stage and pass the formal examinations to get what is known as ‘preparatory stage certificate’. It is also the track that is chosen by those who aspire to increase their chances in joining several higher education institutes. The vocational track in the secondary stage is for those whose marks are relatively lower than their peers and are deemed less qualified to join *thanawiyyah ‘ammah*. They have some slim chances to join certain higher education institutes if they prove worthy at the end of their vocational track. In most if not all cases, high-stake examinations determine the chances available for every student. Each year, EMOE decides the minimum mark according to which students with preparatory school certificates can join general secondary schools in different governorates.

Another school type that is supervised by the government, yet under the authority of Al-Azhar, is called Azhari education, which focuses more on Islamic religious subjects, but it

also includes non-religious subjects as it qualifies students to join its university which, after 1961, includes both religious and non-religious fields of study. Ninety percent of pre-tertiary students in Egypt attend public schools while six percent enrol in Azhari schools (Krafft et al., 2019). The rest of pre-tertiary students attend private schools, which constitute around 13% of pre-tertiary schools in Egypt (Krafft et al., 2019). These private schools are supervised by EMOE, and they include ‘international’ or foreign schools where English or another foreign language is the main medium of instruction. Other private schools use Arabic as the main medium of instruction.

Within the public-school system, there is a public-school type named experimental schools (also known as *tagreebi*), which were founded by the government in 1979 to provide a public substitute of private language schools (Latif, 2017) with relatively affordable fees. In this regard, Krafft et al. (2019, p. 3) note:

Experimental schools, renamed “public language” schools as of 2014, represent about 5 percent of public schools and were introduced in 1985 as a pilot aiming to expand the study of foreign languages. Instruction in this type of school is conducted in a foreign language, typically English, and the schools are semi-public in the sense that they charge tuition fees. The fee level is about half that charged by regular private schools and a quarter of what private language schools charge but remains a substantial expenditure; these schools are primarily attended by children of the wealthiest families (Assaad & Krafft, 2015).

It could be concluded that in spite of the government’s attempt to ‘expand’ the study of foreign languages as a recognition of its importance on both educational and economic grounds, and based on the previously mentioned statistics, the vast majority of pre-tertiary students in Egypt study English as a subject in public schools where Arabic is the main

medium of instruction. With that in mind, the focus of the study is on teachers who teach English in this type of schools in their primary, preparatory and general secondary stages.

2.3 EFL Teachers in Egypt

Before the 1980s, most English teachers in public schools were university graduates who did not major in English language or literature and had no certification or official training (Latif, 2017). Those teachers, known as non-specialist English teachers, have taught many of current in-service teachers. Their background in English relied mainly on what they had studied as pre-tertiary students (when they studied English as a subject in grades 7-12) or some English texts they had studied at the university level in one of the minor courses. Many of those teachers were graduates of faculties of arts or education who majored in history, philosophy or other fields of humanities.

The reason behind the shortage in teachers who majored in English language or literature was due to the increase in building schools and accepting more students after the 1952 revolution without having sufficient cadres of teachers as the numbers of universities and graduates majoring in English language were limited. With the government's attempt to increase the numbers of universities and the numbers of graduates who could work as teachers in public schools, the last four decades have witnessed increasing numbers of teachers of English who majored in English language and literature or English language teaching. The former are the graduates of faculties of arts where they study no courses in English teaching, and the latter are the graduates of faculties of education where they have some specific courses in ELT, and they also do pre-service teaching practicums in their third and fourth years of study. Due to the increasing numbers of graduates majoring in English, the government did not appoint non-specialist teachers from the middle of the 1990s (Latif, 2017). It also motivated the ones in service to get a degree in English language teaching through a program tailored for them in cooperation with the faculties of education.

In the last two decades, EMOE has favoured and increased the numbers of recruited teachers majoring in language teaching (graduates of faculties of education), and they have recently put it as a requirement for those who majored in English language and literature to get a diploma in ELT. After realizing the need to improve teaching English in schools, EMOE, in cooperation with faculties of education and some international institutions, provided EFL teachers with PD opportunities and in-service training programs. In 1993, EMOE also started sending some English teachers on short (usually 3-6 months) TESOL and TEFL training missions to UK and USA (Abdelhafez, 2010; Latif, 2017). However, as Latif (2017) notes:

Some questions have been raised about the effectiveness of the professional development or in-service training programmes provided to English teachers in Egypt. For example, Ginsburg and Megahed (2011) found that the more recent reform in-service teacher training initiatives of 2002 funded by USAID and World Bank did not achieve the goals intended due to the lack of adequate coordination between the funding organization and the red tape found in the EMOE and local institutions. Similarly, El-Fiki's (2012) study revealed that some institutional features tend to determine how much teachers will actually change their pedagogical performance after receiving their in-service training. (p. 38)

The author also argues that these studies indicate how some contextual impediments could have had a negative impact on the effectiveness of in-service teacher training.

2.4 Quality of Education

After 1952, consecutive Egyptian governments have gradually increased the numbers of public schools in different regions of the country to make free education accessible to every citizen and to improve the levels of enrolment and attainment. According to EMOE's latest statistics (Egyptian Ministry of Education, 2020), there are 47,972 public schools,

including 435,208 classrooms where 21,053,496 students are taught by 930,078 teachers. The density of classrooms in primary schools, for example, has reached 56.9 students per class in Cairo, 61.3 in Alexandria, and 53.9 in Al Beheira. With such an increase in numbers of schools to meet the needs of the growing population, there was a focus on making education accessible to the masses, but, as Assaad and Krafft (2015, p. 16) argue, “there has been, until recently, insufficient concern about the demonstrably low school quality and low levels of learning students are achieving (Assaad, 2014; Salehi-Isfahani et al., 2014; World Bank, 2008)”. Memorization and rote learning have been the norm in teaching methodologies in pre-tertiary education, especially with centralized examination-oriented curricula, poor facilities and crowded classes (Abdelrahman & Irby, 2016; El Baradei & El Baradei, 2004; Hartmann, 2013; Loveluck, 2012).

In 2017, Egypt was ranked 134 out of 144 countries in the quality of its primary education, although it ranked 28 in the enrolment rate (World Economic Forum, 2017, p. 169). One of the earlier studies that discussed the reasons for the weaknesses in the Egyptian education system is El Baradei and El Baradei (2004). The authors pointed out the reasons behind “the poor performance of the Education system in Egypt” (p. 32). They also commented that some of these reasons are “related to problems inherited from past decades, and some [are] related to current existing inefficiencies” (p. 32). Among these major problems, they mentioned shortage in financial resources and physical facilities, high class density, the inadequacy of textbooks and curricula and the low qualifications of some teachers, especially in primary education. They also referred to management problems, which, according to the authors, are the results of “the absence of democracy and participation”, “the lack of scientific or rational decision making”, “the lack of effective systems and mechanisms for evaluating performance” and “over staffing of the public administration agencies and organizations” (p. 40). Besides, they highlighted issues related to

access to free education in rural and remote areas, low economic profitability of education for many educated individuals, and the mismatch between the education system and the labour market.

The government has implemented several educational reforms in its modern history, yet, as Barakat (2019) argues, all of them were centralized and adopting an encompassing ideology, and although earlier reforms had their positive impact on the country and even the region, “during the last four decades, foreign supported reform efforts in Egypt were not transformative and have had limited, if any success” (p. 346). With the above-mentioned issues still lingering, some argue that the 25th of January 2011 revolution in Egypt had the decline of education system and its inadequacies as one of its impelling causes (Abdelrahman & Irby, 2016; Arar et al., 2017; Assaad & Krafft, 2015).

The situation has not changed much in public education following the 25th of January 2011 revolution as a period of turmoil followed, and the focus of the government was on settling more existential issues like national security and economic stability. Starting in 2018, the government decided to adopt a long-term educational reform plan, from 2018 to 2030, to ‘transform’ its public education system. Labelled as the “new system” or Education 2.0 (EDU 2.0), the plan started with introducing new curricula to the kindergarten stage and the first year in the primary stage and is supposed to gradually replace the older curricula. It should be noted that there was a previous long-term plan initiated by the previous leadership in EMOE and referred to as the Strategic Plan for Pre-university Education Reform 2014–2030. However, it was suddenly replaced by the new one.

The new system is supposed to employ learner-centred teaching, adopt competency-based learning for life strategies, stress learning for life and not for the exam, and capitalize on multi-disciplinary learning (Egyptian Ministry of Education, 2018). As with all previous reforms and initiatives, this one was also centralized and is enforced in all public schools.

2.5 English Language Teaching in Public Schools

According to Shawer (2010, p. 333), the policy of English language teaching in the Egyptian education system remained mostly reliant on curricula that focused mainly on accuracy and structural approaches rather fluency and communication skills until 1988, when the EMOE started adopting and imposing curricula that focused more on communicative language teaching (CLT). However, El-Fiki (2012) alleges that the adoption of CLT in the Egyptian context started in 1999. Ibrahim and Ibrahim (2017), on the other hand, state that this change took place around 1994 after the EMOE issued a document to explain the specifications of the curriculum of the secondary stage in which it clarified the objectives of English language teaching and highlighted the importance of communicative learning and teaching. Gahin (2001) argues that it was in 1993 that the EMOE started using communicative-based textbooks when English as a subject was decided to be taught in primary schools. In all cases, all agree that before the times mentioned above, English was mostly taught in a traditional way where the focus of the curricula or the teachers was on teaching grammar and vocabulary forms using the grammar-translation method and giving little attention to audio-oral skills.

The EMOE devised and introduced the textbook *Hello!* to the primary stage, starting with grade 4 in 1993/1994 while keeping the older curriculum used with higher grades. The same students were the ones who started using the new coursebook in the preparatory stage in 1996 and the general secondary stage in 1999. This means that all current English teachers who learned English in public schools and finished their first university degrees before 2005/2006 did not study English in the primary stage, and the textbooks they studied were not mainly communicative.

In 2003, when it was decided that English would be taught to all grades in the primary stage, another textbook, *Hand in Hand*, was introduced to grades 1-3, while upgrading *Hello!*

for grades 4-6, who kept studying this upgraded version in later grades. From 2013 till now, all grades of the primary stage started using another textbook named *Time for English*, while higher grades are still using the upgraded or second series of *Hello!*. It should be noted that with the recent EDU 2.0 system, a different textbook, *Connect*, was introduced in 2018/2019 to the first three grades in the primary stage.

All previous textbooks are mainly communicative, and they have been distributed in all public schools accompanied by workbooks, teacher's guides, readers for grades 6, 9 and 12, and cassette tapes (later replaced by CDs). The changes that have taken place over the years were aimed at adjusting the curricula to be more standards-based and include more communicative activities (Latif, 2017). The author also noted that the EMOE had adjusted the curricula for the secondary stage to be more culturally oriented to Egypt since 1999. The question is whether all these changes and attempts have resulted in more effective teaching and learning of English. The answer to this question could be obtained through understanding the challenges of teaching English language in Egypt.

2.6 Challenges to English Teaching

In a study published by the British Council, McIlwraith and Fortune (2016) argue that there are three main challenges to effective teaching of English in Egypt, which are the quality of teaching, high-stakes examinations, and private tutoring. According to the authors, these challenges hinder the efforts of the government and its strategic plans to improve teaching English in public schools.

As for the first challenge related to the quality of English teaching, the authors noted that it is poor due to six reasons: 1) low pay of EFL teachers, 2) large class sizes, 3) insufficient facilities, 4) time constraints, 5) ineffective teacher training, and 6) teaching culture that is "inflexible and teacher-centered" (p. 5). Referring to poor teaching quality, the authors note that:

English teachers in secondary schools only have five 40-to 45-minute lessons per week to teach (Latif, 2012, p. 90) ... As a result, teachers are highly selective in what they teach and do not follow the instructions in the teacher's guide. Critical thinking and reading tasks are not completed and writing tasks at paragraph level and beyond are assigned for homework (Latif, 2012, p. 91). Teachers also state that students' low English levels inhibit them from implementing speaking, writing and listening activities, but it may also be the case that teachers' *own* poor levels of English prevent them from teaching such activities (Latif, 2012, p. 87) This would seem to be an argument supported by our respondents at teacher training institutions who reported that language competence is a problem with trainee teachers who need to work on language, pronunciation and grammar. (p. 5, italics original)

Based on the previous excerpt, it could be argued that along with the previously mentioned reasons behind the poor quality of teaching English, teacher language competence is another one that should be considered.

The other two challenges, i.e., private tutoring and high-stakes examination, are closely interrelated. The authors explained how private tutoring is an outcome of the low pay that makes teachers deliberately perform less in class to indirectly 'convince' students into enrolling in their private lessons, which creates financial pressures on students' parents. Parents have to cope with an education system that imposes centralized curricula and high-stakes examinations. The results of those centralized examinations shape their children's educational future, especially when it comes to their grades in the General Secondary School Certificate Examinations (GSSCE), which take place nationwide at the end of the secondary stage (grades 10-12). Each student's total scores determine, according to quotas defined by universities and the Ministry of Higher Education, whether or not he or she can enrol in one of the free-of-charge prestigious colleges or faculties "which are traditionally the faculties of

medicine, pharmacy, dentistry and engineering [along with] other popular faculties [including] Alsun faculty for languages ...and the Faculty of Political Science and Economics at Cairo University” (Hartmann, 2008, p. 25). With large numbers of students aspiring to find a place in one of the public universities in the country, the annually centralized examinations created a highly competitive situation in pre-tertiary education, which resulted in an informal market of private tutoring in which teachers focus mainly on practicing examination skills and techniques. At the same time, as Loveluck (2012) argues, “the prevalence of private tutoring also acts as a disincentive for teachers to complete their lesson plans” (p. 7).

It should be noted that English is one of the main subjects in GSSCE and the student’s score in its final examination constitutes a considerable portion of the overall score. It should also be noted that most previously mentioned prestigious faculties offer the majority of their courses, technically, in English. Even with earlier pre-tertiary stages, in private tutoring the English language curricula aim mainly at what would help the student get a higher a score in final examinations at the end of each grade regardless of any optimal goals related to teaching and learning language skills in general or communication skills in particular.

2.7 The Status of the Teacher

Cochran (1986) notes that the status of teachers in Egypt started to slide down in 1950s and the 1960s when the government started its free public education policy that necessitated recruiting inadequately qualified teachers in large numbers to meet the needs of the masses in schools opened or built nationwide. Students, as well as their parents, could realize the difference in teachers’ levels of education and their impact on their roles. As a young learner in Egyptian schools, I witnessed many situations in which a student corrected a teacher or questioned his or her knowledge, and how some students either distrusted the

knowledge of their teacher or resorted to another teacher who was, as they thought, more proficient and knowledgeable.

Recruiting more teachers to meet the needs of schools all over the country has been the norm since the 1950s, yet although the government has been trying to hire more qualified teachers recently by requiring all applicants for teaching positions to get a teaching certificate, the pressure on faculties of education which offer the courses and issue the certificates turned those courses into procedural formalities. Even with those who graduate from faculties of education, the number of admitted students in each department makes it difficult for teacher educators to prepare pre-service teachers adequately.

In addition to many inadequately qualified teachers (Loveluck, 2012), the low pay of teachers has an impact on the socioeconomic status of the teacher. The government has increased teachers' salaries in the last decade, yet compared to the salaries of many other professions, they are still low. Loveluck (2012) notes that the average teacher's salary rarely exceeds "LE 1,600 (US\$281) a month" (p. 6) according to the exchange rates at the time. Currently, there are no certain public data about the average salaries in Egypt; however, based on what some of this study's research participants disclosed voluntarily, public school teachers' salaries vary roughly from 1500 EGP to 4000 EGP per month based on their years of experience, which approximately equals around 100 USD to 250 USD per month. The number of teachers in public schools, currently 930, 078 (Egyptian Ministry of Education, 2020), makes it difficult for the government to raise teachers' salaries, as the Minister of Education himself stated to the media several times.

There are two consequences of low pay. Starting in the 1970s and after the "open door" policy, many teachers, including the more qualified ones, preferred to leave the country and work in the Arab Gulf region where they receive much higher salaries. For those who preferred to stay in the country due to personal or social reasons, private tutoring was the

only way to make ends meet. Among those teachers, many enforced students into taking up their private lessons, which turned this previously ‘spiritual relationship’ (Williamson, 1987) to a pragmatic, business-like relationship. As for parents, who have no choice but to pay for those lessons, many of them see private tutoring as an inevitable evil for the financial burden it lays on their shoulders. Teachers, in this case, have become viewed by many as persons who take advantage of their children’s needs and abuse their positions as school teachers.

Compared to teachers of other subjects, English teachers, in general, are not an exception when it comes to the status of the teacher. However, the importance of English as one of the major subjects in all grades and an instructional medium in prestigious faculties, along with the scores allocated to it that add up to a higher GSSCE total score, are among the reasons that may make English teachers feel more in demand than teachers of some other subjects in private tutoring business. Some teachers find more respect in what they do in their school classes. In her study about private tutoring in Egypt, Hartmann (2013) interviewed some teachers who give private lessons. A senior English teacher commented that:

I feel more respected when I teach at school. I don’t like teaching private lessons at home. I always have the feeling that ‘I shouldn’t be here. This is not my job’. I prefer teaching at school, standing in front of a group of students. (...) That is what the job is about, what I am supposed to do. I feel I am better at teaching when I stand in front of a class. At home, I am only there because they pay me, and they think that they need me. (as cited in Hartmann, 2013, p. 69)

In the same study, an interviewed student also referred to another English teacher who is “famous...and does not accept just anyone...he only takes students from ‘[reputed] families” (p. 68). During the data collection phase, I have heard similar comments from English teachers indicating the same previous attitudes. Some of them expressed how they feel more

comfortable in their school classes, while some referred to how they have to turn down students who sign up late because of the high demand for their private lessons.

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter presented some dimensions of the context in which EFL has been taught and how English has been introduced and adopted as a subject in educational policies imposed by consecutive governments. It also gave an overview of how socio-political and socioeconomic aspects contributed to the presence of English in public schools, language teacher education, the quality and effectiveness of education in general and language education in specific and the status of language teachers. It is within these contextual factors that this study aims to explore LTC of NNESTs in Egypt while considering how together they could mediate and regulate their own conceptions of reality.

Chapter 3: Literature Review

This chapter is divided into multiple parts. The first part, sections 3.1 and 3.2, summarizes the origins of teacher cognition domain in general education. The second part, sections 3.3. and 3.4, is dedicated to language teacher cognition studies in terms of how the domain had been defined and the development of adopted models. The third part, sections 3.5 and 3.6, focuses on studies grounded in the social model and the sociocultural model. It also reviews studies using *perezhivanie* (based on Vygotsky's SCT) or habitus (based on Bourdieu's theory of practice). The fourth part of the chapter, sections 3.7 and 3.8, overviews LTC studies that addressed teaching vocabulary, especially by NNESTs, while discussing their contributions to the field. It also includes a review of LTC research in Egypt and the scarcity of research about LTC in teaching vocabulary.

3.1 Mental Life of Teachers

As the origins of LTC go back to studies in general education (Borg, 2003), it is worth noting a few of their major contributions that helped pave the path of LTC. According to Borg (2006a), the tradition of studying teacher cognition, with more focus on teachers' cognitive processes and less focus on the process-product model, started in 1975 at the conference held by the National Institute of Education (NIE) in the USA when a report issued by a group of experts asserted the need for studying what teachers think and how they act in accordance to their thinking. The report stated that "we need to know much more about the mental life of teachers...It is obvious that what teachers do is directed in no small measure by what teachers think." (National Institute of Education, 1975, p. 1). It is remarkable though that the report not only called for considering what teachers think, but also stated the need for considering what they feel in several parts of the report, including the goal statement in which they explained that understanding teachers' cognitive processes "can be applied in further research on teacher selection, teacher education, and the development of technological

or staffing innovations congruent with ways teachers think and *feel*” (p. 3, italics added).

Another interesting excerpt from the same report states “that the teacher is a human being whose actions are, at least in part, influenced by his thoughts and *feelings*” (p. 14, italics added).

In accordance with the NIE research panel and the recommendations they suggested in 1975, some studies started to address topics related to what teachers think and how they cope with the classroom environment in terms of interactive thinking, teacher thought processes and teacher decision making (e.g., Bussis et al., 1976; Clark & Yinger, 1977; Duffy, 1977; MacKay & Marland, 1978; Marland, 1977; Shulman & Elstein, 1975). For example, Bussis et al. (1976) studied teachers’ beliefs about their students, the curriculum, as well as their interactions with adults, such as administration staff or students’ parents. Remarkable in their study is their highlighting of the influence of what teachers think on what they do in class and consequently on the context of learning itself. They note that “teachers’ characteristic beliefs about children and learning have pervasive effects on their behavior, influencing the learning environment that they create for children and for themselves” (p. 16).

In a similar vein, Mackay and Marland (1978) investigated teachers’ interactive thoughts about teaching behaviours, lesson plans and their expectations for their students. They also addressed teachers’ implicit theories and how they think about various aspects of teaching and learning. The previous two studies, in Elbaz-Luwisch’s words, “provided a foretaste of the possibilities of understanding teaching from the inside” (Elbaz-Luwisch, 2007, p. 4).

However, the studies mentioned above, along with the studies of the early 1980s, focused more on teachers’ thought processes than their feelings. It is noteworthy, though, that two of those studies, i.e., Marland (1977) and MacKay and Marland (1978), asked teachers to report on their feelings, among other things that could affect their decision making (see

Munby, 1982 and Clark, 1980). Arguably, these are the first studies that gave some attention to teachers' feelings as part of their cognitive processes in the sense that their affective states influence their thought process and consequently their decision making.

3.2 Knowledge, Beliefs and Actions: The Cognitive Paradigm

In the early 1980s, more studies in general education focused on investigating and exploring some constructs related to teacher cognition. Two of these constructs started to gradually come into focus: knowledge and beliefs. It first started with Elbaz (1981, 1983) who introduced the construct of teacher practical knowledge, which recognizes teachers as active makers of knowledge which is based on rules of practice that teachers abide by in their methods, practical principles they use reflectively, and images they hold that may guide their actions intuitively (Elbaz, 1983). Within this construct of practical knowledge lies the teacher's knowledge of self, the context of teaching, the subject matter, curriculum development and instructing (Elbaz, 1983). Elbaz also specified five sources or orientations of teacher practical knowledge: social, personal, situational, experiential and theoretical. It should be noted though that her reference to the social source was focused on interactions within the school, yet she noted social ethos as part of knowledge. The social and personal aspects of teacher cognition have started to take some shape now yet without departing from the cognitive epistemology. By borrowing methods and techniques from sociological and ethnographical studies, researchers started to consider broadening the scope to explore teachers' mental lives in a more holistic way.

Presumably, and based on recognizing the need to go beyond focusing on decision making and the limited contexts of schools and classrooms, more studies in general education and applied linguistics started to give more attention to teacher beliefs and how they affect teachers' practices. As Li and Walsh (2011) argue, beliefs are "one of the most difficult to define and investigate precisely because of their psychological nature" (p. 40). Nonetheless,

Kagan (1992) referred to beliefs as a form of personal knowledge while Pajares (1993) viewed them in terms of attitudes and values. In all cases, the content of beliefs seemed to revolve mostly around pedagogical aspects that relate to teaching and learning and drew on the cognitive paradigm in the sense that what teachers think or believe affects their practice and can be observed and measured.

In cases where some studies in the 1980s and 1990s addressed the influences of the context on what teachers think and believe, they mainly referred to teachers' learning experiences, educational contexts or school settings trying to find a causative relationship between those factors and teachers' practices with little or no focus on teachers' own conceptualization or interpretation of their experiences. As Burns et al. (2015) argue, the focus was more on "researcher-determined decisions and beliefs about language teacher thinking" (p. 591) rather than "participant-oriented conceptualizations and explanations" (p. 591).

Nevertheless, Burns (1992) highlighted that "research on 'the language teacher' should involve the perspectives and reflections of teachers themselves, bringing to the fore the meanings they give to their own work, and how these meanings can be reflected upon for professional growth (Breen, 1991)" (p. 64). In a later study, Burns (1996) gave more room to the interpretations of the six participating teachers in her collaborative case study to investigate their "*internalized* understandings and beliefs" (p. 155, italics added). It should be noted though that in both studies, the author stressed the influence of contextual factors yet mainly within the scope of classroom settings.

There were also some endeavours to consider the active roles and inputs of teachers and the impact of their past experiences and contextually based perceptions on what they do in class. Some studies (e.g., Bailey et al., 1996; Grossman, 1991; Johnson, 1994) addressed prior learning experience (PLE) and its influence on teachers' beliefs and practices based on

Lortie's (1975) notion of 'apprenticeship of observation' which refers to early perceptions about teaching held and brought along by teachers, especially pre-service teachers, from their long hours of observation of their past teachers. However, all of them were focused on pre-service ESL native English-speaking teachers.

3.3 LTC: The Development of the Definition

As Burns et al. (2015, p. 589) note, the beginnings of LTC research started roughly in the first half of the 1990s with studies focusing mainly on "teachers' decision making, knowledge base, thinking, and beliefs (e.g., Burns, 1992; Johnson, 1992a, 1992b, 1994; Nunan, 1992)". The authors also argue that for many years, most LTC researchers adopted a cognitivist ontology in exploring these aspects. The focus was mainly on what teachers think, know and do in class in terms of cognitive processes that take place in the teacher's mind.

Borg (2003, 2006a, 2012, 2019) seemed to be specifically concerned with defining the domain and its focus. In a widely known and cited definition, Borg (2003) defined teacher cognition by explaining that it focuses on "the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe, and think" (p. 81). This definition itself indicates the multifaceted nature of the phenomenon, which has been reflected in the proliferation of terms and concepts related to teacher cognition among researchers who aim at investigating the "hidden side of teaching" (Jackson, 1966, p. 12) or the "inner worlds of teachers" (Freeman, 1996, p. 733). In a later seminal work, Borg (2006a) described the nature of teacher cognition "as an inclusive term referring to the complex, practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts and beliefs that language teachers draw on their work" (p. 272). Most LTC researchers have used Borg's short 'description' of the term rather than the latter more elaborate one. This latter description highlights the complexity of the concept and how aspects related to practicality, personalization and contextuality pertain to what teachers think, believe and do.

Given the complexity of teacher cognition as defined by Borg (2006a), and its apparently unobservable nature, it is noteworthy that, within the same work, there is so little mention of what teachers feel or what is meant by sensitivity to context. And although earlier calls had been made to study teachers' feelings in relation to their practices (National Institute of Education, 1975), the dominance of the cognitive epistemology with its prioritization of what could be measured and observed had its impact on what LTC researchers focused on.

However, there was a growing recognition of the role of emotions in the 1990s as the focus of studying teacher cognition shifted from viewing it as a static entity to looking into it as a complex process. Damasio (1994) says that "emotion, cognition and action, in fact, are integrally connected". This means that it is not possible to approach teacher cognition or practice without considering emotion. Stressing that teaching is an emotional activity in its nature, Hargreaves (2000) notes that:

Teachers, learners and leaders all, at various times, worry, hope, enthuse, become bored, doubt, envy, brood, love, feel proud, get anxious, are despondent, become frustrated, and so on. Such emotions are not peripheral to people's lives; nor can they be compartmentalized away from action or from rational reflection within their lives.
(p. 812)

On a similar note, Nias (1996) argues that "teachers' emotions are rooted in cognitions...one cannot separate feelings from perception, affectivity from judgment" (p. 294).

In what could be viewed as a modification of his earlier definitions, Borg (2012) writes, "I also include as part of teacher cognition constructs such as attitudes, identities and emotions, in recognition of the fact that these are all aspects of the unobservable dimension of teaching" (p. 11). Remarkable here is his reference to the unobservable dimension of teaching without limiting it to the cognitive as he did in his earlier definition. Referring to his

earlier definition of the term (Borg, 2006a), he also noted that it was not his intention to exclude emotions from the scope of LTC, as “the study of teacher cognition, given its concern for understanding the unobservable dimension of teachers’ lives, in no way excludes attention to emotions” (Borg, 2012, p. 12). However, a review of the whole work does not indicate that he had it in mind as part of his definition of cognition or his proposed framework for LTC research in which he detailed the elements and processes of LTC, including “beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, assumptions, conceptions, principles, thinking, decision making” (p. 283). Although “attitudes”—which have a cognitive as well as emotional component—have a place in the list, emotions do not.

In a recent article, Borg (2019) realized how much his previous definitions seemed to suggest “excessive focus on mental structures” in comparison to affective elements. He also realized how the focus was on narrower contexts and their straightforward influences. In an attempt to address these two issues, he proposed a new definition of LTC research as “inquiry which seeks, with reference to their personal, professional, social, cultural and historical contexts, to understand teachers’ minds and emotions and the role these play in the process of *becoming, being and developing* as a teacher.” (p. 1167, italics added)

This definition is an inevitable response to and a fuller recognition of the complex nature of the phenomenon. The recent focus on investigating LTC within contexts or ecologies gave prominence to investigating the complex, dynamic nature of teacher cognition as well as teaching practices (Barnard & Burns, 2012; Burns et al., 2015; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). In 2010, Feryok proposed the study of teacher cognition within the theoretical frame of complex dynamic systems emphasizing aspects of “heterogeneity, dynamics, non-linearity, openness, and adaptation” (Feryok, 2010, p. 272) as characteristics of complex systems that apply to teacher cognition. She also highlighted the importance of context and the need to study teacher cognition as a holistic

system of interacting components rather than focusing on its separate, distinct parts (Feryok, 2010).

Stressing the need for expanding the domain of LTC and adopting new theoretical approaches to it, Crookes (2015) points out that:

The intellectual inheritance of LTC is unduly narrow. One response to this is that a newly expanded range of understandings is already being deployed in this area; Borg's (2012) current view of LTC encompasses not only what "teachers think, know and believe" (p. 11) but now also "attitudes, identities and emotions" (p. 11), and further states that "identity (. . .) should be recognized as an important strand of teacher cognition research" (p. 11). It is important, however, that this "encompassing" (Feryok, 2010, p. 272) or subsuming expansion (in which cognition becomes the superordinate category) be accompanied by discussions of the theoretical inheritances, compatible or not, of these disparate entities, which do not easily fit together with the older dominant understanding of cognition (cf. Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). (p. 490)

Commenting on the conceptual geography of teacher cognition, Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) note:

The predominant focus on isolated constructs, such as beliefs or knowledge, produces partial at best and irrelevant at worst understandings of teachers' sense making in relation to meaningful learning of both language teachers and their students. (p. 436)

The authors emphasise that the domain of LTC needs to embrace other essential factors like "emergent sense making in action" (p.436), bearing in mind the complexities of teachers' inner lives and their ecologies of practice. Therefore, they called for an integrated "open-ended bottom-up approach" to LTC, "the hidden dimension of language teaching" (p. 445), in which all aspects that pertain to the complexity of the issue are considered, including

individual and social aspects that range from “teachers’ inner worlds” that should include emotions, values, etc. to “larger ecologies of workplaces, educational systems, national language policies, and global issues” (p. 445). Even if research could be restricted strictly to thinking, it is not a simple, straightforward matter. In other words, “thinking is a widely ramified concept, a concept that comprises many manifestations of life. The *phenomena* of thinking are widely scattered.” (Wittgenstein, 1967, section 110, italics original).

Teachers’ inner lives in this ecological sense cannot be studied in isolation from their outer lives, including the influence of close people and authority figures or entities (Barnard & Burns, 2012). Such an approach would not focus on defining the concept of cognition but rather examine and analyse the interplay of various aspects and factors in shaping and generating as well as regenerating the constituents and constructs of cognition. These constituents and constructs go beyond beliefs and knowledge to consider motivation, agency, images, intentionality, identity et alia while considering the influence of the outer world from classroom settings to school systems to everyday interactional, discursive situations to national and even international contexts, without ignoring that these environments evolve over time. When we study teacher cognition, we need to view it as “not-just-in-the-head cognition” (Susswein & Racine, 2009, p. 184).

It is in the sense of the foregoing that this study of LTC adopts the contextual, sociocultural approach as it considers the paradoxical aspects of teacher cognition and how the context, in its various forms, influences and shapes them.

3.4 The Social Turn

According to Burns et al. (2015), and in line with the social turn and its call for focusing on the socially situated mind in studying LTC, the papers published in Freeman and Richards (1996) paved the way for further empirical research about the influence of the context on what teachers think and believe, how teachers develop during their learning

experiences, and how they reflect on their own conceptions and experiences. In the same year, Devon Woods was “the first academic to popularize the term ‘teacher cognition’” (Borg, 2006, p. 220) in the field of applied linguistics. However, Woods (1996) conceptualized teacher cognition as an overarching term that encompasses teachers’ beliefs, assumptions and knowledge, and his empirical study was still in the scope of the cognitive paradigm (Burns et al., 2015).

Among the early empirical studies that started to address the socially situated mind and ground their approaches in the social paradigm was Numrich (1996). Numrich studied 26 novice teachers using diaries and focused on their conceptualization and interpretations of their own experiences. Remarkable in the study was the researcher’s repeated references to the teachers’ feelings and emotions about their learning and teaching experiences. In more than one place in the study, Numrich referred to how they felt, citing and highlighting their affective states of motivation, frustration, humiliation, and guilt, among others. Although Numrich did not refer directly to the influence of the larger social context on the investigated teachers, she discussed what teachers thought and felt in light of their past and current experiences as well as the cultural context. She noted that:

by reading their diaries and analyses of their teaching, I was able to discover what was most important to these teachers in their own learning process and to uncover "cultural themes" (Spradley, 1980, p. 140) particular to them during their early teaching experiences. (p. 148)

In this sense, she also included what the participating teachers brought up as needs and preoccupations rather than what she presupposed or expected as a researcher.

Using qualitative data collected through interviews, class observations and stimulus recall reports, Golombek (1998) studied the influence of in-service ESL teachers’ learning and teaching experiences as well as the classroom context on their teaching practices. The

focus was on the tension teachers go through in the context of the classroom and how their personal practical knowledge is related to affective and moral aspects that inform their teaching practices. Golombek's study was another attempt to study the hidden side of teaching in light of the context as well as diachronic and synchronic experiences while shedding light on what they feel in their interactions within the context of the classroom. As with Numrich's (1996), Golombek's study did not address the larger social context, and in spite of her reference to the role of the social in constructing teachers' knowledge, it was mainly limited to their experiences and practices within the narrower educational contexts.

One of the interesting studies that seemed to be an attempt to broaden and advance the scope of teacher thinking or cognition based on the social paradigm was Johnston (1997) that addressed the complexity of discourses, including wider social, political, and economic aspects on language teaching profession among Polish EFL teachers using life-history interviews. Although Johnston's study was not focused on LTC in particular, it highlighted the influence of these discourses on their lives and identities.

One study that Burns et al. (2015) highlight as addressing the social turn is Breen et al. (2001), which used Bourdieu's theory of practice. This study is discussed below in section 3.6. Another study that addressed the wider social context was Warford and Reeves (2003). The authors used qualitative methods to study the preconceptions of nine novice teachers about teaching English while focusing on their past learning experiences and the influence of social factors, specifically folklinguistic discourses and the socio-political complexities of English language teaching. They based their study on what Freeman (1996) suggested as a presentational approach that incorporates both sociological and psychological analyses of the verbal data to uncover the conceptions behind the socially shared language of participants (Freeman, 1996; Warford & Reeves, 2003). Using metaphors as representations of the folklinguistic discourses, Warford and Reeves (2003) went deeper into their nine

participants' preconceptions in relation to the social framing of notions. It is noteworthy that the authors referred sparsely to the influence of sociocultural factors on what teachers think, feel and value. However, they drew attention to socio-political complexities of teaching English language that some teachers have to deal with and how they should be prepared earlier to be able to face them.

Among other studies that adopted the social paradigm was Kubanyiova (2006), which studied the impact of teacher training courses on the perceptions and behaviours of eight NNESTs of English in Slovakia. Using mixed methods for data collection, the study found that teachers' training had little or no impact due to motivation issues and contextual factors that affected their perceptions of their teaching practices. In another study, Feryok (2008) used interviews and classroom observation to investigate a non-native Armenian EFL teacher's cognitions and practices and the influence of contextual factors on them. The study highlighted the impact of institutional expectations and limited resources on the teacher's cognitions and practices. Both studies, however, focused on the institutional context, whether in terms of the classroom, the school culture or the education system, with little reference to the wider and larger social context and its impact on the participants' cognitions. This was also the case with other studies adopting the social paradigm in the last decade (e.g., Li, 2013; Nishino, 2012; Yuan & Lee, 2014).

3.5 Sociocultural Theory and *Perezhivanie*: The Unity of Cognition and Emotion

Li (2020, p. 33) argues that SCT "is rarely taken up by researchers as a lens to study teacher cognition". Based mainly on the work of Lev Vygotsky (1978,1986a, 1994/1935), Wells (1999), and Wertsch (1991), sociocultural approaches address the development of cognition or psychocognitive processes in a way that situates the mind in the social whether in terms of space or time, or as Vygotsky (1979) himself put it, "the social dimension of

consciousness is primary in time and fact. The individual dimension of consciousness is derivative and secondary” (p. 30).

In her seminal work about SCT in second language teacher education (SLTE), Johnson (2009) explains the relevance of SCT as follows:

Representing a coherent “theory of mind” that recognizes the inherent interconnectedness of the cognitive and the social, a sociocultural perspective assumes that the way in which human consciousness develops depends on the specific social activities in which we engage and the culturally constructed materials and semiotic artifacts or tools, the most important of which is language, which we use to participate in those activities. (p. x)

Johnson (2009) called for embracing the principles of sociocultural epistemology in SLTE because of what they offer beyond the limitations of the cognitive or the social paradigm. Following is a summary of the theoretical assumptions and underpinnings that Johnson found distinct in SCT and pertinent to studying and understanding second language teachers (Johnson, 2009, p. 1-2):

- Human cognition is mediated by the social and cultural in their various forms.
- Meanings lies in language in use and as used by social groups.
- Language, as a social artifact, modulates social activities and together they carry meanings that are historically and culturally constructed.
- The learner has agency in his learning as he learns what is socially mediated through personal internalization.

In spite of the rising recognition of SCT and its relevance to understanding LTC (Burns et al., 2015; Cross, 2010; Golombek, 2015; Johnson, 2009, 2015; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006), studies adopting this perspective are still limited in number, especially with regard to in-service NNESTs teaching EFL. However, especially in the last

decade, more studies have adopted SCT in studying language teacher identity (LTI). Whether LTI is viewed as a subordinate strand of LTC (Borg, 2012, 2019) or an evolving line of research that developed from previous studies on LTC (Kayi-Aydar, 2019b), this study views both as inseparable within the scope of consciousness and its socioculturally situated formation.

In all cases, SCT research into SLTE has played a role in widening the concept of LTC. As mentioned earlier, Borg developed his definition of teacher cognition research from focusing on the constructs of what teachers think, know, and believe (Borg, 2003, 2006a) to include “attitudes, identities and emotions, in recognition of the fact that these are all aspects of the unobservable dimension of teaching (Borg, 2012, p. 11). Such development of the definition was arguably an inevitable response to the development of epistemological approaches and findings of studies in SLA, SLTE, and LTC. The inclusion of attitudes, identities and emotions is a recognition of the individual in their response to the surrounding contexts in their social, historical and cultural forms. Yet although attitudes and identities have received growing attention earlier in the field of LTC, teacher emotion, as part of teacher cognition and a substantial factor in their experiences has been underplayed till recently (Kubanyiova, 2012). This is also true in SCT research on LTC and SLTE (Golombek & Doran, 2014).

However, almost two decades ago, Mahn and John-Steiner (2002) drew attention to the centrality of emotion, especially the concept of *perezhivanie*, in understanding social interactions (including teaching and learning), yet the number of studies that drew on *perezhivanie* is still limited. *Perezhivanie* (Vygotsky, 1994/1935) is part of Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory related to the lived emotional-cognitive experience of the individual (see Chapter 4). According to Vygotsky (1987/1934, p. 50), “every idea contains some remnant of the individual’s affective relationship to that aspect of reality which it represents’.

One of the early LTC studies that highlighted the connection between teacher emotion and teacher cognition was Golombek and Johnson (2004). Although the authors did not use *perezhivanie*, they drew on SCT to investigate language teachers' narratives, and their findings underscored the role emotions play as "a driving factor in teacher development" (p. 324) and the impact they have on teachers' cognitions and behaviours. Their study may have drawn attention to the lack of investigating teacher emotion in its connection with teacher cognition. Yet, till recently, little has been done to deeply investigate the centrality of emotion in general and *perezhivanie* in particular in researching language teacher cognition from a sociocultural perspective. The following paragraphs present some previous LTC studies that used the concept of *perezhivanie*.

Commenting on Vygotsky's approach to the relationships between cognition and emotions, Johnson and Worden (2014) note that "to fully understand cognition we must understand emotion and acknowledge the dialectic unity between the two" (p. 127). In the same study, which was situated in SCT and Vygotsky's concept of *perezhivanie*, the authors studied novice teachers' emotional experiences in terms of cognitive/emotional dissonance as mediated by teacher educators and how it contributes to their growth as professional teachers.

Using Vygotsky's concept of *perezhivanie*, Golombek and Doran (2014) studied eleven novice teachers to investigate their emotions in connection with their professional development. The authors used content and discourse analysis of the participants' journals and found that expressed emotions are "a motivated, structural component of teachers' processes of cognitive development" (p. 102). The authors noted that their approach "addresses feeling as being on the same level and in interaction with the thinking and doing of teaching" (p. 103).

Drawing also on SCT and the concept of *perezhivanie*, Golombek (2015) used reflective journals of a teacher learner and the mediational responses of her teacher educator

(the researcher) to study the role of emotions in teacher cognition. The findings of the study indicated that the teacher learner's *perezhivanie*, in the sense of the interaction between emotions, thinking and action, played a major role in the professional development of the teacher learner as well as her teacher educator. For both, their emotions influenced their conceptualizations of what they did and how they did it.

Other studies (e.g., Dang, 2013; Shahri, 2018) that used the concept of *perezhivanie* focused mainly on its relationship with teacher identity and teacher learning and how *perezhivanie* plays a substantial role in teachers' affective and cognitive responses which would differ, as Dang (2013, p. 50) notes, "depending on which characteristics of personality are at play in the given situation" and in accordance with that, "the teacher adopts identities, and shifts between them, in response to relevant others such as colleagues, to time and to context (Akkerman & Meijer, 2011)."

3.6 Bourdieu's Theory of Practice

Investigating LTC using Bourdieu's theory of practice seemed to be limited in scope and implementation. For this reason, Breen et al. (2001) stands out, and as argued by Burns et al. (2015), it could be considered the earliest attempt to extend the scope of the social paradigm with regard to LTC beyond the theoretical constructs of "meanings and explanations [as] situated in social contexts" (p. 589) to include "thinking as a function of place and time, through interaction and negotiation with social and historical contexts" (p. 589). The need for broadening the focus laid the ground for embracing the sociohistorical ontology, as Burns et al. (2015) refer to it, or the sociocultural turn, as Johnson (2006) labels it.

Breen et al. (2001) studied 18 experienced ESL teachers using interviews and observations and focused on the teachers' descriptions of the principles behind their teaching practices and the meanings they give to them based on social and cultural mediation.

Drawing on Bourdieu's notion of habitus, the researchers found a relationship between the dispositions the teachers share as a social group doing the same job, and how teaching practices connected with these dispositions seemed to have a "degree of professional consensus" (Breen et al., 2001, p. 496). It should be noted, however, that the study limited the social and the cultural to the professional and institutional milieu rather than the larger social context.

Fang and Garland (2013) and Sun, Wei and Young (2020) drew on habitus to investigate Chinese EFL teachers' cognitions in relation to curriculum reform. In their 15-month ethnographic study, Fang and Garland (2013) investigated five Chinese EFL teachers' perceptions and experiences of teaching new English curriculum and the challenges they had to deal with. The authors also looked into the reasons behind teachers' perceptions considering the wider institutional and social contexts. Based on Bourdieu's theory of practice and the notions of field, capital and habitus, the researchers analysed data collected from classroom observations, semi-structured interviews and field notes. Their findings indicated that teachers' perceptions are contextually bound and their cognitions about the field and the capital determine their practices. As for habitus, the authors linked it with teacher thinking and practices and found that incorporating certain practices from the new English curriculum changed their habitus. Although the authors stated that they used Bourdieu's theory of practice to assist analysis, little has been discussed regarding how that habitus developed and what aspects led to the change they referred to

Sun et al. (2020) studied LTC through investigating 24 Chinese EFL teachers' implicit attitudes about communicative language teaching (CLT) as part of curriculum reform in China. Using interviews and Implicit Association Test, which is a measure designed by social psychologists to investigate the strengths of associations between concepts in a person's subconscious mind, they found that teachers have different degrees of implicit

attitudes and some disparities between what some of them think and what they do. Their findings also indicated the impact of the larger institutional and social contexts on what they think and do in classes. However, and though they drew heavily on Bourdieu's notion of habitus and stated that the aim of the study is to find the link between habitus as formed throughout experience and teachers' current practices, they did not specifically analyse or discuss its formation in participants' experiences and the role it played in their thoughts or actions. They rather proposed exploring those teachers' learning experiences as well as their current teaching context to understand the reasons behind the differences they showed in their implicit and explicit attitudes.

Some studies of language teacher identity (LTI) used Bourdieu's concepts and their relation to how teachers position themselves in society. Pennington (2015) refers to LTI or TESOL teacher identity in terms of the influence of contextual influences that "define how an individual who works in the TESOL field conceptualizes and performs "being a teacher" (p. 72). Based on this definition, this study aims to approach teacher identity from the perspective of LTC in terms of conceptualizations and practices related to teachers' views, self-images and roles in the contexts of classrooms, schools or society in general.

In another LTI study, Park (2015) used a narrative approach to investigate identity construction and negotiation of two Asian ESL teachers who moved from their homes to an English-speaking context to study MATESOL. The focus of the study was on issues of privilege and marginalization, and the findings indicated that the way the two teachers positioned themselves as non-native speakers shaped their habitus and contributed to their being marginalized.

Adopting Bourdieu's theory of practice as theoretical lens, Wolff and De Costa's (2017) LTI study called upon broadening the scope of LTI to include "the emotional demands on teachers-in-training and ... (NNESTs) in particular" (p. 76). The study

investigated the identity construction of a NNEST using interviews, observation, journal entries, and stimulated verbal and written reports. The authors referred to Bourdieu's concept of *sens pratique* as a product of habitus that helped her deal with the emotional tension through acquiring "the rules of the pedagogical game" (p. 85).

In a more recent LTI study using Bourdieu's habitus and Wenger's (1998) *communities of practice*, Richardson (2019) conducted a case study of a teacher of French to explore her identity construction and the contextual influences of her professional settings. The author found a link between the teacher's affiliation with the subject she teaches, her identity and her sense of agency and how they together, shaping her habitus, pertain to her satisfaction with her professional identity and her teaching career in general.

3.7 Teacher Cognition in Teaching Vocabulary

With respect to teacher cognition research, Borg (2006a, p. 274) states that "the scarcity of research into the teaching of speaking, listening and vocabulary, especially in L2 and FL contexts, is hard to explain, and these areas provide obvious foci for continuing research." Zhang (2008) concurs with the above and discusses that studying teachers' beliefs in vocabulary teaching has not received the attention it deserves as a crucial component of English language teaching and curriculum.

The truth of these arguments is still evident despite some studies that have attempted to address these areas or focus on EFL context (López Barrios & Boldrini, 2016; Rossiter et al., 2016). By reviewing the related literature, it was found that some studies were conducted to investigate both teachers and learners' beliefs about different facets of vocabulary learning and teaching (Amiryousefi, 2015a, 2015b; Gao & Ma, 2011; Germai & Noordin, 2013; López Barrios & Boldrini, 2016; Milton & Vassiliu, 2003; Niu & Andrews, 2012; Rahimi, 2014; Rossiter et al., 2016; Tran, 2011; Weimer-Stuckmann, 2015; Zhang, 2008).

In an early attempt to study what teachers and students think about low level EFL vocabulary, Milton and Vassiliu (2003) aimed to explore if teachers and students in Greece ‘feel’ a challenge or a problem in teaching or learning vocabulary. They also aimed to investigate the level of understanding of the vocabulary taught or learned whether among teachers or students. Although the study did not aim to focus on teacher cognition per se, it was an attempt to fathom what they think or “feel” and compare it with what their students think and ‘feel’. However, and although the focus was on feeling, the researchers used questionnaires only and did not use more in-depth instruments to elaborate on what participants think and feel.

Zhang (2008) aimed to explore Chinese EFL teachers’ *knowledge* of vocabulary instruction and its alignment with their practices using interviews, classroom observations and simulated recall. He also investigated the sources of their knowledge. The findings showed that the participants had well-developed content knowledge of English vocabulary and well-established belief systems about vocabulary learning and teaching. However, consistencies and discrepancies were found in their instructional practices. As for their sources of knowledge, formal education and teaching practices were found to be the most influential ones. The role of contextual factors or influential constructs did not seem to be a substantial part of this investigation in spite of some modest references to the classroom environment and institutional policies. However, the instruments he used to collect data were effective in eliciting teachers’ thoughts and relevant beliefs and in comparing them to classroom practices.

With a relatively similar objective, Gao and Ma (2011) conducted a study on what teachers believe about teaching EFL vocabulary. Adopting a mixed-method approach, the authors focused on comparing pre-service EFL teachers to in-service teachers in Mainland China and Hong Kong using a developmental approach. The findings indicated variations in

beliefs between pre-service and in-service teachers and confirmed the influence of context. The findings would have been more useful if the authors had considered addressing contextual factors and sociocultural dimensions in the research questions, yet they had aimed mainly at investigating differences between the two categories of teachers, and by analysing the in-depth narrative interviews, they happened to discover other issues that were related primarily to the context of learning and teaching.

Noteworthy here, though, is the underlying inconsistency between what Zhang (2008) found with respect to the participants' content knowledge of EFL vocabulary and what Gao and Ma found concerning teachers' strategies and language awareness. The former found that most teachers had well-developed content knowledge while the latter found that most teachers needed to improve their teaching strategies as well as their teaching awareness.

In a like manner, Tran (2011) conducted a study to explore the connection between Vietnamese teachers' perceptions about vocabulary learning and teaching and their instructional practices using questionnaires and interviews. The results indicated that teachers believe in the importance of reading and guessing strategies in improving learner's vocabulary. They also indicated that most teachers believe that integrating technology in teaching vocabulary could improve vocabulary learning outcomes. Other interesting findings highlighted the preferred vocabulary teaching techniques among the participating teachers, e.g., pre-teaching new words and using L1 equivalency when guessing does not work.

The key finding was that there were discrepancies between teachers' perceptions and their practices because of teaching context, learners' attitudes and teachers' education. However, the study did not explore the influence of contextual factors and their different interactions on teachers' beliefs. It rather adopted a linear, straightforward relationship between some selectively presumed aspects and teachers' perceptions. Also, it focused more

on what teachers know and think (content knowledge) rather than what they believe as individuals interacting with several sociocultural factors.

Niu and Andrews (2012) conducted what seemed like a replication of Zhang's study with almost the same research questions and research design. However, they paid more attention to the context of learning and teaching, especially small cultures such as teaching and learning culture, institutional culture, and classroom culture. The findings of the study shed more light on the reasons behind some consistencies and discrepancies in classroom practice suggesting that discrepancies could be due to classroom culture and consistencies could be the results of the Chinese EFL learning culture.

In Iran, some researchers (Amiryousefi, 2015a, 2015b; Germai & Noordin, 2013; Rahimi, 2014) studied LTC in vocabulary teaching using a mostly mixed method approach with a focus on their local context. Gerami and Noordin (2013) adopted a similar approach that Zhang (2008) and Niu and Andrews (2012) used. However, and despite its similar focus on knowledge as well as using similar instruments, they paid more attention to the challenges that teachers face in teaching vocabulary, which helped to depict a partial picture of contextual factors that may lead to discrepancies in teaching practices. On the other hand, Rahimi (2014) tried to investigate the connection between LTC and vocabulary instruction in addition to which areas of cognition language teachers focus on when they teach vocabulary. The findings indicated that teachers' beliefs are affected and modified due to certain contextual factors like teacher training or education and classroom practice.

Following a similar approach, Amiryousefi (2015a, 2015b) used only questionnaires to explore teachers' beliefs about the usefulness of particular vocabulary strategies in the former and their general beliefs about teaching vocabulary in the latter. The two studies would have been more interesting if he had used other instruments to elicit teachers' beliefs, yet the findings have suggested some interesting points like teachers' beliefs that using L1

should be avoided in teaching vocabulary, which opposes what Tran (2011) found with respect to teacher' beliefs about the possibility of using L1 when guessing does not work.

With a focus on teaching beginning German, Weimer-Stuckmann (2015) conducted an exploratory multi-case study with three university instructors teaching German at a Canadian university. Adopting a poststructuralist-constructivist framework, she investigated teachers' beliefs as dynamic constructs that are embedded within a social context. She utilised narrative inquiry as the main methodological tool and collected data by the use of classroom observations, simulated recall, concept-map drawings, interviews and a survey. Using concept-map drawings was a new addition to the previously utilised methods in the literature of teacher cognition in teaching vocabulary. The findings of the study suggest that subjective perspectives and lived experiences are very influential factors in shaping teachers' beliefs. They also indicate that reflected engagement is a constant process of personal and professional development, and it is crucial to get continuous feedback from teachers on what they think regarding contextual and academic factors surrounding them.

One criticism of the poststructuralist-constructivist framework, though, is its focus on the specificity of time, place and space as well as the particular positioning and reflexivity of the participant as a source of data. For critics, what results from that is applicable only to that specific time and that place. However, the specificity of particular positioning and reflexivity does not mean that they do not exist as an ontological consequence worthy of appropriate epistemological approaches regardless of the need for generalization or well-established formal teaching practices that could apply to presumably similar contexts.

In spite of the previously discussed changes and developments in defining and investigating LTC, studying the inner worlds of teachers in relation to vocabulary instruction continued to focus mostly on the cognitive elements of LTC in terms of what teachers think, know and believe and whether their cognitions are congruent with their practices. Rossiter et

al. (2016) investigated ESL teachers' beliefs, knowledge and practices while focusing on discrepancies between ESL teachers' beliefs about vocabulary teaching and learning and their instructional practices. The researchers used only an online survey and addressed some instructional aspects such as vocabulary assessment, instructional priorities, teaching techniques, vocabulary learning strategies, resources, technology and the use of dictionaries. However, other sociocultural factors and institutional policies were downplayed and did not seem to be considered as major factors that should be investigated.

Among recent studies that focused on the relationship between teachers' beliefs about vocabulary instruction and their practices, Pookcharoen (2016) used questionnaires with 24 Thai university EFL teachers, followed by semi-structured interviews with five of them. The researcher found that there were discrepancies between teachers' beliefs about vocabulary teaching strategies and their practices due to several contextual factors. However, these factors were limited to the educational system and school settings. There was no reference or discussion of the wider social context or the influence of past experiences of teachers.

With a similar focus on the correspondence between language teachers' beliefs about vocabulary instruction and their practices, Hermagustiana et al. (2017) studied four Indonesian EFL teachers using semi-structured interviews and classroom observation. While indicating instances of congruence between teachers' beliefs and practices, especially in regard of incorporating it in teaching other language skills, using visual aids, and focusing on the grammatical behaviours of words (parts of speech), the findings also showed instances of incongruence related to the role of EFL vocabulary in language teaching, using games in teaching vocabulary, student-centred approach, and focusing on memorization as a learning strategy.

Furthermore, the findings showed a relationship between teachers' past vocabulary learning experiences and their current teaching practices. For example, in one case where a

teacher indicated the ineffectiveness of memorization based on her learning experience, she used several memorization strategies in introducing vocabulary in class. Although the study discussed briefly how the curriculum, time constraints and lack of resources had their influences on what teachers think and do, the study did not address other possible sociocultural or affective factors.

In another recent study, Chung (2018) used in-depth semi-structured interviews with four EFL teachers in Hong Kong with a focus on the alignment between teachers' "epistemological and pedagogical beliefs" (p. 502) about vocabulary development and their practices. The findings revealed that in spite of the teachers' reported beliefs about the importance of vocabulary teaching, they only focused on lexical knowledge in their teaching strategies, using almost exclusively guessing and memorization strategies (p. 504). The findings also indicated the influence of teachers' PLE, their professional development experiences, as well as contextual factors in shaping teachers' beliefs; however, and in a vein similar to previous studies, contextual factors were mainly limited to the curriculum and school policies. And although the researcher referred to social expectations and students as factors, it was mainly in the sense of what students expect from the teacher in class in terms of learning to the test.

A more recent study by Mardali and Siyyari (2019) addressed the same topic of correspondence between beliefs and practices in teaching vocabulary, yet with heavy reliance on quantitative data. Using questionnaires and classroom observations with a checklist based on some questionnaire items, the authors investigated the beliefs and practices of 100 Iranian EFL teachers. The results showed no significant difference between teachers' beliefs and practices, yet they also indicated significant differences among their self-perceived beliefs, self-perceived practices and externally-observed practices. The study could have been enhanced by considering some qualitative methods to tap into micro-social and macro-social

factors as well as other personal factors that pertain to teachers' beliefs and practices. According to Borg (2019), "questionnaires... can be and are misused in LTC research; studies are conducted with little sense of their overall contribution to the field and are often methodologically and conceptually weak".

To sum up, most studies of LTC in teaching vocabulary (except Weimer-Stuckmann, 2015) focused on classroom decisions, content knowledge or discrepancies between beliefs and actions, and they did not seem to depart from the cognitivist model though some attempts were made to consider the social paradigm yet without drawing much on it (e.g., Chung, 2018; Niu & Andrews, 2012). Most studies also adopted methodologies that generally did not seem to be effective enough in exploring the invisible, complex and intangible areas of teacher cognition. Most of these studies aimed at contrasting teachers' beliefs about vocabulary teaching to their practices, which is a trend denounced by Borg (2019, p. 1156) who comments:

I have repeatedly argued (Borg, 2018) against studies in which teachers' stated beliefs are contrasted with their practices in the search for anomalies; as Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015, p. 438) note, such studies separate thought and action, "putting them in an almost adversarial relationship by abstracting them from the context that binds them together."

3.8 EFL and Teacher Cognition in Egypt

A few studies addressed LTC in Egypt. The earliest was a doctoral dissertation by Gahin (2001), in which he used questionnaire, interview and observation to study preparatory school EFL teachers' espoused beliefs and practices about language teaching and learning. The researcher's focus was on the influence of beliefs on practice. Gahin also considered "the wider social and cultural context outside the classroom" (p. 189) in his approach to

qualitative data analysis. He also used metaphors to explore the collective epistemological stances of teachers regarding language, language learning and their roles as EFL teachers. The researcher found that teachers' espoused beliefs did not align with their practices. The findings also confirmed the influence of teaching experience and contextual factors on teachers' beliefs. However, and although the researcher adopted an interpretivist-constructivist approach, the study was still grounded in the cognitive model with a perspective of what teachers think and do, especially in light of adopting CLT, rather than how they see and interact with reality from their perspective. The study also adopted an assumption of a linear and causal influence of beliefs on practices.

Two other studies addressed some aspects that could be related to LTC in general. Based on SCT, El-Fiki (2012) studied Egyptian EFL teachers' perceptions of change in instructional practices using a multi-method approach. The researcher found that teachers' perceptions were influenced by imposed change and professional learning opportunities, yet their practices depended mainly on their adaptation with the context. However, the study focused more on the educational context rather than the wider social context. CLT was also viewed as an optimal teaching method that teachers were supposed to adopt, and their perceptions about it were studied in terms of belief-practice alignment.

Focusing on teacher knowledge, Abdelhafez (2010) studied Egyptian EFL teachers' professional practical knowledge while investigating the influence of contextual factors on their practices. Using mixed-method approach, the researcher found several sources of their knowledge, including their teacher education and feedback. However, the researcher did not address or mention their PLE as part of their knowledge. It was also found that teachers' knowledge was not necessarily applied to their practices due to some factors like "exam policy, lack of time, support and resources, mismatch between teacher purposes and students' expectations and needs, and large class size" (p. 3).

Apart from the previous studies, LTC has rarely been researched in Egypt. And to my knowledge, there appear to be no other studies in Egypt that have endeavoured to explore teacher cognition in EFL teaching in general or teaching English vocabulary in particular. The governmental perspective of EFL teaching as a matter of teacher knowledge or qualifications, along with some casual training, has resulted in underestimating LTC in the educational policy in Egypt. There is almost nothing done to explore what they think, feel, believe or know in a comprehensive way. Some of the strategies or teaching styles the trainers suggest cannot fit in the context of their schools or classrooms or would be totally inappropriate for learners. And although the government officials are aware of that, many of them blame it on teachers or the necessities of reality.

In a recent case study on teacher professional development in Egypt, Abdelrahman and Irby (2016) note that the participant teachers are concerned about some barriers that hinder appropriate professional development such as “lack of pedagogical PD programs, low salaries, and ineffective curriculum—which have prevented them from improving” (p. 39). The case study itself was an attempt to listen to teachers and explore their concerns and thoughts about what they do and what they need to improve their profession. One of the informants said:

One of the trainings, I attended through IELP was a training of teaching English as a second language in Georgia State University in Atlanta. It was a turning point of my life because I became more and more eager to know about teaching and teaching methodology and apply what is new in my classroom. I remember how I was happy when my students loved the new methods and told me that I am different from other teachers who teach in traditional exam-oriented way. (as cited in Abdelrahman & Irby, 2016, p. 34).

We can still see how contextual factors, emotions and various aspects of the experience form and shape what a teacher thinks, feels and believes about what she does in light of her experiences. It is with this in mind that this study aims to pay attention to Egyptian NNESTs' cognitions (including emotions) while investigating sociocultural factors that influence their cognitions. In the meantime, studying teachers' conceptualizations about themselves and their roles in the Egyptian context can give a more accurate understanding of their cognitions and their practices. It can be argued that approaching EFL teacher cognition and understanding more about it in Egypt can lead to enhancing language education and the process of teaching and learning in general. Focusing on vocabulary as an essential area that has been underresearched in Egypt could also help researchers, teacher educators and teachers understand more about how this language component is taught in Egyptian public schools.

3.9 Conclusion

In this chapter, I reviewed the literature related to LTC and the development of the definition as per Borg (2003, 2006a, 2012, 2019). I also reviewed the development of epistemological positions of most LTC studies based on Burns et al.'s (2015) review with a focus on the social turn. I then discussed the existing literature on LTC grounded in Vygotskian sociocultural theory, with a specific focus on the concepts of *perezhivanie*, and Bourdieusian theory of practice, with a specific focus on habitus. The second part of the chapter was devoted to reviewing the literature on LTC in teaching vocabulary, followed by a brief overview of LTC research in Egypt and the need for more studies that focus on vocabulary instruction in the Egyptian context.

In the following chapter, I will discuss the relevance of the concepts of *perezhivanie* and habitus in light of Wittgenstein's concept of language-game (*Sprachspiel*) to the

theoretical framework of this study and its overall goal of studying LTC of EFL teachers in Egypt with a focus on vocabulary teaching.

Chapter 4: Theoretical Framework

This study is an attempt to explore LTC with the help of a *philosophical* lens while looking at language teachers' *psychological* processes of cognition that takes place within a *social* context. Understanding human cognition is part of understanding human consciousness or mind, and the framework adopted by this study is an attempt to approach the topic in light of the developments and contributions of various disciplines in their ontological quests for understanding the nature of human mind versus the body or the world. It is through understanding the basis of such ontological quests that we can reach a suggested epistemological approach through which this study can explore LTC with its complexity.

One of the aims of this study is to investigate how language teachers' cognitions are shaped by social activities and the context within which they have been developing as learners and teachers. The context here is not merely the class or school context, but it includes the wider context of their communities and society. This aligns with what Lantolf and Johnson (2007) suggest with regard to the influence of society on cognition when they state that "the argument is not that social activity influences cognition, but that social activity is the process through which human cognition is formed" (p. 878).

Early research in teacher cognition was entrenched, to an extent, in substance dualism as more attention was given to what happens in the mind of the learner or the teacher apart from considering the body/world substance. Both emotions and the outer world were marginalized in the early stages of studying teacher cognition (Golombek, 2015). However, in the middle of the nineties, things started to change. Burns et al. (2015) note that:

The emphasis on social and affective as well as (or instead of) cognitive factors in language teacher learning, as exemplified by Numrich's (1996) study, has continued to the present and has led to further evolution of the epistemological perspectives used in SLTE research.

Some other studies that tried to adopt a holistic approach to teacher cognition by departing from substance dualism and emphasising the social and affective factors were cited in Burns et al. (2015), including, for example, Golombek (1998), Hu (2005), Kubanyiova (2006) Johnson (2006) and Feryok (2008). However, few studies referred to the influence of wider social contexts (see Chapter 3); most focused mainly on the class or school contexts, which, in a sense, can be viewed as a limited scope of social contexts that does not give much consideration to extended macrosocial factors.

Bearing the importance of social and affective factors in mind and adopting a holistic approach to LTC that rejects Cartesian dualism, the theoretical framework of this study generally draws on the conceptualizations developed by Ludwig Wittgenstein (1889-1951), Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934), and Pierre Bourdieu (1930-2002). The three thinkers rejected Cartesian dualism and highlighted the role of the outer world in forming our mind. However, they did not see the influence of the outer world in a linear passive way that marginalizes the role of the individual in choosing their paths. The works of the three thinkers indicate their strong interest in human consciousness.

The study draws on three concepts the three thinkers proposed: Wittgenstein's *Sprachspiel* (language-game), Vygotsky's *perezhivanie* and Bourdieu's habitus. These concepts carry within their cores the role of the social, represented in its various factors and agents, on the individual. They revolve around the influence of the outer world on the inner world. The following sections discuss how each concept is related to the study and how they together could be interconnected within a framework that could help understand LTC.

4.1 *Sprachspiel*: Language-Game and the Role of the Context

Wittgenstein's concept of *Sprachspiel* or language-game refers to language as a social activity that is mainly shaped and formed by the uses of the members of a certain community.

His concept of language-game highlights the *practice* and the *process* of using language. He clarifies that:

There are *countless* kinds: countless different kinds of use of what we call "symbols", "words", "sentences". And this multiplicity is not something fixed, given once for all; but new types of language, new language-games, as we may say, come into existence, and others become obsolete and get forgotten...Here the term "*language-game*" is meant to bring into prominence the fact that the *speaking* of language is part of an activity, or of a form of life. (Wittgenstein, 1953, section 23, italics original)

Language, in terms of this variety and diversity, is considered to be a form of life and a social activity, with its processes and practices, that takes place within the community and the culture the speakers of that language have in common (Hunter, 1968). As Tonner (2017) notes, Wittgenstein's view of language as a form of life is meant to:

stress that language is imbued with cultural concerns and vice versa. For Wittgenstein, it is impossible to separate a community's cultural practice from their linguistic practice and ultimately their 'being so minded'. The 'form of life' that individuals share encompasses the concepts that they organise the world into, and the language they use to communicate, as well as their cultural practices and values. (p. 15)

This notion indicates that concepts we have and meanings we attach to objects are not primarily self-generated but rather regulated through the rule-governed uses of such concepts and meanings that we have to follow in order to play the varied games and activities of naming objects, expressing thoughts and feelings, referring to the world in its different manifestations and organizing various patterns of our daily lives.

Rules here refer to the acculturating context that determines the role of every word and its part in the game/activity as implicitly or explicitly conventionalized through its uses

by its speakers, whether in small groups or large communities. Wittgenstein (1953, section 54) explains:

Let us recall the kinds of case where we say that a game is played according to a definite rule. The rule may be an aid in teaching the game. The learner is told it and given practice in applying it. —Or it is an instrument of the game itself. —Or a rule is employed neither in the teaching nor in the game itself; nor is it set down in a list of rules. One learns the game by watching how others play. But we say that it is played according to such-and-such rules because an observer can read these rules off from the practice of the game—like a natural law governing the play.

In view of this, language-game as a form of life is governed by rules that could be taught explicitly to learners or are shared and practiced implicitly with users of that language, which makes those rules act “like a natural law governing the play”. By this last phrase, Wittgenstein seems to accentuate the predominance of the rules that intrinsically govern the activity without stating those rules or explaining them beforehand, and how observing, recognising and perceiving the practice of the language game in action makes such rules a discernible regularity. “Let the use of words teach you their meaning.” (Wittgenstein, 1953, p. 220).

In other words, let customary, socially regulated practices of words convey the rules for playing the language-game appropriately, i.e., in a way that makes communication, understanding and thinking possible. And “when I obey a rule, I do not choose. I obey the rule *blindly*” (Wittgenstein, 1953, section 219). Yet Wittgenstein notes that such obedience is not “causally determined” but “logically determined” (Wittgenstein 1953, section 220). The point here is that once we follow a rule in the light of its practice and use, we then obey it blindly. We choose to obey a rule and then “we do what it tells us” (Wittgenstein 1953,

section 223). In his comment on how such obedience is logically determined, Kishik (2008) remarks that:

we may thus definitely feel that some of our rules rule our lives. We tend to assume that the discipline of the rules that permeate our daily conduct “from within” is even more powerful than the command of any law that is imposed on life “from above”. (p. 91)

A question that may arise here is whether Wittgenstein’s view is deterministic in the sense that individuals have no choice but to conform to the rules of the language-game. The individual can still apply a different conception on a specific situation or incident. In other words, they can decide not to logically follow the rules. According to Wittgenstein (1953, section 83), individuals can also “make up the rules” or “alter them”. In this respect, Burbules and Smeyers (2008, p. 171) explain that:

As he [Wittgenstein] says, sometimes we follow rules and sometimes we make up the rules as we go along. By making clear that both dimensions have to be considered he avoids the danger of simple conservatism or conformism. Wittgenstein’s “theory” of meaning advocates neither a position of pure subjectivity nor of pure objectivity. In order to be understood . . . , the present use of language cannot be radically different from former ones. It is within this context of use that the meaning of a concept is determined. As there is no absolute point of reference, neither internal nor external, the community of language speakers . . . forms the warrant for the consistency of meaning.

This consistency of meaning could be understood in comparison with a rule-governed activity like a chess game. The players have to follow the rules of the game, yet their movements and strategies are decided by them within certain norms and constraints.

Otherwise, it would be a sham of a game. However, the rules of a chess game, or any other

popular game, might stay unchangeable from one generation to another, but language games may not as the rules of the game change constantly. Medina (2003) remarks that:

[Wittgenstein] emphasizes that ‘a language game does change with time’ (*OC* §256), that the normative principles of a practice are constantly refined, extended, and transformed in different ways. These principles are not ‘boundary stones set in an eternal foundation’; they can change (*OC* §§96–9). (pp. 305-306)

Therefore, according to Wittgenstein, without the context with its processes and practices, language has no meaning as meaning itself comes from activities that humans share using language. This means that our ideas, concepts and stances to the world lie within those language games. “Even doubting belongs to a language-game” (Wittgenstein, 1980b, p. 64e). In light of this, Sullivan (2017, p. 69) argues that:

Many psychological phenomena... are dependent upon participation by individuals in linguistic practices and would arguably not exist without these complex forms of interaction. In addition, it is clear that language games and discourses provide us with concepts that simultaneously constrain and enable our meaning making activities with other people and are evident in our thoughts, feelings and actions when alone.

It could be argued here then that psychological phenomena, including what people think and feel, are relevant and relative to each group of people according to the language-games they ‘play’ and the rules they follow. Such rule-governed games result in activities and practices that fit into the collective thought of that community in a way that seems widely accepted and expected among its members.

Based on the notion of language-game as discussed by Ludwik Fleck (1979/1935) in his development of the theory of thought collectives, Hulstijn et al. (2014) give an example to explain how language-games can affect “members of a thought collective” (p. 389) like researchers of second language learning. This example also shows how it possible that one

object could have different meanings and how some individuals can alter the rules through ‘refinement’ leading to new language-games. The authors argue that:

the term L2 learning has different meanings according to whether researchers consider learning as the incremental accumulation of concepts that are gradually refined and combined with other concepts to form cognitive structures or, alternatively, whether they consider learning as movement along trajectories of changing engagement in discursive practices. (p. 389-390)

So, the rules of the game keep changing when members of a certain community try new trajectories or consider different understandings of various phenomena, which allow them to keep practicing the same activity with newly conventionalised rules.

In a similar vein, it can be understood that teachers’ perceptions and cognitions with all the complexity they entail are under the impact of what they have understood and interacted with while being members of a community with shared language-games, including rules they follow or rules they make up without jeopardizing consistency. The following section will shed some light on how the concept of language-game can help to understand LTC.

4.1.1 Language-Game and EFL Teacher Cognition

Drawing on Wittgenstein’s concept of language-game, it is essential to think of what NNESTs share and perceive in using a language that is foreign to them and whether their concepts are based on the language-games of their MT, or they bear on the language-games of the TL. In Wittgenstein’s sense, rules of language-game include pragmatic, social and cultural implementations of words and sentences. They go beyond naming concrete objects to think and speak of abstract nouns denoting values, ideas or qualities. Wittgenstein wonders “how did we learn the meaning of this word (“good” for instance)? From what sort of examples? in what language games?” (Wittgenstein, 1953, section 77). It is in the same sense

that we can explore LTC while considering what certain concepts or words mean to teachers and ‘in what language-games’. Therefore, the need to explore LTC through the lens of language-game seems plausible.

Besides, the idea that a NNEST learns and teaches the TL as a *foreign* language (in a relative absence of context or a community sharing its rules), and then, supposedly, transfers its rule-governed language games to another generation of learners, poses many questions which deserve giving more heed to what goes on in that teacher’s mind while practicing these rules and what he/she perceives in regard of those games and how he/she practices them, whether as a learner or a teacher.

The question here is a question of accord. If it is through language-games that we understand our language and our world, what happens with a bilingual teacher who teaches a language-game foreign to him or her? For “when our lives and our language fall out of sync with each other, we are emotionally and intellectually crippled, denied any chance to genuinely understand our experiences.” (Hoyt, 2017, p. 750).

4.2 Vygotsky’s Concept of *Perezhivanie* and the Refraction of the Context

The subsequent paragraphs will start by discussing the possible compatibility and complementarity of Wittgenstein’s language-game and Vygotsky’s *perezhivanie* in light of their relevance to the theoretical framework of this study. Then more discussion of the notion of *perezhivanie* and its pertinence to the study will follow. *Perezhivanie* in this study is viewed and defined as a lived experience which, within a certain situation and a given context, shapes the learner’s or the person’s development. A ‘lived experience’ is intrinsically complex and could consist of a myriad of dimensions, including feelings, emotions, values, habits, hopes, and other individual constructs, on one side, as well as social agents and ecological factors on the other. At the heart of this experience lies language in terms of concepts or word meanings. More details will be discussed later in the section.

Vygotsky, like Wittgenstein, viewed the social context as the condition of the existence and development of the human mind. For both of them, the social, in its various manifestations, interferes with and influences the constructs of the human mind/consciousness. It is noteworthy here how both of them, though their paths did not cross, quoted Goethe's *Faust*: "In the beginning was the deed" to show their views of the influence of action and context on the mind. Vygotsky's quote reads, "We can accept this version if we emphasize it differently: in the beginning was the deed. The word was not the beginning—action was there first; it is the end of development, crowning the deed" (Vygotsky, 1986a, p. 255). In an interestingly similar vein, Wittgenstein's quote reads, "The origin and the primitive form of the language-game is a reaction; only from this can more complicated forms develop. [paragraph break] Language—I want to say—is a refinement, 'in the beginning was the deed'" (Wittgenstein, 1980a, p. 31).

Like Wittgenstein, Vygotsky stressed the role of language in shaping human consciousness. He writes:

The word is a direct expression of the historical nature of human consciousness... A word relates to consciousness as a living cell relates to a whole organism, as an atom relates to the universe. A word is a microcosm of human consciousness" (Vygotsky, 1986a, p. 256).

It is within this perspective that we can see the relevance of "perezhivanie as a unit of consciousness" (Michell, 2016, p. 7; Veresov & Fleer, 2016, p. 1) to language, meaning or 'word' as a 'microcosm of human consciousness'. We can also see 'the historical nature of human consciousness' expressed in the use of 'word' which resonates with Wittgenstein's philosophy of language and its conventionalized rules. Interesting here is what Vygotsky wrote about language, which does not sound much different from Wittgenstein's perspective.

If language is as old as consciousness itself, and if language is a practical consciousness-for-others and, consequently, consciousness-for-myself, then not only one particular thought but all consciousness is connected with the development of the word. The word is a thing in our consciousness . . . that is absolutely impossible for one person, but that becomes a reality for two. (Vygotsky, 1986a, p. 255)

With language in mind, both Wittgenstein and Vygotsky highlighted the influence of the sociocultural on the individual. Wertsch (1979, 1985) argues that the two thinkers emphasise the paramount role of the sociocultural in developing human cognition as individuals see the world through both language and communication, which are inherently conventionalised social activities. However, according to Madeira-Coelho (2016), Wittgenstein's discursive approach in which "language becomes a structuring element of man's relationship with reality" (p. 223) along with other mentalist approaches resulted in marginalizing subjectivity in comparison to language. In other words, both discursive and mentalist approaches did not "realize how subjects in everyday life situations, with their emotional characteristics, desires, motivations, and affections, communicate and understand each other" (p. 223).

Taking the previous argument into account and considering the 'complexity of subjects', their individuality and personal uniqueness, I argue that Vygotsky's *perezhivanie* could complement Wittgenstein's approach in a way that recognizes the process through which the individual interacts with the collective. Bringing *perezhivanie* to the table does not mean that it necessarily has a theoretical connection with a language-game, yet it arguably has an integrative role as a "unit of human consciousness" (Michell, 2016, p. 15), that could introduce an explanation of the process through which the individual practices language-games as active, "free, self-conscious, self-determining agents of its own cultural historical development." (Michell, 2016, p. 15). Or as Madeira-Coelho (2016) puts it:

It is important to recognize that, with the concept of *perezhivanie*, Vygotsky attempted to express the quality of the subject's participation in the current state of his or her life experience. (p. 221)

In other words, *perezhivanie* provides a dialectic aspect to the relation between the person and the world while considering consciousness in its cognitive, affective and conative dimensions. However, Veresov and Flear (2016, p. 325) note that “an understanding of *perezhivanie* as a concept remains elusive”.

Blunden (2016) mentioned three meanings of the word *perezhivanie* in Russian. Those meanings are related to each other, but they differ in subtle connotations and applications. He explains:

Perezhivanie comes from the verb *perezhivat*. *Zhivat* means “to live” and *pere* means carrying something over something, letting something pass beneath and overleaping it, So *perezhivat* means to be able to survive after some disaster, that is, to “over-live.” (p. 276)

He also mentioned that other possible meanings in Russian are the meaning of an “again-living” (p. 276), especially after overcoming a painful experience but keeping recollection of it that could help dealing with similar painful experiences. However, he remarked that a *perezhivanie* could also mean a positive experience that leaves its traces of recollection after passing it, such as challenges or daring acts. Vasilyuk (1991), a Russian psychologist, comments:

Perezhivaniye means the direct sensation or experience by the subject of mental states and processes. We propose to use this term to denote also a particular activity, a particular internal work, by means of which a person overcomes and conquers a crisis, restores lost spiritual equilibrium, resurrects the lost meaning of existence. (p. 9)

Putting these meanings into consideration, we can assume how Vygotsky introduced the term within the Russian psychological language-game, or so to say. Throughout his short life, Vygotsky introduced the concept of *perezhivanie* twice; the first was in 1931 while participating in writing the *Psychological Dictionary* (1931) with Boris Varshava. Together they defined *perezhivanie* as:

a common name for direct psychological experience. From a subjective perspective, every psychological process is *perezhivanie*. In every *perezhivanie* we distinguish: firstly, an act, and secondly, the content of *perezhivanie*. The first is an activity related to the appearance of certain *perezhivanie*; the second is the content, the composition of what is experienced. (Varshava & Vygotsky, 1931, p. 128)

As a limited dictionary definition, it lacks specificity and clarity. They referred to two distinct constituents of *perezhivanie*: the act and the content. The first is barely explained except for a swift reference to an activity related to the unexplained ‘appearance’ of *perezhivanie*. The second constituent, the content, may sound clear, yet its reference to the *composition of what is experienced* is still vague and unspecific.

Later in 1935, in the chapter of *The Problem of Environment*, Vygotsky (1994/1935) introduced a relatively elaborate description of *perezhivanie*.

Perezhivanie is a unit where, on the one hand, in an indivisible state, the environment is represented, i.e., that which is being experienced - *perezhivanie is always related to something which is found outside the person* - and on the other hand what is represented is *how I, myself, am experiencing this, i.e., all the personal characteristics and all the environmental characteristics are represented* in *perezhivanie*... So, in *perezhivanie* we are always dealing with an *indivisible unity of personal characteristics and situational characteristics* which are represented in *perezhivanie*. (Vygotsky, 1994/1935, p. 342, italics added)

Within the same chapter, he also referred to *perezhivanie* as a prism. He explains:

The emotional experience [*perezhivanie*] arising from any situation or from any aspect of his environment determines what kind of influence this situation or this environment will have on the child. Therefore, it is not any of the factors in themselves (if taken without reference to the child) which determines how they will influence the future course of his development, but the same factors refracted through the prism of the child's emotional experience [*perezhivanie*] (Vygotsky, 1994/1935, pp. 339–340)

Based on Vygotsky's own definition and descriptions of *perezhivanie*, it could be argued that *perezhivanie* can be viewed as a coin with two sides: external (the environment/situation) and internal (personality/personal characteristics) at a certain moment/stage. In this sense, it could be viewed as a dynamic system or unit of analysis that includes a cognitive as well as affective processing of reality in the sense of unity of experience.

This indivisible unit of *perezhivanie* “represents the dialectical relation between personality and social environment in the process of personality development” (Dafermos, 2018, p. 182). As Mahn (2003) argues, “Vygotsky used *perezhivanie* ... to reveal the dialectical process in which the reconstructed personality shapes social relations and in which social relations shape the personality” (p. 130). As a unit of analysis, *perezhivanie* is not completely affective or emotional, but it has a cognitive aspect since it requires awareness and understanding of the social context. Daniels (2008) notes that:

Vygotsky understood *perezhivanie* as the integration of cognitive and affective elements, which always presupposes the presence of emotions. Vygotsky used this concept in order to emphasise the wholeness of the psychological development of children, integrating external and internal elements at each stage of development. (p. 43)

In light of the above quote, *perezhivanie* is not composed merely of cognitive and affective elements as there are elements of personal characteristics and sociohistorical factors that accumulate to formulate the individual's *perezhivanie*. Fleer et al. (2017) note that:

perezhivanie [as a unit of analysis] is a tool (concept) for analysing the influence of the sociocultural environment, not on the individual per se, but on the process of development of the individual, which is seen as the “path along which the social becomes the individual” (Vygotsky 1998, p. 198). In other words, the environment determines the development of the individual through the individual's *perezhivanie* of the environment (Vygotsky 1998, p. 294). This approach enlarges the developmental perspective and overcomes naïve social determinism. (p. 10)

The transforming dimension of *perezhivanie*, in the way it selectively refracts certain environmental factors turning the social to the individual, indicates that the social, in its varied forms of life, including language-games, becomes the individual through the person's *perezhivanie* (as unity of experience) of those practices with language and its games at the core of them. As Ribes-Iñesta (2006) argues:

Even such simple reactions as recognizing when seeing are linguistic, and seeing, feeling, thinking, and many other behavior relations always take place within the boundaries of multiple language games. Seeing, feeling, learning, and thinking, just to name some of the fundamental psychological phenomena described in and by ordinary language, are linguistic phenomena, not some sort of internal talking, listening, reading, or writing. (p. 118)

In other words, I argue that language-game as a form of life and a social activity/process is recognized and reproduced by the person through his/her *perezhivanie*. And if word for Vygotsky is the microcosm of consciousness developed and connected sociohistorically leading to the conception of meaning, we can then see how *perezhivanie* as “a microcosm of

child subjectivity and a developmental unit of the child's psyche (personal consciousness)" (Michell, 2016, p. 8) complements and integrates with Wittgenstein's notion of language game. That is to say, on the one hand, the notion of language-game stresses the sociohistorical side of consciousness with its conventionalised rule-governed practices, or as Krkač and Lukin (2006) put it:

Since language is given in language-game model and practice, since language game is "a part" of an activity or form of life (PI 23), and "is there – like our life" (OC 559), and finally since expressions in language have their meaning only in "stream of life", it seems that investigating consciousness means "investigating grammar of consciousness". (p. 156)

On the other hand, *perezhivanie* highlights the individual, personal side of consciousness in the light of sociohistorical factors. Vygotsky's words explain it simply, or so it seems, when he writes that "it is quite naive to understand the social only as collective, as a large number of people. The social also exists where there is only one person with his individual *perezhivanie*" (Vygotsky 1986b, p. 314). In this sense, *perezhivanie* as an instance of "living over" or "again living" stands as the individual's own internalization of the social situation with emotions and understandings that have their influences on the individual's consciousness of the current situation as well as future similar or dissimilar situations. Individuals with their various *perezhivaniya* create the social or recreate it when they respond to what happens around them in their own ways and according to their distinct understandings and emotions. Vygotsky put it clearly and simply when he referred to *perezhivanie* as the way a person or "a child becomes aware of, interprets, [and] emotionally relates to a certain event" (Vygotsky, 1994/1935, p. 341).

Such a notion that realizes the individual's own experience, motives, interests, characteristics, etc. in dealing with the rule-governed or regulated activities of the social is

what Wittgenstein barely referred to. Vygotsky's concept of *perezhivanie* could be viewed as an antecedent psychological explanation of how individuals deal with the social context, represented in language, and have their own personal reactions while interacting with it. It could be even conjectured that a psychological version or prefigurement of Wittgenstein's concept of language-game could be found in Vygotsky's thoughts, whether in *Thought and speech* or *the Problem of Environment*. In the latter, Vygotsky (1994/1935) writes:

After all, a child does not invent his own language, but he finds the words in a ready-made state, fixed to ready-made things, and he assimilates our language and the meaning the words have in our language. This means that a child attributes [confers] these words to the same objects to which we attribute them. When a child says 'weather' or 'man', he means by it the same things, the same objects as all of us, but he generalizes these things in a different way, using a different mental act. (p. 345)

It is obvious here that the argument is about child development, but it could also be applied to adults if we consider each individual's awareness and understanding of the language they are exposed to. In any case, we can see Wittgenstein's notion of language-game and its rules in the sense that it is a "ready-made state, fixed to ready-made things".

4.2.1 *Perezhivanie* and Language Teacher Cognition

From the experiences they go through to the lived moments of negative or positive *perezhivaniya* while interacting with their surroundings and the way they internalize those lived experiences, language teachers develop their own approaches to things and their own concepts of them.

The notion of *perezhivanie* as a unit of analysis (Bozhovich, 2009) and a "reference point" (Brennan 2014, p. 288) through which humans reflect on and intellectually and affectively interact with their environments would help to reach more deeply-rooted arenas of LTC while addressing teachers' past experiences as learners of a foreign language and how

they influenced their current experiences. It would also help to examine their emotional experiences as current active teachers while teaching English and its vocabulary, and how those experiences reframe their approach to the language or their interactions with their students.

Since the middle of the nineties, some studies have started paying attention to the role of emotional experiences in teaching (e.g., Hargreaves, 1998a, 1998b; Jeffrey & Woods, 1996; Little, 1996; Nias, 1996). However, research in the nineties and the early 2000s viewed emotions as a separate construct that affects cognition, yet most studies since the middle of the last decade have been more inclined to view emotions as part of cognition or ontologically inseparable from it (e.g., Feryok, 2010; Golombek, 2015; Golombek & Doran, 2014; Korthagen, 2011; Kubanyiova and Feryok, 2015; Zembylas, 2005a, 2005b).

From this perspective, *perezhivanie* as a concept is a call for teacher cognition researchers to consider the individual's emotional experience in shaping and forming teachers' development, learning and making sense of the world. One of the recent studies that recognise *perezhivanie* as an essential part of teacher cognition is Golombek's (2015) in which she examines an ESL teacher learner's and an ESL teacher educator's emotional dissonance using reflection journals and interviews while focusing on their *perezhivanie*. The findings of the study indicate that the educator teacher's reflection on the causes of her emotional experience and its influences on mediation helped change her own understanding of the learner.

A question may arise as to how language-games and *perezhivanie* within the scope of consciousness relate to teaching vocabulary. A quick look over the studies focusing on word consciousness and its relationship with vocabulary learning and teaching could answer such a question. If we understand word consciousness as an "interest in and awareness of words" (Scott & Nagy, 2004, p. 202) and "the motivation, metacognitive, and contextual strategy-

learning component of an effective vocabulary program” (Walsh, 2014, p. 28) which “focuses on instruction to support dispositions or affective aspects of word learning” (Neugebauer et al., 2017, p. 30), we can then see that relationship in both Wittgensteinian and Vygotskian perspectives. As discussed and argued in the previous section, both notions of language-game, as an activity and form of life, and *perezhivanie*, as a unit of consciousness, seem to complementarily or integratively revolve around these concepts included in defining word consciousness, i.e., awareness, context, metacognition, interest, motivation and affect. In view of this, we can see how both notions pertain to vocabulary learning and teaching.

With all the previous arguments in mind, and while putting into consideration how the concept of *perezhivanie* complements the concept of language-game as previously discussed, this study aims to consider those two notions that fit well into the Bourdieusian theoretical framework with its central concept of habitus (see the following section) and its main focus on dispositions (which is also a component of word consciousness).

4.3 Habitus: The Feel for the Game Within the Field/Context

Since the environment is always there as the “background against which we see any action” (Wittgenstein, 1967, section 567) is always present, it is essential to see human cognition from a sociological perspective. As mentioned earlier, the Vygotskian perspective is mainly psychological focusing on the continuum of development and transformation, though it is by no means void of philosophical orientation, while the Wittgensteinian perspective is basically philosophical aiming at resolving philosophical problems and addressing issues inherited from traditional philosophy. It seems relevant then to look into what a sociologist of education (Nash 1990) like Pierre Bourdieu (1930-2002) could bring to the table.

Bourdieu tried to “analyse the ordinary experience of the social” (Mertens, 2010, p. 235). It is with this legacy built on a philosophical stance to social phenomena and his new

way of sociological analysis which could be described as “creative” (Lizardo, 2004, p. 377) cognitive sociology (Zerubavel, 1997) that Bourdieu has his prominent position in modern philosophy, sociology, anthropology as well as educational research.

Central to Bourdieu’s sociology is the concept of habitus which is particularly relevant to this study. Under Bourdieu’s way of analysing ‘the ordinary experience of the social’, the concept of habitus is a notion that can give a sociological, practical dimension to Wittgenstein’s *Sprachspiel* and Vygotsky’s *perezhivanie*. As the following paragraphs will argue, it can be viewed as an amalgam of both *Sprachspiel* and *perezhivanie* but aimed at dealing with ordinary people in ordinary phenomena.

Habitus can actually be dated back to Aristotle (Nash, 1999). Part of it is what could be viewed as habit, yet in Bourdieu’s terms, it is:

a socialised body. A structured body, a body which has incorporated the immanent structures of a world or of a particular sector of that world —a field—and which structures the *perception* of that world as well as *action* in that world. (Bourdieu, 1998, p. 81, italics added).

As one of Bourdieu’s thinking tools, habitus as a notion works in parallel with other two central ones, i.e., capital and field. These thinking tools are the main assets of his *Theory of Practice* in which he argues for diminishing the strict dualisms and dichotomies of the external and the internal, the social and the individual, the objective and the subjective, assuming and adopting “the dialectic of the internalization of externality and the externalization of internality, or, more simply, of incorporation and objectification.” (Bourdieu, 1977, p. 72).

The core concepts of habitus, capital and field also work conjointly to form social reality according to Bourdieu. Such reality holds within its parameters what could be called individual reality. To understand the notion of habitus, it is essential to understand the other

two notions of capital and field. According to Bourdieu, capital could be simply understood as credit (see Bourdieu, 1977, p. 41) or resources available to a person or a group. These resources can be understood in terms of economic capital; however, Bourdieu's capital has other forms: social capital, symbolic capital, and cultural capital. According to Bourdieu,

Social capital is the sum of the resources, actual or virtual, that accrue to an individual or a group by virtue of possessing a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition. (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 119)

This form of capital focuses on social connections and the person's network through which he can gain a certain level of power due to his or her relationships with other members of the community. As for symbolic capital, it mainly refers to a person's reputation, status, honour or prestige or what others value in a person apart from his or her economic capital. Cultural capital is what a person, a group or an institution has as accepted, established and recognized knowledge.

All these forms of capital create various levels of power and lead to struggle to possess one or more of these forms. Such a struggle takes place within a field, the third notion of the triad, which Bourdieu defines as:

a network, or a configuration, of objective relations between positions. These positions are objectively defined, in their existence and in the determinations they impose upon their occupants, agents or institutions, by their present and potential situation (situs) in the structure of the distribution of species of power (or capital) whose possession commands access to the specific profits that are at stake in the field, as well as by their objective relation to other positions (domination, subordination, homology, etc.). (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 97)

Amongst the three concepts which stand as the pillars of Bourdieu's social theory, "the concept of habitus plays a particularly crucial role in articulating these elements so as to transcend the dualism of the objective and the subjective" (Jain, 2016, p. 208).

Habitus according to Bourdieu is "a structuring structure, which organises practices and the perception of practices" (Bourdieu, 1984, p. 170). He also defined it as "the system of acquired dispositions functioning on the practical level as categories of perception and assessment or as classificatory principles as well as being the organising principles of action" (Bourdieu 1990, p. 13).

This means that habitus represents our consciousness of the objective world as well as our subjective inner world in a way that considers various forms of capital taking place within a certain field that consequently structures our cognitions and actions. In other words, "social reality exists, so to speak, twice, in things and in minds, in fields and in habitus, outside and inside of agents" (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 127). A person's habitus could be viewed as the system or structure consisting of dispositions acquired and accumulated throughout his or her life experiences, interactions, practices and activities taking place within a particular field (objective social reality). Such dispositions structure or organise the way individuals see themselves and the world around them and act or practice accordingly. Habitus in this sense is a "generative schema" (Bourdieu, 1977, p. 85), which means that although it is generally determined by field, it is generative because of the supposition that it "engenders a potentially infinite number of patterns of behavior, thought and expression that are both 'relatively unpredictable' but also 'limited in their diversity'" (McNay, 1999, p. 100).

So again, Bourdieu's (1998, p. 81), habitus is "a socialized, ... structured body", which "incorporated" the objective, structured world or field. It "structures" or frames and constitutes our perception of the world, which could be understood as our consciousness. It

also does the same with our action in the world, yet within our perception and action lies unpredictability and generativity.

The meaning of a socialized, structured body, on the one hand, is reminiscent of the concept of socialized, conventionalised, rule-governed language-games developed by Wittgenstein. In both cases, the influence of the social and its role in shaping our consciousness is present, whether in language or other social practices and forms of life. On the other hand, “the perception of the world as well as action in that the world” could be understood in terms of how we experience that world or environment with “personal constitutional characteristic elements” (Vygotsky, 1994/1935, p. 342). This is to say that we can feel the presence of the notion of *perezhivanie* as a unit of analysis and consciousness through which we perceive that world. And although Bourdieu’s view of that perception does not directly encompass affective and cognitive constituents of *perezhivanie*, his emphasis on dispositions as the core of habitus seems to underscore their inclusion in the way we perceive the world.

Another earlier description of habitus by Bourdieu carries a hint of Vygotsky’s prism metaphor. In that description, he defined habitus as:

a transforming machine that leads us to actively 'reproduce' the social conditions of our own production, but in a relatively unpredictable way, in such a way that one cannot move simply from knowledge of the conditions of production to knowledge of the products. (Bourdieu, 1993, p. 87).

The ‘transforming machine’ here has a sense of the transformational function of *perezhivanie* in the way the individual experiences the world, understands it or reacts to it. It is ‘our own production’ of the experience and the environment (Vygotsky’s term) or the world/field (Bourdieu’s terms) around us. The unpredictability of the production confirms the unique

singularity of the individual or individuality of the agent (in sociological terminology) and their own relative independence from conformity.

Yet another description of Bourdieu's habitus refers to the product of *le sens pratique* or the practical sense (or the feel for the game) that an individual develops as a second nature through interaction with the field, or in Bourdieu's words,

...the product of the practical sense as the feel for the game, for a particular historically determined game - a feel which is acquired in childhood by taking part in social activities...(it) presupposes a permanent capacity for invention, indispensable if one is to be able to adapt to indefinitely varied and never completely identical situations...this freedom of invention and improvisation which enables the infinity of moves allowed by the game to be produced...the habitus as *the feel for the game* is the social game embodied and turned into a second nature." (Bourdieu, 1990, pp. 62-63)

That feel for the game, in a sense or another, carries into its components that Wittgensteinian designation of language-games as well as the Vygotskian notion of *perezhivanie*. That is to say, Bourdieu's description and reference to that game as a 'historically determined game' does not seem to differ much from Wittgenstein's conceptualization of language-games as a rule-governed activity. In a broad sense, both mean to emphasise social practices and activities, whether they are clearly present in language as a form of life (Wittgenstein) or language and other practices in the field (Bourdieu).

As for *perezhivanie*, Bourdieu's reference to adaptation and second nature sound reminiscent of what *perezhivaniya* of different situations can eventually lead to if we view it from a sociological perspective. In this regard, Panofsky (2003) notes that:

Bourdieu's concept of the *habitus* complements Vygotsky's notion. The *habitus* is that "system of lasting . . . dispositions which, integrating past experiences, functions at every moment as a *matrix of perceptions, appreciations, and actions*" (Bourdieu,

1977, p. 82). It is “history made nature” (1977, p. 78). The *habitus* is “embodied history, internalized as second nature and so forgotten as history . . . *the active presence of the whole past of which it is the product*” (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 56, emphasis added). (p. 425)

This ‘internalized second nature’ with its ‘embodied history of dispositions’ does not seem to differ much from Vygotsky’s notion of internalisation with *perezhivanie* at the heart of it. Some may still argue that Bourdieu’s habitus does not recognize affect and emotions. However, habitus with its focus on dispositions recognizes emotions in a social and individual sense and acknowledges the role they play in shaping our habitus as well as our acts in the world. The following extract shows how Bourdieu (2000) thinks of emotions while discussing dispositions as the key component of habitus:

We are disposed because we are exposed. It is because the body is (to unequal degrees) exposed and endangered in the world, faced with the risk of emotion, lesion, suffering, sometimes death, and therefore obliged to take the world seriously (and nothing is more serious than emotion, which touches the depth of our organic being) that it is able to acquire dispositions that are themselves an openness to the world, that is, to the very structures of the world of which they are the incorporated form. (pp. 140–141)

Moreover, if we view affect as “embodied meaning-making” (Wetherell, 2012, p. 4) in day-to-day social practices, discursive situations, and language-based interactions that come together to make meaning, or “something that could be understood as human emotion” (p. 4), we can see how it is incorporated in Bourdieu’s habitus in a way that is not dissimilar to Vygotsky’s *perezhivanie*. With the previous quote from Bourdieu in mind, it can be confidently argued that for both Vygotsky and Bourdieu, emotions are considered to have their deep marks on the human consciousness and the way individuals interact with social

reality. Being ‘disposed because we are exposed’ and viewing habitus as “a socialized subjectivity” (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 126) could be understood as a Bourdieusian explanation of Vygotsky’s argument of “how the social becomes the individual” (Vygotsky 1998, p. 198) through situations and experiences that have their influences on our development, our consciousness and our practices.

In view of Bourdieu’s argument of habitus as ‘a socialized subjectivity’, we can find a link with Vygotsky’s argument that “social relations or relations among people genetically underlie all higher functions and their relationships” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 87). This transformation process through which ‘the social becomes the individual’ happens through psychological internalization, which keeps influencing the process of development. *Perezhivanie* is at the core of such a process where it operates as the main active transformer. This goes in line with what Veresov (2017) points out when he argues that “there is no development without *perezhivanie*” (p. 61).

4.3.1 Why Bourdieu’s Habitus? A Rationale for the Theoretical Framework

Bourdieu’s habitus is arguably an objective correlative of the complexity of human cognition, including affect, and its interaction with the world. Being based on objective historically determined social realities, it correlates to the social, the cognitive, the affective, and the physical (embodied) as well as practices that are reproduced through it within the field and its various forms of capital (i.e., the conative).

Habitus can be understood as a collective yet individualized structure used to deal with the world and which becomes internalized over time as individuals inhabit different historical periods and processes. Thus, habitus reflects for example, class, age, gender, and other positionings used to define, interpret, and judge lived experience. (Diaz Maggiolo, 2014, p. 189)

Habitus, in this sense, is a holistic, monistic approach to the mind-body problem, in which the Wittgensteinian notion of ‘form of life’ and language-games as well as the Vygotskian notion of *perezhivanie* could have their sociological representations or manifestations. Habitus as a concept could encompass and complement both notions as it emphasizes the social, rule-governed and historically determined forms of life, including language and language-games, and it also includes the constructs of *perezhivanie* with its inclusion of the environmental, the cognitive and the affective. In addition, although Wittgenstein and Vygotsky do not marginalise practice, they do not give it that attention it deserves in terms of its social realisations and materialisations whether on physical (bodily) levels or interactive communal, societal levels. Bourdieu does give much heed to social practice in its various applications while considering the philosophical and psychological dimensions of it.

From the Bourdieusian perspective, education is a process of generating and regenerating cultural and social norms (Bourdieu, 1991). Teachers are active agents within the communities of educational institutions who participate in this process while bringing their social norms and cognitions to take their part, whether consciously or not, in the process of regeneration.

Based on Bourdieu’s theory of practice and his notions of habitus, the study aims to explore LTC in relation to what has internally and externally shaped and developed it and its complex constructs, including the social in its various factors (involving language-games), the mental and the affective (while linking it to *perezhivanie*), as well as the physical, embodied manifestations of it. In that vein, a variety of factors will be considered whether they are cognitive, affective or conative like learning experiences, motives, desires, attitudes, practices, etc., or sociocultural and ontologically influential like “institutional structures and relations of power” (Moje & Luke, 2009, p. 423). As Bourdieu (1993) states:

The habitus, as the word implies, is that which one has acquired, but which has become durably incorporated in the body in the form of permanent dispositions. So the term constantly reminds us that it refers to something historical, linked to individual history, and that it belongs to a genetic mode of thought, as opposed to essentialist modes of thought. (p. 86)

While bearing the Vygotskian notion of internalisation in mind and comparing his approach to Bourdieu's, Connolly (2005) notes that:

Bourdieu's notion of habitus plays such an important role in providing a bridge between the individual and society... (it) represents the way in which an individual's experience of the world comes, progressively, to be internalized as a set of taken-for-granted ways of thinking and behaving (pp. 3-4)

Although Bourdieu (1993) describes habitus as durable and permanent, he also stated in the same book that habitus is liable to change as it is "not a destiny" (p. 44). This may occur as habitus operates in a structure that is determined by field (Navarro, 2006). The Bourdieusian theoretical framework highlights the role of social field where the notion of habitus stands as a focal point that integrates and incorporates several multidimensional constructs that are largely constituted by "deeply internalized dispositions; schemas, and forms of know-how and competence, both mental and corporeal, first acquired by the individual through early childhood socialization" (Swartz, 2002, p. 625). It is also "a matrix of perceptions, appreciations and actions that allows individuals to structure their behaviour within situations" (Smith, 2003, p. 465).

As Diaz Maggioli (2014) notes:

Habitus constrains and directs thoughts and actions as individuals engage in social practices. However, it should be noted that while habitus constrains and directs, it does not necessarily determine those thoughts or actions as it acts as both a

structuring and a structured structure that simultaneously presents an internalized exteriority and an exteriorized internality. (pp. 189-190)

Drawing on Bourdieu's habitus to explore LTC is not totally new to teacher cognition research. However, previous studies that drew on the concept focused mainly on investigating the principles (or beliefs) that teachers as a collective group hold and how these beliefs, under a certain context, are manifested in practices (e.g., Breen et al., 2001; Sun et al., 2020). I also argue that no studies, to my knowledge, except the work of Bonny Norton (e.g., Norton, 1995, 2000, 2015; Norton & Pavlenko, 2004), have focused on the development of habitus and its role in shaping cognitions whether diachronically or synchronically. However, Norton's studies have focused almost exclusively on learner identity rather than teacher identity or teacher cognition in relation to Bourdieu's concepts of capital and habitus.

This study aims to shed light on how LTC develops through habitus while considering language-games as forms of life that guide our understanding and thinking as well as *perezhivanie* that works as a unit of consciousness that could analyse how teachers interpret and process what they go through in their environments whether mentally or affectively.

Chapter 5: Methodology

This chapter presents the methodology adopted by the researcher to explore LTC and understand more about teachers' minds and emotions from the participants' own perspectives and as situated in their sociohistorical/sociocultural environments.

In her reference to individual development as a professional, Feryok (2012) states that "early experiences mediate later developments because they are the basis for orienting to individual action" (p. 106). So, this study begins by exploring EFL teacher experience as a language learner and how it contributed to his/her beliefs and 'oriented' his/her development as a professional. Several aspects and stakeholders are involved in the process, and the study aims to explore participants' beliefs and perceptions as in-service teachers and how external factors shape, influence and develop their cognition. This study pays attention to teachers' emotions as part of their cognitions. It also considers sociocultural factors that influence their beliefs and perceptions of themselves as teachers of English language in general and English vocabulary in particular. With these aims in mind, multiple research tools were utilised to collect in-depth data that could help with the attempt of making the unobservable comprehensible.

5.1 Research Design

Bearing the previous arguments in mind and based on the purpose of this study, the mixed-methods research (MMR) was employed by combining both quantitative and qualitative methods and collecting and analysing data within an interpretivist/constructivist paradigm. According to this paradigm, contextualization gives meaning to phenomena, and thus teacher's cognitions were interpreted in light of the context/field (educational, sociocultural and political) with its different factors. A question may arise as to how the quantitative component within MMR would fit into an interpretivist paradigm that is supposed to give priority to qualitative data, yet, as McChesney and Aldridge (2019) argue,

“both qualitative and quantitative methods can be accommodated within a mixed methods study using a single overarching paradigm” (p. 229). The authors also note that such a stance is not new in research fields, yet the tendency has been more towards using the positivist paradigm as an overarching frame. Based on a study in which they investigated public school teachers’ experiences of professional development, the authors conclude that “the interpretivist paradigm can underpin and inform the whole of a mixed methods research study” (p. 234).

The implementation of MMR in applied linguistics is relatively new and it started to get some attention in the beginning of the last decade (Hashemi & Babaii, 2013). The authors point out that:

In applied linguistics, researchers often deal with complex phenomena and systems with “adaptive,” “nonlinear,” and “dynamic” processes and multi-dimensional outcomes (Larsen–Freeman & Cameron, 2008, p. 251). To explore these complicated processes and outcomes, we may, at times, need to utilize both qualitative and quantitative methods (see Yin, 2006). (p. 841)

The purpose and the nature of this study are in line with what the authors referred to as regards dealing with a complex, dynamic phenomenon, i.e., LTC. MMR is useful in collecting and analysing different types of data that would help address LTC using the advantages of both types of data. However, and as MMR is implemented in this study within an overarching interpretivist paradigm, the quantitative component was utilized to serve as a foundation for the qualitative component. That is to say that even with utilising methods to primarily collect quantitative data, qualitative data were also collected. Besides, the analysis approaches applied to quantitative data included techniques that allowed a degree of a subjectivist epistemology as regards factor interpretation in exploratory factor analysis (EFA).

With the previous considerations in mind, the design of the MMR approach adopted in this study is based on concurrent triangulation of data, which means that “collection and analysis of QUAN [quantitative] and QUAL [qualitative] data are conducted in parallel and integrated interpretations are drawn based on QUAN and QUAL results” (Hashemi & Babaii, 2013, p. 832).

Furthermore, as language teacher cognition is a multi-layered and multi-dimensional construct, investigating it using MMR with the aim of combining the advantages of both QUAN and QUAL approaches is plausible. The dynamic and complex nature of language teacher cognition as well as the integration of more than one concept in approaching the phenomenon make it justifiable to adopt the principles of innovative mixed-methods research (IMMR) as discussed by Riazi (2016a). According to these principles, the researcher goes beyond technicalities of mixing both methods to address the phenomenon with a focus on “how this mixture of the methods is done genuinely and in response to the need of interweaving the different types of knowledge related to different aspects or dimensions of the research problem” (Riazi, 2016a, p. 38). In this sense, different types of data collected in this study were sought with an eye on how they integrate and interweave together rather than how they complement or explain one another.

Bearing the previous considerations in mind, data collection in this study was conducted in four phases using 1) questionnaire, 2) Q methodology 3) interviews and 4) classroom observations. The following table gives an overview of the methodological framework according to which these methods were implemented and how collected data were analysed. Further information about each phase is provided in separate sections.

Table 5.1*Study Phases and Modes of Inquiry*

Phase	Method	Data type(s)	Data Analysis
One	Questionnaire	QUAN + QUAL	QUAN: inferential and descriptive statistics QUAL: Content analysis
Two	Q methodology	QUAN + QUAL	QUAN: inferential and descriptive statistics QUAL: Content analysis
Three	Interviews	QUAL	Thematic analysis
Four	Classroom observations	QUAL	Comparative analysis and thematic analysis

The first phase was started online using an electronic version of the questionnaire and was later completed using both online and printed copies distributed to the participants in Egypt according to their preferences. While collecting and analysing the data from the questionnaire, the second and the third phases were concurrent, followed by the fourth phase that relied mainly on those who completed the interviews. The questionnaire consisted of two parts and included both closed and open items. It was completed by 135 participants in around 6 months (July -December 2018). Only 118 responses were analysed after data cleaning. The Q methodology consisted of one Q sort about their cognitions regarding EFL. Twenty-five participants completed the sort adequately (January-March 2019). In the meantime, fourteen informants participated in the semi-structured interviews (February-April 2019). Of these informants, four participants agreed to participate in classroom observations (April-May 2019). The following section presents an overview of the setting and the participants.

5.2 Setting and Participants

This study was undertaken among Egyptian NNESTs who teach in public schools, including primary, preparatory and general secondary stages, which would help get a better understanding of language teaching and learning in such contexts (Burns, 1992). As

exploring teachers' teaching experiences is a substantial part of investigating their cognition about teaching EFL, only those who have been working as active teachers for five years or more were selected. A few studies have explored LTC in Egypt, yet most teachers have been familiar with researchers contacting them for data collection purposes related mostly to research in teaching methods or students' learning and conducted by postgraduate students or scholars from faculties of education in Egypt. In preparatory pre-procedural conversations with some teachers, most of them commented that they had not been asked or interviewed about their own stances, viewpoints or concerns regarding teaching English or their experiences as teachers.

I was hoping to recruit participants from all over Egypt with its 27 governorates, including urban, suburban and rural regions. I started contacting teachers and teacher educators I personally knew to help with expanding the circle of possible participants. I also contacted teachers who are members of social media groups dedicated to English teachers in Egypt. Many teachers who did not know me in person, or only had a friend or an acquaintance in common, either hesitated to participate in the study or politely declined. I also contacted EMOE to ask about the possibility of collecting data from teachers in various schools by contacting the principals or the teachers directly and collecting data on site. They briefly responded that I should attend in person and submit an official form to the security sector in EMOE and wait for a decision that could take an unspecified period of time. I later realized that having a permit from authorities could somehow impose my presence on teachers and principals and, therefore, could affect the validity of data, as some teachers might participate because they believed the principals wanted them to, or because the permit from EMOE implied an obligation.

Having considered such caveats, I decided to recruit teachers who were willing to voluntarily participate and speak their minds without feeling obliged or coerced into doing it.

I also preferred to give them the chance to participate when the time suited them and at their own convenience, whether they preferred to do it online, at school or anywhere else they chose. As for data that would require my presence in school, I managed to get verbal approval from the participating teachers in coordination with the school principals who approved my limited informal presence.

For all that is mentioned above, sampling and recruiting was designed in accordance with the sociocultural considerations and limitations my participants and I are aware of. Snowball/chain-referral sampling was then implemented to recruit research participants in the first phase of the study, which included a two-part questionnaire. Using the same sampling technique, twenty-five teachers were selected to participate in Q-sorts, including video recordings of hand movements. For the third phase of the study, fourteen participants willingly accepted to participate in the interviews. For the fourth phase (observation), four teachers of those who participated in the interviews willingly accepted to be observed for one session.

As for the language used in data collection, English was used in the questionnaire and Q sorts while Egyptian Arabic was used in the interviews except for two informants who insisted on using English. There were reasons behind using English in the questionnaire and Q sorts rather than Arabic or Egyptian Arabic. First, some technical terms related to English language teaching could be misinterpreted or misunderstood if translated into Arabic. Secondly, during my preliminary discussions and the pilot interval, some potential participants indicated that they would prefer responding to questions formed in English rather than Arabic. It should also be noted that based on my experience in the field and familiarity with the culture, many teachers would interpret my use of Arabic as an indicator of my underestimation of their English competence, which could be offensive or discouraging to many. This is perhaps why two teachers out of the fourteen informants insisted on using

English in their interviews although I encouraged them to use Arabic as it would make it easier for them to express certain culturally or linguistically bound issues.

A question may rise regarding the English competency of some participants; however, based on my experience as a language teacher I would confirm that the majority of participating teachers would be rated as intermediate or upper-intermediate speakers of English. This is a rough estimation as there are no studies focused on this issue. Nevertheless, and because of how English has been taught in most schools (see Chapter 2), it should be kept in mind that most teachers would find it easier to read or write in English rather than speak or listen.

In all cases, where English was used, I made certain that it would be easily understood by intermediate level readers. Furthermore, some clarifications were used in the questionnaire especially for terms that could be new to some teachers. The Q sort respondents were also allowed to read the statements in advance and ask (in Arabic or English) for clarifications or meanings if necessary. There were a few instances where a few teachers just wanted to confirm their correct understanding of some words or statements.

All the teachers involved in the research come from mixed socioeconomic status and gender. They also vary in the training programmes they have attended and personal development decisions they have taken to improve their teaching strategies or language awareness. Further participant information is given in the section for each phase.

5.3 Phase 1: Questionnaire

Questionnaires are known for their versatility and feasibility in collecting a large amount of data (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2009), and they are useful in LTC studies because of their “access and scale” (Borg, 2019, p. 8). With this in mind, a questionnaire was designed to explore the cognitions of a wider group of EFL teachers in Egypt while looking for conceptualizations, beliefs and knowledge that could represent common aspects or shared

collective thoughts among them as members of the same society. The questionnaire consisted of two parts. The first addressed prior learning experience in EFL and vocabulary learning. The second addressed current teaching experience in teaching EFL and vocabulary as well.

5.3.1 Item Selection

Part A of the questionnaire (see Appendix D) consisted of both closed and open items. Closed items related to prior vocabulary learning experience were based on and adapted from questionnaire items constructed by Rossiter et al. (2016). Upon my request, the authors gave permission to use and adapt the items (see Appendix M).

Rossiter et al. (2016) designed the two items based on the findings of previous studies. The first item (item B46) was based on the findings of three studies (Hu & Nation, 2000; Nation, 2006; Schmitt, Jiang & Grabe, 2011 as cited in Rossiter et al., 2016). According to these studies, speakers of English, whether they are native or not, need to be familiar with 95-98% of the words in any given text to be able to understand it. The second item (item B48) was also based on the findings of a corpus study by Nation (2006), which recommends understanding of 90% to 98% of the most common 2000 words in English.

As shown in Appendix D, Part B closed items related to EFL learning and teaching, i.e., items B1 to B20, were mainly based on and adapted from Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) by Horwitz (1985). Some other items (items B21 to B24) were used and adapted from a questionnaire developed by Macalister (2012) and the Foreign Language Education Questionnaire (FLEQ) constructed by Allen (2002) (items B25 to B30). Some items were adapted to fit the context of the study, and other items were added after consultation with the supervisors, two Egyptian teacher educators in the field of English language teaching, and three in-service EFL teachers from Egypt. Except for item B38, which is based on BALLI, and developed as a three-point Likert item, the other thirty-seven items (item B1-item B37) were developed as 5-point Likert-type items ranging from 1

(totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree). The items aimed at investigating teachers' cognitions about learning and teaching English while considering various dimensions of the process, including the difficulty of language learning, learning strategies, language aptitude, language proficiency, the importance of learning a foreign language, the context of learning a foreign language, error correction, and teaching styles and strategies. Other closed and open items were developed. The questionnaire was then examined by the supervisors, two Egyptian language teacher educators and three in-service Egyptian EFL teachers. Some repetitious or peripheral items were excluded.

Most closed items were Likert-type items with respondents indicating degrees of agreement or frequency. Likert-type items are useful in measuring latent attitudes and beliefs (Likert, 1932), and they are widely used in questionnaires; however, and as Borg (2019) argues, the "situatedness of teacher cognition" (p. 7) makes quantitative methods, including Likert items, insufficient as evidence of what teachers have in mind. Bearing this caveat in mind, open items were used to generate qualitative data that would add more depth to the quantitative data in addition to the data from the other research tools that also addressed issues included in the Likert items.

5.3.2 Data Collection Procedures

A pilot test of the questionnaire was then conducted online with eight teachers in May and June 2018. Their comments and remarks helped with organizing the final version of the questionnaire and rewording some statements to avoid possible misunderstanding. They were asked to respond in English or Arabic. However, all preferred to respond in English.

Online copies of questionnaires were distributed beginning July 2018, and printed copies were distributed after I had arrived in Egypt at the end of July 2018. The school holiday in Egypt usually starts in July and ends in the middle of September. During that time, most teachers who completed questionnaires were personal acquaintances of me or other

participating teachers. All participants were told that they could complete the questionnaire at their own pace. Many questionnaires were returned after three weeks and sometimes a month. With the start of school year, around mid-September 2018, more teachers were accessible to me and other participating teachers. I was planning to collect 80 responses at the beginning of my study. However, with the help of some enthusiastic participating teachers, I received 135 completed questionnaires by the end of December 2018.

During that period, more than 155 teachers were contacted, provided with the link of the online copy of the questionnaire, or given a printed copy. However, only 135 questionnaires were completed adequately. Sixty-four questionnaires were completed online while seventy-one were completed on paper. Most participants who helped with recruiting others told me that most teachers preferred to fill printed copies. Of the 135, seventeen questionnaires were excluded because ten had flawed or missing information or were not filled seriously, and the other seven had replicated responses, even on open items. The remaining 118 questionnaires were rechecked several times for adequacy and validity.

5.3.3 Questionnaire Participant Demographics

The following table presents a demographic profile of the 118 participants whose responses were considered fit for analysis after data cleaning.

Table 5.2*Questionnaire Participant Demographics (n=118)*

Variable		<i>n</i>	%
Gender	Female	46	39.0
	Male	72	61.0
Age	25-30	16	13.6
	31-35	21	17.8
	36-40	30	25.4
	41-45	28	23.7
	46+	23	19.5
Location	Cairo	1	1.7
	Alexandria	10	8.5
	Other governorates	107	89.8
Qualifications	BA in English	37	31.4
	BA in English and Education	83	70.3
	General Diploma in Education	22	18.6
	Special Diploma in Education	20	16.9
	MA in Education	12	10.2
Teaching experience	5-10	29	24.6
	11-15	26	22.0
	16-20	36	30.5
	21-25	17	14.4
	26 or more	10	8.5
Teaching position	Assistant teacher	4	3.4
	Teacher	33	28.0
	Master teacher	28	23.7
	Master teacher (A)	23	19.5
	Expert teacher	25	21.2
	Senior teacher	5	4.2

5.3.4 Questionnaire Data Analysis

The numerical data obtained from the questionnaires were entered into SPSS version 26.0 for statistical data analysis. Responses to open questions were entered into MAXQDA qualitative analysis software. Several checks of the accuracy of data entry were made while randomly checking participants' responses against the entered data. Items were coded and

categorized using short codes or variable names. A codebook was created on MAXQDA (for both numerical and non-numerical data), including the name/code assigned to each variable or category.

Numerical data were subjected to descriptive statistical analysis as an approach to understanding the data and finding patterns among participants. It should be noted that most of the closed items adapted from Rossiter et al. (2016) and related to vocabulary teaching and learning were analysed using only descriptive statistical analysis in the original study. The data were analysed for frequencies, dispersion (standard deviation) and central tendency (means, mode and median). More advanced statistical analysis was conducted later to see possible relationships (correlations) between results through the use of inferential statistics, including Chi-square tests, Pearson correlation tests, Kendall's tau-b correlation test, and advanced exploratory factor analysis (EFA) that involves several inferential steps to test the factorability of the data and to conduct the analysis itself. The following section gives more details on the procedures followed in performing EFA.

As for non-numerical data that were obtained from responses to open items, I used quantitative content analysis. Using the two stages of quantitative content analysis, i.e., segmentation and coding (Chi, 1997), words, phrases and sentences were segmented and coded with the help of MAXQDA. Where teachers were supposed to respond with one word or phrase, many of them responded with one or more sentences. With segmentation and coding, their responses were transformed into quantifiable data that could be subjected to frequency or classification analysis (Bos & Tarnai, 1999). Frequencies were then analysed and compared. It should be pointed out that some detailed or unanticipated responses seemed relevant to participants' cognitions or perceptions. Such responses were highlighted and kept as data that could add to other qualitative data obtained by other tools.

5.3.4.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

In order to find latent dimensions in their cognitions as teachers, 37 Likert-type items were grouped into one scale after code reversing the negatively worded items (items T8, T13, T22, T28). The scale was then tested for internal consistency and reliability. To be deemed suitable for exploratory factor analysis (EFA), a scale's Cronbach's alpha is considered acceptable if its value index is not below 0.70 (Phakiti, 2018). Cronbach's alpha test revealed a value of 0.678. "Cronbach's alpha if item deleted" revealed that deleting item T28. *Studying English is not suitable for students who have difficulty with learning in general* would increase Cronbach's α to the highest possible value of 0.704. Hence, the item was dropped from the scale to reach an acceptable level of reliability.

Before conducting EFA, it was essential to decide on factor extraction and rotation methods. Factor extraction helps with identifying underlying constructs or dimensions (factors) in the variables based on correlation coefficients while factor rotation helps with providing a solution that turns the initial process of factor extraction into a simple, interpretable factor solution (Fabrigar & Wegener, 2012; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). To begin with deciding on the extraction method to be utilized, the choice was between principal component analysis (PCA), principal axis factoring (PAF) and maximum likelihood (ML). There are also other available methods, but they have assumptions and purposes that are not particularly relevant to this study, e.g., unweighted least squares and generalized least squares. To choose from the former three methods, the objective of the analysis as well as the advantages and disadvantages of each method were considered.

The goal of the analysis is to look for the underlying structure of factors or constructs rather than reducing the data or the number of variables. PCA is more about reducing the data rather than looking for patterns (Fabrigar & Wegener, 2012; Loewen & Gonulal, 2015; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). PAF and ML were then considered more appropriate for

extracting latent factors. To determine which of them fits the goal of the analysis and the overall purpose of the study, the goals and assumptions of each method were considered. PAF is generally similar to PCA in the solutions they produce (Field, 2018) as well as in reducing data with the aim to “maximize variance extracted” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014, p. 688).

Bearing such considerations in mind, maximum likelihood (ML) seemed to be the most appropriate extraction method for conducting EFA within the scope of this study. Besides, as Strahan (1999) argues, “it allows for the computation of a wide range of indexes of the goodness of fit of the model [and] permits statistical significance testing of factor loadings and correlations among factors and the computation of confidence intervals” (p. 277).

As for the rotation method, the choice was between oblique rotation and orthogonal rotation. Orthogonal rotation assumes that the factors are uncorrelated while oblique rotation assumes the opposite (Fabrigar & Wegener, 2012). Also, orthogonal rotation makes interpretation easier, but it “strains reality” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014, p. 690). In other words, oblique rotation processes factors that are supposed to be correlated, yet they take more effort in interpreting their structure. However, such structure or model is more representative of objective reality. It should be noted, though, that Fabrigar and Wegener (2012) argue that oblique solutions are the ones that make interpretation easier. However, all agree that oblique rotation is more realistic. Besides, Loewen and Gonulal (2015) argue that “because most factors related to human cognition and language learning can be assumed to be related in some way, the most appropriate choice in L2 research is generally oblique rotation” (p. 197). With that in mind, the choice of oblique rotation seemed more plausible.

Following the choice of oblique rotation, it was also necessary to decide between one of the most common oblique rotation methods, i.e., direct oblimin and promax. According to

Thompson (2004), “when oblique rotation is necessary, *promax* rotation is almost always a good choice” (p. 43, italics original). Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) also suggest that promax rotation has the advantage of producing a simple optimized structure which helps with “clarifying which variables do and do not correlate with each factor” (p. 693).

After determining factor extraction and rotation methods to be utilized, it was necessary to test the factorability of the scale items to be extracted according to the assumptions of maximum likelihood method. ML assumes the normality of the items (multivariate normal distribution). So, with the help of SPSS v.26, the 21 items were tested for normality by checking the absolute values of skewness and kurtosis. The data can be considered normally distributed if the absolute value of each variable’s skewness is below 2.0, and its kurtosis value is below 7.0. (Fabrigar & Wegener, 2012). Results regarding the EFA assumptions and the factorability of items are presented in Chapter 7 prior to reporting the extracted factors.

5.4 Q sort

Q methodology is a systematic, scientific way of studying subjectivity that has been vigorously used in psychology and social studies. However, and since this study investigates dynamic beliefs that include emotions and contextual factors, this methodology can be a credible tool for understanding and interpreting the participants’ cognitions. The Q method is most useful when disagreements or controversial issues concerning beliefs or opinions occur between participants as it mainly focuses on the participant's internal frame of references rather than other external variables or perspectives (Cairns, 2012). The results of this method would help explain how far external frames may shape participants’ internal frames of reference: how teachers see those suppositions/concourse statements as individuals, and what similarities could be there among them as a group. As Irie (2014) explains:

Q methodology identifies the signature stories that exist within a particular group of people in a systematic way that provides a certain level of transparency to the process of interpretation. This transparency, in turn, alleviates some of the unease researchers from quantitative backgrounds often feel when encountering purely qualitative studies. (pp. 17-18)

As an attempt to find a scientific way to study human subjectivity, William Stephenson (1902-1989), an American physicist and psychologist, developed the Q methodology (Q hereafter) (Stephenson, 1935). Stephenson aimed to subject the hidden aspects of humans' perceptions to a measuring tool that uses statistics in accordance with the nature of the observed matter. In that sense, and as a "possibility for finding truth-value in subjectivity" (Goldman, 1999, p. 594), he proposed his vision of Q statistics according to which participants are viewed as variables that are factor analysed and their beliefs are viewed as cases that are subjectively (Q) sorted. Stephenson clearly stated that Q entails principles that are not usually addressed by R statistics, such as "psychological...and philosophy-of-science principles, besides statistical ones" (Stephenson, 1953, p. 16).

Q was criticized by many of Stephenson's peers for its break from the statistical norms, especially those of traditional factor analysis. The methodology was then disregarded or distrusted by most researchers until the last quarter of the twentieth century when researchers found plausible applications of the method. Backed by developments in computational methods, many researchers in various disciplines started adopting Q.

Although Bartels (2005) referred to the need to consider other research techniques like Q, among others, to study language teacher knowledge and beliefs, Q has been rarely used in language teacher studies; however, some studies implemented Q in studying teachers of other subjects.

For example, Reid (1999) used Q to study teachers' attitudes towards mentoring in initial teacher training. He tried to apply the required procedures of Q, but he ended up using principal component analysis rather than Q factor analysis. Rimm-Kaufman et al. (2006) used Q within the scope of school psychology to develop a Q sort to "measure ... teachers' priorities in relation to disciplinary practices, teaching practices, and beliefs about children" (p. 141), and it has been used since then under the name of *The Teacher Belief Q Sort* or the TBQ method.

Lim (2010) investigated the beliefs of kindergarten and nursery teachers in Singapore using Q. The teachers recruited in both studies were not particularly language teachers, and the focuses were more on their perceptions of children and their behaviours. Another study that approached teachers' attitudes was Fabela-Cárdenas (2012). The study focused on attitudes towards autonomous learning while using Q methodology, although the analysis was not typical of most Q procedures. The researcher used PCA to extract components and did not use rotation of any kind to find how the respondents would load on supposedly latent factors.

Starting in the last decade, some studies have used Q in the field of language learning rather than language teaching (e.g., Collins & Angelova, 2015; Irie & Ryan, 2015; Pemberton & Cooker, 2012). All used Q to study students' perceptions of issues related to language learning. Irie (2014) drew attention to the usability of and need for considering Q as a research method that would help with studying and researching beliefs and perceptions in second language learning and acquisition in light of the sociocultural turn. However, there was no reference to its applicability in language teacher cognition.

The closest study to language teacher beliefs was an unpublished PhD dissertation (Culpepper, 2015) that looked into first-language teachers' beliefs about reading. The focus was on teaching English Language Arts and teachers' beliefs through the lens of self-

efficacy. However, and probably because of the scarcity of literature in using Q in teacher beliefs, the researcher chose to use procedures closer to the statistical norms of R by applying steps common with regular factor analysis rather than the procedures and techniques adopted by Q methodologists.

Another study that addressed language teachers' beliefs was Irie et al. (2018). The study investigated language teacher beliefs through the concept of mindsets. Although emotions and feelings were considered, the dynamicity and complexity of cognition were viewed through the lens of psychological, intrapersonal processes rather than social, contextual, interpersonal factors.

5.4.1 Q Sort as Mixed Methodology

Q is considered by many as a mixed method approach (e.g., Brown, 1993; Newman, 2011; Ramlo & Smith, 2001; Watts & Stenner, 2005), which sidesteps the controversy as to whether it is merely quantitative or qualitative. Those who consider Q quantitative think of the statistical Q factor analysis procedures that rely on numbers. Others who consider it qualitative think of the way views and perceptions are sorted by the participants' subjective decisions and the rotation method preferred by many Q-methodologists, i.e., judgmental (or by hand) rotation, which relies heavily on the researcher's perspective and her or his judgment when it comes to extracting the most representative factors. In all cases, developments in statistical methods and the ongoing debates among researchers using Q have led to a common ground of mutual understanding that incorporates both quantitative and qualitative processes without being jeopardized by the limits of both.

5.4.1.1 The Q Set (Statements)

Q, as a research technique, starts basically with the process of selecting the statements that will be sorted by the potential participants. These selected statements are known as the Q set or Q sample. They should be derived from the context of what Brown (1980) calls

“conversational possibilities” (p. 259) around a certain topic or what is known in Q terminology as a concourse. Quoting Wittgenstein, Brown refers to the concept of concourse in light of Wittgenstein’s theory about language as “part of an activity, or of a form of life” (p. 23). Concourse, in this sense, is based on common language and verbal expressions shared and understood among people of a certain group, profession, affiliation, etc. Those people express their opinions and viewpoints about a topic of interest to them in “the ordinary conversation, commentary, and discourse of everyday life” Brown (1993, p. 94). In their argument of the connection between Wittgenstein’s form of life and Q and concourse, McKenzie and Brown (2014) note that:

Forms of life extend to specialized situations, or to the “suburbs of our language” as Wittgenstein (1971, p. 8) expressed it. In this connection, Wittgenstein made reference to the symbolism of chemistry and the special notations of calculus, but it is easy to see how this would apply as well to Q methodology and its specialized vocabulary of concourse, factor loadings, operantcy, and the like, as well as to its statistical formulas and their applications. (p. 98)

From this concourse, the researcher derives statements that could exemplify the most recurrent opinions or perceptions around the point of inquiry. Those statements make up the Q set. The potential respondents will then sort them in the grid according to their own understanding and subjectivity.

Bearing in mind the complexity of LTC and the aims of the research, it was not an easy task to confine the range of possible cognitions to a definite set of statements or views which the participants choose to agree or disagree with. However, based on the results of the questionnaire items, especially open ones, some frequent themes and/or statements appeared as possible constituents of some statements for the Q set. Also, some other statements were based on the guidelines suggested in The National Curriculum Framework for English as a

Foreign Language (EFL): Grades 1–12 (Egyptian Ministry of Education, 2012), which is available online and supposed to be the guiding script for learning and teaching English in public schools in Egypt although all the teachers I met had no idea about it. Some other statements and viewpoints were developed from common themes and topics raised on social media groups that have been created by English teachers in Egypt. One of them has more than 500.000 members who discuss the daily issues and concerns of the teachers. The literature on language teacher beliefs among NNESTs was also a source of other statements.

The developed Q set was meant to include aspects related to different dimensions considering the dynamic and complex features of cognition, bearing in mind the role of context and the teacher's personal and professional interaction with it. The Q set was gradually selected from more than 200 possible statements. After reviewing all of them and discussing some of them with other teachers and scholars in the fields of language education, they were reduced to 42 statements. The deselection process relied mainly on finding similarities between some statements and choosing the most representative ones or deciding the relevance of some statements to the actual context of ELT in Egypt rather than the common expectations or beliefs about teaching English worldwide. Also, the selection process aimed to focus on statements that would actuate personal, professional and social viewpoints on which most teachers may feel willing to state their stances.

5.4.2 The P Set (Respondents)

The P set in Q refers to the respondents that may share mutual or contrasting views about a certain topic or point of inquiry. According to Ernest (2011), “the proportion of people chosen can be balanced or unbalanced” (p. 227). So, they may be teachers who teach the same subject or teachers, inspectors and school principals working together for the same purpose. Since respondents are viewed as variables in Q and generalization is not an aim, random sampling is not advised (Brown, 1980; Watts & Stenner, 2012), and sample size

should not exceed the number of statements in the Q set (Watts & Stenner, 2012). What matters in Q is the variability of viewpoints and the common grounds that a group of participants may share as factors that indicate mutual perceptions among them. Based on the above principles, 25 teachers were selected using snowball sampling techniques. All participants have been teaching English in Egyptian public schools for more than five years.

All participants volunteered willingly. None of them had done Q sorting before, although they were familiar with other methods used by researchers who usually visit their schools to distribute questionnaires or run short interviews with them. Every teacher was instructed in Arabic on what they were expected to do in the process, along with their ethical rights.

5.4.2.1 Demographic Data of Q Sort Respondents

The following table displays the demographic data of respondents who participate in Q sorts (also known as the P-set).

Table 5.3

P-set Demographics: Demographic Data of Q sort Respondents (n=25)

Category		Males	Females
Gender		18	7
Qualifications:	Bachelor of Arts (English)	10	-
	Bachelor of Education (English)	8	7
Teaching experience:	5-10 years	-	5
	11-15 years	2	2
	16-20 years	11	-
	21-25 years	2	-
	25+ years	3	-
Grade levels taught:	Primary	2	1
	Primary and prep	8	2
	Prep	2	4
	Prep and secondary	2	-
	Secondary	4	-
School settings:	Rural	13	3
	Urban	5	4

5.4.3 Q Sort Procedures

The typical process of sorting the statements includes a grid designed according to Q basics where positive values indicating agreement are to the right of the participant, negative values to the left, and neutral value of zero in the middle of the grid. Respondents are supposed to have a stack of the selected statements, go through all of them once to understand the general theme or themes, and then divide the stack into three groups or smaller stacks and in accordance with their agreement, neutrality or disagreement preferences prior to sorting. They can ask questions to elicit more information or to ensure an understanding of the content; however, the researcher is supposed to refrain from affecting their viewpoints and only explain the literal meanings of words. The point is that the entire Q is about the participant's subjectivity, which should not be tainted by the researcher's subjectivity. During sorting itself, participants can comment on some statements or their decision to place them on certain cells. They might feel stuck or undecided at some stage, but they have to go on and finish all the cells in the grid according to their momentarily subjective preferences or inclinations without having to give them much thought. However, they have the right to take more time to decide the rank of each statement. They can also change or swap ranks freely.

The researcher piloted the process with three teachers. The plan was to do the sorting in the same fashion described above and then have a short interview with the participant for any post-procedural comments that may add to understanding their viewpoints in sorting the statements. However, after finishing their first Q sort, participants did not have anything specific to say, and every time they referred me to the rankings they had chosen for the statements without feeling like adding more information or explanations. As an alternative to post-procedural interview and after consulting my supervisor, she suggested videotaping their hand movements on the grid during the process of sorting without showing their faces. All of

them consented willingly and preferred it to short interviews. The recorded videos added another dimension to the interpretation of factors that may help understand which statements were moved from one rank to another after being initially placed on a different rank. Such instances of hesitation could help explain which statements and viewpoints were reconsidered in light of their final decisions.

After piloting the process with three teachers, other teachers were contacted to do the actual sorting. Using snowball sampling, those who were willing to participate contacted their colleagues or friends, asking if they would like to participate. The 25 participants completed the process properly and did not mind the videotaping of their hand movements while recording their comments.

All participants were given the choice to decide what time and place suited them the best. All teachers were given the instructions explained previously. They followed the instructions accordingly, yet some preferred to do the sorting after reviewing the stack without dividing it into three groups. Their rationale was that they would look at each statement and decide where it goes on the grid directly. The majority of participants did not comment at all while sorting. The time spent on each sort was between 15 minutes to 25 minutes, including the time spent on going over the stack. Part of the time differences was due to participants' hesitations on deciding the position of some statements or because some preferred reading the statements while sorting.

Subjectivity was apparent in the way each respondent preferred to do the process. Some of them read the whole Q set in advance and ranked all of them without any hesitancy. Some preferred to start with agreement followed by disagreement and then neutrality. Some started with neutrality and then moved between agreement and disagreement. In all cases, most of them looked more hesitant towards the end of the process. It was at that time that the instances of ranking shifts occurred more. And although some felt trapped or unhappy about

not having more room for agreement or disagreement for certain remaining statements, all of them found a way to express their overall stance or perception deciding the final rankings of all statements.

It could be relevant here to cite Brown's (1980) lengthy, yet noteworthy, quote that can help understand why sorts are finalized in such a way. The quote also hints at Wittgenstein's concept of language-game and how it could be linked to the implementation of Q as a tool.

The thrust of Q methodology is therefore not one of predicting what a person will say, but in getting him to say it in the first place (i.e., by representing it as a Q sort) in the hopes that we may be able to discover something about what he means when he says what he does. This immediately brings us back to the principles of contextuality and dynamics. Lasswell (1948: 218) has summarized the contextual principle as succinctly as anyone: "The meaning of any detail depends upon its relation to the whole context of which it is a part." This principle ... is akin to what Wittgenstein (1971a: 3.3) appears to have had in mind when he stated that "only in the nexus of a proposition does a name have meaning."...within the more limited confines of a Q-sorting session it serves to draw attention away from the logical meaning of isolated words and phrases and to seek their meaning in terms of the "flavor added" by the total milieu of the accompanying behavioral field. Wittgenstein (1971b: 181-182) has noted that words in a sentence can display different aspects depending on the degree to which they carry the principal stress of the sentence. (pp. 46-47)

5.4.3.1 Q Sort Data Analysis

The collected data from the 25 Q-sorts were entered into MS Excel in accordance with the format processible via Ken-Q software, also available freely as KADE desktop application (Banasick, 2019), which is a recently developed open-source software designed to

analyse Q-sort data statistically. The software analyses the data in accordance with statistical procedures adopted by most Q-methodologists or relevant software developers (Brown, 1980; Schmolck, 2014; Walker & McCline, 2018; Watts & Stenner, 2012). It is one of the few freely available statistical packages that allow for centroid factor extraction as well as judgmental or by hand rotation along with PCA and varimax rotation. After processing the statistical data using Ken-Q software, the qualitative data obtained through the recorded videos of the participants' hand movements were also analysed to add possible interpretations or explanations to the extracted factors and help elaborate any common variations in the participants' loadings on one factor or the other.

One difficult decision concerned the type of factor analysis: principal components analysis (PCA) or centroid factor analysis (CFA). PCA is common in R factor analysis, as it reduces data by extracting common components or patterns in data. Therefore, Stephenson and his students and associates do not recommend using PCA because it does not extract latent factors from Q-sorts data (Brown, 1980; Stephenson, 1953; Watts & Stenner, 2012). Although it assumes the possible existence of identical sorts, identity is not expected in Q sorts (Newman & Ramlo, 2010). It is known, though, for giving a statistical solution that does not make any a priori assumptions about variance among variables (participants). The point is that PCA is known for its determinacy and therefore valued by many statisticians (Brown, 1993).

However, considering the fact that Q methodologists seek to study human subjectivity with its myriad of dimensions and undetermined aspects, it would be unbecoming to look for the best solution or explanation and abandon the possible. That is probably why Brown (1993), as well as Stephenson (1982, 1987), lean on quantum theory as scientific evidence that indeterminacy does not violate possible statistical solutions. The difference between CFA and PCA is that in the former, "communality estimates (sum of the squared factor

loadings) are used in the matrix diagonal instead of 1s, as in PCA” (Ramlo, 2016, p. 77). Such calculations lead to infinite solutions that make it possible for the Q researcher to go beyond the most statistically appropriate solution. Stephenson (1953) explained his rationale clearly when he stated that CFA “leaves open for us innumerable possible solutions, and the concreteness of inferential interbehavior ... contemplates, no less, innumerable possibilities in the pursuit of scientific investigations” (p. 39). CFA is therefore valued for its indeterminacy.

For the sake of objectivity, and in order to maximize an exploratory approach to the available data, a PCA was initially run using Ken-Q software. This analysis was followed later by a CFA, the extraction method that is usually adopted by Q methodologists (Brown, 1980; Stephenson, 1953; Watts & Stenner 2012).

Using Ken-Q software, the data from the 25 sorts were correlated and then analysed using PCA. Q analysis applications do not extract more than eight factors based on Brown’s assertion that when it comes to the number of extracted factors, “experience has indicated that ‘the magic number 7’ is generally suitable” (Brown 1980, p. 223). Thus, eight components were extracted with eigenvalues between 6.70 for the first component and 1.15 for the eighth. The first six components have eigenvalues higher than 1.5. The eight extracted factors counted for 73% of the accumulated explained variance. These PCA results indicated that the participants obviously shared common patterns or components.

The data were correlated and then factor-analysed using CFA. Following Brown’s recommendation of suitability (the magic number 7), I ran the CFA with a predetermined fixed number of 7 factors to be extracted. The analysis resulted in 5 factors with eigenvalues between 5.98 for the first factor and 1.09 for the fifth factor with an accumulated explained variance of 44%, which is a good solution according to Watts and Stenner (2012), who state that when it comes to variance “anything in the region of 35–40% or above would ordinarily be considered a sound solution on the basis of common factors” (p. 105).

Although eigenvalues are not the only criterion for selecting factors in CFA, they give an indication along with the variance explained as to whether they should be considered or not. Moreover, based on Brown (1980), significant factor loadings were also used to determine the number of factors to be selected for rotation. According to Brown, if one factor has two or more significant loadings at the level of 0.01, it should be considered for rotation. Applying Humphrey's rule, as suggested by Brown (1980) and Watts and Stenner (2012), according to which "a factor is significant if the cross-product of its two highest loadings (ignoring the sign) exceeds twice the standard error" (Brown, 1980, p. 223), five significant factors were selected for rotation.

Following CFA, varimax orthogonal rotation was used as one of the commonly used methods in Q methodology (Brown, 2004; McKeown & Thomas, 2013), which seeks a simple structure of the extracted factors. McKeown and Thomas (2013) explain the outcome of varimax rotation in Q as follows:

Q sorts will have high loadings on one factor, with near-zero loadings on the other(s). Simple structure enhances interpretation insofar as factor types bear a fairly direct correspondence to "known quantities"—actual Q sorts or traits in R—with the amount of "muddling" due to mixed and null cases being held to a minimum. (p. 55)

Although Stephenson and his successors are more inclined to using judgmental (also called by-hand) rotation, as it allows more room for researchers to explore the extracted factors from their perspectives, they are not in complete favour of using it instead of varimax. Watts and Stenner (2012) stated clearly that as with so many things in Q methodology, there is no definitive right or wrong way of proceeding with factor rotation. People tend to have their own preferences, but one method is not definitively superior to the other. They also quoted Brown (1980), who stressed that the preference of one rotation method to the other depends on what the researcher looks for and what type of data he or she deals with.

With this in mind, and because judgmental rotation is not free from the researcher's subjectivity and personal perspective, in addition to the exploratory and non-interventional aim of this study as well as the researcher's neutrality and objectivity regarding what beliefs or views the respondents may hold, varimax was the rotation method performed to reach a statistically unbiased and simple structure of the common factors.

After applying varimax rotation, five 'idealized' or representative Q sorts (also known as factor arrays) were generated by Ken-Q software. Each factor array is representative of the statements loaded the highest on each factor according to the factor scores and ranked in approximated or similar positions by the participants. As varimax rotation works through simple statistics of weighted averages (means), the z-score, which is "a weighted average of the values that the Q-sorts most closely related to the factor give to a statement" (Zabala & Pascual, 2016, p. 5 of 19), determined the rank of each statement in the idealized sort. The z-scores also identified the distinguishing statements in each sort with values significant at $P < 0.05$ and $P < 0.01$ as well as which of these distinguishing statements ranked higher or lower in a certain factor than in all other factors.

5.5 Interviews

With a focus on sociocultural factors, the interview prompts and questions were designed to give the participants a chance to elaborate more on their cognitions and practices regarding teaching EFL and its vocabulary. Although they were conducted in the third phase of the study, they are considered primary since they allowed going deeper into each informant's cognitions, experiences and practices. Not many questionnaire respondents indicated their willingness to participate in the interview. I tried to include both male and female informants from different regions in Egypt. Those who expressed their willingness to participate in the interview were contacted by email or phone calls. Many of them politely declined or did not respond to the calls. Some informants told me later that some teachers

may worry about their anonymity or being unable to respond to some questions, thinking that they would be asked about pedagogical and/or linguistic topics they are not fully aware of. It should also be noted that many teachers have a tight schedule during the school year because of giving private lessons for long hours after school and even on weekends. So, along with the few participants who had participated in the questionnaire and/or the Q sorts and agreed to take part in the interviews, more from different regions in Egypt were contacted through acquaintances and other informants. The fourteen informants were given the choice to do the interview anywhere they choose or online via voice calls. Most informants and I preferred to do it outside the school to make it a more relaxed conversation away from the formal settings of the school and the time limits that most teachers have during the school day.

Because of the tight schedules of most informants, I limited the interviews to one interview per each informant. The interviews typically lasted an hour or an hour and a half in some cases. In two cases, the interviews were interrupted due to two informants' other commitments, but they were resumed later. All interviews were voice recorded after the informants' permission.

The interviews followed a semi-structured in-depth pattern following a protocol developed earlier (see Appendix E). Most interview questions were open-ended to give room for the informants' articulation of their own thoughts and emotions. All informants were encouraged to use Arabic (their MT) during the interview. However, two of them insisted on using English. I aimed at turning the interview into a friendly and respectful conversation to allow the informants to speak their minds without worrying about social desirability or sounding 'professional'. Many informants repeatedly used the word "frankly" to indicate that what they were about to say is not what would be said in more guarded similar situations. Others used an Egyptian expression that can be literally translated to "Do you want the truth or its cousin?" The reference to cousin refers to a sugar-coated truth that people usually say

in more guarded similar situations, especially when asked about political or professional matters. In other cases, some informants preceded their answers with “as you already know” to indicate that I share the same culture and I should know the answer to the question.

5.5.1 Interview Informant Demographics

The following table shows the fourteen interview informants’ demographic data. Real names were replaced with anonymous labels; the first letter indicates gender (M for male and F for female).

Table 5.4

Interview Informant Demographics (n=14)

Name	Age	Qualifications	Teaching experience		Position	Current school	Private tutoring
			Years	Stages taught			
FT1	39	BA.E., DipEd.	17	Prep	Master teacher (A)	Prep	No
MT2	40	BA.E.	18	Secondary	Master teacher (A)	Secondary	Yes
MT3	46	BA.E.	25	Prep & secondary	Expert teacher	Prep	Yes
FT4	35	BA.E.Ed., BA.E.	14	Prep & secondary	Master teacher	Prep	No
MT5	38	BA.E.Ed.	16	All stages	Master teacher (A)	Prep	Yes
MT6	39	BA.E.Ed.	16	Primary	Master teacher (A)	Primary	Yes
MT7	34	BA.E.Ed.	12	All stages	Master teacher	Secondary	Yes
MT8	29	BA.E.Ed.	7	Primary & prep	Teacher	Prep	Yes
FT9	48	BA.E.Ed., DipEd, UK.	26	All stages	Expert teacher	Secondary	No
FT10	43	BA.E., DipEd, MA.Ed.	21	Prep & secondary	Expert teacher	Secondary	No
MT11	39	BA.E.Ed.	17	Primary	Master teacher (A)	Primary	Yes
MT12	44	BA.E., DipEd., MA.Ed.	22	Primary & prep	Expert teacher	Prep	No
MT13	34	BA.E.Ed.	12	Primary & prep	Master teacher	Prep	Yes
FT14	32	BA.E.Ed.	10	All stages	Teacher	Prep	Yes

Note. BA.E. stands for BA in English. BA.E.Ed. stands for BA in English and Education. DipEd. stands for Diploma in Education. MA.Ed. stands for Master’s in Education.

5.5.2 Transcribing Interview Data

Turning the audio recordings of interviews into written data took place after each interview to familiarize myself with the data and get an early feel of the emerging themes. The process took around three months. Except for two transcriptions of interviews done in English, I translated the other twelve interviews done in Arabic into English. I had experience in educational translation, but an Egyptian EFL teacher with a background in professional translation revised and validated the translation. The informants were contacted verbally or by email to ensure their approval and ask for any comments they may have had. Of the twelve informants, four did not respond to the emails while others approved the translations and had no further comments on them. I then typed and entered all transcriptions into MAXQDA qualitative analysis software, which helped with timely and organized coding. The transcriptions were revised several times for any possible errors, and several readings were done while taking notes and adding memos.

5.5.3 Coding

The qualitative component of the research aimed at uncovering reality from the perspectives of teachers while adopting a postmodern, constructivist approach based on the assumption that “there are multiple perspectives on reality and that the aim of research is to explore and document this diversity” (Friedman, 2012, p. 181). Considering this, I adopted an open inquiry approach in interviewing and observing teachers while allowing them to introduce me to findings and themes that seemed to frame their cognitions and shape their worlds. This approach was also inductive in the sense of trying to understand and interpret what the data yielded based on several pieces of the puzzle that could together help with explaining the phenomenon. Therefore, every attempt was made to make both interviews and observations occur in naturalistic settings in which my role or influence as an interviewer or an observer was kept to the minimum.

Therefore, in my approach to interview data analysis, I used thematic analysis as “a form of pattern recognition within the data, where emerging themes become the categories for analysis” (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006, p. 82). My strategies in collecting and analysing the qualitative data were mainly guided by the strategies proposed by Saldaña (2014): “to foresee”, “to survey”, “to collect”, “to feel”, “to organize”, “to jot”, “to prioritize”, “to pattern”, and “to code” (pp. 582-584). By foreseeing and surveying, the author meant reflecting on and considering what types of qualitative data and data analysis approaches would fit the purpose of a certain study. As for “to feel”, it proved useful in exploring LTC as it was important to “to gain deep emotional insight into the social worlds [under study] ...and what it means to be human” (p. 583).

Although I planned to use MAXQDA software to help with coding the data, I first used a hard copy of the transcriptions to start the process of initial coding by hand to circle and highlight chunks of text that seemed to imply certain meanings or constructs specific to each informant. Following thematic analysis approach, coding was used in a way where “codes are added to segments of the data, which are reassembled to represent emergent themes that often cut across individual cases” (Benson, 2018, p. 604). However, individual cases were also considered when some relevant themes seemed pertinent to their own histories and shed more light on their own experiences and cognitions.

I started initial or open coding with the aim of transferring the raw data into small segments or semantic units of meaning (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Codes were assigned to key concepts and meanings reflected in the textual data while caring for their context and the implications that informants attempted to convey. Examples of using idioms and culturally-bound expressions were also highlighted (while referring to their original Arabic equivalents) to discuss their possible connotations, especially in reference to the informants’ cognitions. I adopted an inductive approach within a short provisional start list of codes (Miles &

Huberman 1994) relevant to the research questions and the theoretical framework of the study. The start list was mainly about concepts related to theoretical, pedagogical or linguistic ideas that would be normally anticipated in the study. For matters related to their cognitions, I mostly allowed the data to lead me into unanticipated meanings and concepts. Open coding was repeated with every transcription while reading it line by line. I also allowed intervals to reflect on possible hidden constructs between the lines.

After reaching saturation, I started the process of axial coding (Böhm, 2004) by looking for relationships between the initial codes, which would help with categorizing them into constructs. After organizing the codes into categories or constructs, “the key features of the phenomenon under study” (Riazi, 2016b, p. 15) were generally identified. During the processes of open coding and axial coding, I kept highlighting and noting individual instances of concepts and meanings that seemed specific to each individual informant or group of informants. The point was to consider nuances of cognition that could be associated with a certain construct, yet it would add more depth if it receives more attention as a separate category.

Following axial coding, the selective coding process was conducted to identify themes and subthemes that hold certain categories or constructs together through stages of refinement and integration (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Themes were identified and re-identified based on the possible links between the categories. And while looking for commonalities in themes, individual data were also considered for noteworthy differences or idiosyncrasies. However, and as Saldana (2013) notes, differences do not necessarily mean separate categories or themes as “commonality consists of differences” (p. 6).

5.6 Observation

Borg (2006a) notes that classroom observation as a research method “has a central role to play in the study of [LTC] by providing a concrete descriptive basis in relation to what

teachers know” (p. 231). The focus of this study is not limited to what teachers know as cognitions go beyond knowledge to include other multidimensional aspects. However, classroom observation would shed more light on their practices in relation with their cognitions or, in other words, what they do *in situ* in its connection with what they report they do. In all cases, observation is intrusive and may influence the practices of the teacher (Cowie, 2009) since the presence of an observer is not a norm in their classes.

Teachers in Egypt, as in many other countries, are accustomed to unexpected classroom visits from inspectors, principals or supervisors from EMOE. However, and as will be discussed in the findings chapter, many teachers reported that they usually change their practices to meet the expectations of the official observer. For this reason, every possible attempt was exhausted to make sure that my presence as a naturalistic observer would have the least influence on what the observed teachers did in their classes.

The preliminary plan was to observe four teachers, each in two different sessions during one of which they teach according to their reported cognitions, and in the other, they teach as they usually do. There was also a plan to use short vocabulary quizzes with their students after each session to look for possible influence of the teacher’s approach on students’ performance. However, I realized later, especially during the interviews, that such a technique presupposes a clear borderline between their cognitions and practices. It could also lead to more intrusion that may affect the usefulness of the method.

Therefore, I aimed to observe teachers who would clearly welcome my presence for one session with no obligations. I also made sure that their agreement to being observed come directly from them and would cause no trouble or any issues with the school administration. Three of the observed teachers offered to ask their school principals about the possibility of visiting their classrooms for one session. The principal of the fourth teacher’s school was a previous acquaintance. I talked with him directly, and he willingly accepted my

presence in his school. The three male teachers I observed were familiar with me because we used to live in the same region, and we had many previous encounters before. This helped with making the observation session relatively relaxed, and I assumed that they would not have to change any practices as they were assured that my notes would have no personal or professional consequences of any kind. The female teacher had not known me in person before interviewing her, but I was introduced to her by the school principal. After the interview, she willingly expressed her acceptance of my visit to one of her classes on a later date that would suit her. I also confirmed the same regarding the absence of any unpleasant consequences of my observation.

The observational role I adopted according to the situation mentioned above could be described as a participant-as-observer (less professional/formal distance and more possibility of intrusion) in the sessions of the three male teachers with whom I had developed previous relationships, and they were aware of the nature of my research and the reasons for my presence in their classes. Since I had not developed a relationship with the observed female teacher, and my presence was more relatively formal as an observer, I adopted an observer-as-participant role (Burgess, 1984 as cited in Borg, 2006a), which entails relatively more professional distance and less possibility of intrusion. The four teachers had been previously informed of the purpose of the research and signed a consent form. They willingly accepted audio recording of observation sessions. I preferred audio recording as a less intrusive technique that would minimize the effect of the observer. The sessions were recorded using HT Professional Recorder application (Applied Voices LLC) on an iPad tablet device (Apple, Inc., Cupertino, CA).

Although I had previously interviewed and transcribed the responses of the four teachers, I did not use a structured observation scheme in which predetermined checklist of categories is employed to document what happens in class (Cohen et al., 2000). Taking the

aims of the research and qualitative open inquiry principles into account, I aimed at observing their practices and comparing them to what they reported while also considering all other unexpected incidents that could take place in the setting and would add to the data. Hence, I adopted semi-structured observation as an appropriate scheme that has “an agenda of issues but will gather data to illuminate these issues in a far less pre-determined or systematic manner” (Cohen et al., 2000, p. 305).

The times of observation sessions was prearranged with each teacher at his/her convenience. I asked them to make sure that it was one of their regular lessons, which normally includes, but is not limited to, vocabulary teaching as part of the textbook lesson. All teachers introduced me to their students briefly, telling them that I was there for research purposes and that they did not have to worry or act differently (in a possible reference to inspectors’ visits). I chose an available seat at the back of each classroom where I would be the least visible to the students and not distract the teacher with whom I kept the minimum eye contact. Two teachers told me that I could comment or interrupt what they were doing if I wanted. I urged them to try to disregard my presence all the time and do what they regularly did. Few students in each class seemed interested in the strange visitor. Some of them kept looking back to see what I was doing, and some of those who participated in answering the teachers’ questions looked back after giving a correct answer. The teachers were notified when I started or stopped audio recording at the end of the session. Along with audio recordings, I also took notes but attempted to keep them short and less occurring to also avoid looking like an official supervisor or inspector, which might have affected the teachers’ behaviours.

5.6.1 Demographic Data of Observed Teachers

The following table shows biodata of the observed teachers and the settings on which they were observed. The observed teachers (MT2, MT3, MT6, and FT14) had already participated in the interviews, and each was willing to participate in one observation session.

Table 5.5

Observation Participant Demographics (n=4)

Teacher	Age	Experience	Setting	Grade
MT6	39	16	Urban	5 th year - primary
FT14	32	10	Rural	1 st year - preparatory
MT2	40	18	Urban	3 rd year - secondary
MT3	46	25	Rural	2 nd year - preparatory

5.6.2 Analysis of Observation Data

The observation data was transcribed and entered into MAXQDA software. Notes taken during observation were added with corresponding timestamps. The data were then coded and categorized. Comparative analysis was used with parts of data related to what the teacher did in class (teaching strategies and techniques) versus what they reported in the interviews. The approach was mostly deductive. Other parts of data that could be related to their cognitions, knowledge, reactions or other unexpected categories were analysed using thematic analysis. During transcribing and categorizing data, I continually referred to their transcribed interviews to check any possible links between what they reported and what happened in the classes.

5.7 Ethical Considerations

All participants were willing volunteers who got informed consent forms (see Appendix L) with all the details that explained to them the nature of the research, any possible discomforts, benefits, the extent of confidentiality, along with contact details of the researcher and other persons who could answer any questions raised by them. The

participants were also informed about their right to discontinue participation at any time and without any consequences. Confidentiality was verbally confirmed and strictly maintained as the study investigated issues that could sound risky or sensitive to some participants.

Chapter 6: Teachers as Young Learners

This chapter presents and discusses findings related to RQ1 on Egyptian NNESTs' cognitions about their prior learning experience (PLE). The chapter is organized in four sections. The first two sections (section 6.1 and section 6.2) are devoted to their PLE in learning EFL; the other two (section 6.3 and section 6.4) are focused on their PLE in learning English vocabulary. Section 6.1 addresses the findings from the questionnaire followed by section 6.2, which presents the findings from the semi-structured interviews. The sections are organized to reflect possible complementarity in the findings between the questionnaire and the interviews. With this in mind, section 6.3 and section 6.4 follow the same pattern, where the former addresses the questionnaire findings related to their vocabulary learning and the latter provides the interview findings.

6.1 Prior EFL Learning: Questionnaire Findings

The following subsections present and discuss the findings from the questionnaire items focusing on exploring participants' cognitions about their PLE as young learners and their past teachers' approaches to teaching English in general. First, the findings related to their cognitions about their past teachers' practices in language teaching are presented (subsection 6.1.1), followed by their cognitions about their past good EFL teachers (subsection 6.1.2). The final subsection (subsection 6.1.3) presents their reported satisfaction with the way they were taught specific language skills and components.

6.1.1 Cognitions About Past Teachers' Practices

The analysis of questionnaire responses showed that the EFL teachers in this study had some critical views about their own past teachers' practices but appreciated their attitudes. In their response to item A7 (see Appendix D) about what they would have liked their past EFL teachers to change in their teaching, more than 90% of the participants ($n=110$) identified teaching methods, including the focus on literacy skills, grammar and

vocabulary, teacher-centred approaches, and examination orientation. Fewer than 10% of participants would have liked their teachers to change their attitudes, pronunciation, use of mother tongue, content knowledge, and assessment strategies. Many of these aspects are related to presumably common methods of teaching that focused less on spoken language.

Table 6.1

What Participants Would Have Liked Their Past Teachers to Change

Aspects of change	<i>n</i>
Teaching methods	35
Unspecified	35
Focus on reading and writing	16
Grammar instruction	12
Teacher-centred approach	9
Little use of technology or aids	9
Vocabulary instruction	6
Traditional methods	5
Exam-oriented teaching	5
Writing instruction	4
Listening instruction	4
Little contextualization	3
Little focus on EFL culture	2
Attitude in class	19
Pronunciation	15
Using Arabic	10
Content knowledge	4
Assessments	2

On a similar note, questionnaire item A2 (see Appendix D) addressed what they thought their past teachers could have done to improve their ways of teaching English, with 77% of the participants (n=91) indicating they would have liked improvements in some aspects like communicative language teaching (CLT), learner-centred approach, using authentic materials and instructional aids, and focusing more on pronunciation. Some participants also mentioned that their past teachers could have updated their pedagogical content knowledge and improved their English pronunciation. A few participants highlighted

teachers' attitudes in class. The frequencies of their responses are presented in the table below.

Table 6.2

What Participants Would Have Liked Their Past Teachers to Improve

Improvement aspect	<i>n</i>	
Teaching methods	More communicative approach	25
	Better teaching methods	16
	Less traditional	12
	More learner-centred	10
	Less use of Arabic	10
	Use of instructional aids	8
	More focus on pronunciation	8
	Use of authentic materials	2
Updating pedagogical content knowledge – getting training	29	
Improving their pronunciation	6	
Better attitude in class	4	

The findings suggest that most in-service teachers are aware of the nature of language learning and how it should be based on communication rather than traditional rote-learning and teacher-centred approaches. This finding corroborates findings from Moodie's (2016) study on Korean EFL teachers and Nguyen's (2011) study on Vietnamese EFL teachers. Both found that the participants would have preferred their past English teachers to use less traditional and more communicative approaches. However, Moodie found that teachers in his study tended to do the opposite of what they did not like about their past teachers' methods, and he referred to that as "anti-apprenticeship of observation" (p. 33). Nguyen, on the other hand, found that teachers tolerated their past teachers' traditional methods because of historical limitations. They also resorted to them when the context, from their perspectives, necessitated their implementation. As regards Egyptian EFL teachers, the findings also coincide with Gahin's (2001) study, which found that EFL teachers were critical of past

teachers' traditional methods, but they used similar methods in their practices, which he attributed to extrinsic and intrinsic constraints.

6.1.2 Cognitions About Past Good EFL Teachers

In order to explore their positive cognitions about their past English teachers, item A5 asked the participants to mention their past favourite EFL teacher and the reason for picking them. Based on the pronouns or titles used to refer to them, 101 participants mentioned male teachers, and 8 participants mentioned female teachers. 9 participants responded with 'none', and one of them commented that they were greedy (in a possible reference to enforcing private tutoring). Another one commented that they were not good at pronunciation.

Of the 101 participants who mentioned male teachers, 97 mentioned one or more characteristics of the teacher by describing him or his behaviour in class. Most responses were about the teacher's professional skills ($n=85$), followed by his interpersonal and personal skills or attributes ($n=55$). Some referred to how the teacher made them love English or enjoy studying it ($n=11$), which may indicate the teacher's personal influence on them.

In reference to their favourite teacher's effective methods as part of their professional skills ($n=19$), participants mainly described how the teacher was good at teaching English. However, some mentioned specific approaches, like teaching language skills integratively or engaging students in class through implementing interactive strategies. Overall, most responses indicated that they liked knowledgeable teachers who used effective methods of teaching and made them interested in learning while encouraging and helping them in a friendly, caring way. The following table gives an account of the frequencies of their responses.

Table 6.3*Characteristics of Past Favourite Male EFL Teachers*

	Characteristic/skill/action	<i>n</i>
Professional	Used effective teaching methods	19
	Made us love English/enjoy studying it	11
	Knowledgeable	9
	Good at pronunciation/teaching pronunciation	9
	Made us use/practice English	6
	Good at teaching grammar	6
	Clever	5
	Simplified the content	5
	Good at teaching vocabulary	5
	Used English all the time	3
	Creative	2
	Organized	1
	Talented	1
	Fluent	1
	Qualified	1
Able	1	
Interpersonal	Encouraged me/us	11
	Helpful	11
	Friendly	7
	Kind	3
	Tolerant/patient	3
	Respected us	1
	Believed in us	1
	Firm	1
	Fatherly	1
Personal	Funny	4
	Good person	2
	Perfect in everything	2
	Inspiring	2
	Self-confident	1
	Charismatic	1
	Intelligent	1
	Optimistic	1
	Passionate	1
	Role model	1

Of the eight participants who chose female teachers, six referred to the teacher's professional skills in terms of being knowledgeable and teaching effectively. Two participants highlighted the teacher's frequent use of English and encouragement to speak English and use English-English dictionaries. As for personal and interpersonal attributes, half mentioned how the teacher was kind and encouraging. One of them referred to her female teacher as one of a kind.

The findings of this item are in line with findings of previous studies (e.g., Al-Mahrooqi et al., 2015; Borg, 2006b; Brosh, 1996), that a good EFL teacher is generally perceived as a person who has efficient content knowledge and can teach English effectively and has a positive relationship with students. As for personality, all studies found that it generally pertains to the teacher's attitude in class, especially as part of keeping a positive relationship with students, which could also be indicated by the fewer frequencies of personal traits in the findings compared with interpersonal traits. Remarkable in the findings is that most of the characteristics related to teacher-student relationship (TSR) were about being supportive or caring, i.e., encouraging students ($n=11$) and being helpful ($n=11$), in contrast to creating rapport (Al-Mahrooqi et al., 2015), motivating students (Borsh, 1996), and being close to students (Borg, 2006b), which were the most relevant characteristics indicated by the participants in these studies.

6.1.3 Satisfaction with Past Teachers' Practices

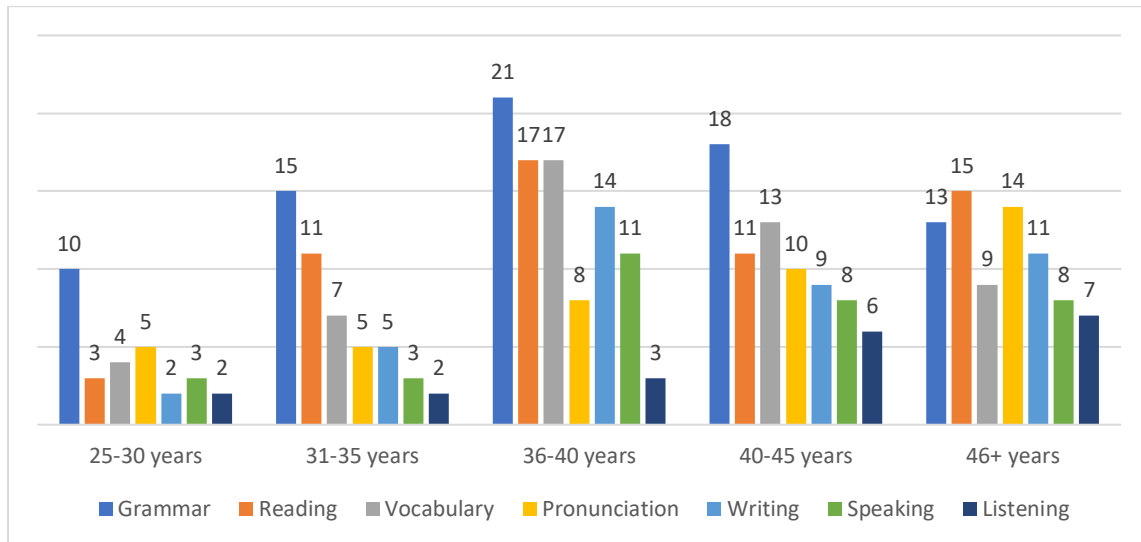
To explore which specific language skills or components they favoured in their past teachers' approaches in teaching, the participants were asked to complete the following sentence (item A1) choosing all that applies from a list of skills and components as follows:

Please tick all that apply to complete the sentence. I liked the way most of my teachers taught me: 1. English writing, 2. English reading, 3. English speaking, 4. English listening, 5. English vocabulary, 6. English grammar, 7. English pronunciation. The participants'

responses were then divided into seven separate variables, including their choices coded into 1 if they selected the skill or the component versus 0 if they did not. The following chart illustrates the frequencies of their responses divided by age groups.

Figure 6.1

Frequency of Satisfaction with Past Teaching of Skills and Components



As displayed in the chart, most participants indicated their satisfaction with the way their past teachers taught grammar (65.25%) followed by reading and vocabulary, although both as well as other components were selected by less than 50% of the participants. On the other hand, the ways their past teachers taught speaking and listening skills were favoured the least, as shown in the chart. Of the 118 participants, only 33 participants were satisfied with the way their past teachers taught speaking, while 20 expressed their satisfaction with their listening teaching approaches.

A point-biserial correlation was performed to determine if there was a relationship between their selection of skills or components and their ages. The results showed that there were significant positive correlations between the age of the participant and their favouring of the ways they were taught writing ($r = .25, p < .01$), pronunciation ($r = .25, p < .01$), listening ($r = .23, p < .05$), and reading ($r = .21, p < .05$). Those who were 40 or over seemed to be

more satisfied with the ways their past teachers taught pronunciation than the ways they used for teaching writing. This is a surprising finding as most of them started learning English in schools at times when most English language teachers were non-specialists, and grammar-translation methods that rarely focused on communications skills and components were relatively more dominant (see Chapter 6). A possible explanation is that older teachers find that the ways they were taught pronunciation and listening (as indicated by the correlation coefficients) were sufficient for what they needed as learners and teachers in an examination-oriented education system, while younger teachers, albeit learning and teaching in a relatively similar context, have realized that communication skills have gained more attention due to increasing access to the internet that made everyone, including students, aware of how English should be used and spoken.

In all cases, the results indicated that regardless of age, the majority were satisfied with the ways they were taught grammar and relatively unsatisfied with the ways they were taught listening and speaking. No previous study, using quantitative methods, has investigated EFL teachers' satisfaction with their past teachers' approaches to teaching specific language skills or components with this number of participants. Other qualitative studies addressed PLE in general with a limited number of participants. However, and based on the available qualitative studies, the results of this item confirm the finding from (Nguyen, 2011) that EFL teachers may have many criticisms of the ways they were taught English in their PLE, yet they do not renounce them completely.

6.2 Prior EFL Learning: Interview Findings

With regard to RQ1, the analysis of the interview data yielded some findings related to the fourteen informants' cognitions about their experiences as young learners of EFL. The following subsections will present and discuss these findings. The interview items related to their PLE in language learning were designed to give the informants the opportunity to

discuss their experiences from their own points of view while allowing them to give details or narrative accounts of situations or memories that seemed to matter to them most.

In view of this, the analysis of the findings revealed recurrent themes suggesting that the cognitions of the TYL of English were centred around three dominant themes. The first and most prominent theme was teacher-student relationship (TSR), which included subthemes related to their language learning motivation, private tutoring as a socioeconomic factor influencing TSR as well as their own learning practices, especially in the classroom. The second theme in frequency was their past teachers' knowledge or proficiency, which was mostly discussed with reference to the third theme of past teachers' pedagogical practices that do not involve interpersonal aspects.

6.2.1 Cognitions About Past Teacher-Student Relationships

All informants highlighted the influence of one or more of their past teachers on their language learning experience without being directly asked about what their teachers did or how they did it. All of them were able to remember specific details of certain situations reflecting TSRs and recalled several emotions ranging from anger and/or frustration to gratitude and appreciation.

6.2.1.1 Negative Interpersonal Relationships

"I will make you hate the time you spend in my class." This is one statement that FT1 used to describe her impression of what her first English teacher was thinking. She was in her first year of preparatory school when she started learning English for the first time.

One time I raised my hand [to answer a question]. He hit me on my hand in a nasty way to make me stop. I felt insulted...he yelled at me asking me to sit down and be quiet. That was an unpleasant style...our teachers in the past did not care that much. I used to be nervous and stressed in his classes...never knew what he was going to do next, and I always wanted his lessons to finish. He did that because I did not go to his

private lessons. ‘I will make you hate the time you spend in this class...I will not teach you’. This is how he thought. I saw a lot of those examples, even in my secondary stage, especially those who did not like us going to other teachers to take private lessons.

FT1 went on explaining that for the whole period of her first year of learning English at school, she lost her interest in English, and she “didn’t like it at all”. From a Vygotskian perspective, FT1 went through such lived or emotional-cognitive experiences (*perezhivaniya*), which influenced her attitude towards English classes during that year. However, she was able to make a connection between what the teacher did and the socioeconomic factors behind his actions, an objective reason that justified her teacher’s personal actions and helped her understand and survive the experience while maintaining an emotional barrier against his classes. Objectifying what the teacher did is clear in her negative references to what he did, his classes and English itself rather than the teacher. Her *perezhivanie* worked as both an emotional and cognitive prism that refracted her experience (Vygotsky, 1994/1935). That is to say, she survived the experience and similar situations with other teachers by attributing their negative actions to private lessons as a socioeconomic phenomenon.

Similar situations were described by most informants. In most cases, their teachers did not hit them or use corporal punishment, but they either ignored their attempts to participate in class, mocked them and their pronunciation of certain words, embarrassed them in front of other classmates because they could not answer a question, or gave them tests beyond their current levels to prove their competitiveness against the other teachers their students chose to take private lessons with.

MT3 and MT5 described similar situations in which their past teachers discouraged or ignored them in class because they did not enrol in the teachers’ private lessons, which

resulted in hating or caring less about English classes of those teachers. MT5 commented (verbatim), “This made me afraid to answer any question in order to make me disappointed, to tell me something that I hate...that embarrass me”. In all cases, these informants decided to survive such experiences by linking what happened to the phenomenon of private tutoring and reacting passively to their English classes through creating a barrier of hatred or apathy. In all cases, they did not express negative feelings against the teachers as persons. The refraction of those experiences through the prism of *perezhivanie* seemed to help them understand and survive such emotional experiences through rationalizing or appraising the context and taking a stance against actions and objects rather than persons.

However, this was not the case with all informants, especially those who seemed to find no extrinsic or contextually mediated motivation for the teacher’s attitude or actions. In other words, what the teacher did seemed to be more personal with no comprehensible excuse. Some mentioned how some teachers mocked their pronunciation or laughed at their answers. MT7, for example, recalled how one of his teachers, who did not seem to coerce students to take private lessons, used to mock their pronunciation and speak English all the time to show off and prove that his English was far better than other teachers.

I hated the teacher himself, not the subject...I liked it, but he made me hate it that year. He used to mimic me or ridicule my acts. He also kept speaking English all the time, and he made us feel incapable or helpless, no Arabic at all. This was in my first year at secondary school. He should have known that we had not been taught listening to English actively.

Another informant, MT12, still remembered how the arrogant behaviour of his teacher made him feel.

I myself disdained that teacher who acted arrogantly to me. I mean things like insulting me or making me feel that he was better than me or knew things better made

me feel like even if I had the right answer for a question, I would refrain from participating or saying it to avoid embarrassment...certainly.

The experiences both informants went through were refracted differently from the previously mentioned teachers. They hated or disdained the teacher, while one of them hated English as well. According to Vygotsky, “one and the same objective situation may be interpreted, perceived, experienced, or lived through by different learners in different ways” (Vygotsky, 1994/1935, p. 354) as each individual has a different *perezhivanie* based on personal and situational characteristics, which could explain why MT7 and MT12 hated their past teachers, unlike others who instead hated what their teachers did. Intrinsic to Vygotsky’s perspective, though, is the inseparable role of situational characteristics, which together with the personal characteristics, create the unity of *perezhivanie*. The nature of the situation along with the levels of understanding and awareness of the individual are all factors that influence the individual’s *perezhivanie* (Clarà, 2016).

According to their descriptions of the situations they mentioned, MT7 and MT12’s past teachers did not seem, from their perspective, to have an extrinsic motivation, like private lessons, for their negative actions. It appeared that their teachers chose to act arrogantly with students, making them feel helpless and humiliated. They could not find a justification to detach the action from the person or link the personal to the contextual. In terms of *perezhivanie*, it seems that they could not take an objective stance to understand or interpret their teachers’ actions; they remained mired in emotions and unpleasant memories, even so many years later. Remarkable also are their references to their past teachers’ using English all the time or using proficiency as a barrier that created a sense of distance, although some may argue that what their teachers did could be viewed as favourable practices. Nonetheless, as MT7 noted, he expected that teacher he hated to be aware of the contextual hindrances that made his students not well-prepared for listening to English all the time.

Informants who had negative experiences with their past teachers who wanted them to enrol in their private lessons clearly stated that they avoided doing the same with their current students. They capitalized on making sure that they did their best in their school lessons regardless of whether their school students took private lessons with them or not:

With my students, praise be to God. Thanks for Allah, I tell my students I teach you and give you everything without discrimination or without differentiating between one of you and one of you take a private lesson...no no no. (MT5, verbatim)

Only one of them, MT7, mentioned that when students do not pay enough attention in class because they already know the content from private lessons they take with other teachers, he deliberately uses some vocabulary or expressions that are higher than their level, which makes them, according to him, pay attention and get interested.

Corporal punishment was another recurrent theme in the informants' negative experiences. Those who mentioned it also noted how they hated teachers who used it and hated their lessons as well. One remarkable case is what MT8 said about his experience as a young learner in an elementary school.

I never forget him. He was very difficult. I was trying to do my best and whatever I could to learn. That teacher was difficult. He did not listen to us. He would suddenly raise the stick and beat me. My mother even went to the school and explained to him that we had some circumstances that made me unable to focus at the time, asking him to forgive me. You know what he did? He beat me in front of her. Believe me, I was a kid in elementary school. He was known to be very strict, and he did not mind doing that in front of my mother. He thought that it was for the good of the student. I did not like his subject (English).

Another informant, MT11, talked briefly about how some of his English teachers used corporal punishment with him and other classmates. The same teachers used to call them

names or curse their parents, which, as he stated, made him “focus on avoiding being beaten or insulted rather than on enjoying learning itself”.

In all cases, especially with regard to corporal punishment, most informants stressed that such negative experiences had only temporary negative influences on them as learners. Because of other positive experiences with other schoolteachers or teachers who gave them private lessons, they reported that such negative influences did not leave a lifelong impact. However, all of them noted that the lasting influence of such negative situations was to avoid doing the same with their current students. This does not mean that some of them do not use corporal punishment at all, but when they have to, they feel very uncomfortable about it. It could be argued here that, in terms of *perezhivanie*, when they understood, and seemingly justified, the reason behind the teacher’s actions, emotion was regulated by rationalization based on environmental norms and/or objectives. In other words, “*the degree of understanding, awareness, and insight of what is going on in the environment*” (Vygotsky, 1994/1935, p. 343, italics original) seemed to mitigate or minimize the negative influence of the situation.

6.2.1.2 Positive Interpersonal Relationships

An interestingly negative situation (yet with a positive impact) mentioned by one of the informants, FT9, was about how her favourite female teacher made her feel embarrassed with herself, not because it happened in front of other classmates, but because she was hiding an Arabic novel inside the English textbook and was reading it during class time. The teacher said to her, “You are one of the best students in the class whom I always encouraged.” FT9 commented that she hated failing that teacher and never repeated such an act. This situation explains how the teacher’s positive influence could even mitigate the influence of some negative or embarrassing situations.

A common word that all informants shared in reference to positive situations or influence of their past teachers was “encouragement”. This finding confirms the questionnaire findings regarding the participants’ description of a good English teacher using the same word. All informants remembered their past teachers who always encouraged and supported them in their learning and made most of them “love the language”, as FT1 and six others said, or “get more interested in English,” as MT2 commented. To explain what was special about her teacher, FT1 said,

He was like a maestro, and he loved the language. You know when you love something...you can get that feeling from the person who loves something...and it is deeper than just delivering information about it. He loved to interact with us much. MT2’s teacher “encouraged” him to write short stories in English and revised them for him “without focusing much on errors.” MT2 said, “He never got fed-up or annoyed because of our mistakes” and commented, “It also benefited me when I joined the English department as an undergraduate student. I did not have a problem with English writing at all”. Other participants also mentioned how they were encouraged to participate or talk in class by some of their teachers who did not try to act aloof or distant from their students. Such teachers made the informants feel comfortable with themselves and their language mistakes, able to question and discuss issues, and welcome to speak and communicate without mocking their language or making sarcastic comments on their pronunciation.

Among the interview findings that confirm and complement the findings from the questionnaire is how personal characteristics of the teacher pertain to teacher-student relationship (TSR) and how they were perceived as intertwined characteristics of a good language teacher. Describing her teacher, FT1 said, “He was old, but he used to be like a friend to all students. He also gave us advice like a father, not only a teacher. He was a genius in everything...frankly.” MT2’s teacher had similar traits: “He had that tolerant

attitude...very, very tolerant attitude that made me love him and adore English because of such things". Tolerance and patience were regularly mentioned or hinted at when the informants talked about English teachers who influenced them positively. MT6 talked about how his teacher in the first year of secondary school affected him and other classmates.

We liked him as a person...he had charisma. He tried to be friendly with us by removing the gap of age difference and using fun. I do this in my teaching...try to be funny within limits. I liked the way he treated me, and I liked the language. The teacher is the reason.

MT12 also mentioned how his secondary school teacher was "modest and funny and close to students, so we felt close to him". Being funny is a trait that another female interviewee, FT4, remembered about her female English teacher in her first years of elementary school. "She used to imitate the voices of animals. It was so fun, and if we do the same and imitate those voices, we get candy or something. I think it has had a great impact on me".

In addition to encouragement and being friendly or funny, in some cases teachers used prizes, as MT7 said about his fourth-year primary school teacher: "She encouraged me to learn and gave me chances to participate in the class, gave us simple prizes on getting high marks in tests. Also, she praised me when I did something good. Certainly, that made me motivated". Using presents or prizes to reward students was also mentioned by FT4 in reference to her secondary school English teacher.

Ten informants who had positive experiences with one or more of their past teachers stated how they sometimes found themselves doing things in class the same way their past teachers did. FT1 mentioned that she sometimes smiled to herself when she found herself doing the exact same thing her past favourite English teacher did. MT2 also reported that he taught his past teacher's son, and he did his best with him to return his father's favour. Both

FT1 and MT2 mentioned clearly that their English teachers were the main reasons behind their decisions to be English language teachers.

The positive influence of the teacher has had a long-term impact on the informants, especially in the way they teach. Most of them mentioned how they try to be friendly to their students, patient, tolerant, and sometimes funny. They all highlighted that they did not like teachers who were arrogant or conceited. More details about how they act towards their students are mentioned in the following chapter about teachers' cognitions in teaching English.

Interestingly, the findings related to their positive experiences or *perezhivaniya* indicate that the informants rarely differ in their interpretation and perception of the situation(s) that they deemed positive. They also referred to their lifelong impact and how their past teachers set a model for many of them, which they followed in their practices as current teachers. In a study of an ESL teacher's identity and emotions, Shahri (2018) found that "a positive *perezhivanie*, that is, a favorable emotional experience of a situation, can contribute to its continued presence. A negative *perezhivanie*... is likely to produce an urge to move in an opposite direction" (p. 100). The findings of the interview are consistent with Shahri's (2018) in this regard. Another possible explanation drawing on Vygotsky's SCT is that their *perezhivanie* about teaching has changed over time due to the mediation of encouraging, supporting and helpful teachers, that change the 'dramatic collision' (Veresov, 2017) to a favourable experience influencing how they refracted teaching English as practiced by the 'good' teacher.

In all cases, positive experiences were maintained and replicated while negative ones were relatively regulated or remembered as an example of what not to do as a teacher. This finding is partially consistent with that of Johnson and Worden (2014) that conceptualization of teaching can shift positively after positive mediation leading to a positive *perezhivanie*. It

also supports the findings of previous studies on teacher education (Childs, 2011; Golombek, 2015; Golombek & Johnson, 2004; Kubanyiova, 2012; Reis 2011), that the development of L2 teachers could be supported positively with the right mediation that considers the emotional-cognitive dialectic in their learning and teaching experiences.

6.2.2 Cognitions About Past Teachers' Knowledge

One of the themes that emerged in the interviews was past teachers' knowledge, specifically in terms of English language oral proficiency and pedagogical knowledge. Teacher's knowledge also contributed to the informants' positive or negative experiences and their cognitions about the role of the teacher and his or her communication style in class. For example, when FT1 wanted to describe how her teacher was competent in English, in addition to his other personal traits, she simply said he was "good at everything" and a "genius". MT3 also mentioned a young teacher who was a fresh graduate of English department and taught him English in his second year of secondary school. As he put it, "His pronunciation was so distinguished. I felt that it is the first time to listen to English in my life". MT5 also admired his teacher's pronunciation and accent: "I was very happy with his accent. He was speaking English among his students perfectly".

On the other hand, some had negative memories of their past teachers' knowledge. FT14 mentioned that there were no knowledgeable teachers of English while she was in her early years of school studying in a village as most of them were non-specialists. When her family moved to the town, she joined a school whose teachers were "more knowledgeable". Other informants were more specific. For instance, FT10 mentioned how most of her teachers were non-specialists: "We were taught by people who had nothing to do with English language or its pronunciation at all". She attributed her current persistent problem with pronunciation to her past teachers' "bad pronunciation". MT3 also indicated how English

pronunciation was a problem with many teachers to the extent that he believed that it had a powerful influence on students, including himself:

I thought that this is the only teacher of English I encountered in my life... I think pronunciation is the cornerstone of teaching English...I think perfect pronunciation makes learners so happy. They feel something in you. They feel so attracted to such a kind of teachers.

For most informants, it can be understood that the language proficiency of their teachers as demonstrated in speaking, in general, and pronunciation, in particular, was a major criterion in recognizing teachers' knowledge about English. Another category that was linked to their cognitions about their past teachers was their pedagogical knowledge and language teaching methods, which will be presented below.

6.2.3 Cognitions About Past Teachers' Practices

Most participants distinguished between past teachers who were non-specialists and those who had qualifications from English language programs. Some recalled how teaching the language was difficult for some non-specialist teachers. Referring to his preparatory school teacher, MT3 commented, "He was a non-specialist. He was teaching with great difficulty". FT10 also mentioned how many of her past non-specialist teachers did not have the knowledge required for teaching English properly. MT5 mentioned how he usually avoided doing things that his past non-specialist teachers did, but he appreciated how many of them treated him.

Regardless of whether the past teacher was a specialist or not, the informants' responses to what they liked about how past teachers taught them English appeared in three categories: a) encouraging autonomous learning, b) interacting with students, and c) simplifying the content.

6.2.3.1 Encouraging Autonomous Learning

The concept of empowering and enabling students by allowing or encouraging them to be in charge of their learning was discussed by some informants as positive learning experiences, and what they liked the most about their teachers' styles and methods. FT1 explained how her favourite teacher empowered her:

I had a question, and I asked him about its answer. He said to me, 'You are not the one to ask that question...you can answer it easily'. He just stood there, silent, and kept looking at me for 3 minutes, awaiting my answer, and I actually answered the question. I still remember the sentence. I do not forget that situation. It boosted my confidence... 'you can do it'. I felt confident and efficient as a student.

MT5's teacher also tried to enable him and his classmates by teaching them how to annotate and highlight parts they found interesting or relevant in the novelette they studied at secondary school: "He was asking us to use the ruler and the red pen...blue pen...underline the quotations...something strange...something different from other teachers. He made me love English." For MT5, that was "something strange" and "different" because all his previous teachers did not seem to focus on what students could do to enhance their learning and develop their study skills in general or reading skills in particular. He also mentioned how the same teacher encouraged them to read extracts from newspapers or magazines in English and discuss them with him in class. FT10 recounted how her teacher encouraged her to watch movies or series in English and was happy to use expressions she learned from them in his classes.

6.2.3.2 Involving Students in The Teaching Process

Most informants referred to how most of their good teachers interacted with them as young learners by encouraging discussion and participation in various activities. As FT1 put it in reference to her favourite past teacher, "He loved to interact with us so much". In

another part of her interview, she explained that by interaction she meant that as a teacher “you have to give and take” in terms of involving students in the process of learning and teaching the language.

The same phrase was used by FT9 in her reference to one of her favourite teachers who encouraged dialogues and role-plays with him involved or among students. MT2 also referred to how his positive experiences with some of his past teachers included interaction in terms of allowing questions and discussions. Encouraging dialogues and discussions was also highlighted as part of FT10’s positive experience with a secondary school teacher who discussed writing topics with her and praised her for using new words.

6.2.3.3 Simplifying the Content by Using Traditional Methods

Most informants emphasized how their past teachers’ simplification of the content of their lessons helped them learn English and engage with the teacher positively. MT2 and MT8 mentioned how their teachers were distinguished in simplifying grammar in particular. MT8 did not give specific details, but he referred to his teacher’s way of making it simple and clear. MT2, on the other hand, gave some details of how his teacher simplified grammar.

He relied on trying to simplify grammar very much. He used many multiple-choice exercises. He gave us sentences with mistakes and asked us to correct them.

Sometimes, there was some writing in which we were supposed to use the grammar we learned...so he integrated grammar with the writing skill. He sometimes used reading passages after answering their comprehension questions...he used them to draw our attention to some of the grammar rules he taught and how they are applied to certain sentences in their structures.

Part of what MT2’s teacher did was integrating grammar with skills rather than teaching rules that need to be memorized or practiced separately. MT2 also mentioned that the teacher used Arabic most of the time to make things simple for all students. Another informant, MT7,

stated how his favourite teacher “used to take things simply...simplify...and use Arabic a lot to make things clear. [Is the idea to use] English all the time, and no one understands? Of course not.”

Other informants also referred to making things understandable to students as one of the main characteristics of their favourite teachers. One expression that was repeatedly used was “the teacher went down to the levels of students”. This seems to be the opposite of teachers’ arrogance that some of them, such as MT7 and MT12, found intolerable. Whether by using Arabic or making tasks less challenging or by considering the needs or levels of students, the majority of informants agreed on the importance of simplification and making things clear and apprehensible as an essential characteristic of their past teachers’ effective teaching. Although it is not the focus of this study to investigate Vygotsky’s concept of the zone of proximal development, it is remarkable how the informants’ reports reflected their understanding of the implementation of the concept in reality. In other words, the teachers seemed to consider and assess what they as young learners were capable to achieve independently and what seemed to necessitate assistance from teachers as ‘knowledgeable’ adults.

These findings related to how participants perceive their past effective or favourite EFL teachers integrate with and complement the findings from the questionnaire and parallel many studies in the literature on pre-service and in-service teachers’ conceptualizations of their PLEs, especially in reference to positive experiences with their past teachers who were knowledgeable, caring and capable of engaging students (Bailey et al., 1996; Erkmen, 2014; Feryok, 2005; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2016). The findings are also compatible with those of Sun et al. (2020) as regards Chinese EFL teachers’ attitudes about their PLE and how their past teachers’ traditional methods could be useful when institutional or contextual constraints may not help with ‘ideal’ or optimal non-traditional methods.

However, the findings from both the questionnaires and interviews revealed more specific details. Knowledgeability was specifically reported in terms of oral proficiency and contextually effective teaching methods. Caring was more about supporting and helping students to learn and improve their skills, and engaging students was more about being responsive and less authoritative. The following subsection will discuss these specific points especially in their connection to the informants' habitus.

6.2.3.4 Knowledgeability, Caring and Engaging: Power and Habitus

Interestingly, the three qualities of knowledgeability, caring and engaging students bring to mind the notion of power and power sharing in the micro-social environments in which the participants learned English. It should be noted that *power* here is not used to imply violence or domination, but as a term that refers to a non-evaluative meaning (Haugaard, 2008). Haugaard describes power as shared meanings or paradigms that social actors impose on things permitting certain people to do certain things.

In the participants' experiences, this power was represented in the position of the teacher as an adult and a knowledge transmitter who could show/demonstrate that knowledge (proficiency, pronunciation, teaching methods). That sense of power would have meant nothing to them (hence their apathetic reactions to their classes) if the teacher had not allowed an extent of power sharing with them as young learners by being helpful and supportive or by delegating some of this power to students as autonomous learners. That is to say, they favoured the teacher who had power and shared it with them through helping, supporting, and simplifying things even if simplification meant using traditional methods. It contrasts with their negative experiences with teachers they hated or despised, who belittled them or denied any level of power sharing by ignoring them, mocking their oral inputs, or making things harder for them.

From the perspective described by Haugaard (2008), power is viewed as equal to *power to* (p. 195) or empowerment, as described by participants with positive past learning experiences, rather than *power over*, which implies violence and domination, as described by participants with negative past learning experiences. Haugaard links his concept of power to Bourdieu's concept of habitus, which in the case of our participants, could help understand how shared meanings imposed by society and teachers' positions and roles are passed on and negotiated.

Habitus here, as Stahl (2015) argues, lies in the way individual aspirations in forms of power relations are internalized, leading to "categories of perceptions" (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 167). The participants favoured their past teachers' acts of socially legitimate power or *power to* as knowledge transmitters and supporting, helpful, simplifying actors and relatively disfavoured acts of coercive power or *power over*. The emotional-cognitive prism of *perezhivanie* interacts with the social-personal internalization of habitus. In other words, we can see how the participants' past experiences were refracted and internalized based on the social context as well as their personal understanding, awareness and internalization of that context. When imposed meanings contradicted their aspirations, habitus came into play and worked towards "constituting the field as a meaningful world, a world endowed with sense and value, in which it is worth investing one's energy" (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 127).

The outer world (the field) was structured towards a favourable or adjusted structure that keeps positive perceptions and conceptualizations of images, examples and experiences almost identical among social agents (learners) belonging to the same society. Negative experiences, however, were irregular incidents in the field that were internalized differently by individuals, who either overcame them or used them as examples of what should be rejected in the field.

6.3 Prior Vocabulary Learning: Questionnaire Findings

To explore more detailed aspects of the participants' cognitions about the way they were taught vocabulary, the questionnaire open-ended items A3, A5 and A31 (see Appendix D) were developed to capture their cognitions about what their past teachers could have done to improve their ways of teaching them English vocabulary (item A3), which vocabulary teaching strategy they found most effective as young learners (item A5), and which vocabulary learning strategy proved most efficient for them as young learners of English vocabulary (item A4). The following sections provide the findings from content analysis of their responses to each item.

6.3.1 What Past Teachers Could Have Done to Improve Vocabulary Teaching

In their response to item A2 about what their past teachers could have done to improve their ways of teaching English vocabulary, all participants indicated that they would have liked them to implement varying methods, strategies or techniques in teaching it. Most participants suggested more than one technique their past teacher could have used. According to their responses, most participants suggested using visuals ($n=48$), especially flash cards, using contextualization in terms of giving several examples ($n=17$), focusing on definitions ($n=11$) and using less mother tongue ($n=8$). Among the less frequently mentioned aspects of teaching approaches were pronunciation ($n=6$) and dictation ($n=6$).

Some participants also indicated that they would have liked their past teachers to encourage students to use learning strategies related to practice and use in context ($n=11$), using English-English dictionaries ($n=10$) and guessing from context ($n=6$). Only two teachers mentioned using vocabulary notebooks.

The majority of participants' responses to item A2 indicated that good vocabulary instruction for young learners should include focusing on visuals, definitions and giving

examples or contextualization while having students practice using vocabulary in examples or guess it from context. The following table gives the frequencies of their responses.

Table 6.4

Frequency of VTSs Past Teachers Could Have Used

Could have:	Specific techniques	Tools	<i>n</i>
implemented varying VTSs	Using visuals	Flash cards	14
		Unspecified	9
		Realia	8
		Body language	7
		Drawings	3
		Videos	3
		Diagrams	2
		Mind maps	1
	Charts	1	
	Using contextualization		17
	Focusing on definitions, synonyms & antonyms		11
	Unspecified		10
	Using less Arabic/Arabic equivalents		8
Focusing on pronunciation		6	
Focusing on dictation		6	
Using CLT		5	
Using word lists		4	
Using ICT.		4	
Using authentic materials		2	
encouraged practice			11
encouraged use of E-E* dictionaries			10
encouraged guessing from context			6
encouraged use of vocabulary notebooks			2

Note. E-E stands for English-English dictionaries

6.3.2 Favoured Vocabulary Teaching Approaches of Past Teachers

Item A3 asked the participants to mention which VTSs their past teachers used that helped them learn English vocabulary well. Seven teachers stated that none of the strategies

used by their past teachers helped them with learning vocabulary, whereas some participants mentioned more than one strategy. The Most frequent VTS was their past teachers' focus on repetition and memorization ($n=30$). The second most frequent VTS was past teachers' use of contextualization and exemplification ($n=27$) followed by using visuals ($n=23$). Some participants also referred to classroom discussion ($n=17$) and cooperative learning ($n=15$).

Table 6.5

Frequency of Effective VTSs Used by Past Teachers

Strategy	<i>n</i>
Focus on repetition and memorization and practice (drills)	30
Contextualization and examples	27
Visuals	23
Classroom discussion	17
Pair or group work	15
Definitions with synonyms and antonyms	7
Role-playing	5

6.3.3 Personally Adopted Vocabulary Learning Strategies

In line with the responses to the previous item (A3) about their past teachers' most effective VTSs, the participants' responses to item A4 about VLSs they used and proved effective to them, repetition and memorization came first in frequency ($n=34$) followed by use in writing ($n=29$) and use in speaking ($n=16$). Thirteen participants in total mentioned using English-English or English-Arabic. The following table displays the frequencies of participants' responses. It should be noted that it is not obvious if by use in writing they meant activities different from writing a sentence or two as a response to exercises and drills.

Table 6.6*Frequency of Effective VLSs Used by Participants as Young Learners*

Strategy	<i>n</i>
Memorization, repetition and practice (drills)	34
Use in writing	29
Use in speaking	16
Using English-English dictionaries	7
Using English-Arabic dictionaries	6
Reading	5
Focusing on pronunciation and spelling	7
Visuals and associative learning	5
Vocabulary notebooks	7
Concordance	1
Using ICT	1

The findings related to the previous two items (A3 and A4) indicate that as young learners, the majority of participants viewed rote learning in terms of repetition, practice and memorization as the most effective VLS. Their past teachers' focus on the same strategy, along with using contextualization and visuals, were also considered as the most effective VTS used by their past teachers. Their responses to item A2 indicated that they would have liked their past teachers to pay more attention to using contextualization and visuals to probably help them with word discovery as other repetition and memorization strategies supposedly helped with word consolidation.

6.4 Prior Vocabulary Learning: Interview Findings

Regarding how they learned English vocabulary and which teaching methods adopted by their past teachers helped them learn new words effectively, most informants' responses did not differ much from the questionnaire response to items that addressed the same themes. Most informants reported that the majority of their primary and preparatory school teachers used the following procedures in the following order:

- 1) write new words on the board

- 2) say each word aloud while repeating it
- 3) direct students to repeat (whole class)
- 4) use visuals or give a simple example sentence (may ask students to give examples)
- 5) give an equivalent in Arabic
- 6) direct students to use them in a sentence or an exercise
- 7) encourage memorization and repetition (word lists or exercises)

For most of their secondary school teachers, the focus was more on contextualization and giving simple examples:

- 1) refer students to new words in a textbook passage
- 2) write or pronounce the words
- 3) ask students to guess the meaning/use gestures or acting
- 4) give a synonym or equivalent in Arabic
- 5) ask students to use them in practice sentences (mostly written but sometimes spoken)
- 6) encourage memorization and practice in writing (repetition and exercises)

The aforementioned steps show that most of their past teachers' techniques centred mainly on repetition, memorization, contextualization and visuals. Most informants did not express much negativity towards how they were taught vocabulary, and they found such techniques effective in their early stages as learners because they helped with word consolidation. However, most reported that they would have liked more focus from their teachers on pronunciation as well as expanding students' vocabulary knowledge beyond the limits of textbooks, especially in their secondary school stage.

Interest in the spoken form of the word and going beyond the textbook vocabulary was the main reason MT5 admired one of his secondary school teachers. Describing what that teacher did, he said, "He was telling us more vocabulary...different vocabulary that we did not know... that connects with current events". MT7 indicated how his past teachers could

have helped him learn vocabulary better if they had focused on pronunciation and everyday usage of new words. Most participants expressed the same while stressing that they would have liked their past teachers to spend more time on teaching the pronunciation and use of vocabulary in speaking. However, some noted that most of their past teachers were non-specialists, and they were not qualified or proficient enough to teach communication skills. Others mentioned how the requirements of final exams made them teach vocabulary based on written forms and textbook-based usage.

As for the VLSs they personally adopted or favoured as young learners, most informants mentioned that using new vocabulary in writing or speaking helped them learn it well. Two of them (MT2 and FT9) indicated that they went beyond doing drills or writing exercises to develop their vocabulary knowledge and retain words. However, the majority referred to writing paragraphs in response to example questions that would prepare them for similar requirements in final exams.

Few informants (FT1, MT2, FT4) reported that they found reading short stories, novelettes or magazines in English very helpful in acquiring and retaining vocabulary, but they noted that they usually read them during school summer vacation so as not to distract themselves from the vocabulary required for final exams. Besides reading, MT2 indicated that his interest in creative writing in English made him use and practice new vocabulary in a way that helped him retain it effectively.

As young learners, the informants were mostly taught vocabulary in a teacher-centred context where repetition, memorization, simple elaboration and translation were the main techniques used by their teachers. Although some participants and informants would have liked their past teachers to use more association techniques and encourage more active learning, the majority favoured their teachers' approaches that helped with retaining

vocabulary, and some chose to increase their vocabulary knowledge independently through more repetition, memorization and exposure to spoken or written forms.

Based on the above findings, the use of vocabulary in real-life situations or contexts seemed to be left to the student's own volition. Words were taught as blocks used in some examples within limited elaboration of their written behaviours and very limited focus on their spoken forms or uses. When a teacher used authentic real-life materials or gave some attention to correct pronunciation, it was something exceptional and memorable to some informants. Even as young learners of English, they felt the need for improving their knowledge and use of vocabulary through exposing themselves to more spoken or written forms in authentic extracurricular sources of language in use.

In their PLE, our participants were mostly taught what could be compared to Wittgenstein's conceptualization of primitive language, in the sense of what he explained as follows:

The language is meant to serve for communication between a builder A and an assistant B. A is building with building-stones: there are blocks, pillars, slabs and beams. B has to pass the stones, and that in the order in which A needs them. For this purpose they use a language consisting of words "block", "pillar", "slab", "beam". A calls them out. B brings the stone which he has learnt to bring at such-and-such a call.... Conceive this as a complete primitive language (Wittgenstein, 1953, section 2).

Some may argue that this is different from what their past teachers did as they used more elaboration and contextualization, yet the simplified, limited examples they provided or used from the textbooks did not seem to differ much from the analogy of builders used by Wittgenstein. Our participants seemed to realize the need for more, either because of intrinsic motivation to learn English and use it the way they did with their mother tongue or because

some of their teachers drew their attention to that, or both. They sought to expose themselves to language in use or “language and actions to which it is woven” (Wittgenstein, 1953, section 7), i.e., language as a ‘form of life’.

The findings from the interviews suggest that they kept looking for these forms of life in the way some of their teachers pronounced the word, the interesting materials they brought to class and linked to the real world, the instances of encouraging discussion in class, the short stories and the movies rather than the confined context of the teacher-centred classroom and the textbook, where the teacher was like a builder pointing to the ‘blocks, pillars, slabs and beams’ and the student was like an apprentice picking them up as called upon by the teacher.

As young learners, the informants were mainly taught the written form of the word, its spoken form as pronounced by the teacher, an equivalent of it in their mother tongue, and a simple example to show usage yet with the meaning derived mainly from its equivalent in their mother tongue. They independently sought to develop their concept formation based on how words are used in that foreign language, how they function within that whole language system that is different from their mother tongue. As Vygotsky (1986a) notes, “the central moment in concept formation, and its generative cause, is a specific use of words as functional ‘tools’” (p. 107). They looked for more representations of the new words and their concepts in English, as exemplified in various spoken and written forms that go beyond the textbooks and the schoolteacher.

However, many years after developing their language skills and becoming English language teachers themselves, they did not reject how their past teachers’ traditional methods and little focus on words as functional tools used in real-life language. They found what they did suitable and useful for learning, retaining and using vocabulary, especially in an examination-oriented education system. From their perspective, their teachers did what they

could at the time considering their qualifications, lack of resources, the requirements of final examinations and time constraints. Although these findings are related specifically to their PLE in vocabulary learning, they are broadly consistent with some findings of previous studies in teachers' cognitions as some endorsed or justified resorting to traditional methods in EFL teaching in general when there are contextual or institutional barriers (e.g., Sugiyama, 2003, Sun et al., 2020) although the same teachers stated explicitly or implicitly their preference of non-traditional methods when contextual factors make applying them possible.

Chapter 7: Teachers' Cognitions About Teaching and Learning EFL

This chapter presents findings and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data related to RQ2 on how EFL teachers in Egypt perceive teaching and learning English. The findings presented here come from closed-ended and open-ended questionnaire data collected from the responses of 118 participating teachers to part B of the questionnaire (section 6.1), Q sort data collected from 25 respondents (section 6.2), in-depth data from semi-structured interviews with 14 informants, along with observation data from four sessions with four teachers who participated in the interviews (section 6.3).

7.1 Questionnaire Findings

This section addresses the findings revealed by data analysis of Part B of the questionnaire (see Appendix D), which focused on in-service teachers' cognitions about teaching and learning English and its vocabulary. This chapter is dedicated to their cognitions about EFL teaching and learning. Chapter 8 includes the findings from Part B related to vocabulary teaching and learning.

7.1.1 Teachers' Cognitions About Teaching EFL

A descriptive analysis of the results of the thirty-seven items addressing the participants' cognitions about language learning and teaching was conducted. For ease of reference and to distinguish them from other Likert-type items in the questionnaire, the items were labelled T1 to T37. The full results are available in the appendices (Appendix A - Table 1).

Prior to analysing the items as a scale and implementing exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to look for any latent constructs, it was worthwhile to analyse them as individual variables that could give an idea about what statements all participants agreed with the most and the least. Of the 37 statements, the respondents agreed the most with the statement of item T2 *It is important to repeat and practice a lot* ($M=4.6$, $SD =0.7$), whereas they agreed

the least with the statement of item T13 *People who are good at maths and science are not good at learning foreign languages* ($M=2.5, SD=1.07$). Such findings indicate something similar to what most of them reported as young learners (Chapter 6), that repetition and practice as part of rote learning seem to dominate their cognitions as teachers. The findings also indicate that most of them do not hold a stereotypic belief that people who are good at analytic or factual subjects are not good at learning foreign languages.

Among other statements the questionnaire participants agreed with the most were item T1 *Some languages are easier than others* ($M=4.4, SD=0.76$), item T7 *It is important to speak English with an excellent accent* ($M=4.3, SD=0.93$), item T19 *It is better to learn English in an English-speaking country* ($M=4.0, SD=1.07$), and item T25 *EFL teachers should use English as the dominant language of instruction* ($M=4.0, SD=0.9$). Such cognitions indicate that for most of them, spoken English in terms of oral proficiency is preeminent in their cognitions.

On the other hand, and among the statements they agreed the least with, their disagreement with item T11 *Learning English is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules* ($M=2.9, SD=1.22$) and item T17 *If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be hard to get rid of them later on* ($M=2.9, SD=1.24$) indicate that they view language beyond its structure and placed less importance on accuracy and correcting mistakes. Overall, along with the importance they placed on repetition and practice, the results indicate they tend to view EFL learning and teaching in terms of communicative competence and fluency rather than structural aspects and accuracy. However, these findings should be interpreted with caution since reported beliefs and cognitions gathered through self-report questionnaires could “reflect teachers’ *ideals*” (Borg, 2006a, p. 184, italics original), or as Kagan (1990) notes that in “a self-report scale of teacher thinking... a teacher might be reluctant to endorse a professionally unpopular belief” (p. 427). In light of this, Q

sorts, interviews and observation sessions were used to further explore the cognitions elicited by the questionnaire.

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was implemented to identify latent constructs in the data. For this purpose, the 36 Likert-type items (see Appendix D) were grouped into one scale that was tested for reliability and then factor analysed, as will be presented in subsection 7.1.3.

7.1.2 Doxa: Common Truths Among Egyptian EFL Teachers

Before presenting the results of EFA, it is worthwhile reporting the results of one questionnaire item (item B39), which consisted of 23 subitems (see Appendix D). Participants were asked to select the statements they thought were self-evident knowledge among teachers of English or taken-for-granted truths about language teaching. These statements were intended to capture Bourdieu's notion of doxa, "a set of fundamental beliefs which does not even need to be asserted in the form of an explicit, self-conscious dogma" (Bourdieu, 2000, p. 15). As Deer (2008) explains, "[Doxa] refers to the apparently natural beliefs or opinions that are intimately linked to *field* and *habitus*. It is the taken-for-granted assumptions (orthodoxies) of an epoch which lie beyond ideologies yet can generate conscious struggles" (p. 120, italics original).

With that in mind, the statements were constructed by the researcher based on several conversations with Egyptian English language teachers, articles in Arabic about Egyptian teachers published on Egyptian online newspapers, posts from social media groups where teachers discuss their professional concerns and viewpoints, as well as research studies related to teaching English in Egypt. For ease of reference, the subitems were labelled D1, D2, and so on. A table with the frequency of each subitem/statement is available in the appendices (Appendix B - Table 2).

For most participants, there are dominant beliefs apropos how teachers view themselves as well as how they think about their status and role in society in general and in school and classroom settings in particular. These doxa index the complex relationships among cultural capital, field, and habitus. In particular, they indicate how different relationships of power position teachers as agents in their field. The three items (D1, D2 and D3) that the vast majority of them selected as the most frequent doxa or common truths among teachers indicate that teachers see their position from a religious lens (prophet, mission) who, in this sense, deserve ‘all dignity and respect’ which should be even embodied in the student refraining from smoking in front of the teacher.

This is part of the culture that I have often witnessed in the common assumption that youngsters are not supposed to smoke in front of their elders, especially fathers. In some cases, even mature adults are not supposed to do that in front of authoritarian figures or leaders. In all cases, the holders of cultural and symbolic capitals are supposed to receive utmost respect. However, as Hargreaves et al. (2018) argue, Egypt has witnessed some “relaxing of formalities” (p. 16) due to the influences of opening up to the world through social media and recent migrations from some countries.

Likening a teacher to a prophet (item D1) indicates the concept of teaching as a mission (item D2) of transmitting knowledge to people and connotes the role of the teacher as the carrier of knowledge who deserves more respect and dignity. Interesting also is that over 50% of the participants ($n=63$) selected the statement *I am a slave to anyone who teaches me a letter* (item D9), which is a common saying in the Egyptian collective mind, and it also indicates the power that the knower or the teacher deserves in terms of respect and obedience, based on the notion that the teacher transmits his or her knowledge to the learner.

7.1.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis

To test the results of the 37 Likert-type items for meeting the assumptions of EFA using maximum likelihood (ML) extraction with promax rotation, the items were grouped into one scale after code reversing the negatively worded items (items T8, T13, T22, T28). The scale was then tested for internal consistency and reliability. Cronbach's alpha test revealed a value of 0.678. "Cronbach's alpha if item deleted" revealed that deleting item T28 *Studying English is not suitable for students who have difficulty with learning in general* would increase Cronbach's α to 0.704. Hence, the item was dropped from the scale to reach an acceptable level of reliability.

The remaining 36 items were tested for skewness and kurtosis. The test showed that all items are normally distributed except for item T2 *It is important to repeat and practice a lot.*, which was thereby removed from the scale (skewness = -2.80, kurtosis = 10.79). With a group of 35 items, EFA was performed using ML extraction with promax rotation while checking the value Bartlett's test of sphericity and KMO measure of sampling adequacy. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO; Kaiser, 1974) measures sampling adequacy for factor analysis.

The value of Bartlett's test chi square was $X^2 = 1138.92$ ($p < 0.000001$), which indicated highly significant correlation of items. The KMO value, on the other hand, was 0.59, which is acceptable, according to Field (2018), although 0.60 is recommended by Phakiti (2018). Although Phakiti based that assumption on Field (2013) and Fabrigar and Wegener (2012), they actually state that the closer the KMO value to 1.0 the better, and that it is not acceptable if it is below 0.50.

Eigenvalues as well as factor loadings were checked. The analysis yielded 13 factors with eigenvalues higher than 1.0. The 13 factors explained 68.50% of the total variance. Based on the scree plot, parallel analysis and RMSEA value of (0.045), the factors were reduced and fixed to 8 factors. The first look at the scree plot suggested reducing them to 7,

but it also gave the possibility of 8 factors as the parallel analysis suggested. After fixing the number of factors to eight, an iterative process of running and rerunning the analysis while dropping individual items that did not load on any of the factors or made a single loading on a trivial factor led to dropping items T8, T13, T14, T15, T17, T21, T22, T23, T25, T29, T33, and T35.

In the process of rerunning the analysis each time an item was dropped, the scree plot, parallel analysis, and RMSEA values were checked accordingly. The remaining 23 items were subjected to EFA while fixing the number of factors to six as suggested by the scree plot (see below) and the RMSEA value of 0.00, indicating that the model fits the data closely. The value of KMO rose to 0.65 and the value of chi square was $X^2 = 580.458$ ($p < 0.000001$). The correlation matrix is available in the appendices (Appendix K).

Figure 7.1

Scree Plot for Exploratory Factor Analysis of Twenty-Three Items of Teachers' Cognitions Scale

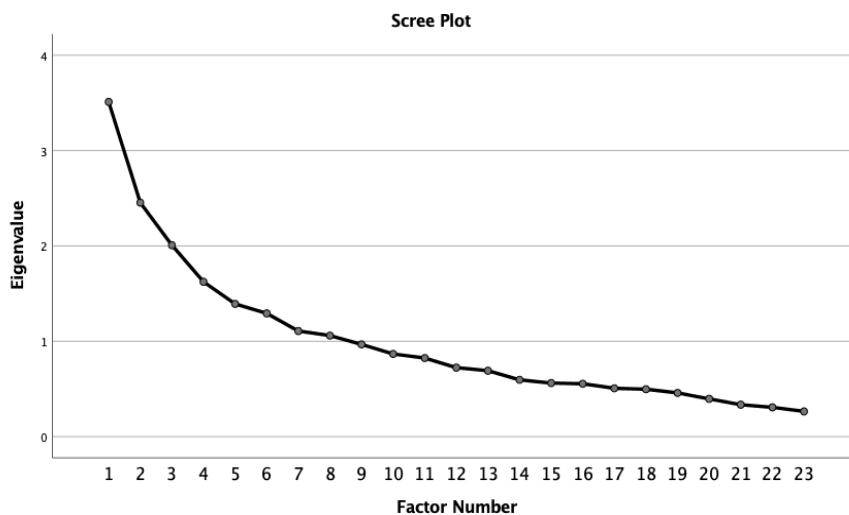


Table 7.1

Fitness Model indicators of Exploratory Factor Analysis of Twenty-Three Items of Teachers'

Cognitions Scale

	RMSEA	RMSEA 90% confidence	TLI	BIC
Model	0.000	0 - 0.024	1.114	-508.195

After deciding the number of factors to be extracted, EFA was conducted using maximum likelihood extraction with Promax rotation to identify latent dimensions. The following table shows the pattern matrix, including the final six factors, which explained 53.39% of the total variance. One item loading in factor one (item T3) was higher than 1.0, which is not unusual in factor analysis (Urdan, 2016).

Table 7.2*Factor Pattern Matrix of Teachers' Cognitions Scale Loadings*

Item	Factor						h^2
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
T3. Learning E. is (a matter of translating).	1.05						0.92
T4. Learning E. is (learning a lot of new vocabulary words).	0.65						0.45
T11. Learning E. is (a matter of learning a lot of grammar).	0.37		-0.30				0.51
T34. I teach according to what I think is right.		0.67					0.36
T36. Rules and behavior matter more than what students learn.		0.67			-0.32		0.55
T31. Teaching is a talent.		0.63					0.45
T27. E. teachers help students learn what is in the textbook.		0.47					0.27
T26. E. programs should focus on vocabulary and grammar.		0.32					0.30
T19. It is better to learn E. in an E.-speaking country.			0.62				0.44
T18. People who speak several languages are very intelligent.			0.62				0.47
T7. It is important to speak E. with an excellent accent.			0.41				0.21
T1. Some languages are easier than others.			0.36				0.14
T10. It is easier to speak than to understand E.				0.75			0.47
T32. Teachers know better about what works in their contexts.				0.56			0.22
T30. Assessment in E. should focus on vocabulary & grammar.				0.55			0.55
T37. In some situations, I avoid certain teaching methods.					-0.59		0.33
T24. Learners' errors should be corrected immediately.					0.37		0.37
T16. Egyptians are good at learning FLs.					0.37		0.20
T12. Egyptians think it is important to speak a FL.					0.32		0.15
T6. Women are better than men at learning E.						0.64	0.44
T5. Literacy skills are easier than audio-oral skills.						0.36	0.41
T20. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.						-0.35	0.19
T9. Some people are born with a special ability to learn FLs.			0.32			0.34	0.28

Note. E. stands for 'English'. FL stands for 'foreign language'.

7.1.3.1 Factor 1: The Power of The Known

Factor 1 accounted for 15.26% of the total variance and reflected cognitions about learning EFL counting on what is already known from the mother tongue (MT) of the learner, its influence and its usability in learning another target language (TL). This interpretation is based mainly on the high loading of item T3 *Learning English is mostly a matter of*

translating (1.05). Even in cases where learners use English with each other or with their teachers, MT is usually present and leaned on to derive support and presumably assurance from it. One of the most common proverbs in Egypt says, “what you know is better than what you do not”. People are either reminded of its implication or they say it as a premise to indicate safety and trust in what is already known or previously experienced with all its merits and demerits in comparison to the unknown and what it may bring.

Both grammar and vocabulary represent the structure of that relatively ‘unknown’ language as exemplified in official textbooks and regularly tested in official examinations, hence the other two loadings in factor 1 (item T4 and T11) that are related to learning, in terms of quantity, “a lot of” vocabulary words and grammar rules that could be translated or compared based on MT as some interview informants indicated. Other language skills and components in the TL include many sociocultural variations, nuances and applications that are unknown or foreign to both teachers and students who might have never experienced English in actual interactions with native speakers, and some of them may have experienced it in videos or movies that are usually subtitled.

The findings of the factor support findings from De la Campa and Nassaji (2009), McMillan and Rivers (2011) and Sali (2014) regarding teachers’ preference for using MT in ESL/EFL classes. For example, Sali (2014) found that EFL teachers in Turkey used MT most of the time for academic, managerial and socio/cultural purposes, among which are translating words and sentences, giving instructions and establishing rapport.

Using MT can be a useful resource for teaching and learning target language when building on what is known to the students (Atkinson, 1987; Auerbach, 1993; Butzkamm, 2003; Cook, G., 2010; Cook, V., 2001; Harmer, 2007), especially in teaching grammar (Deller & Rinvoluceri, 2002; Ross, 2000). Harmer (2007) argues that translation can be a useful tool for concept checking, specifically in teaching grammar and vocabulary. He also

notes how using MT can help teachers with establishing rapport and positive classroom dynamics. Cook (2010) argues that translation can be used as “a major aim and means of language learning, and a major measure of success, particularly in single-language classes taught by bilingual teachers” (p. xv). All authors explicitly or implicitly referred to the power of the known, familiar and already established knowledge of MT and how it can be used effectively in learning English. It should be noted though that none of them maximized the use of MT compared to the TL.

With the above-mentioned findings in mind, it is worth noting that language, in Wittgenstein’s perspective, is a rule-governed form of life based on its use in a specific sociohistorical context. Accordingly, it could be argued that missing the context of TL would give way to the known MT through leaning on its use and familiar context to fill the gap. So, translating text-based structures and forms from the unknown TL (in terms of its missing context) to the known MT, in terms of forms and structures, would seem justifiable.

Bearing in mind the wording of the items, the factor loadings indicate that English learning and teaching are perceived mostly through the lens of translation while focusing on grammar and vocabulary, which could lead to traditional, form-focused language teaching at the cost of communicative and functional methods. In all cases, this is how most participants were taught English themselves in schools. The known in forms of MT and prior learning experience has worked for them as learners and teachers in an examination-oriented system that focuses on literacy skills. Concerning oral skills, they have rarely, if ever, been formally tested or regarded as an essential part of their (or their students’) language competence, yet they recognize the value oral skills carry in showing proficiency as a sort of cultural capital, which will be discussed later in the chapter.

7.1.3.2 Factor 2: The Power of The Knower

Factor 2 accounted for 10.66% of the total variance and suggested cognitions about the teacher as a carrier/transmitter of knowledge or a knower who, therefore, has the power and “the talent” to make teaching decisions based on the possession of that knowledge. Of the five items that loaded on this factor, items T34 *I teach according to what I think is right not what experts suggest* and item T36 *When in the classroom, rules and behavior matter more than what students learn* got the highest loadings (0.67). Next in order of loading was item T31 *Teaching is a talent rather than a matter of learning some teaching skills* (0.63). The three items suggest that the teacher has the power to decide how to teach and to impose the conditions expected from learners. That power encompasses natural abilities that are not learned as they indicated that teaching itself is a talent. Viewing teaching as a talent was also expressed by some interview informants as will be presented later.

According to the participants’ loading on item T34, teaching decisions seem to derive from their personal judgment based on what they know or think is right, and assumingly useful and effective, not what experts, who supposedly have specialized knowledge and experience about language and language teaching, think or recommend. In other words, they base their teaching practices on their professional practical knowledge, which constitutes their perception of their roles as “the primary knower[s]” (Nassaji & Wells 2000, p. 392) and transmitters of knowledge. This finding is consistent with the findings from Abdelhafez (2014) about Egyptian experienced EFL teachers and how they draw on their experience and knowledge of their contexts rather than theoretical recommendations from language teaching experts. In her study of Egyptian EFL teachers, El-Fiki (2012) found that there was a shared cognition among teachers that teaching is a matter of talent rather than acquired knowledge and skills, and she wondered if this could mean teachers’ “unawareness of their particular professional needs” (p. 192).

As some interview informants suggested, experts and theorists are not in their everyday situations; teachers are the “ones in the kitchen,” as MT6 commented in his interview. Arguably, based on their power as knowers, they prioritize discipline and appropriate demeanours from learners. The other two items that loaded on factor 2 are in accordance with the cognitions represented in factor 1 in terms of viewing knowing a language mostly in its written forms, especially as used in textbooks, and focusing on its grammar rules and vocabulary. They perceive their professional roles as transferrers of knowledge who ‘help’ their students learn what is in officially imposed textbooks (item T27: 0.47). By helping, they partially transfer or share the power of knowledge yet within the scope of the power of the conventional (factor 5), and they do not seem to worry about what could be beyond it. This is probably why they believe that English language programs and policies should focus on teaching and learning vocabulary and grammar (item T26: 0.32) as they can be handled and managed within written texts.

Noteworthy also is that factor 2 participants’ loadings on item T27 *English teachers help students learn what is in the textbook* indicated that the role of the teacher/knower is linked to official textbooks and the knowledge required by them. Most participants indicated the same in their aforementioned responses to item B39. Seventy-two participants (61%) selected the statement *We do what is required in the textbooks* as one of the most common truths. It could be argued here that the power of the knower is connected with the power of the text/script, which represents the power of other hierarchical authorities that imposed it and made knowing its content a need that teachers help students meet.

7.1.3.3 Factor 3: The Power of The Oral

With factors 1 and 2 in mind, factor 3, which explained 8.73% of the total variance, consisted of items that indicated cognitions about language learning in terms of oral skills. This factor indicated that it is better to learn speaking EFL in an English-speaking country

(item T19: 0.62). This item loading could indicate that teaching it in a non-English speaking country like Egypt seems to be less effective. With a similar loading of 0.62, item T18, *People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent* indicates that speaking another, or foreign, language is a challenge that requires the person to be “very intelligent.” Item T9 *Some people are born with a special ability which helps them learn a foreign language* (0.32), also cross-loaded on factor 6, which indicates their perception of the role of natural abilities and talents in English language learning in general and learning speaking skill in particular. The importance of speaking English with an excellent accent (item T7: 0.41) also loaded on this factor.

The power of the oral here lies in its challenges as it requires a context (an English-speaking country), a personal level of intelligence that is not possible for everyone and mastering near-native accents that require use and practice to improve both listening and speaking skills. In a similar vein, this factor also includes item T1 *Some languages are easier than others* (0.36), which indicates the challenge that some languages may pose, and item T11 *Learning English is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules*, with a negative loading (-0.30) that cross-loaded on factor 1. The negative loading on this item indicates that learning a language requires going beyond its forms and structures, which aligns with the high loadings on oral aspects and use in context.

The power of the oral, in the sense of the challenges and requirements of learning to speak a foreign language, may be intimidating when it is mostly presented through textbooks and by lecturing teachers whose pronunciation may not be correct or similar to what students hear in the popular media. The questionnaire and interview data revealed that many informants would have liked to learn more about the audio-oral skills of the language, and they would have preferred past teachers who could pronounce English correctly. It could be argued that feeling unempowered as past learners who did not have many chances

to speak the language or learn how to speak it appropriately, they assumed that speaking it with a good accent requires living in an English-speaking context and a high level of intelligence. If these barriers are present, some participants may justify the deficiencies in their spoken language proficiency and deprioritize teaching speaking. The power of the oral could then be viewed and used as a smoke screen or a scapegoat.

Factor 3 needs to be considered in light of the response to item B39 about common truths among English teachers. The item statement that over a third of the questionnaire participants selected as a common truth among teachers was *If we speak with an American or British accent, students would not understand a word* ($n=40$, 33.8%). Accepting this overgeneralization as a taken-for-granted truth among teachers reflects their assumption of the power of the oral.

As Herazo Rivera (2010, p. 47) argues, “what constitutes authentic oral interaction is sometimes not clearly understood and some of the activities that take place in the classroom seem unlikely to generate meaningful opportunities for the development of oral interaction.” It is in this sense that the findings of the factor seem to represent the participants’ cognitions about the challenge underpinning learning and teaching oral communication in Egyptian EFL classes. Authenticity is best attained in a native context where a learner can learn speaking the TL with its ‘correct’ accent. That learner must have special abilities as well. The findings from this factor supports Hinkel’s (1999) claim that English is better learned in an English-speaking country where the context and the culture play major roles in developing oral skills. The findings also coincide generally with findings by Chatouphonexay and Intaraprasert (2014), Khan (2016), Mohebi and Khodadady (2011) and Sakai and Shiokawa (2009), that both pre-service and in-service teachers believe that oral communication skills have certain prerequisites to be learned well, including the context, the culture and special abilities of the learner.

There is an obvious relationship between this factor and its reference to the power of the oral and factor 1 which is mainly about the known/familiar in MT. The findings of both factors indicate that the participants hold cognitions about the importance of learning language in use and in its context or culture, yet since learning language while interacting in its real context and as used by its native speakers is not possible, English may be learned and taught using its available artifacts and manifestations in written materials or, sometimes, audio materials. In this sense, again, it is learned and taught as a primitive language, if we borrow Wittgenstein's analogy, not as a whole form of life.

7.1.3.4 Factor 4: The Power of The Practical

Factor 4 explained 7.06% of the total variance and reflected participants' cognitions about language learning in terms of workability and practicality. The highest loading item is the statement that it is easier to speak than to understand English (item T10: 0.75). This item could indicate that it is more challenging for students to understand than produce spoken or presumably written English. Again, this implies that understanding a foreign language requires many external and internal factors that are usually missing, as explained earlier. Another item loading on this factor was item T32 (0.56), *Teachers know better about what works in their contexts than those who give workshops on improving teaching and learning*. Determining which is easier in language interaction and what works better for their students implies the power of the practical in its workability in the context and its utilitarian benefits for its members. That context is directly experienced by teachers on a daily basis, as interview informants commented. The experts who recommend using English most of the time or following theoretical principles of language teaching are not in touch with local conditions. In other words, the experts' "imposed prescriptions" are part of their "sacred story" (Clandinin & Connelly, 1996, p. 25) that is different from their real world.

The last factor item was item T30 *The focus of assessment in English language programs should be on students' knowledge of vocabulary and grammar* (0.55). This item aligns with the power of the practical in determining what works and what has utilitarian benefits in light of examinations for both learners and teachers (especially teachers who give private lessons). And as with factors 1 and 2, factor 3 also focuses on grammar and vocabulary in terms of assessment.

Interestingly, in their responses to item B39 (see Appendix D), almost half of the participants selected *We do what makes them answer difficult questions on final tests* ($n= 55$, 46.6%) and *It is always about final exams* ($n=54$, 45.7%). These two statements indicate that practicality seems to influence what some teachers think and decide in face of what reality of the status quo imposes. Another statement selected by almost a third of the participants was *We do what makes you go through the day* ($n=35$, 29.6%), which also indicates the power of the practical.

To understand the latent dimension in the factor based on what is easier for learners, it is worthwhile to cite Carter's (1998) argument regarding authentic language or 'real English' as he calls it. He argues that "the scripted text is unreal English, which is unlikely to be reproduced in actual contexts of use but is easier to comprehend, and more real pedagogically; the unscripted text is real English, but more difficult to comprehend and to produce, and therefore likely to be considered less real pedagogically" (p. 47, italics original). It is in this sense that they think of what is more real and practical, hence easier. In a study of EFL teachers and students' beliefs about learning English in Australia, Bernat (2007) found that most teachers disagreed with the item that it is easier to speak English than to understand it. This contrast could prove the point that context matters as the participants in Bernat's study were working in an English-speaking country.

The findings of the factor are consistent with the view that external or contextual pragmatic factors have their influence on teachers' cognitions and practices, especially in terms of 'rules of practice' and 'practical principles' (Elbaz, 1983), which, together with images, influence teachers' cognitions, or teachers' practical knowledge in Elbaz's terms, regarding "what to do and how to do it in a particular situation frequently encountered in practice" (p. 132). This view, in spite of different labels and modifications, was also supported and developed by other studies (Clandinin, 1985; Clandinin & Connelly, 1996; Golombek, 2009; Sendan & Roberts, 1998; Sun, 2012; Wette, 2010; Woods & Çakir, 2011).

7.1.3.5 Factor 5: The Power of The Conventional

Factor 5 accounted for 6.06% of the total variance and implied cognitions about what could be related to the customary, the habitual or the conventional in its broad terms. The item that loaded the most strongly on this factor, but negatively, was item T37 *In some situations, I avoid certain teaching methods I believe are more useful* (-0.59). This negative loading reflects cognitions about doing what is thought to be useful regardless of what context may dictate. Another item loading that supports the power of the conventional and the habitual is *learners' statement errors should be corrected as soon as they are made in order to prevent the formation of bad habits* (item T24: 0.37). For them, habits seem to play a pivotal role in learning, which necessitates correcting errors on the spot and prioritizing the formation of good habits. There was one item that cross-loaded negatively on factor 1, and it does not seem to be connected with conventions, i.e., item T36 *When in the classroom, rules and behavior matter more than what students learn* (-0.32). The negative loading indicates that some teachers may value learning over discipline in classrooms or view both equally. One possible interpretation is the assumption that it is the job of the teacher to make sure that students learn regardless of behavioural or disciplinary issues. This could also be a conventional thought as such issues can hinder learning.

The power of the conventional prioritizes the mainstream, the commonplace, the habitual, the usual and even the dominant collective thought in terms of convictions, stereotypes or generalizations. For example, although Egypt was ranked “very low” on the English language proficiency index (Education First, 2016), two items that loaded on this factor are *Egyptians are good at learning foreign languages* (item T16: 0.37) and *Egyptians think that it is important to speak a foreign language* (item T12: 0.32). Both are generalizations that seem to be influenced by conventional, collective thinking.

The conventional here is used as a representation of culturally common beliefs. According to Lederach (1995), “culture is the shared knowledge and schemes created by a set of people for perceiving, interpreting, expressing, and responding to the social realities around them” (p. 9). It is in this sense that the loading items could be related to what teachers would do in their classes without questioning its effectiveness (item T37) or possibly negative impact (item T24) or their beliefs about the capabilities and priorities of their fellow citizens (items T16 and T12). The conventional here seems to operate as part of the culture that influences the participants’ cognitions. For Wittgenstein (1980a, p. 6e), “a culture is like a big organization which assigns each of its members a place where he can work in the spirit of the whole”. This spirit of the whole holds within it common convictions and beliefs that act as governing rules, or as Wittgenstein puts it, “what belongs to a language-game is a whole culture” (1966, p. 8), and “to obey a rule, to make a report, to give an order, to play a game of chess, are *customs* (uses, institutions)” (Wittgenstein, 1953, section 199, italics original).

This Wittgensteinian philosophical perspective is compatible with Vygotsky’s sociocultural perspective that “the notion that human mental functioning results from participation in, and appropriation of, the forms of cultural mediation integrated into social

activities” (Lantolf & Beckett, 2009, p. 459). In the same vein, we can see habitus being structured, which will be discussed further in the interview findings.

The findings of the factor are consistent with the views and findings of several studies on the influence of the sociocultural context on teachers’ cognitions and practices (e.g., Breen et al., 2001; Cross, 2010; Feryok, 2012; Hiver, 2013; Johnson, 2006, 2009a; Lantolf, 2006; Zheng, 2015). However, most studies focused on institutional or narrowly mediated influences and shed little light on cognitions that could be related to the culture or the ‘spirit of the whole’ where the conventional plays a major role in the process of appropriation of what is shared and adhered to among teachers as members of the same culture.

7.1.3.6 Factor 6: The Power of The Natural

Factor 6 accounted for 5.62% of the total variance and implied cognitions about language aptitude in terms of natural abilities as well as natural categories like gender. The item with the highest loading in factor 6 was item T6 *Women are better than men at learning English* (0.64). It should be noted here that 47 participants (39.8 %) agreed with the questionnaire item statement. Out of the participants who agreed, 31 were males while 16 were females, so it could be assumed that it is not a gender-biased tendency. Although some interview informants, including female teachers, indicated more preference for boy students, they, as well as other informants, also reported that girl students study and improve themselves more in learning the language because, for them, they are less distracted by other activities that boys may waste their time on.

Other loadings include *learning to speak English is not for everyone* (item T20: - 0.35), *people are born with a special ability that helps them learn a foreign language* (item T9: 0.34), and *it is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it* (item T5: 0.36). The dominant dimension that encompasses these items is about how the natural, whether in terms of talent or gender, has its power in determining how people will learn a

foreign language like English in general, and whether they are able to learn its speaking and listening skills in particular, bearing in mind that learning speaking, as another loading indicates, is not for everyone (item T20).

Factor 6 suggests that for some participants, learning a language is something that could be beyond a person's control because it depends on the powerful determinacy of nature, which learners may not be able to change or resist. With that in mind, some teachers may feel irreproachable for the poor performance of some of their students. They may also feel more comfortable with focusing on reading and writing since not all students are born with that "special ability" that will help them learn speaking and listening.

No other study has directly addressed language teacher's cognitions about language learners' aptitude or how they think natural abilities and/or categories play a role in learning a foreign language. It is remarkable, though, that some teachers believe in natural abilities that distinguish learners and teachers as well. They are natural in the sense of being gifts that make some learners able or unable to learn a foreign language. The same applies to teaching, as some interviewed teachers mentioned how teaching itself is a talent rather than a set of acquired skills, which will be discussed in another part of the chapter.

7.2 Q Sort Findings

As mentioned in Chapter 5, Q methodology was used to investigate the subjectivity of language teachers and their implicit cognitions regarding EFL teaching and learning. Twenty-five teachers participated in sorting statements (see Appendix C) based on their subjective predilections. Their responses (hand movements) were video-recorded during the process, and their final sortings were entered into Ken-Q software to help with Q-factoring of the data. The Q factor analysis resulted in five factor arrays. The full results regarding how each statement was ranked in every factor array are available in the appendices (Appendix C - Table 3). To present each belief typology represented by each factor, the crib sheet method

(Watts & Stenner, 2012) was used to help with factor interpretation. Based on this method, each of the following belief typologies will be introduced with a table. The table includes the statements that were ranked the highest in each factor array (+4) as well as the ones that were ranked the lowest (-4). Between both rankings, other statements that were ranked higher or lower in each factor than in other factors will be given. It is through this method that more light can be shed upon the uniqueness of each factor. The interpretation of each factor will mainly focus on the statements in each crib sheet, including distinguishing ones as well as other statements in the related factor array that can help with shedding more light on the belief typology that each factor reflects.

7.2.1 Belief Typology/Factor 1: Seeking a Position and Focusing on CLT

This typology includes the cognitions of four respondents who see language learning and teaching as a social activity and also see themselves as social agents who expect more appreciation within their various circles of social interaction. The following crib sheet shows statements that they agreed or disagreed with most (+4 or -4) as well as statements they ranked higher or lower than other respondents in other factors.

Table 7.3*Crib Sheet for Q Sort Factor 1*

Items ranked at +4
19. English language teachers should be friendly with their students. 12. Communicative language teaching works the best. *
Items ranked higher in factor 1 than in other factors
30. Classroom management issues can prevent effective teaching. +3* 7. An English teacher should have an academic certificate in teaching+3 31. Managerial decisions affect how teachers feel about their mission and performance. +2* 17. Error correction should be avoided as much as possible. +2* 3. English is a silly language if compared to Arabic. -1
Items ranked lower in factor 1 than in other factors
23. It is the student's responsibility to master the language as he/she likes. -3* 1. English is the colonizer's language that happened to be global. -3 8. Learning English is like learning the mother tongue. -2 28. Nobody listens to teachers' opinions about educational matters. -2 2. English language is a necessity for Egyptians. -1 *
Items ranked at -4
26. Private lessons are more important/valuable than school lessons to English teachers. 27. Everyone thinks they know what English teachers should do. *

Note. * indicates a distinguishing statement.

It can be noted that for factor 1 respondents, their sense of the social is clear and present in the relatively small social context of classroom and school where they stress the importance of teachers' friendliness with students (19: +4). They seem to care about keeping a positive environment of teaching and learning, but issues arise within this micro-social scale when classroom management issues prevent them from teaching effectively (30: +3), and managerial decisions negatively affect their feelings about what they do (31: +2). And when it comes to the broader social scale, the macro-social, they clearly agree that society does not respect them like before (39: +3). That is probably why they only slightly agree with

the statement that teachers have the power to make a difference in society (40: +1), which from their side seems like persistence in the face of micro-social and macro-social challenges.

In terms of language teaching, they seem to favour social aspects of language learning; they agree with the effectiveness of communicative language teaching (CLT) (12: +4) which as a teaching approach focuses mainly on social aspects of language competence (Hymes, 1972). They view language education in terms of social interactions that regard communicative skills as important while preferring teaching language skills integratively (9: +3) and not focusing on errors (17: +2).

It could be argued that with the views mentioned above, their sense of the social may even be dominant in their teaching preferences. With their hesitant belief that they can make a difference in society, it seems that they have not lost all their enthusiasm about their job (33: -1). They know that students care about passing exams (24: +1), but they believe that neither grammar-translation method (13: -2) nor teaching to the test (14: -3) works effectively with them. This is probably why they hold the view that learning is the teacher's responsibility (20:0), which is ranked relatively higher than the student's responsibility for language learning (23: -3). Students care about passing exams, while the teachers of this group seem to care more about communicative aspects of the language.

This sense of educational or professional responsibility could be the reason for their belief that EFL teachers should have a teaching qualification (7: +3), good vocabulary knowledge (5: +1) and good English pronunciation (35: +2), but this does not mean that they need to be native-like (4: -2). This responsibility may have led them to believe that students should always follow their instructions (22: +1) and keep doing more tasks and exercises to master the language (16: +1). Learning English for them is not like learning the mother

tongue, and that is why Arabic should not be allowed in class, although they seem a little unsure about this (15: -1).

The same teachers who value the social and communicative aspects of the language seem to have issues. And while they believe they are more respected among their colleagues who teach other subjects, they believe that society does not respect them like before. They care for their social role and position in the classroom, the school and society, but most of their values are at war with what students or their parents need. They appreciate the language, and they do not have an antagonistic attitude to it (1: -3), (2: -1), (3: -1), yet they see that students learn for the sake of getting high marks in final exams.

They have their own idealistic beliefs about how a foreign language should be taught, but students and their parents seem to care more about the quantitative outcome of exam marks. This could be the reason this type of teacher is not sure about the value of memorization and certain skills to help meet students' needs (ranked at 0). It is in the same rank that they put parents' comments and their influence on their teaching. They are not sure if those comments influence them in the same way that they are not sure if memorization and exam-tailored skills contribute to earning English. Such views could explain why they disagree with the statement that 'English is a necessity for Egyptians' (2: -1) since students seem to need to pass exams rather than learn or acquire the language.

In view of the foregoing, they agree that teachers are valued by the number of students in their private lessons (34: +2), which may help with exam skills, but such a reality does not make them view private lessons as more important than school lessons. They completely disagree with such a statement (26: -4). It seems that these teachers' beliefs are in a struggle with what students, parents, and managers want. The teachers do not deny that they sometimes support and listen to them (25: -1), (28: -2). However, they are not happy with the levels of respect and appreciation they receive. Such struggle and the concomitant loss of

respect they receive from society could be the reason that they do not want their children to be English language teachers (41: -2).

7.2.1.1 Shifting Ranks and Hesitations

The video recordings of the hand movements of the four participants who loaded significantly on belief typology 1 showed degrees of hesitation and reconsideration with certain statements. The following statements are the ones that were initially ranked differently then moved to a final rank in the grid.

Table 7.4

Hesitations in Ranking by Factor 1 Respondents

Statement	Initial rank	Final rank
28. Nobody listens to teachers' opinions about educational matters. (3 participants)	-3	-2
	+3	-2
	+3	0
18. Memorization is the key factor in learning English.	+4	+1
34. English language teachers are valued by the number of students in their private lessons.	+2	-2
41. If I had a child, I would like him/her to be an English language teacher.	+1	-2
22. Students should always follow the teacher's instructions and advice in language learning.	+2	-2
8. Learning English is like learning the mother tongue.	-3	0
40. A teacher has the power to make a difference in society. (2 participants)	+4	+1
	0	+3
5. The more words a teacher knows, the more competent he/she is in teaching English.	-2	-1
39. Society does not pay much respect to teachers like before. (2 participants)	+2	0
	0	+3
19. English language teachers should be friendly with their students.	+2	+3
37. English language teachers are expected to make more money than teachers of some other subjects.	-3	-2
12. Communicative language teaching works the best.	0	+3
29. Mastering English language endows social respect in Egypt.	+1	0

It can be noted that three of the respondents shifted the ranking position of the same statement (28), from higher to lower positions on the grid, i.e., from more agreement to less agreement. The statement is related clearly to how others, including every member in their social contexts, acknowledge or appreciate teachers' thoughts and viewpoints on educational matters. The initial stances of two respondents indicate that people do not listen to them and value their input about such matters, but their final assignment on the representative Q sort of the group (-2) indicates that they are heard to some extent. However, such hesitancy from agreement to disagreement in one case, and from agreement to neutral in another, could mean that they are not sure about it. Similar hesitation on statements 29, 34, 37, 39, 40 and 41 indicate that there is a conflict in relation to concepts of power and status as well as concerns related to socioeconomic expectations and frustrations. Other hesitations or shifts in the statements indicate their inclinations towards what can work better for students regardless of that conflict. Their initial rankings show that they may prefer teaching styles that are more authoritative or less learner-centred in a society whose students care more about passing exams (24: +1), but they seem to persist in choosing a path that is more inclusive of CLT (see statements 12 and 18) and more friendly with their students (statement 19). Their overall stance with respect to comparing learning English to learning MT (8: -2) and the related hesitation from one respondent could also relate to the role of EFL teacher in the process of teaching and learning a language that is not native to students. In general, they believe that teachers play major roles as students do not have full responsibility for their learning (23: -3*).

7.2.2 Belief Typology/Factor 2: Balancing a Position and Focusing on Students' Needs

The five respondents who loaded on this factor seemed to believe in keeping positive interpersonal relationships with their students for whom, as members of Egyptian society, English is a necessity. As teachers, they cater for those students' needs in spite of other social

challenges with which they seem to try to keep a balance. The following crib sheet shows statements with which they agreed or disagreed most, and the ones they ranked higher or lower than in all other factors.

Table 7.5

Crib Sheet for Q Sort Factor 2

Items ranked at +4
19. English language teachers should be friendly with their students.
2. English language is a necessity for Egyptians.
Items ranked higher in factor 2 than in other factors
20. English language teachers are responsible for making students learn. +3
11. Some language skills need to be taught and focused on separately. 2 +* (tied with belief typology 5 but higher in Z score)
25. Nobody supports English teachers at their job/in the workplace. +1*
37. English language teachers are expected to make more money than teachers of some other subjects. 0*
Items ranked lower in factor 2 than in other factors
6. An English teacher should get an international certificate in language proficiency. -3*
9. Language skills should be taught integratively. -3*
5. The more words a teacher knows, the more competent he/she is in teaching English. -3*
7. An English teacher should have an academic certificate in teaching. 0*
Items ranked at -4
15. The mother tongue (Arabic) should be allowed to be used in English classes. *
26. Private lessons are more important/valuable than school lessons to English teachers.

Note. * indicates a distinguishing statement.

Like their colleagues who loaded more onto belief typology 1, the teachers who sorted their statements under belief typology 2 similarly agree most that English teachers should be friendly with their students (19: +4). In the same rank, they placed the statement that English language is a necessity for Egyptians (2: +4). Believing in the importance of English for Egyptians, probably due to colonial influence or global dominance (1: +1), they seem to focus on social interaction and interpersonal relationships with their students who

should follow their instructions and advice all the time (22: +2) while doing more tasks and exercises to improve their English (16: +3), as it is not the student's responsibility to master the language as they like (23: -2). In this vein, they seem to view their position in terms of helping with a goal that is necessary (for Egyptians), so students should follow their advice and instruction to achieve that goal of learning English. Teachers of this belief typology feel responsible for their students' learning (20: +3), even though they believe that those students care more about passing exams than acquiring the language (24: +3). What distinguishes this typology is their unconcern about classroom management issues (30: -3) as well as managerial issues (31: -1). They believe that no one supports them at the workplace (25: +1*), but they do not seem to worry much about that (31: -1). In this sense, it could be argued that they subjectively balance or choose to equalize their position on both micro-social and macrosocial levels believing that they participate as effective agents in achieving a goal that is necessary for society, but they seem more focused on the recognition they get from their students.

For them, English teachers do not need to get an international certificate in language proficiency (6: -3*) or have more vocabulary knowledge to be competent in teaching the language (5: -3*). Even a certificate in teaching does not seem to be a necessary requirement for them (7: 0*). Such criteria that may put their knowledge and skills to test are not encouraged by them. What gets approval from them, though, is the supposition that English teachers are judged by the way they pronounce English when they speak (36: +1). Such beliefs may also indicate that they choose to marginalize social or institutional recognition and prioritize recognition from their small circles of students and probably colleagues based on their pronunciation of English.

In this connection, they care about their relationship with their students, but they seem to consciously ignore or overcome classroom and workplace obstacles. They believe that, to

an extent, society does not respect teachers like before (39: +1), but parents' comments do not seem to affect their feelings about their students (31: -1). They would like their children to be English teachers in the future, which indicates that they know that their job has its own advantages in spite of some negative aspects. Those advantages could be the greater respect they receive than teachers of other subjects (36: +1) and the belief that as teachers they can make a difference in the Egyptian society (40: +3) to which English language is a necessity. And although they did not agree clearly on the supposition that English teachers are expected to make more money than teachers of other subjects (37: 0*), this statement's rank was actually higher than in all other factors.

This group of teachers believe that CLT works best in teaching the language (12: +2) while teaching to the test does not (14: -2). However, they know that teachers are valued by how many students they have in their private lessons (34: +2) which are more focused on helping students getting higher grades in exams, but this does not make them value those lessons more than the ones they teach at schools (26: -4). Nevertheless, and probably because they care about their students' needs and expectations, both their approval and disapproval of prioritizing private lessons and teaching to the test got middle ranks, i.e., +2 and -2, respectively. Two other distinguishing statements suggest that they try to keep a balance between what they think is theoretically or ideally effective and what their students need as they agreed that some skills are more important than the others (11: +2*) and that language skills should not be taught integratively (9: -3*). Their prioritization of separately focusing on certain skills could be a reference to examination-oriented skills like reading and writing as they believe that students care more about passing exams rather than learning the language (24: +3).

All in all, the respondents under this typology seem goal-oriented in terms of focusing on what their students need while trying to keep a balance in language teaching and get

recognition from their close circles of students and colleagues. Their social and professional expectations seem to orbit around what their students demand and how their relationships with them stay intact. Bigger circles of managerial or social contexts do not seem to distract them.

7.2.2.1 Shifting Ranks and Hesitations

The following table shows the instances of shifting ranking positions as recorded on videos of hand movements and individual Q sort placements by five teachers who loaded significantly on belief typology 2.

Table 7.6

Hesitations in Ranking by Factor 2 Respondents

Statement	Initial rank	Final rank
28. Nobody listens to teachers' opinions about educational matters.	+1	0
4. An English teacher should be native-like in all the skills and components of language.	+2	0
14. Teaching to the test works well in learning English in Egyptian schools.	+4	0
12. Communicative language teaching works the best.	+4	+3
41. If I had a child, I would like him/her to be an English language teacher.	-3	-1
33. After my experience in teaching, I have got less enthusiastic about my job.	-4	-3
21. English language teachers should keep students busy so that they don't misbehave. (2 participants)	-4 -2	-2 0
31. Managerial decisions affect how teachers feel about their mission and performance.	+3	+4
16. The more tasks and exercises students do, the better their English will be.	+4	+3
30. Classroom management issues can prevent effective teaching. (2 participants)	+2 -4	+3 -3
37. English language teachers are expected to make more money than teachers of some other subjects	+3	+2
25. Nobody supports English teachers at their job/in the workplace.	+1	0
13. Grammar-translation method is more effective with Egyptian students.	-4	-3
35. English language teachers are judged by the quality of their English, especially when they speak.	-3	-1
15. The mother tongue (Arabic) should be allowed to be used in English classes.	+2	-4

Remarkable in two instances of shifting ranks here is their relation to focusing more on what happens inside the classroom rather than what happens outside it. As long as they keep students busy (21:0) and manage their classes well (30: -3), they do not seem to care much about other external factors. Two teachers in both instances shifted the ranks of these two statements toward more relative agreement ($+2 \Rightarrow +3$, $-4 \Rightarrow -3$ and $-4 \Rightarrow -2$, $-2 \Rightarrow 0$) although their representative Q sort shows neutral or negative rankings regarding these two statements.

Other ranking shifts by other participants show less concern about support from the school community (25: +1) and about nobody listening to their opinions about education (28: -1). In both cases, ranking was shifted from +1 to 0. One from the same group, though, idiosyncratically agreed with the statement that managerial issues affect how he feels about his job; however, the other four teachers disagreed with this statement, ranking it -1 or -2. This could be due to a personal experience of that respondent, which may be evident in his ranking shift of the related statement from +3 to +4.

When it comes to losing their enthusiasm about the job (33: -2), one ranking shift shows that the respondent seems trying to keep it up ($-4 \Rightarrow -3$), while another shift indicates more acceptance of their children having the same teaching job in the future (41: +2), ($-3 \Rightarrow -1$). In all cases, it could be assumed that all teachers loading on this factor are aware of social challenges and have worries and concerns about them, but they still seem to put them aside and focus on what works within the classroom regardless of what others think or do.

When it comes to their beliefs about language teaching and learning, the majority of them showed hesitations about teaching styles, which could indicate less inclination to CLT ($+4 \Rightarrow +3$) and using Arabic in class ($+2 \Rightarrow -4$), as well as teaching to the test ($+4 \Rightarrow 0$) and students doing more exercises and practices ($+4 \Rightarrow +3$). One hesitation indicates more inclination to the grammar-translation method ($-4 \Rightarrow -3$). Such hesitations may imply their

practical inclusion of teaching styles that prove teachers' efficacy to students and how they are competent in teaching English in general and teaching to the test in particular. They may know and believe that grammar-translation method does not work in learning the language but that it works for what students want.

Other ranking shifts related to being native-like (4:0), (+2⇒0) or being judged by their English pronunciation (35: +1), (-3⇒-1) may be linked to their cognitions about how their students and their colleagues may evaluate their English, and part of that evaluation could lead to convincing students and other counterparts of their abilities. These two statements had hesitations and ranking shifts between agreement and disagreement, which could indicate the teachers' concerns about such criteria.

7.2.3 Belief Typology/Factor 3: Asserting a Position and Focusing on Efficacy

Three respondents loaded on this factor and seemed to believe in their own worthiness as teachers and the effective role they play in their society. Their sense of their identities, whether locally or even regionally, seems to shape their overall belief typology and their teaching approaches as well. The following crib sheet shows statements with which they agreed or disagreed most, and the ones they ranked higher or lower than in all other factors.

Table 7.7

Crib Sheet for Q Sort Factor 3

Items ranked at +4
2. English language is a necessity for Egyptians
40. A teacher has the power to make a difference in society.

Items ranked higher in factor 3 than in all factors
42. Egyptian English teachers are the best in the Arab world. +3*
27. Everyone thinks they know what English teachers should do. +2
26. Private lessons are more important/valuable than school lessons to English teachers. -1*

Items ranked lower in factor 3 than in all factors
18. Memorization is the key factor in learning English. -3*
39. Society does not pay much respect to teachers like before. -2*
21. English language teachers should keep students busy so that they don't misbehave. -2
24. Students care more about passing exams rather than acquiring the language. 0

Items ranked at -4
13. Grammar-translation method is more effective with Egyptian students. *
25. Nobody supports English teachers at their job/in the workplace. *

Note. * indicates a distinguishing statement.

Those who share the perspectives expressed under this typology believe that a teacher has the power to make a difference in society (40: +4), a society for which English language is a necessity. Believing in their own power, they think that Egyptian teachers of English are the best in the Arab world (42: +3*), although there are no factual data to assert this. Such self-esteem that goes beyond the borders of their community seems to distinguish how they see their role as teachers as well as their context in general. They disagree with the assumption that society does not respect them like before (39: -2*) or that nobody supports them at the workplace (25: -4*). Managerial decisions do not affect their feelings about what they do (31: -1), and they also believe that people listen to their opinions about educational matters (28: -1). The outer context does not seem to be a big concern to those teachers, yet

when it comes to the classroom context, they care for keeping a friendly relationship with their students (19: +3) who, they think, care about language learning and passing exams equally, or so it seems (24: 0). However, they slightly agree that classroom management issues could negatively affect their teaching (30: +1).

With regard to teaching the language, they totally disapprove of the grammar-translation method (13: -4*) and believe that CLT works the best (12: +3). For them, language skills should be taught integratively (9: +3), but it is ok if they teach them separately (11: +1) as some skills are more important than the others (10: +1). It should be noted, though, that with regard to both previous statements, it is a low-ranked agreement. In the same vein, they believe that the mother tongue should not be allowed in class (15: -2), and that neither teaching to the test (14: -3) nor memorization (18: -3*) works effectively in learning English. They feel responsible for their students' learning (20: +2), and they are not certain if the student is responsible for it (24:0).

All in all, students should always follow what they say to learn the language. This belief could be based on their self-esteem, considering that they are among the best teachers in the Arab world and know what works for learning the language. It is perhaps in the same sense that they disagree with minimizing the role of the teacher in error-correction (17: -1) as the teacher's intervention seems necessary to them.

Respondents who loaded on this factor think that teachers should have a teaching certificate (7: +2) as well as an international certificate in language proficiency (6: +2). They are judged by their pronunciation (35: +1), so they may need to be native-like in every aspect of the language (4: 0). To some extent, private lessons are not their concern (26: -1), and they disagree with being valued based on them (34: -2*). They also believe that as English teachers, they are not expected to make more money than teachers of other subjects (37: -2).

The teachers who share these views seem to really care about their classes and their students, while they arguably impose their own view of themselves, their efficacy and their esteem on others or assume that this is how others see them. They seek what could be right for them and their students regardless of the influence or limitations of other contextual factors. They think of themselves highly, and they would like to see their children as future English teachers who will be respected by society, even though they may not make much money or gain other socioeconomic advantages. Such teachers sound positive. Their sense of the negative seems to be minimal, and they see that they have a respected role that keeps motivating them while they are in class working with and for their students.

7.2.3.1 Shifting Ranks and Hesitations

The table below shows shifts in ranking by this group of three teachers. The three respondents shifted different statements except for one statement that was shifted by two of them.

Table 7.8*Hesitations in Ranking by Factor 3 Respondents*

Statement	Initial rank	Final rank
24. Students care more about passing exams rather than acquiring the language.	+1	-1
25. Nobody supports English teachers at their job/in the workplace.	-1	0
13. Grammar-translation method is more effective with Egyptian students.	+1	0
18. Memorization is the key factor in learning English.	+1	0
36. English language teachers get more respect than other teachers of some subjects.	+1	+2
22. Students should always follow the teacher's instructions and advice in language learning. (2 participants)	+1	0
1. English is the colonizer's language that happened to be global.	+1	-1
30. Classroom management issues can prevent effective teaching.	-3	0
12. Communicative language teaching works the best.	+1	0
39. Society does not pay much respect to teachers like before.	-1	0
10. Some language skills are more important than others.	0	+3
7. An English teacher should have an academic certificate in teaching	+1	+4
6. An English teacher should get an international certificate in language proficiency.	-3	+4
37. English language teachers are expected to make more money than teachers of some other subjects	-2	-1
9. Language skills should be taught integratively.	-1	0

Two of the three respondents shifted the rank of one same statement (22: +1), moving it from agreement to neutrality. This hesitation shows that they initially believe that it is important for students to follow the 'knowledgeable' teacher's directions all the time; however, they seem to care about learner autonomy to an extent (23: 0). Their positive attitude to things made them the group with the highest shifts from agreement or disagreement to neutrality. Such neutrality could seem like a way to keep the balance between what they know and experience and what they prefer and choose according to their perspectives.

So, when it comes to receiving respect from society or support at the workplace, they initially indicate disagreement with the lack of respect compared to the past (-1) or absence of

support (-1), and then move both to 0. The same with classroom management issues and how they may affect them; the related statement gets shifted from -3 to 0. They seem to mind such issues, but they choose to be indifferent to them. However, when it comes to being more respected by teachers of other subjects, which sounds positive to them, ranking moves in one instance from +1 to +2.

More careful stances are taken regarding teaching methods and styles. The representative Q sort shows solid positions regarding their rejection of memorization (18: -3) and the grammar-translation method (13: -4) and their approval of CLT (12: +3) and teaching language skills integratively (9: +3). However, the ranking shifts related to them show how they may be unsure about their implementation in reality. They prefer to take a positive and seemingly ideal stance in general, and although one of them agreed initially with the statement that students care more for passing exams rather than learning the language, the statement was later shifted to -1, which may imply their uncertainty or wishful attitude to students and their priorities.

Noteworthy is that they still agree that some language skills are more important than the others (10: +1) and need to be focused on separately (11: +1). Such ranks show a careful predilection that shows less contradiction with what they chose as the best and the more positive. The ranking shift for statement 10 from 0 to +3 demonstrates such hesitation. As mentioned earlier, and because they see themselves as the best teachers in the Arab world, some of them shift rankings of statements that refer to teachers' qualifications and skills from disapproval or relatively lower approval to higher approval. (6: -3 \Rightarrow +4, 7: +1 \Rightarrow +4).

They seem to avoid being critical of most things, even themselves. The same applies to their view of English language as the colonizer's language that happened to be global; the representative Q sort shows a ranking of 0 as if they do not want to give a clear-cut stance

that would sound negative. One ranking shift shows that hesitation between initial agreement with the related statement (+1) and final disagreement with it (-1).

7.2.4 Belief Typology/Factor 4: Overlooking the Position and Focusing on Students'

Practice

The four respondents who loaded on this factor indicated beliefs related to how they are aware of some contextual challenges, but they seemingly chose to overlook them and do their job as suits them best. The following crib sheet shows the statements they agreed or disagreed with most, and the ones they ranked higher or lower than in all other factors.

Table 7.9*Crib Sheet for Q Sort Factor 4*

Items ranked at +4
16. The more tasks and exercises students do, the better their English will be.
39. Society does not pay much respect to teachers like before. *
Items ranked higher in factor 4 than in all factors
35. English language teachers are judged by the quality of their English, especially when speaking. +3*
1. English is the colonizer's language that happened to be global. +2
4. An English teacher should be native-like in all the skills and components of language. +2*
15. The mother tongue (Arabic) should be allowed to be used in English classes. +1
29. Mastering English language endows social respect in Egypt. +1
13. Grammar-translation method is more effective with Egyptian students. +1*
28. Nobody listens to teachers' opinions about educational matters. 0
Items ranked lower in factor 4 than in all factors
32. Parents' comments and opinions affect how a teacher feels about students. -3
10. Some language skills are more important than others. -3
11. Some language skills need to be taught and focused on separately. -1*
36. English language teachers get more respect than other teachers of some subjects. -2
12. Communicative language teaching works the best. +1*
Items ranked at -4
3. English is a silly language if compared to Arabic.
34. English language teachers are valued by the number of students in their private lessons.

Note. * indicates a distinguishing statement.

Teachers who share the views under this typology are the ones who clearly stated that society does not respect teachers like before (39: +4*), a distinguishing and characterizing statement that was ranked at +4. They do not want their children to be English teachers, yet they are not that determined about it (41: -1). They still believe that teachers can make a difference in Egyptian society (40: +2) to which English is a necessity (2: +3). They view English as the colonizer's language that happened to be global (1: +2), yet it is not a silly language if compared to Arabic (3:-4*). For them, mastering English endows social respect

(29: +1), and they distinctively believe that English teachers should be native-like in all language skills and components (4: +2*), especially since it aligns with another distinguishing statement they agree with, that English teachers are judged by their English pronunciation (35: +3*).

Their rankings suggest that they are aware of the relative loss of recognition and negative comments of parents, but they probably chose not to acknowledge them (32: -3). They are not sure if anyone listens to their opinions about education (28: 0), so in this sense, they do their job even if there are classroom management issues (30: -3). They are dubious about or rather indifferent to managerial decisions and their impact on them (31: 0). A moderately positive view they expressed about the context is the existence of some support at the workplace (25: -2).

When it comes to language teaching and learning, they completely agree that students should do more tasks and exercises to improve their English (16: +4). They also agree that students care more about exams rather than language itself (24: +3). Their agreement with both statements indicates their realization of what students need and their focus on learning through practice rather than teaching itself. In other words, students bear the learning load. With this in mind, they believe that Arabic should be allowed in class (15: +1) and that learning English is like learning the mother tongue (8: +1). They believe that the grammar-translation method is more effective with Egyptian students (13: +1), who are examination-oriented (24: +3), yet they also believe that CLT works best in language learning. Both approaches, however, were ranked at +1, which may indicate their equivocal stances regarding them. Still, they ranked the grammar-translation method higher than in any other factor and ranked CLT lower than in any other factor. This may be due to their differentiation between learning English to the test and learning it as a language.

In all cases, though, they believe that teaching to the test does not work in learning English, but that is what students care about as they indicated. It is not that clear to them whether learning the language is the teacher's responsibility or the student's responsibility. They are neutral about both (20:0), (23:0) because they probably recognize the dilemma. Nevertheless, to meet students' expectations, they seem to give in to learning to the test. In that case, students should follow their instructions all the way (22: +2), and error correction should not be avoided (17: -1). And although they do not believe that some language skills need to be taught separately (11: -1) since none of them is more important than the other (10: -3), they are indecisive about teaching them integratively (9: 0) as well as the effectiveness of memorization (18: 0). Their neutral or indecisive stances to the previous teaching approaches or styles may indicate that teaching English for them is a situational process that is determined by their own evaluation of each classroom and its context, yet, in general, they seem to focus more on encouraging and directing students to do tasks and exercises that may help with passing tests as students want.

The teachers of this typology seem to passively resist what they do not like about their position or status in society by focusing on their own linguistic competence while adjusting their teaching roles to what fits into students' expectations. Bearing in mind that for them mastering English endows respect in society, they seem to care about mastering the language and its functional or communicative aspects, as indicated by their agreement with statements referring to how teachers should master English as a spoken language. They also indicated that English teachers should have a teaching certificate (7: +2), good vocabulary knowledge (5: +1), and probably a certificate in language proficiency. Their self-image as 'competent' speakers of the language somehow blurs their self-image as teachers or dominates in a way that makes them a little subjective and judgmental with regard to teaching situations and

decisions. They choose to comply with what most teaching situations require, and they give students some tasks and exercises as practice that may help make things perfect for them.

7.2.4.1 Shifting Ranks and Hesitations

The table below shows the ranking shifts done by the four respondents who loaded significantly on this belief typology. There are three statements that have been shifted by more than one respondent.

Table 7.10

Hesitations in Ranking by Factor 4 Respondents

Statement	Initial rank	Final rank
11. Some language skills need to be taught and focused on separately.	-1	0
23. It is the student's responsibility to master the language as he/she likes. (2 participants)	-3	-1
	+2	0
7. An English teacher should have an academic certificate in teaching	+1	-1
40. A teacher has the power to make a difference in society. (2 participants)	+1	+3
	+2	0
6. An English teacher should get an international certificate in language proficiency.	+1	-1
37. English language teachers are expected to make more money than teachers of some other subjects.	-1	+1
29. Mastering English language endows social respect in Egypt. (2 participants).	+1	0
	+3	0
25. Nobody supports English teachers at their job/in the workplace.	+2	-3
10. Some language skills are more important than others.	+1	0
32. Parents' comments and opinions affect how a teacher feels about students.	+3	0
33. After my experience in teaching, I have got less enthusiastic about my job.	+1	0

Two respondents changed the rank of statement 23, which refers to the student's own responsibility in mastering English as he/she likes (23: 0). Their ranking shifts show movement from more disagreement to less disagreement (-3⇒-1) or movement from agreement to neutrality (+2⇒0). This could be connected to their belief typology regarding their sense of responsibility for students' learning and their uncertainty about it in light of

their middle stance between CLT and the grammar-translation method as well as their view that students should always follow the teachers' instructions and advice as explained earlier. The hesitation evident in this statement goes in line with the ranking shifts of statement 40, which refers to the teacher's ability to make a difference in society (40: +2). The representative Q sort shows their agreement with it, yet the two ranking shifts show a degree of uncertainty (+1 \Rightarrow +3), (+2 \Rightarrow 0). Both hesitations about statements 23 and 40 could indicate their uncertainty about their agency as well as their students' readiness for autonomous learning.

When it comes to the social significance of mastering EFL (29: -3), two ranking shifts reveal a sense of 'setback' in this regard. They show movement from agreement to neutrality, indicating doubt about its relevance or advantage in society. Other shifts from agreement to disagreement reveal more hesitance about matters related to job enthusiasm (33: -1), (+1 \Rightarrow 0), absence of support at the workplace (25: -2), (+2 \Rightarrow -3), and the impact of parents' comments on their feelings (32: -3), (+3 \Rightarrow 0). The three shifts related to the previous statement were all moved from agreement to disagreement or neutrality. Such shifts could indicate that they initially had such concerns in mind, and they found them worrying, but they preferred to disregard them. The three statements are connected with their perception of social factors and their ostensible struggle with them.

With respect to teaching English, there were ranking shifts related only to focusing on certain language skills rather than the others. The two instances of shifting ranks of statements 10 (-3) and 11 (-1) show, again, their inclination to neutrality in that respect. Although both statements get negative rankings on the representative Q sort, it can be argued that they know that this is what students look for in private lessons, and that is why two of them moved such a statement from agreement or disagreement to neutral (10: +1 \Rightarrow 0, 11: -1 \Rightarrow 0). Other remarkable shifts related to teaching English are the two about English teachers'

qualifications (6:0), (7: +2). The first is about language proficiency certificate, while the second is about teaching certificate. The shifts show moving both statements from agreement to disagreement (6: +1 \Rightarrow -1, 7: +1 \Rightarrow -1). Such change of mind, for both respondents, could also indicate their sense of unworthiness or, in other words, disinterest in required conditions or efficacy standards that teachers should have in order to teach English to students who care more about passing exams (24: +3). Such qualifications and certificates are, after all, social or institutional criteria. However, it should be noted that they stress teachers' being native-like (4: +2*) and speaking English properly (35: +3*). Both statements are related more to teachers' self-image among counterparts and students, and it seems that, for them, if teachers have both qualities, they do not have to be tested or qualified by institutional entities. Besides, they can teach English to students within their limited scope of expectations. Such expectations are related to the assumption that English teachers are expected to make more money. And although the representative Q sort shows the respondents' disagreement with the related statement (37: -2), the one shift of this statement from -1 to +1 may indicate their awareness of it and, supposedly, their subjective apathy to its reality.

7.2.5 Belief Typology/Factor 5: Acknowledging the Position and Focusing on the Practical

Four respondents loaded on this factor and indicated cognitions about how they are aware of, and probably satisfied with, their role as teachers of English within the expectations of society, and how they also try to follow practical approaches that meet those expectations. The following crib sheet shows statements with which they agreed or disagreed most, and the ones they ranked higher or lower than in all other factors.

Table 7.11

Crib Sheet for Q Sort Factor 5

Items ranked at +4
19. English language teachers should be friendly with their students.
22. Students should always follow the teacher's instructions and advice in language learning. *

Items ranked higher in factor 5 than in all factors
18. Memorization is the key factor in learning English. +3*
10. Some language skills are more important than others. +3
6. An English teacher should get an international certificate in language proficiency. +3
14. Teaching to the test works well in learning English in Egyptian schools. +2*
32. Parents' comments and opinions affect how a teacher feels about students. +1

Items ranked lower in factor 5 than in all factors
4. An English teacher should be native-like in all the skills and components of language. -3
29. Mastering English language endows social respect in Egypt. -3*
31. Managerial decisions affect how teachers feel about their mission and performance. -2
17. Error correction should be avoided as much as possible. -2
40. A teacher has the power to make a difference in society. -1*
35. English language teachers are judged by the quality of their English, especially when speaking. 0

Items ranked at -4
3. English is a silly language if compared to Arabic.
34. English language teachers are valued by the number of students in their private lessons.

Note. * indicates a distinguishing statement.

A remarkably distinguishing statement under this typology is that *students should always follow the teacher's instructions and advice in language learning* (22: +4*). This goes in line with the belief that the same participants share, that teaching to the test works well in learning English, as indicated in another distinguishing statement (14: +2*). With these two perceptions in mind, it is understandable to find yet another distinguishing statement demonstrating that memorization is a key factor in learning English (18: +3*). On the other side of the grid, one distinct statement could explain much about the holders of these views,

as they disagree with the assumption that teachers have the power to make a difference in society.

Society is a latent factor in shaping the participants' views. They sound like they do not mind it much as they cannot change it, but near their neutral stances, they point out that society does not respect teachers like before (39: +1). They also state that parents' comments affect their feelings about their students. They almost ignore students' behaviours in class (30: 0), yet they clearly state that managerial issues do not have an impact on what they do in their classes (31: -2). As for support at the workplace and acknowledgement of their opinions on educational matters, they disagree with their absence, but their ranks of disagreement seem uncertain, and perhaps even hopeful, that such privileges exist (25: -1), (28: -1). What they seem to care about is to keep a healthy and friendly relationship with their students (19: +4), who seem to care about passing exams rather than learning the language (24: +1).

Although the participants holding these views consider communicative language teaching to be effective (12: +2), they adopt memorization and teaching to the test, probably because they meet students' and parents' needs. So, more tasks and exercises may help with learning the language (16: +1), and more attention should be paid to more important skills (10: +3), which are usually tested in final exams, and, certainly, there should be no room for avoiding error correction (17: -2).

As professionals, they believe that Egyptian teachers of English are the best in the Arab world (42: +2). They also think that they should have an international certificate in language proficiency (6: +3) and an academic certificate in teaching (7: +2). Their vocabulary knowledge should be good (5: +1), but they are not sure about the importance of their English pronunciation (35: 0). In all cases, they should be qualified, but not necessarily native-like in their language skills (4: -3). They do not have a negative attitude to English

language (3: -4), (1: -2), and they do not lay much importance on private lessons (34: -4), (26: -2). English teachers are not expected to make more money after all (37: -3).

The participants seem to know what is good for their students, but they choose what is pragmatic and what helps to avoid negative comments or attitudes from parents and students. They try to minimize social conflict by relatively acknowledging the background of the picture, pushing all worries about status and respect to the back of their minds. They have self-respect as the “best teachers in the Arab world”, and they know what is good for their students, but if those students want to pass exams, they can go along with that. In all cases, they do not want their children to do such a job in the future (41: -2).

Teachers who loaded on this factor believe, more than others, that an English teacher does not need to be native-like in all aspects of language, and so they are indecisive about being judged by the quality of their pronunciation. It could be argued that they feel more comfortable teaching literacy skills, as they may not have good audio-oral skills. Such an argument is supported by some interview informants finding it difficult to start a conversation in English. Therefore, they accept their position and act according to what students and their parents need without worrying much about theoretical recommendations or social recognition.

7.2.5.1 Shifting Ranks and Hesitations

The following table shows the ranking shifts done by four respondents who loaded significantly on this typology. There were only six shifts and hesitations amongst all the rankings the four respondents made, which were also the lowest number of shifts amongst teachers loading to all factors. Those teachers are the ones with the least degrees of indecisiveness or uncertainty in ranking statements.

Table 7.12*Hesitations in Ranking by Factor 5 Respondents*

Statement	Initial rank	Final rank
28. Nobody listens to teachers' opinions about educational matters.	+3	-1
5. The more words a teacher knows, the more competent he/she is in teaching English.	-4	-2
24. Students care more about passing exams rather than acquiring the language.	+3	+2
32. Parents' comments and opinions affect how a teacher feels about students.	+3	0
29. Mastering English language endows social respect in Egypt	+1	-2
15. The mother tongue (Arabic) should be allowed to be used in English classes.	-4	-3

Such low number of shifts may be consonant with their pragmatic beliefs. They seem to know what they want, and they do not need to think twice before stating their stances with regard to many statements.

With statements related to social context, they shifted their ranking from positive to negative or neutral: The first one is about not being heard on education matters (28: -1), (+3⇒-1), and the second is about mastering English as a social advantage (29: -3), (+1⇒-2). In both cases, they chose to change their initial agreement to a final disagreement. As explained previously, it seems that they just decided to acknowledge such ideas. Even with the third statement, which is related to the impact of parents' comments on their feelings (32: +1), the amount of agreement the representative Q sort gives to it is minimal, and the one shift from +3 to 0 by one of the respondents indicates the degree of concern they may have about it. It could be said that this is the only social aspect that matters to them because it seems to do with students and private lessons as well.

When it comes to learning and teaching English, one minor shift from +3 to +2 shows one case of hesitation about the statement that students care more about passing exams (24: +1), and it also shows that, for them, its reality is undeniable. Using Arabic in class (15: -1) also got a small shift from -4 to -3. This shift indicates a degree of acceptance when it is

needed. The same degree of agreement is shown in another hesitation about teachers' vocabulary knowledge (5: +1), (-4 \Rightarrow -2). Although they continue to disagree with this statement, the shift shows that such knowledge is also necessary for the practical aspects of learning, whether in school lessons or private tutoring. Most students need to improve their vocabulary knowledge because it will definitely help them answer most written exam questions. Teachers know that students would appreciate how many words the teacher knows, and how with such knowledge, they can help students learn or memorize the ones they need for final exams.

7.2.6 General Discussion of Q Sort Findings

The findings of the Q factor analysis suggest that the participants' cognitions, as represented in their factorised subjective views, are centred around their positions on both micro-social and macro-social levels, i.e., whether in class, in school or in society. All factors indicated how they perceive their positions along with their teaching practices, which, from their perceptions and subjective points of view, seem to work in harmony with how they view themselves and their status. These findings are by and large consistent with findings by Block (2015) in his study of language teacher identities. Block reported that the two participating teachers were found to "construct subjectivities critical of accepted practices regarding how students and teachers are positioned and treated" (p. 22). He argues that these constructed subjectivities, among others, comprise language teacher identities.

In other words, all factors seem to point to teacher identity and teaching praxis or practices. Within both constructs resides the social and the institutional, which are together part of the cultural context. It could be argued then what holds all factors together and stands as an overarching concept is identity-in-practice (Wenger, 1998). Wenger explains that "the experience of identity in practice is a way of being in the world" (p. 151). According to him, a person's participation in social practices constructs their identity and their sense of it, and it

is a “constant becoming” (p. 154) in the sense that it is a continual development of an individual experiencing the world and negotiating their positions in it.

This very concept of identity-in-practice in his communities of practice theory calls to mind Bourdieu’s concept of habitus in his theory of practice, which, according to Gunter (2005), have much in common, although habitus involves “a rigorous theory of power” (p. 82) lacked by communities of practice theory. Gunter posits that “where we position ourselves within a field, and how we position others, is linked to the metafield of power, something which is undertheorized in Wenger’s account” (p. 83). This perspective is what Bourdieu (1990) simply explained as “the sense of the game acquired through prolonged immersion in the game, a sense of positioning...which always involves a sense of the place of others” (p. 113).

The findings of the Q factor analysis revealed the participants’ sense of positioning acquired through their ‘prolonged immersion’ in teaching English, while bearing in mind ‘the place of the others’, including stakeholders, students, parents and the wider society in general. It is their habitus in the field while struggling with position (power) and position-takings (practices). The first factor revealed that those who seek recognition of their position tend to teach English as a language, not as a scripted, textbook-based, examination-focused subject. However, the factor could also be interpreted otherwise, that teachers who loaded on this factor seek recognition because they do a better job or teach the language in a way distinct from what the majority do. Their sense of positioning expects more from the social circle of the school, including students, as well as the wider circle of society. In contrast, participants loading on factor 2 presumably chose to limit their expectations and their sense of positioning within their classrooms; hence, they focus on what students need rather than what the optimal theoretical recommendations suggest. It could also be interpreted conversely. That is to say, the recognition they get from students, and probably their parents,

for doing what students need according to the requirements of the education system afforded them a level of recognition they appreciated.

For factor 3 participants, it was more about how they impose recognition by believing in themselves and their self-efficacy regardless of how others may actually position them. Their focus is their knowledge and efficiency, so they seem to focus less on the needs of their social circles. Factor 4 respondents are relatively similar, yet they do not impose their sense of their position; they passively resist how others position them by passing the load of roles ascribed to them to students. They let students do most of the job. Factor 5 respondents seem to be more complacent and compliant with how they are positioned, and their position-takings or practices seem to fit perfectly with the expectations of their social circles.

Remarkably, the constructs of the factors are consistent with Cummins' (1996) coercive and collaborative power relations model, despite its focus on learners rather than teachers. Following is a related explanation of the model by Herath and Valencia (2015).

The individual or group [of the coercive type] with the highest symbolic capital (i.e., a teacher or an advanced learner) uses the existing power differential to their advantage; therefore, constraining learners' possibilities for negotiating their identities, learning or upward mobility...In collaborative relations of power, power and cultural capital are shared, knowledge is scaffolded and co-constructed." (p. 89)

While bearing in mind that for each factor, the sense of position is viewed from the respondent's perspective in relation to the whole context, the loadings of factors 1, 2 and 5 suggest more collaborative power relations between teachers and students, while the loadings on factors 3 and 4 suggest coercive ones. The following table shows a summary of each factor in terms of sense of position, power relations, and related teaching practices.

Table 7.13*Q Sort Factors and Their Connections with Positioning and Power Relations*

Factor	Sense of position	Power relations	Position – takings (practices)
Seeking a position and Focusing on CLT	Aspiring	Collaborative	Theoretical/ language-oriented
Balancing a Position and Focusing on Students' Needs	Balancing	Collaborative	Practical/situational/examination-oriented
Asserting a Position and Focusing on Efficacy	Asserting	Coercive	Theoretical & pragmatic
Overlooking the Position and Focusing on Students' Practice	Disregarding	Coercive	Practical/ students' practices
Acknowledging the Position and Focusing on the Practical	Accepting	Collaborative	Practical/examination-oriented/rote learning

Within the process of teaching and learning as a social practice, the construction of both teachers' and learners' identities is in a state of constant becoming, and their habitus is both structuring and structured within the inclusive rule-governed frame of the context, where pedagogical action takes place. And as Bourdieu and Passeron (1977/2000) argue, "all pedagogic action (PA) is, objectively, symbolic violence insofar as it is the imposition of a cultural arbitrary by an arbitrary power" (p. 5).

In this sense, power is transmitted, or imposed, and identities, which are formed and conditioned by power (Zembylas, 2003), are negotiated according to the rules set by the culture (field) and the positions ascribed or taken by groups or individuals. More discussion in this regard will follow.

As for shifting ranks and hesitations in Q sorting, which is not technically part of regular Q sort procedures, it was an attempt to dive more into the teachers' implicit cognitions based on the fluctuations of their hand movements and/or mind change. The hesitations in ranking the five factors seemed to reflect the participants' indecisiveness between their explicit knowledge regarding the optimal, ideal, socially appropriate and

academically endorsed beliefs versus the habitus shown in their practical, reality-bound, and contextually grounded implicit knowledge. They also indicated that for every cognition or belief expressed in the ranked statements, there is a myriad of other factors in interplay within the participant's head, especially in seeing each statement in comparison to other ones that brought other considerations to their minds.

The findings related to hesitations and shifts in ranking the Q statements are partially in line with the findings of Sun et al. (2020) as regards the tension between implicit beliefs and explicit beliefs of EFL teachers. Although the authors used a different method to investigate teachers' implicit beliefs, i.e., the Implicit Association Test, along with interview, their findings indicated that most teachers held implicit beliefs in favour of non-traditional CLT approaches while the interviews' findings indicated that some of them, despite their implicit preference for CLT, also believed that traditional methods are efficient, especially in light of contextual and institutional barriers.

Together with the findings related to the extracted Q factors as well as other findings in this chapter, it could be argued that teachers' cognitions, as complex and dynamic as they are, need to be investigated from the perspective of the teacher and in light of other factors and concepts that work interdependently in shaping teachers' cognitions. In this sense, a teacher may explicitly state that he or she believes that CLT, for example, is the most effective approach to teaching EFL. However, when prompted or asked about the same belief statement in light of other factors brought up by the researcher or recalled by the participant, the same stance may change, and implicit knowledge or thoughts seem to take the lead. Here we can see habitus as a "socialized subjectivity" (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 126), in other words, habitus in its subconscious (implicit) aspects as formulated and constructed by contextual factors. Such implicit aspects could be better understood by investigating the interplay between implicit and explicit thoughts through Q sorting as a communicative

process (see Stephenson, 1953; Watts & Stenner, 2012). Recording the process while focusing on where respondents started and finished ranking provided more useful data regarding this communication and this interplay between the explicit and the implicit. This approach to analysing and interpreting Q is based on and inspired by Brown (1980) while also taking account of Wittgenstein's perspective of language as a form of life. Brown (1980) notes:

within the more limited confines of a Q-sorting session it serves to draw attention away from the logical meaning of isolated words and phrases and to seek their meaning in terms of the "flavor added" by the total milieu of the accompanying behavioral field. Wittgenstein (1971b: 181-182) has noted that words in a sentence can display different aspects depending on the degree to which they carry the principal stress of the sentence. (pp. 46-47)

7.3 Interview and Observation Findings

The following findings from the interview data analysis reflect the cognitions of 14 in-service teachers who participated as interview informants. The findings presented here are related to their cognitions about EFL as well as teaching and learning it in the Egyptian context. It also includes how they view their roles as teachers.

7.3.1 Cognitions about English as a Foreign Language

The following cognitions emerged as recurrent constructs regarding how the informants perceive EFL as a language they speak or teach. They were asked how they see English language. Their responses varied from personal to social and global perceptions about it as will be presented below.

Before reporting their cognitions about EFL, it is worthwhile presenting the results of questionnaire item (B38) about how difficult English is as a language (see Appendix D), as 67.8% (n=80) of the respondents described it as a language of medium difficulty, while

25.4% (n =30) found it an easy or a very easy language, and only 6.8% (n=8) thought it is a very difficult language. However, when asked about how they see English as a language, the majority of the interviewed informants described it as an easy language, especially when compared to Arabic. The relative difference between the findings of the questionnaire and those of interview could be due to the supposition that interviewed teachers tried to sound proficient and competent. This might be related to their roles as teachers who try to make learning it feasible and unchallenging. MT5, for example, stated that he usually tells his students that “English is very easy and effortless” (MT5).

It should be also noted that most informants seemed to view English in terms of grammar and vocabulary as major components of reading and writing skills. FT1 commented that “in Arabic grammar, for example, there are many things that are difficult to cover completely, but English is clear... I always tell my students it is not difficult at all...easy rules.” While comparing English to Arabic, MT2 commented, “I sometimes draw students’ attention to some similarities and differences between the two languages because this actually helps with reading and writing, especially with the use of articles”. So, it seems that even in comparing MT to TL, the focus is on reading and writing skills, including vocabulary or grammar. This perspective was also asserted by MT3, who reported that he uses Arabic to show students how close it is to English in terms of grammar.

The reported practices of both teachers, MT2 and MT3, were consistent with their actual practices in their observation sessions. Both teachers used Arabic to explain some aspects of vocabulary or grammar. A similar perspective was expressed by four other teachers who found English grammar or vocabulary much easier than Arabic.

It is noteworthy that MT6, who believes that English is “much easier than Arabic”, finds it difficult for him to start a conversation in English due to how he was taught it in

schools. He said, “When I have to go through a situation in which I have to communicate in English, it is difficult”.

7.3.1.1 EFL: A Path to Upward Educational and Social Mobility

Most informants reported that English is demanded in the local and regional labour markets, and it is also required for studying courses in prestigious colleges in Egypt. Some also referred to how English would help students pursue their postgraduate studies, whether locally or abroad. MT2 argued that “English is important at the university level, important in finding a job, important for travelling, important for pursuing studies abroad”. MT5 alluded to the same perspective by stating that English “can open many chances for you, and I tell my students it will help them find a chance to work anywhere with any people. It can widen your opportunities for work, for learning...everything.”

Noteworthy is that all informants who see English as an important language for educational and social mobility emphasized how mastering the language requires mastering all its skills, especially communication skills.

7.3.1.2 EFL: The Language of the Global Village

Most informants highlighted how English enables people from different countries and cultures to communicate. As one teacher put it, “it is the dominant language in the world” (MT7). Another teacher expressed the same, stating that “English is the first language now worldwide” (MT12). However, it is remarkable that both teachers referred to the notion of dominance in terms of historical dominance of languages. The first teacher commented that English is dominant now “like in the past when Arabic was dominant among educated people even in Europe. They used Arabic to talk to their beloved girls to show how educated they were. Globalization has its influence.” (MT7). He was referring to the time of Muslim and Arab presence in the Iberian Peninsula (711-1492).

When asked if he thinks that the dominance of English may be due to certain linguistic aspects or because some say it is easier than some other languages, MT12 responded:

I think that English is the first language not because it is strong or anything...no, or because it is more accurate...no...we are not saying the truth this way. It is just the first language because the Western civilization is the dominant one at the moment.

The issue is so obvious, and it is not worth controversy.

MT12 stressed that “colonization, of course, was one of the reasons behind spreading it” and referred to how imperialism played a major role in spreading it. Both teachers also expressed their belonging to and pride in their native language, which was also suggested by the majority of other participants. However, they did not seem to have an antagonistic attitude to English, but rather a conservative one that values each language accordingly.

7.3.1.3 EFL: A Religious Incentive

In their reference to the importance of English as a language, three teachers mentioned how Islam encourages its followers to know a foreign language to help communicate with other nations. One teacher expressed that part of his interest in English is that there is a religious value in learning it as a foreign language. As Mohd-Asraf (2005) notes:

It is important to underscore the point that despite the conflict, or discord, as perceived by some Muslims, between Islamic values and some of the Western values as conveyed through English, it is considered desirable, in the Islamic worldview, to learn other languages and to know and appreciate the differences among various communities. (p. 115)

This was asserted by the three teachers as one of the reasons they find English important and encourage their students to learn it. One teacher (MT12) said, “As a Muslim, I find it

important to learn English as our religion encourages us [to learn a foreign language]. It gives me the chance to communicate with people from all over the world.” Another teacher expressed the same view by stating that “Islam invites us to learn a foreign language” (MT7). One more teacher, (FT14), added another dimension to the importance of English from her perspective as a Muslim. She noted that “as a world language, knowing it [English] helps a Muslim with telling others about the right foundations of his religion if he travels abroad”. Remarkable also is that a Coptic teacher (MT8) indicated how learning English as well as teaching it gave him a chance to volunteer as a teacher in the church Sunday school.

The above findings regarding informants’ cognitions about EFL as language seem to be deeply situated in the sociocultural context, including learning a foreign language in comparison to the mother tongue, the role of EFL in social mobility, globalization and the economic benefits of speaking English, and even the religious dimension in learning a foreign language. In other words, English is viewed from the lens of the sociocultural meanings ascribed to learning it as an easy language, if compared to Arabic, that along with the religious motivation to learn it, it has many socioeconomic advantages.

These findings are in line with the views that learning or speaking English endows a social and economic prestige (Ferguson, 2006; Pennycook, 2017; Phillipson, 2010). Also, they are broadly consistent with the findings of Pan and Block (2011), in which both students and teachers in China perceive English as a global language that opens the world for them, has economic advantages, and helps with upward social mobility. The authors also noted, based on Bourdieu’s (1991) conceptualization, that for their study participants, English was viewed as linguistic capital, which can be transformed into both economic and cultural capitals. The same applies to this study findings, yet, arguably, with specific characteristics related to the Egyptian sociocultural context, bearing in mind that religion as a social variable is “essential in defining the Egyptian identity” (Bassiouney, 2014, p. 206). It is also worth

mentioning that there is a special connection between Islam, the official religion of the state according to the Egyptian constitution, and standard Arabic as the official language of the country. Standard Arabic (SA) is also the language of the translated versions of the Bible used by Copts in Egypt. According to Bassiouney (2014), “Religion plays a broad role in the survival of SA. But there is also the romantic belief among speakers of Arabic, as well as Muslims more generally, in the appeal and superiority of their language” (p. 110). With this in mind, we can see how English as a cultural and economic capital is adjusted or integrated into the Egyptian field with its long-lasting and previously established identifiers of sociocultural capitals related to religion, mother tongue (SA), education and basic economic capitals. The findings suggest that they are aware of the importance of learning and speaking English, yet they also have their MT and its superiority in mind.

As Edgerton and Roberts (2014) argue, “individuals’ positions within a particular field derive from the interrelation of their habitus and the capital they can mobilize in that field” (p. 195). The informants’ comments suggest how those who can speak English as a ‘capital they can mobilize’ also have their habitus socially structured to consider the place of religion as represented in its connection with their ‘superior’ MT and the religious incentive in learning a foreign language.

English for them is an easy language as they indicated, yet within the scope of literacy skills, grammar and vocabulary, which, if compared to those of SA, are very easy and effortless. However, they are aware of the challenge of learning or practicing its communication skills and blame it on the education system (MT8) or how they were taught (MT6). This challenge made some of them decide to work on their speaking skills and to project their distinguished pronunciation of English, as will be discussed later in the chapter.

7.3.2 Cognitions About the Characteristics of a Good EFL Teacher

In their response to a question about the characteristics of a good English teacher, the participants mentioned both personal and professional attributes. They did not specifically differentiate those attributes based on these two categories as they mixed them most of the time. While explaining those attributes, they either referred to previous teachers they still remember and appreciate their personalities in class or ascribed those attributes to themselves, whether directly or indirectly. It can be noted that the attributes they mentioned were about interpersonal relationships with others in general and students in particular, while the professional attributes were about teacher knowledge and teaching methods.

7.3.2.1 Sociability (Being Friendly)

Being friendly was one of the attributes the participants mentioned as a personal trait of a good English teacher while dealing with students (FT1, MT2, MT3, MT6, MT7, MT11, FT14). However, most of them asserted that this attribute should not be misunderstood, as “there should be some limits” (FT1). In other words, and as the same teacher put it, “a teacher should be a dignified friend”. MT6 commented that being friendly means trying to remove the age gap between the teacher and the student by being funny, for example, but again “within limits.” The assumption, as explained by another teacher (MT11), is that “if the student likes the teacher, he will like the subject.”

7.3.2.2 Emotional Stability (Being Patient)

Being patient was another attribute that some teachers (MT2, MT6, MT7, MT8, MT12, MT13) capitalized on as one of the important characteristics of a good English teacher. As MT6 noted, “the teacher should be like a bar of ice in class...so patient”. He commented that such patience is needed, especially with young learners who may take time to understand instructions, which, as MT13 confirmed, requires patience specifically in “explaining information step by step”. Other teachers emphasized that patience is needed

when students misbehave (MT7, MT8, MT12). MT2 highlighted the importance of being patient and tolerant with mistakes and misunderstandings. It was realized during the observation session with MT2 that he did not mind interruptions from some students who asked him to explain something they missed or did not understand. He repeatedly used the Arabic word *hadir*, which is an adjective that literally means ‘present’ and connotes obedience or willingness to do something.

7.3.2.3 Knowledge: Practical and Situational

Among the characteristics of a good English teacher, most informants said almost the same sentence common in Egyptian Arabic about people who master certain skills: “They know what they do”. For all of them, a teacher of English must have a qualification in English language but not necessarily in teaching it. FT4, FT10 and MT12 noted that students need to feel that the teacher knows what he or she does. Most informants highlighted the knowledge they had developed or acquired in their several trials and errors throughout their years of experience until they developed approaches and techniques that fit what students need and prove successful in classes. As MT8 noted, “You know...the academic qualification or what we studied at university is not sufficient for teaching in reality. There are situations that are not in the books, and you learn through practice and experience”.

They seemed to have students, themselves and the whole educational context in mind. FT10 commented that after her long experience in teaching, she knows what works for each type of class she teaches and adapts her approaches based on the levels and even the genders of students. In this regard, MT11 commented, “Put aside the textbook or the teacher’s guide and the recommended steps a teacher should follow. That is not my concern. The most important thing is the kid and what he needs to learn”.

7.3.2.4 Oral Proficiency

Some teachers (MT3, FT4, MT8, FT10, FT14) identified speaking in general and pronunciation in particular as indicators of a good English teacher. MT3 said, “If we describe a good English teacher in general, he should pronounce English well”. Fluency in English, including pronunciation in specific, was brought up by most other teachers in different parts of the interviews as a deficiency some of their past teachers had or an aspect that they need to improve themselves. FT10 noted that she had issues in her pronunciation and fluency because of her past teachers’ inadequate speaking and pronunciation skills and the way they taught English, which was also mentioned by MT8 and FT14. It should be noted that most participants mentioned or suggested dissatisfaction with their past teachers’ fluency or issues with pronunciation, especially those who were non-specialists. Also, for those who had positive experiences with their past English teachers, some (FT1, MT3, MT5) mentioned those teachers’ fluency and pronunciation of words as major positive characteristics.

7.3.2.5 Interactive Teaching Style

Most informants underscored that a good teacher should be able to engage students using interactive teaching styles to grab their attention and involve them in useful learning activities. MT2 commented that English is not like any other subject that could be taught through lecturing. During the observation session, it was realized that he involved many students in what he did but mainly through the regular exchange of questions and answers between him and students. FT1 commented that the lecturing style implemented in the past does not work anymore: “This is what we experienced in schools as learners, but English, because it is a language, you have to give and take...this interaction is sweet”.

Interactivity for most informants was mainly viewed in terms of the ‘give and take’ between the teacher and the student as in the teacher asks a question and the student answers it. This was also realized during the observation of MT2’s class as interactivity was mainly

present in teacher-student talk in which questions and answers based on the textbook were exchanged most of the time.

7.3.2.6 Language-Focused Teaching

The concept of teaching the language for its own sake rather than teaching it as a subject or teaching to the exam was also brought up by FT9 and MT12 to describe a good English teacher without mentioning certain attributes. FT9 seemed to prefer describing what the teacher does rather than what he or she is, has, or knows. She explained that “the good English teacher is the one who teaches the language, not part of the language”. By ‘part of the language,’ she was referring to focusing on grammar rules or vocabulary at the expense of communication skills. MT12 also highlighted that a good teacher should focus on teaching the language holistically; however, he also mentioned that when he does that, he receives some negative comments because students want him to focus on examination-oriented practices.

Most other teachers indicated a similar cognition yet indirectly. They all reiterated that a good English teacher should teach the language as a whole, but in several instances, they referred to themselves or others as examples of teachers who are good at teaching grammar, vocabulary and reading in particular.

7.3.2.7 Classroom Management Skills

Two teachers (MT7, MT13) stated that a good English teacher should have classroom management skills as they are necessary for language classes as they help with “information delivery” (MT7). Other informants also referred indirectly to how good teachers of English are able to manage their classes effectively. However, for many of them, it was part of how they are able to engage students and keep them interested in what the teacher does, but for MT7 and MT13, it was more about setting rules and drawing lines first. As MT7 commented,

“A good teacher manages the class so that they [students] can learn, even if learning is affected a little. We have students who do not listen at all”.

The above findings can be classified into four categories based on the classification scheme devised by Dinçer, Göksu, Takkaç, & Yazici (2013) in their review of over 30 studies in language education about the qualities of an effective English teacher. These categories are socio-effective skills (e.g., being friendly), subject-matter knowledge (including oral proficiency), personality characteristics (e.g., being patient) and pedagogical knowledge (including situational knowledge and classroom management). The informants’ responses fell into these categories, although the question was not designed based on the aforementioned classification. The findings also suggest that the informants view a good teacher as a person who has both empathetic and pragmatic qualities (cf. Fenstermacher & Richardson, 2005; Mullock, 2010). These findings are broadly in line with the findings from previous studies about teachers’ conceptions of a good English teacher (Brosh, 1996; Mullock, 2010; Skliar, 2014).

Based on content analysis, the following table summarises the characteristics mentioned by the informants organized by category and ranked according to the percentage of their occurrences.

Table 7.14

A Summary of Informants’ Cognitions About the Characteristics of a Good Teacher

Category	Quality or Characteristics	<i>n</i>	%
Pedagogical knowledge	Knowledge: Practical and Situational	8	57
	Language-Focused Teaching	1	7
	Classroom Management Skills	2	14
	Interactive Teaching Style	2	14
Socio-effective skills	Sociability (Being Friendly)	7	50
Personality characteristics	Emotional Stability (Being Patient)	6	43
Subject-matter knowledge	Oral Proficiency	2	14

As presented in the table, the informants attached more importance to pedagogical knowledge (92%), followed by socio-effective skills (50%), personality characteristics (43%) and subject-matter knowledge (14%). The order of these categories almost replicates the findings of Skliar's (2014) study, that NNESTs tend to attach more importance to pedagogical knowledge and less importance to oral proficiency as part of subject-matter knowledge. They are, however, different from the findings of Park and Lee's (2006) study of EFL teachers in the Korean context and Wichadee's (2010) study of EFL teachers in the Thai context, in which teachers ranked English proficiency the highest, although their findings were based on self-report questionnaires.

It should be noted, though, that subject-matter knowledge or English proficiency being the least occurrent quality in the findings should be interpreted with caution. One could argue that all of them presume, as many hinted, that an English teacher should know the language and have a qualification in it, which may not make them think of subject-matter knowledge as a distinguishing quality. However, and as the table shows, knowing how to teach English seems more significant as a representation of subject-matter knowledge that fits the context and the needs of students. Also, and as some informants admitted, some teachers struggle with oral proficiency, but this does not mean that they do not *know* the English of the textbooks and examinations or know how to teach it according to the requirements of the education system and the examination-focused needs of their students.

Regarding specific findings related to each category, especially within the Egyptian context, the quality of being patient as part of personality traits was also noted in the findings of Abdelhafez's (2010) study of professional practical knowledge of EFL experienced teachers in Egypt. The same quality was also revealed as an essential quality in the findings of previous studies of EFL education in other countries. Examples are Shishavan and Sadeghi

(2009) in Iran, Al-Mahrooqi et al. (2015) in Oman and Meksophawannagul (2015) in Thailand.

7.3.3 Cognitions About the Role of EFL Teacher

In terms of the role of the teacher, most participants gave details about what they are supposed to do in their classes to help their students learn English. However, the details they mentioned revealed that there were four conceptualizations that most of them considered or applied based on other contextual factors, as will be explained below.

7.3.3.1 The Ideal (Theoretical) Role

All teachers stated unanimously that the role of the EFL teacher is to help and encourage students to learn the language as a communication tool using all possible interactive, communicative methods that “academic textbooks” (MT8) recommend or suggest. In this role, and as most informants commented, the teacher is supposed to teach the four skills; use English most of the time and encourage students to use it, should be interactive with students using a variety of engaging activities (FT1, MT2), works as a “a guide who is more into learner-centred approaches of teaching” (FT10) as opposed to teacher-led approaches, encourages student participation and focuses less on mistakes (FT1, MT2, MT6, MT8, FT9). However, most of them dubbed that supposition or expectation as idealistic, impractical or what is proposed “on paper” (MT7), which implies wishful, theoretical thinking.

Other teachers mentioned the reality imposed by students themselves and the education system that makes students, and mostly their parents, keen on passing final exams with the highest possible grades rather than learning the language itself. Referring to her school students, FT4 commented:

There might be a few who would like to learn the language for its own sake, but most of them ask me to give them what will be tested in the final exams. That is the culture.

7.3.3.2 The Realistic (Examination-Oriented) Role

Part and parcel of the realistic role that all teachers referred to has to do with learning to the test. As reported by most informants, the role of the teacher in this sense is to mainly lecture or transmit information as regards grammar rules and vocabulary in terms of necessary or examination-oriented definitions and uses, use Arabic to make things easier and less time-consuming, give drills and exercises similar to what is expected in the final exams, provide ready-made handouts that summarize required words or rules to the minimally useful level, and prioritize memorization and repetition along with practical test-taking skills.

Some teachers reported that they tried to keep the balance between the ideal role and the realistic role. As MT5 put it in English, “I try to keep an equilibrium. I try” (MT5), but they also have to deal with several factors, as will be explained in Chapter 9. MT2 also explained:

Frankly, because of the plan of the curriculum and the design of tests, I may put listening aside sometimes and focus on what they need for the exam. The [official] plan...I am committed to it with inspectors who come and check. So, listening can be marginalized, but speaking happens most of the time, especially when students participate and are involved in lessons.

Classroom management and information delivery as the main role of the teacher in such situations were the tasks that those teachers cared the most about. One teacher mentioned that when students seem totally indifferent, he asked them to do what they like without making much noise, and he sits at the teacher’s desk doing something else. When in private lessons, they do most of the above-mentioned tasks because those are the ones required by students and parents who paid for them. The few teachers who do not give private lessons sounded the least enthusiastic and confused about their roles as teachers in school classes. All of them expressed their frustration with the education system that imposes what teachers should do

without caring for the context of each school and each class. As FT4 expressed it, “I wish I could do it in a different way...something not governmental or with an imposed curriculum”.

7.3.3.3 The Official (Artificial) Role

The majority of informants referred to another role they play or act when inspectors or supervisors come to observe their school classes. This role is the official one that is required and expected by EMOE and monitored by the local management. In this role, the teacher is supposed to prepare necessary paperwork, including his or her written lesson plans in what teachers call the “preparation notebook”. Most teachers mentioned typically regular procedures that they usually follow when an inspector observes their classes, including writing the date and the title of the lesson on the board, doing a warm-up, using English most of the time, following what the inspector has recommended before or what the teacher’s book suggests, making sure that students participate and answer questions well, and wrapping up the lesson with follow-up questions and assigned homework. Most teachers talked about this role as “going with the flow” (FT1, MT7, MT8) or doing “what they want” (FT4, FT10, MT12, MT13). Some even mentioned that their students know that this is not the norm of their teacher’s performance, and it is just done to meet inspectors’ expectations. While commenting on inspectors’ ethical principles, MT3 gave an elaborate verbatim explanation of the role he plays when inspectors visit his class:

I know that he [the inspector] has certain criteria in his mind, and I try to apply these criteria in the class. All the students do not understand what is happening because these criteria are against the process of teaching, but I have to do it his or her way.

A few participants (MT2, FT9, MT11) mentioned that they do what they think is right, although they may receive some comments from inspectors, but all informants confirmed that as long as paperwork is fine and the teacher finishes the curriculum on time, there would be no issues or complaints. A few teachers (MT5, MT13, FT14) also mentioned that they had

had a few open-minded and supportive inspectors as well, and they gave them the chance to try new things or teach according to their beliefs. However, they also commented that this is not the norm and the majority of inspectors like things to happen in a conventional way.

7.3.3.4 The Humanistic (Interpersonal) Role

Another role that was iterated by most teachers has its social dimension in the sense that the teacher is also a community member dealing with human beings from that community. It specifically concerns caring for students, especially those who are “socially marginalized” (FT10) or “socially disadvantaged” (MT12). Whether directly or indirectly, most informants mentioned that role of the teacher in terms of keeping a good relationship with students, caring for their educational needs, encouraging them to participate in class without being mocked or bullied, pushing them to succeed without magnifying errors, listening to them and accepting arguments. MT3 expressed how he sometimes became emotional when he encountered needy students:

I feel that the students are more than my sons. I love them deeply. And sometimes tears appear on my eyes, and I try to control myself in such a situation when I see a child or a student in some problems...for example financial problems, orphans, needy students.

Most teachers saw themselves as fathers, mothers, friends, big brothers or sisters to their students, which will be discussed in Chapter 9 as part of the influence of social factors on their self-images.

The observation of the informants’ practices proved their transition between the above-mentioned roles, with some instances of the humanistic role as all of them showed a demeanour of caring, supporting and understanding. Remarkably, the four teachers started their lessons with performing the theoretical role along with the official role and ended up doing their usual practical role. I presume that my presence as an observer seemed to trigger

their usual reactions when an inspector visits their classes, and my previous interviews with them, which included talking about optimal methods of teaching, made them also consider teaching English “according to what the book says” (MT6).

They all started their classes speaking English all the time, asking students to use no Arabic, and trying to involve certain students, who seemed to be the usual high-level ones in the class, in pair conversations. However, both roles were performed for a while, and they all shifted gradually to the usual, practical teacher-led role while using Arabic most of the time, focusing on the textbook, directing students to answer mostly vocabulary or grammar exercises and drills and raise their hands if they have an answer, all while moving quickly from one lesson item to the other to finish the lesson on time.

The findings indicate that the informants perceive the role of the teacher in four dimensions that draw heavily on the social and institutional context while they recognize the theoretical or what the books say as a role that would fit in a different context or could be played for a while but not all the time. With all other roles situated in the context, they end up doing the traditional, practical teacher-led and examination-oriented role while caring for their students and their needs. They also seem to keep the other two roles in mind as an inventory of optimal techniques (the theoretical role) that can work in a different context or as a survival strategy (the official role) that can help with unannounced visits by inspectors. Whether stated explicitly or inferred from their comments in the interviews, all informants indicated that the *realistic* role of the teacher is to support students to learn English in a traditional, teacher-led, examination-oriented, textbook-focused, time-constrained way.

This finding partially resonates with the finding revealed by Gahin’s (2001) study about Egyptian EFL teachers, in which “teachers’ beliefs about their roles reflected an obsession with the traditional instructional functions more than the other aspects of their roles” (p. 166). Gahin’s study, however, focused on the instructional and managerial roles of

teachers in their classes but did not approach their deeper cognitions about their roles regarding student-teacher relationship or their roles in relation to the officially imposed requirements as monitored by inspectors. The managerial function was not highlighted as a specific role by any of our informants.

Overall, the informants' cognitions about the role of the teacher as well as the practices of four of them indicate the influence of the context on what they believe is normatively effective versus what they know is practically workable, needed and feasible in their real worlds of classrooms. More discussion in this regard will be presented in the following section.

7.3.4 Cognitions About Teaching English

Remarkably, and despite the findings about their tendency towards the traditional, examination-oriented role of the teacher, all informants commended and favoured holistic, integrative approaches to teaching language skills. They mentioned such approaches in light of how English language skills should be taught, and what they personally think is most effective in language teaching. They reported that they are aware of the nature of language and how it is different from other school subjects. They indicated that all skills are of equal importance and that students should have a chance to learn them equally. However, and similar to their cognitions about the role of the teacher, they all maintained that reality and practice are different from the ideal or the theoretical. This does not mean that they do not adopt or follow such non-traditional approaches, as per their understanding of them, when they find a chance.

Some commented that if they feel a class is willing to learn the language for its own sake, they usually change their approaches to focus on integrating the four skills and prioritize CLT. It should also be noted that, as most indicated, their conceptions of non-traditional approaches are not mainly based on standard procedures recommended by

academic textbooks or training programs, but they are personally adapted and practically modified by each teacher based on their teaching practices and experiences as well as students' feedback and responses to what the teacher does in class. The following subsections present an overview of their cognitions about teaching English in terms of teaching methods, language skills, language components and resorting to MT.

7.3.4.1 Teaching Methods

The techniques mentioned as the most effective and favourable in teaching language were mostly a conceptualization of communicative language teaching (CLT), including task-based language teaching (TBLT), which is a “methodological realization of CLT” (Nunan, 2003, p. 606) while referring explicitly or implicitly to active learning, learner-centred and constructivist approaches. However, traditional, teacher-led teaching approaches, especially audio-lingual and grammar-translation methods, were the dominant ones in their explanations of how they practice English teaching. Besides, grammar and vocabulary as language components were often brought up as exemplary aspects of what they reportedly do when they describe how they teach language skills interactively.

Of the fourteen informants, only five (MT2, FT4, FT9, FT10, and MT12), based on their comments and explanations of what should be done, seemed to have an adequate theoretical understanding of what CLT or TBLT entail. Their comments suggested that teaching English communicatively should encourage meaningful communications (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Savignon, 2005) and social interactions (Brown, 2001) while using the TL in the classroom. MT2 commented that English should be acquired “naturally by the student the same way it happens with his first language”. By this he meant that more focus should be targeted towards authentic communication in the TL in a way similar to what happens with MT (Lewis, 1993). However, their reported practices indicated that they are more inclined to use traditional methods, as will be explained later.

As for other informants, their cognitions about CLT in general seemed to highlight communication yet within the meaning of teacher-student talk as part of teacher-led approaches with a focus on structural aspects of the language rather than its functional aspects. For example, while highlighting the importance of interaction in teaching the language, FT1 commented, “I enjoy what I do in my class...interacting with students. It is easy for me to cover grammar rules...and the words are very easy to teach if I ask them to use them in sentences and different contexts”. Her comment shows that what she meant by interaction is basically explaining grammar rules and presenting vocabulary, and then students would interact by answering questions or making sentences using what they learned. It was later explained by her that “the student needs to understand and comprehend the language to be able to answer questions”.

Such a perspective explains that what happens between the teacher and her students, even if she encourages group work, is that kind of interaction that allows students to apply what she taught and help each other with it in order to answer systematic text-based, structure-oriented questions asked by the teacher or included in the textbook. The student, according to her, needs to understand and comprehend what she teaches, and the use of language itself lies in answering questions or doing drills.

The following verbatim excerpt from MT5 gives an example of what most informants indicated as regards their understanding of CLT as a theoretically popular approach and how they actually apply it in their classes. He commented:

The communicative approach is very suitable for them [students]...especially the essence of our educational process is the student. In everything we attend, all is about active learning and making students very active instead of being a learner to take all things from the teacher as a lecturer...students should do role playing, be active in the classroom, active with each other working in pairs or groups. But time is very short,

and because frankly speaking, it is about examinations. I try to do what I want in my point of view that is perfect for my students...that is right for them. I try to make them master the main points and the questions, so they get high marks in their tests. Such an attempt to keep the balance did not seem essential to another teacher (MT6) who viewed his job as a primary school teacher in terms of making sure that his students' literacy skills, especially reading, are established well in their early years. He believes that CLT is an effective approach and that it is important to teach language as a communicative tool, but he reported that he does this by making sure that students memorize dialogues and conversations as memorization helps with "establishing the language and its basic components". He also commented that CLT is present in instances of "communication between the teacher and the student".

A secondary school teacher (MT7) indicated that he tries to teach the language in a communicative way, but he keeps going back to what students need and what suits their levels in each class. This could be the reason he said, "I have no specific method in mind" when it comes to language teaching. This comment sounds similar to what MT3 also mentioned about having his "special way" of teaching that is different from what academic books and/or inspectors recommend. When asked to elaborate more on that special way, he said (verbatim):

I have a lot of flexibility and elasticity to change my approach when I find it is so difficult for the students. I quickly change my way. I can have the ...I can change my approach in teaching during the lesson from complexed to so simple at the same time. During the observation session with MT3, it was realized that the thoughts he expressed were consistent with his practice as regards changing his approach if things sound difficult for the students. He started by trying to involve them and encourage active learning while using

English most of the time, yet when he realized that most of them could not answer questions or exercises, he shifted to a traditional teacher-led approach and used more Arabic.

Such adjustment was also suggested by most other participants when they discussed how they adapt and modify the way they teach based on what the teacher thinks or feels. MT12 mentioned his struggle with what students and their parents expect and how most students demand examination-oriented teaching, and when he tries to use non-traditional techniques, “such things do not receive encouragement or acknowledgement”. An interesting comment that may help with clarifying most teachers’ stances with regard to language teaching methods comes from FT9 who believes, like most teachers, that CLT and learner-centred approaches are the best in teaching English; however, she commented:

Sometimes traditional methods are needed...because rapport can be created with these methods between the teacher and the student. Yes, they should work together and everything, and they should use active learning and peer assessment, but as a teacher you should not cut the link between you and them... traditional methods help create a dialogue between the teacher and the student...especially if the student likes the teacher and wants to hear him...In our culture, we usually need a mentor, a guide, someone to tell us what to do or not to do...even we as grown-ups need such people. It is part of our culture as the proverb goes, “if you do not have *kebeer* [a guardian or a mentor], go and look for one’. The student needs his father, his teacher and those people who have influence on his life...those who are like examples in his life. If this connection or this dialogue dies...no one learns anything from the other...what to learn?

This excerpt from one of the informants who indicated a theoretical understanding of CLT suggests that she knows that non-traditional methods work, but traditional ones are also necessary because of the nature of the culture where the learner needs to socially and

educationally connect with a *kebeer* who guides him or her and shows them the way in a teacher-dominated manner.

7.3.4.2 Teaching Language Skills

All informants asserted that teaching all language skills is essential in language learning. However, all of them seemed to give more heed to reading and writing while they considered that speaking and listening occur normally in teacher-student interactions, which are not sufficient as most of them reported, but they believe they could serve the purpose. For example, MT6 commented that listening happens when students listen to the teacher using English or read a passage aloud, and speaking happens when students answer questions, read out a text in English or recite a memorized conversation. It should be noted here that MT6 admitted that he had a problem as a teacher in speaking English fluently. He also mentioned, in another part of the interview, that he used to memorize answers in English for his oral exams at university. And although he blamed it on how his past teachers used to focus on literacy skills and memorizing content and marginalize audio-oral skills, he himself does almost the same with his students.

Another secondary school teacher (MT7) described the tension teachers have to go through with regard to teaching literacy skills (writing and reading) versus audio-oral skills (speaking and listening). After describing the reality of the education system and how resources are inadequate, he commented:

There is no listening or speaking. On paper yes...the four skills are there and must be taught, but practically no. Practically, it's writing and reading, and the evidence is tests and examinations. So of course, I had to go with the flow.

Most informants' approaches to teaching reading and writing were almost identical. For reading, they reported that they start with a teacher-led warm-up. Then they introduce unfamiliar words, in case of younger students, using Arabic equivalents most of the time. If

they teach older students, they encourage them to guess from context. Teachers of primary and preparatory stages reported that they tend to either read out the text themselves or ask a student to read it out. In all cases, the lesson objective is achieved when some students, who are usually picked by the teacher after raising their hands, answer the textbook-based questions correctly. As for writing, most of them stated that they start with an introduction about the topic. Students are then reminded of the acceptable format of paragraphs or essays, i.e., introduction, body and conclusion. A few teachers (MT2, FT1, FT9) encourage students to work in groups or do peer correction, but most other informants check the writings of few students (due to limited class time) to correct mistakes that are mostly related to structure or spelling.

In two of the observed classes, MT2 and MT3 taught a short reading passage. MT2 reported that he encourages his students to guess from context and counts less on definitions. During the observation session with MT2, it was realized that he did base most of his teaching on a text and his practices were in alignment with his stated cognitions. When some students asked about the meanings of some words, he tried to help with guessing from context first, but he also asked other students to give a synonym or an equivalent in Arabic when some words seemed challenging for students. His approach was giving them time to read, then checking if they answered comprehension questions correctly by picking some students who raised their hands. Most interactions were in the MT except for the English content of the text, the questions or the answers.

As for MT3, he was focusing more on students' understanding of the meanings of certain words as well as answering the comprehension questions correctly. In his cognitions about teaching reading, he highlighted teaching vocabulary through reading comprehension, and his practices in class were consistent with these cognitions. One of the interesting

comments about teaching language skills and addressing all of them integratively was made by FT10 who said:

Are you aware of how things are in Egypt or not? Maybe you are not because you lived overseas for a while or what? It is not about language skills...you know. They just memorize things related to writing or reading, grammar and words...and how questions are answered to get the full mark in the final exams. This is what works here...even in my school, which is one of the best in the governorate. We have the highest rate of students who join colleges of medicine and education. It is all about full marks in final exams. That is the problem of education in Egypt.

7.3.4.3 Teaching Language Components

References to focusing on teaching English in terms of the two language systems of grammar and vocabulary were remarkably recurrent in the comments of all informants, even those who confirmed their disapproval of the effectiveness of traditional methods in language learning. Some teachers (e.g., FT9 and MT13) expressed that they like teaching vocabulary and grammar in particular. Others indicated their efficacy in language teaching by referring to how they are efficient in teaching these two components (e.g., FT1 and MT3). As an example, following is a verbatim comment from MT3:

Teaching language is something to me is so easy. I feel so happy with this job because it is so easy. it is just teaching students how to use the language correctly, and I can tackle all the methods of teaching grammar and vocabulary. I can have different styles of teaching them. I can exert great efforts to teach grammar. Simultaneously, I can teach grammar so simply. So, I feel that I have a lot of choice in teaching it in a difficult way or easily.

As indicated by MT3's words, accuracy is the main objective in teaching and learning English, which could be achieved through focusing on grammar and vocabulary. MT3's

observation session indicated that his cognitions are consistent with his practices as he mainly focused on both components included in reading or other textbook exercises. There were no activities of speaking or listening in his class unless him reading out the text or asking a student to read out some sentences are considered so. It is worth noting here that MT3 also confirmed that he does not prepare his lessons because he is always busy, and his qualification as a graduate of English language department makes him always ready for teaching English as it is mainly about vocabulary knowledge: “I did not find any kind of difficulty in teaching any new lesson because I do not have any difficulties with any words” (MT3).

As one of those who indicated understanding of CLT, FT4 also commented that grammar is a priority in her teaching as an important language component that is related to all skills. What seemed to matter to her the most after students’ interest in what she does and how much they like her lesson is making sure that they understood the newly presented grammar rules:

If students like the lesson, that would be a great achievement regardless of how much they gain. Also, it would feel much sweeter if I know that they understood the grammar rule and applied it correctly in answering questions, but the first goal is that they really like the lesson. (FT4)

She also mentioned that she likes to involve students and make sure that they participate in class, yet remarkably that kind of participation is also meant to answer questions related to grammar or vocabulary.

As mentioned earlier, MT6 believes that establishing literacy skills in early stages is the main goal of his job as a primary school teacher. He indicated that students need to learn the foundations of the language as represented in its structure and vocabulary while counting on repetition and memorization as effective strategies to achieve this goal. The observation

session with MT6 indicated the consistency of his reported cognitions with his practices. The lesson was focused on vocabulary and grammar. He made sure that students hear the word, recognize its spelling and repeat it many times. He also gave many exercises on grammar and vocabulary, and when he introduced a short conversation in the book, he asked two students to stand up and read it in turn. Students just read out their parts in the conversation in monotonous tones. He then reminded the whole class to memorize it because this is “what good students do,” he said.

7.3.4.4 Using Mother Tongue

All teachers agreed on the importance and relevance of the teacher’s use of English all the time to teach the TL. The majority of teachers, however, also agreed on the necessity of using the MT when it comes to teaching grammar in general as a way of contrastive analysis that would help students see similarities and differences when they learn the target language. All teachers also agreed on the necessity of using MT in explaining the definition or the meaning of abstract, culturally bound or contextually uncommon words. Such views may sound conflicting, but the conflict they have in mind between theory and practice or the ideal and the practical would explain how they see using Arabic under the umbrella of students’ needs and learning goals.

Their overall views with regard to using mother tongue had some variations related to school stages and the amount of English vocabulary students have gained to make it possible for them to understand spoken English. However, most of them stated that they use Egyptian Arabic most of the time in teaching reading and writing and avoid it as much as possible in teaching speaking and listening, which are taught sparsely. FT1 explained why she finds using Arabic necessary when she teaches grammar:

If I teach a rule, I teach it my way. They do not want us to use Arabic. Sorry... I must consider all the levels in my class... If I speak English the whole time... would low-

level students understand? If things are better and students are ready, I will speak English all the time. (FT1)

MT2 also explained why he uses Arabic in teaching reading when it comes to some challenging vocabulary: “I try to explain that words in a very simple way before they start reading. I explain it in English if possible; if not, I use Arabic”. He also explained that his use of Arabic in general depends on the level of the class, but he tries to avoid it in reading and speaking as much as he can. However, he gives pre-activity instructions in Arabic to make sure that everyone understands what they are supposed to do. He also finds Arabic fundamental in explaining grammar rules.

MT3 stated that Arabic is necessary in primary school stage, but it could be reduced in later stages. FT4 indicated that she finds it necessary with most students, but she tries to minimize its use by using acting or miming to illustrate the meaning of some new words.

As mentioned above, all teachers found it necessary to use Arabic when needed; otherwise, they would “lose the students” (MT7, MT13). FT14 mentioned clearly that part of her efficacy as a teacher is how she understands English and “link[s] it to Arabic”.

7.4 General Discussion of Qualitative Findings

The above qualitative findings related to teachers’ cognitions about teaching English indicate that for most of them, non-traditional methods that focus on language in use are the most effective, yet they are not suitable in their context. Metaphorically speaking, their cognitions about teaching English ‘appropriately’ seem to lend themselves to a Platonic ideal world in which such methods and approaches would work, but in their real world, which is their specific context, there are many hindrances and constraints. Everything, including their cognitions, is situated in this context, which they cannot control or change, but they “try” to reach the ideal as they understand it.

It is with this context in mind that they focus mainly on reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary and almost disregard other language skills while using and allowing the MT to promote understanding and participation. These findings are highly consistent with those of Latif (2012) in his study of Egyptian EFL teachers' practices in their teaching of standards-based English textbooks in secondary schools. The study, however, focused more on the barriers of teaching CLT rather than exploring their cognitions about it. The findings are also broadly similar to those of (El-Fiki, 2012; Gahin, 2001; Gahin & Myhill, 2003; Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2017). As regards the roadblocks to teaching English communicatively, the findings generally reflect those of the aforementioned studies about barriers related to an examination-focused education system along with the washback effect, lack of resources, students' low levels, time constraints, and predominant teacher-led teaching culture.

Together with the findings of the questionnaires and the Q-sorts, the findings from the interviews and the observations indicate that EFL teachers in Egypt tend to teach the way they have learned regardless of what they believe is more effective in language teaching and learning. Both quantitative and qualitative findings indicate "that presence of the past in the present which makes possible the presence in the present of the forthcoming" (Bourdieu, 2000, p. 210), which is habitus as Bourdieu "pares it down" (Strand & Lizardo, 2015, p. 67). This means that the way they were taught within the same culture and the same education system has its presence in their cognitions and dispositions about what works in the present, taking into consideration that in spite of the relative changes and some curricular reforms, education in Egypt was and still is traditional (Ewiss et al., 2019) and dominated by examinations (Hargreaves 1997, 2001; Latif, 2017)

It should be warranted that the assumption that they teach the way they learned does not necessarily mean they all approve of their past teachers' practices or find them the most effective. This 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975) needs to be viewed in light of

the formation of habitus within the field. This is to say that even if they did not approve of what they had experienced as young learners, they realized that it worked in their context/field. The findings in this regard resonate with findings from Sun et al. (2020) in their study of Chinese EFL teachers' explicit and implicit beliefs about teaching methods. Based on Bourdieu's concept of habitus, the authors found that teachers may have explicit beliefs that favour non-traditional/communicative approaches yet considering the nature of the context in terms of "institutional affordances and constraints" (p. 15), teachers may also report, implicitly or explicitly, that they favour traditional methods. Although Sun et al. stated that their study was based on Bourdieu's concept of habitus, there was little mentioned about how it contributed to their data analysis. Also, their focus on contextual factors was mainly on institutional rather than macrosocial factors that would cast more light on the nature of the field and its role in forming teachers' habitus.

In the current study, and within Bourdieu's concept of habitus, teachers' cognitions about teaching English could be explained as "schemes of action" (Bourdieu, 1984, p. 173). The informants' cognitions seem to reflect beliefs that some may interpret in light of core beliefs versus peripheral beliefs (Green, 1971; Pajares, 1992). From this perspective, their cognitions about traditional methods of teaching, focusing on examination-oriented skills and components, and using the mother tongue would be interpreted as core beliefs that are more stable and persistent than their beliefs about non-traditional methods and integrative language teaching, which sound peripheral. However, this kind of categorization could be described as reductionist. The findings suggest the complexity of their cognitions, which are in dialectical interplay with their experiences, emotions, appreciations, interpretations, knowledge, as well as identities in terms of position and power negotiations, all situated and drawing on the context in its historical and contemporary dimensions.

The informants' explanations of their understanding of non-traditional methods, especially CLT and TBLT, seemed to be mediated by different contextual factors. Most informants' comments indicated inadequate understanding of what these methods entail, and some informants seemed to confuse communication with memorized recitation and active learning with repetition and practice. These findings coincide with the findings of previous studies of language education in public sector in Egypt (Gahin, 2001; Gahin & Myhill, 2003; Ibrahim & Ibrahim's, 2017) or in other countries (e.g., Ampiah, 2008; Carless, 2003, 2004; Kuchah, 2013; Nguyen, 2011; Nguyen & Nguyen, 2007; Nunan, 2003), that although some curricular reforms have been implemented by governments to encourage using CLT in English education, most EFL teachers' conceptions and practices were found to be either inadequate or inconsistent with these non-traditional methods.

The findings are also in line with those of the previous studies, that among the main reasons behind this divergence are examination-dominated education systems where assessments are form-focused, with teacher-dominated classroom cultures, teachers' low levels of language proficiency, and inadequate facilities or lack of resources. These factors seem to make the teachers resort to the traditional ways of teaching to the test and act as "exam modelers" (Gahin, 2001, p. 168) who help students get what they need to score the highest grades possible in regular or final examinations.

Considering the fact that speaking and listening have not been main components of language assessments or final examinations in public schools in Egypt, it is understandable why teachers focus mainly on writing and reading. And bearing in mind that assessments in the Egyptian sector are mainly structure-based, we can understand how their cognitions are mediated by the present nature and requirements of the education system as well as their histories as language learners in the same system.

It is inaccurate to suppose that as teachers, their reported cognitions about the effectiveness of CLT or TBLT or any other non-traditional methods are in discrepancy with their practices, in the sense that what they do is different from what they believe, or, in other words, that they just report what an academic researcher would like to hear. It is also inaccurate to claim that they would be willing to implement these methods if things were different. As some teachers indicated, they did not learn English well at schools, and in some cases, students correct their pronunciation.

The way they learned the language and the way they have been teaching it are both deeply rooted in their cognition. However, their comments suggest that there is a better way to teach the language, and they believe it works. It may be an issue of tension between normative and peripheral beliefs, but it could also be a way of adapting to what the context, in all its layers of time and space, imposes. In other words, “to be appropriate, a methodology must be sensitive to the prevailing cultures surrounding any given classroom” (Holliday, 1994, p. 161).

Noteworthy in the findings is that for teachers who try to use CLT or TBLT methods, emotions, as part of their cognitions (Vygotsky, 1994/1935), seemed to play a major role in their reported practices. Whether it is because of the reactions of students or stakeholders, they decide to ‘go with the flow’ and do things as expected by others, especially students. Most informants, especially those who indicated understanding of CLT, referred to their frustration as an emotion that rechannelled their actions, especially when they tried to do things differently or apply what they understand as a non-traditional approach to language teaching.

Their *perezhivanie* or lived experience, as part of their “thinking/feeling/doing of teaching” (p. 110), seems to play a major role in their teaching decisions/actions. Most informants also stressed how much it motivates them that students like their classes, which

makes them adapt their practices to their needs and expectations. These findings support the views and findings of previous studies about the role of emotions in changing teachers' conceptions (Golombek & Johnson, 2004; Gregoire, 2003; Kubanyiova, 2012), and how students' feedback or reactions affect their emotions about their job (Day, 2002; Hargreaves, 1998).

The aspects related to the influence of contextual factors on their cognition will be discussed more elaborately in Chapter 9.

Chapter 8: Teachers' Cognitions About Teaching and Learning Vocabulary

This chapter presents and discusses the findings of data collected by questionnaires, interviews and observation sessions in relation to RQ2 and RQ3 on teachers' cognitions and practices in teaching English vocabulary. Section 8.1 addresses the findings of the questionnaire, whereas section 8.2 addresses the findings of the interviews. The observation findings are presented along with those of the interviews thematically.

8.1 Questionnaire Findings

This section is organized into five subsections, including the participants' cognitions about effective vocabulary teaching strategies (VTSs) (subsection 8.1.1) and ineffective VTS (subsection 8.1.2). The following subsection addresses the findings related to their cognitions about effective vocabulary learning strategies (VLSs) (subsection 8.1.3). The section closes with findings related to their knowledge about vocabulary size (subsection 8.1.4) and assessing vocabulary knowledge (subsection 8.1.5). Some findings may seem repetitious in some places, yet they are reiterated to indicate commonality and connection to other findings of certain items.

8.1.1 Cognitions About Effective VTSs

Two open-ended items asked participants to indicate what vocabulary teaching strategy they think is the most successful with their students (item B48), and what they think is the least successful (item B49).

In their responses to item B48, the most frequent strategy (32 occurrences) was introducing vocabulary by saying or writing it in sentences (contextualization) as well as giving more than one example to help illustrate meaning and usage (exemplification). Using visuals came second in order (26 occurrences) as a strategy that many of them (11 participants) commended its effectiveness with younger learners in primary or preparatory schools, as indicated by their comments.

Although they were not asked specifically about VLS they find most successful or effective, most participants mentioned one or more learning strategies they encourage in their students or that they find to be effective rather than the strategies they use to teach vocabulary. The most frequent VLS was practicing and doing drills (41 occurrences) to help with memorization, as many mentioned.

The results indicate that when it comes to teaching vocabulary, many teachers seem to either confuse teaching strategies with learning strategies, or perhaps they prefer to turn teaching vocabulary into practice and use on the part of the learner. The following table shows the frequency of the VTSs and VLSs they mentioned as the most successful with their students. Remarkable in the results is that seven teachers indicated that there was no specific VTS or VLS that proved successful in their vocabulary teaching.

Table 8.1

Most Successful VTSs and VLSs for Participants

Teaching strategy	<i>n</i>	Learning strategy	<i>n</i>
Contextualization /exemplification	32	Drills, repetition and practice	41
Visuals	26	Guessing from context	19
Acting, miming or gestures	11	Using word lists	7
Focus on definitions	11		
Classroom discussion	11		
Using ICT	4		
None	7		

As shown in the table, most frequent VTSs are related to textual and visual contextualization for word discovery, which corresponds with their focus on guessing from context. As for VLSs, which they viewed as part of their teaching, repetition and memorization strategies (including word lists) seem to be the favoured ones for word consolidation.

8.1.2 Cognitions About Ineffective VTSSs

In contrast to successful VTSSs, when asked about VTSSs that proved least successful in their vocabulary instruction (open-ended item B49), 19 participants answered: none. Amongst those who mentioned one or more, using the mother tongue (MT) was the least successful strategy (28 occurrences), followed by focusing on repetition without explaining meaning and use (15 occurrences). Using word lists came third in order with 13 occurrences, followed by using word cards (12 occurrences), especially with older students, as some commented. The following table provides the frequencies of vocabulary learning strategies they found least successful in their students' learning.

Table 8.2

Least Successful VTSSs for Participants

Strategy	<i>n</i>
Using mother tongue	28
Focus on repetition without explaining meaning and use.	15
Word lists	13
Word cards	12
Classroom discussion	6
Pair or group work	5
Using listening as a primary source	5
Focus on form without meaning	4
Individual work	4
Using E-E dictionaries	3
Presenting definitions without use	2
Lecturing	2
Explaining meaning in English	2
None	19

It is remarkable that they did not focus much on students' learning strategies this time; however, focusing on repetition was mentioned by some as a teaching strategy and by others as a learning strategy. Some also mentioned classroom discussion (6 occurrences),

cooperative learning (5 occurrences) and using English-English dictionaries as the least effective.

The results from closed and open items about the participants' practices and cognitions regarding VTSs are broadly consistent in indicating that they tend to adopt explicit/direct vocabulary instruction (Schmitt, 2000; Sokmen, 1997) while using contextualization (textual and visual) to presumably help with word discovery. As indicated by the results of item B40, they most frequently address word form followed by word meaning in context (textbook-based texts, visuals, examples). They also considered encouraging word discovery (inferencing/ implicit learning) and word consolidation strategies (practice and repetition) as part of their vocabulary teaching, which is line with the views of O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1993) on vocabulary teaching and the teacher's role in training students on the proper learning strategies. Amongst the VTSs they find least effective, using MT and focusing on repetition, memorization, and visuals (word cards), without explaining meaning and use were the most recurrent.

Among the remarkable findings is that many of them (28 participants) find using MT the least effective in teaching vocabulary. Considering that grammar-translation methods are still predominant in Egyptian public schools (Ibrahim, 2019; Latif, 2012), using MT in teaching vocabulary is a usual strategy even among teachers who try to adhere to using English most of the time, as will be discussed later under the interview findings. It should also be noted that only 10.2% reported that they never give a definition or an equivalent in Arabic, while the others indicated they do that yet with different frequencies. The following sections will shed more light on their cognitions regarding VLSs.

8.1.3 Cognitions About Effective VLSs

Item B42 included 17 subitems and aimed at investigating the participants' cognitions about the effectiveness of several VLSs, whether they use them with their students or not.

The 17 Likert-type subitems included under item B42 (see Appendix D) were also based on Rossiter et al. (2016), but to distinguish them from the subitems focused on the frequency of practices and for the sake of consistency with other items related to cognitions, they were constructed as five-point agreement Likert-type subitems ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree). The following table presents the results of their responses based on the order indicated by the calculated means and arranged from the highest to the lowest.

Table 8.3

Participants' Cognitions About the Effectiveness of Some VLSs

Subitem	When students learn new words, I believe it is highly effective for students to...	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
(VB1)	Study using a vocabulary notebook.	4.3	0.89
(VB5)	Guess the meaning of unknown words from context.	4.3	0.89
(VB9)	Work in pairs/groups to complete vocabulary activities.	4.3	0.77
(VB13)	Say it correctly in a spoken sentence of their own	4.3	0.80
(VB12)	Use it correctly in a written sentence of their own.	4.2	0.89
(VB10)	Look up the word in an English-English dictionary	4.1	1.02
(VB14)	Use it in various collocations (written or spoken)	4.1	0.86
(VB2)	Study using word lists.	4.0	1.00
(VB6)	Guess the meaning of the word from its parts.	4.0	0.95
(VB15)	Pronounce it in a native or native-like manner.	4.0	0.92
(VB8)	Focus on words that they are interested in learning.	3.9	0.95
(VB3)	Study using word cards.	3.8	0.96
(VB17)	Know or recognise some of its synonyms and/or antonyms	3.8	0.84
(VB4)	Study using mnemonic strategies.	3.7	1.00
(VB7)	Use a vocabulary learning program or application on the internet.	3.7	1.01
(VB16)	Use concordances as a simple reference tool.	3.7	0.87
(VB11)	Look up the word in an English-Arabic dictionary	3.4	1.16

Noteworthy in the results shown in the table above is their consistency and near parallelism with the results of their responses to item B41 about VLSs. On the one hand, they indicated the effectiveness of using notebooks, guessing, practicing and using words in spoken and written forms correctly. On the other hand, they indicated less effectiveness of using English-Arabic dictionaries, concordance, ICT, mnemonic strategies and looking for

more related definitions. Remarkable also is their average agreement (M=3.9) with encouraging students to focus on words that they are interested in as they probably find that students will focus on words that are not required by textbooks or that they will ignore *important* ones.

In all cases, the results indicate that they view VLSs pertaining to practice (notebooks), implicit vocabulary learning (guessing from context), practice and use in productive skills as the most effective, while strategies related to consulting bilingual dictionaries, focusing on decontextualized associations, or using unconventional methods like internet applications or concordance were reported as relatively less effective.

8.1.4 Vocabulary Size

Two questionnaire items (see Appendix D) addressed teacher's knowledge about teaching vocabulary. The participants were asked to fill a missing gap in the following statement: (item B46) *I believe students need to know about ____ % of the words in a text in order to correctly guess an unknown word's meaning from context* by choosing one of the numbers provided, i.e., 68, 78, 88 and 98. The responses indicated that only 15 participants (12.7%) knew or believed that students need to know about 98% of the words in a text to understand or correctly guess the meaning of a word that is unknown to them. Fifty-three participants (44.9%) believed that they need to know 88% of the words. Thirty-nine participants believed they need to know 78% of them, and 11 participants believed they need to know 68%. The results indicate that when it comes to guessing from context, most teachers do not seem aware of its prerequisites and the amount of vocabulary knowledge that students need to have.

As for item B47, the participants were asked to complete the following sentence: *I believe that the most common 2,000 words in English make up about ____ % of the words used in English in daily conversation*, choosing one of the following numbers: 60, 70, 80 and

90. The responses showed that only 16 participants believed that 90% of the most common 2000 words in English constitute daily conversations in English. 42 Participants (35.6%) chose 80%. 37 participants (31.4%) chose 70%, and 23 participants (19.5%) chose 60%. The results also indicate that the majority of participants base their understanding of the vocabulary needed for having a daily conversation in English on their own ideas rather than academic studies or findings they may have studied in their university years or training programs.

8.1.5 Assessing Vocabulary Knowledge

To investigate the participating teachers' reported practices about assessing their students' vocabulary knowledge, three items asked them to indicate if they assess their students' vocabulary knowledge at the beginning of the course (item B43), how often they give vocabulary tests to their classes (item B44), and whether they use cumulative or non-cumulative tests (item B45). The results indicated that 88 participants (74.6%) assess their students' vocabulary knowledge before starting the course. The results also indicated that most of them give vocabulary tests once in 20 periods (38 participants, 32.2%) or once in 5 periods (33 participants, 28%). Other responses varied from once in every period or two periods to once every 25 periods. However, the resulting mean ($m=9.8$, $SD=7.72$) indicated that on average they give vocabulary tests every ninth or tenth class. As for the type of vocabulary tests they give, 80 participants (67.8%) indicated that they usually give cumulative tests. The results indicate their assessment of students' vocabulary knowledge is not systematic, and it seems to depend on each teacher's perspective. The same could also apply to testing their students' knowledge of vocabulary at the beginning of the course or choosing the type of test.

In general, the questionnaire results need to be interpreted with caution as the participants' practices and cognitions reported through a questionnaire may differ from what

they would report in interviews or do in reality (see Borg, 2006a and Kagan, 1990). However, their responses can provide insights and give a general picture of what they tend to do and focus on when they teach vocabulary. This general picture could be summarized as follows:

- Teachers tend to focus on contextualization in presenting vocabulary.
- Form, meaning and use are the word aspects that they generally focus on in their VTSs.
- Teachers tend to encourage practice (implicit and explicit learning) and repetition as the most effective VLSs.
- Teachers find it important to use vocabulary items in productive skills.
- Teachers tend to focus less on the cultural connotations of vocabulary items.
- Teachers tend to focus less on unconventional approaches to vocabulary learning (e.g., ICT and concordance).
- Many teachers consider that using MT and rote learning without focusing on meaning and use are the least effective VTSs.
- Most teachers have inadequate knowledge about the vocabulary size necessary for textual inferencing in TL.
- Most teachers do not assess their students' vocabulary knowledge systemically.

As regards contextualization and exemplification being the most frequent in their VTSs, this finding is in line with the findings from previous studies (Gahin, 2001; Gao & Ma, 2011; Gerami & Noordin, 2013), that EFL teachers tend to give more emphasis on contextualization in vocabulary teaching and learning. Contextualization, as a vocabulary learning and teaching technique, is effective in word learning (Zimmerman, 1997) and word knowledge (Webb, 2007).

The finding indicating less frequency of using or encouraging unconventional methods could be due to the prevalence of traditional grammar-translation and audio-lingual

methods in the Egyptian education system (see Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2017; Latif, 2012). In light of this finding, the finding related to viewing MT and rote learning as less effective by many teachers indicates that many of them are aware of the necessity of exposure in the TL when it comes to vocabulary teaching, considering that the teacher is usually the only available model for the learner. However, the real world may impose circumstances that make the same teacher resort to MT more often, as will be explained in presenting and discussing the findings from the interview and observation data.

8.2 Interview and Observation Findings

The following sections present the findings of interview and observation data related to teachers' cognitions about teaching and learning vocabulary. When applicable, the findings from observation sessions will be compared to the cognitions expressed or indicated by the participating informants.

8.2.1 Cognitions About Teaching and Learning Vocabulary

All informants stressed the essential role of vocabulary in learning all language skills (Alderson, 2007; Meara, 2009; Nation, 2013), or as MT11 commented, "it is the fuel of the car without which a student cannot understand or make a sentence" (MT11). Although many asserted that learning a language does not rely solely on memorizing words, they also commented that it is fundamental to focus on vocabulary, especially in the early learning stages. In this regard, MT6 commented that "young students' English should be founded by making them able to recognize and read many words". He also highlighted that his major role as a primary school teacher is to make sure that his students attain this goal successfully. This finding concurs closely with the finding reported by Zhang (2008), in which NNESTs expressed similar cognitions about the importance of teaching and learning vocabulary. It should be noted though that the participants in Zhang's study were university EFL teachers.

Most informants also reported how they like or enjoy teaching vocabulary (FT1, FT4), find it easier to teach (FT1, MT3, FT9) and how it is essential in their teaching skills to help student memorize and retain it (MT6, MT7, MT8, MT13). For example, FT1 commented that “[English] words are very easy to teach if I ask them (students) to use them in sentences and different contexts...the whole issue is easy and enjoyable...it is not bad”.

Most informants also stated that teaching vocabulary is less challenging than teaching grammar. For instance, MT6 commented, “it [vocabulary] is much easier than teaching grammar. Vocabulary is the easiest thing to teach”. FT14 commented, “it is easier to teach vocabulary through memorization and repetition, but when you teach a student who does not have sufficient vocabulary to understand grammar, it is difficult.” This last finding is different from the finding by Lim (2016) in his study of Cambodian EFL teachers’ cognitions in vocabulary instruction, that experienced NNESTs tend to find teaching vocabulary more challenging than teaching grammar. Among the major challenges his informants reported were teaching polysemous words, teaching pronunciation and teaching students how to use vocabulary productively in speaking and writing. These challenges did not seem to cause concern to this study’s informants. In general, they indicated that they do not recognize teaching vocabulary as a problem, which is broadly consistent with the finding from Milton and Vassiliu (2003) in their study of teachers’ (most were NNESTs) and students’ perceptions about teaching EFL vocabulary in Greece.

As is the case with their cognitions about teaching EFL in general, most informants’ cognitions about teaching vocabulary seemed to fall into the same conflict between the theoretical and the practical. Their theoretical, ideal perspective of vocabulary teaching and learning sounded more like exposing students to English language in several spoken or written forms and making their TL learning similar to their MT learning in the sense of happening naturally with a focus on communicative, real-life activities. However, “in reality

and to get things done”, they follow a practical, experiential perspective, which is more about what is in the textbooks and what students need to learn and memorize in each grade. For example, MT2 said, “[Students] should gain words and know them the same way it happened with their Arabic...through texts and contexts. So, if he [the student] depends mainly on reading and listening, he will not have to memorize separate lists”. However, he also added that he uses separate word lists with students who care about passing final exams with high grades as such lists help them with multiple-choice questions. In a similar vein, MT7 commented,

In an ideal world, teaching it [vocabulary] in context is much better. This is what most coursebooks focus on, where there are words with their definitions and their uses in a passage. In such a way, I really get the words, ‘drink’ [used in Egyptian Arabic to mean totally comprehend] them and grasp them, but in reality and to get things done or to just do the job...we use separate lists.

Within this reality-driven attitude, polysemous words, pronunciation and using vocabulary productively seemed to be minor issues. What seemed to matter to most informants was how students retain vocabulary items and use them correctly as required in written exams. This finding concurs with that of Shaver (2010) in his study of Egyptian EFL teachers that not all teachers who approved CLT or teaching language holistically implemented it in classroom practice.

None of the informants referred to adopting or implementing any solid theoretical or ‘ideal’ methods of vocabulary instruction they have learned whether at university or in their training programs. Most referred to what some called “theoretical speech” (MT7) or “ideal ideas” (FT10) they read in academic textbooks during their university years or heard from inspectors or in some workshops or training programs they attended. Their references to the

theoretical or the ideal did not suggest disapproval as much as it suggested unsuitability. For instance, FT4 commented,

[Vocabulary teaching] strategies we learned did not focus much on how to introduce new words...every teacher tries different things, and I think clear strategies with regard to teaching vocabulary are missing in many things. So, [when] a teacher tries a certain method or style and it works for him with some classes, he adopts this method and does it most of the time. Even when you read about a good strategy and try to apply it, it may not give the results I expect...the empirical [in-class] work is the most trustable here.

Furthermore, most teachers clearly stated that they have their own ways of teaching vocabulary either based on how one or more of their past teachers taught it, or how their practices throughout their experience have led to certain teaching techniques that would help students memorize words and use them correctly. MT13 reported that one of his inspectors suggested a useful VTS; however, and although he stated that it could be an effective one, he commented that such suggestions are “ideal comments or observations that do not suit the reality. In this case we just say ok ok and that’s it.”

As an example of how some teachers depend mainly on how their past teachers taught them vocabulary, FT1 said, “The thing that helped me the most with vocabulary teaching is the way that my secondary school teacher used with me, and it is the same way I am using with my students”. MT3 also mentioned that he was affected by one of his past teachers. He said, “I try to imitate him especially in phonetics and pronunciation”. FT9 also mentioned one of her past favourite teachers and how she sometimes teaches like her. She commented, “I do things like her sometimes although they may be traditional. Like writing new vocabulary on the board and defining each word with an example or so...to an extent I loved her method and I sometimes use it”.

As most informants reported, their vocabulary instruction methods are based on their PLEs and/or experiential pedagogical knowledge rather than sources of disciplinary knowledge in language teaching. In other words, the techniques they adopt seem to count mainly on what worked for them as students in combination with what works for their students under the umbrella of the conventional goals of an examination-oriented education system. This finding coincides with the views and findings of (Borg, 2003; Borg, 2006a; Golombek, 1998; Johnson, 1994; Numrich, 1996) that teachers' PLEs influence their cognitions and practices throughout their careers.

However, unlike the findings of Numrich (1996), where teachers rejected several approaches used by their past teachers, in this study, informants adopted more than what they rejected with regard to teaching vocabulary. It is also important to note that most of them reported that they relied on positive experiences in which teachers helped them with learning and retaining more vocabulary items, regardless of the mostly traditional nature of those past teachers' approaches. This finding suggests that as young learners, they realized what worked for them, and as teachers, they retained those practices because they were effective and, therefore, reusable. Although they indicated awareness of 'better' practices, they attended to how the context situates and mandates "particulars" (Ball & Cohen, 1999, p. 10). In other words, as suggested by the findings, teaching vocabulary, or English in general, is a matter of "dynamic interactions among cognition, context, and experience" (Borg, 2006a, p. 275).

In light of the above, the majority reported that they teach vocabulary mainly within activities related to reading and writing skills, with reading being the skill that receives more attention as it helps with contextualization and inferencing. As an example, in her response to a question about teaching vocabulary through language skills, FT4 said, "realistically speaking, reading works better, but I believe that listening in general is better of course". In her response to a similar question, FT1 commented,

Reading is more primary for sure. Students have not experienced real listening. It [listening] is mostly written by the teacher on the board or read out by him. So, in reading he [the student] reads and listens as well...where would he get the vocabulary from? We as teachers got the vocabulary items and put them on the board for the student to take them from us through reading and listening to us. So, listening would not be as effective as reading.

As for writing, it is mainly about drills and exercises available in the textbooks. As illustrated in the previous two quotes, speaking and listening for most informants are rarely used to introduce new vocabulary, bearing in mind that they generally focus less on these two skills, as explained in Chapter 7. These findings closely coincide with the findings of Latif (2012), that Egyptian EFL teachers give more attention to reading activities while prioritizing grammar and vocabulary.

Concerning vocabulary teaching strategies, most informants reported similar strategies through which they introduce words with a focus on form (mostly spoken and pronounced by the teacher), meaning (mainly one definition) and use (mainly within an example sentence) while resorting to Arabic equivalents to promote or accelerate understanding. The following excerpt gives an example of what most teachers reported regarding introducing vocabulary:

I read them [novel words] out first. The student hears them first. After that I put each one in a simple sentence without defining it at all. It should be direct and short. At the same time, I encourage them to deduce the meaning. The student must say the meaning...exert an effort in getting to it. After guessing its meaning, he can say it in Arabic.

Most informants stated, though, that using MT is not advisable in teaching vocabulary unless necessary. Most previous techniques fall within explicit vocabulary instruction, which does not differ much from how all informants were taught vocabulary.

As for vocabulary learning strategies, most informants believe the most effective ones after guessing or knowing the meaning of the word or its Arabic equivalent are:

- Putting the word in a sentence
- Repetition (exercises and drills)
- Memorization

They also stated that the criteria that indicate their students' effective learning of vocabulary are:

- Recognizing the spoken and written forms of the word
- Understanding its meaning (most common definition while linking it to MT)
- Using it correctly in a sentence
- Recalling it when needed

Among the fourteen informants, only one teacher indicated that he focuses more on students' own active learning and guessing techniques while learning vocabulary "naturally" (MT2) or through implicit vocabulary learning. He placed much importance on keeping a minimal role as a teacher and giving students the opportunity to find their own ways of acquiring new words, guessing their meanings and using them on their own. He also explicitly stated that he tries to make sure that their English vocabulary learning takes a path similar to the way they learned vocabulary in their MT. However, he also mentioned that when students' levels are not that good, he resorts to the techniques mentioned previously but tries to encourage more guessing using reading passages.

During the observation session with MT2, he seemed to try to focus on making students guess the meanings of certain words from the text they were studying. As a teacher of secondary school students in their third year (grade 12), he seemed to rely more on their cumulative knowledge of the vocabulary they had learned in previous years. However, his approach was to ask the whole class about the seemingly unfamiliar word, and when one or

two students said its equivalent in Arabic, he moved on. When he realized that a word took them some time to guess, he did not wait for long and called the names of one or two students who seemed to be regularly responsive in his class.

T: What is the meaning of argumentative? You can say it in Arabic...no problem.

SS: (silence)

T: (calls on a certain student)

S: Difference of opinions (in Arabic)

T: Difference of opinions (in Arabic).Ok.

In one case, he gave a synonym in English, but he used Arabic equivalents in other cases, and allowed students to use Arabic to give explanations or equivalents.

As for the other three teachers, their observation sessions revealed doing something similar with inferencing, but they did not seem to rely much on it. They asked students (whole class) to guess the meaning and give a synonym or an equivalent in Arabic, yet they did not give adequate time for guessing. The following excerpt from MT6's observation session provides an example of how vocabulary is introduced. The teacher was asking students about the meanings of a supposedly novel word, i.e., 'fridge' after reading the provided text and using an accompanying picture. He first started with reminding them of another word they had studied that sounds similar, i.e., 'bridge'.

T: What is the meaning of bridge, kids? (in Arabic except for 'bridge')

Ss: (mumbling)

T: Bridge (writes it in the board)...bridge. I will give you a sentence to make it easy for you (in Arabic); it's on the river. What is the meaning of river? (in Arabic except for 'river').

Ss: *Nahr* (river in Arabic)

T: We can see it on the river. Has anyone got its meaning? (in Arabic)

S: *Kubri* (bridge in Egyptian Arabic)

T: What is it, kids?

Ss: *Kubri*

T: Bridge...bridge

T: We have a word that sounds like it in this lesson (Arabic): fridge...fridge. Look at the picture (in Arabic)..fridge. What's the meaning of fridge? (in Arabic except for 'fridge').

Ss: (mumbling)

T: You should be more intelligent. We can see it in the kitchen.

Ss: (mumbling)

T: Every kitchen must have a fridge (in Arabic).

Two Ss: *Tallaga* (fridge in Egyptian Arabic)

T: Fridge means what, kids? (in Arabic except for 'fridge').

Ss: *Tallaga*

T: *Tallaga*

It should be noted that, in all observation sessions, some students seemed already aware of the Arabic equivalent and said it instantly. They most probably learned it in a private lesson. Teachers also seemed aware of this and used guessing as a way of identifying what some students already knew. Some students, who probably did not take private lessons or were unable to recall the Arabic equivalent, just waited to hear it from another student or the teacher and then wrote it down. All teachers called the names of certain students when time passed without giving a correct answer. When they realized that students could not recall or guess the meaning or the Arabic equivalent, they did that themselves. Another important observation was recurrent mispronunciations of some vocabulary items by some

observed teachers, especially those teaching primary and preparatory stages, e.g., health /health/, gloves /gloovz/. Also, the same teachers pronounced dental fricatives, i.e., /th/ sounds as /s/ or /z/, which may be due to the uncommon use of dental fricatives in Egyptian Arabic, unlike standard Arabic.

In general, the four observed teachers used similar techniques. All of them used the board, focused on the closest definition of the word, asked students to give equivalents (or synonyms in a few cases), addressed the whole class and resorted to Arabic when students seemed unable to give equivalents or synonyms. Also, the four teachers checked understanding by asking students to answer some drills from the textbook using the new words. In most cases, they chose students who raised their hands. Those students stood up and read out the sentence or the example from the textbook, including the correct use of the new word. In a seemingly procedural fashion, when one or two students gave correct answers, the four teachers moved to the next example or drill.

The most dominant techniques that were common during the observations were respectively 1) saying the word, 2) asking Ss to say it loudly (except MT2), 3) referring Ss to the textbook, 4) saying the definition/equivalent loudly, 5) asking Ss to repeat it loudly (except MT2), and 6) using it in a sentence or drills. These findings indicate that for them vocabulary teaching and learning is mainly about explicit textbook-focused presentation followed by memorization and repetition techniques based on repeated spoken input and output in addition to textbook-based exercises and drills.

Using the MT was deemed ineffective by many questionnaire participants and most interviewed informants. However, as reported and practiced by the informants, it seems to be a normality necessitated by either the low oral proficiency of some teachers or the low levels of some students or both. These findings accord with the findings of several studies about ELT in Egypt (Ibrahim, 2019; Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2017; Latif, 2012), that teaching English

in Egypt is still dominated by traditional methods that rely heavily on rote learning and teacher-centred approaches.

Along with the findings from the questionnaire that were confirmed by the findings from the interview and observation data, it could also be concluded that the study participants mostly replicate VTSs used by their past teachers. Even when they try to pay some more attention to inferencing and use the MT less often, they reported that they ended up using teacher-led rote learning and counting on the MT in actual practices to “get things done” (MT7). The past and the present seem to meet together in many aspects where the role of the teacher is to explicitly present the form, the meaning (definition) and the use (example) of the word within the frame of textbooks while counting on the MT as a shortcut. In some cases, implicit learning and inferencing are encouraged, but they *have to* go back to the textbook and the MT to ensure understanding, and then work on making students repeat and memorize as much as they can.

Among many studies that addressed ELT in Egypt, none focused mainly on vocabulary learning and teaching from the perspective of teachers. However, some studies attempted to explore Egyptian teachers’ perceptions of teaching it as part of their language teaching practices (Abdelhafez, 2010; Gahin, 2001; Latif, 2012). The findings of this study are broadly consistent with what these studies found. For example, with regard to the informants’ cognitions about the importance of vocabulary in language teaching and learning, Gahin (2001) found that teachers asserted the importance of vocabulary in language teaching and learning while using metaphors to refer to it as “the skeleton” (p. 147) of language, “the bricks” (p. 150) used to build language and “the leader” (p. 151) in the family of language. As regards contextualization, the findings are in line with those of Gahin (2001) that teachers tend to teach words in context, and some make sure that students memorize decontextualized words by heart.

8.2.2 Cognitions About Knowing a Word

Most informants repeatedly used the verb *ya'raf* in Arabic to refer to students' learning of vocabulary items. The word in Arabic means to recognize or have an idea about something, but it does not necessarily mean 'learn' or 'comprehend' something. Most of them also used the verb 'memorize' or *yahfadh* in Arabic to refer to their effective learning of it. When asked about what knowing a word in English means to them, most informants referred to aspects pertinent to the form, the meaning and the syntactic function of the word. More details are presented in the following sections.

Based on Nation's criteria of what knowing a word entails (Nation 1990, as cited in Schmitt 2000; Nation 2013), most of their cognitions about word knowledge could be summarized in knowing the meaning(s) of the word, the written form of the word, the spoken form of the word, and the grammatical behaviour of the word. Only two teachers mentioned the associations of the word as a criterion (MT2 and FT9), while none referred to or seemed concerned about other criteria like the collocations of the word, the register of the word, and the frequency of the word, which are also part of knowing how a word is used according to Nation (2013). Following is a summary of their cognitions about each criterion as well as their usual practices to address them.

8.2.2.1 The Meaning(s) of the Word

By the meaning of the word, most teachers either focused on its textbook-related meaning or its equivalent in Arabic when necessary, especially if it is an abstract or culturally-bound word. Most teachers would give one meaning or definition or ask students to provide it (mostly in Arabic), and they would add more possible meanings/definitions if time allows and if students' levels would not cause possible confusion or negative impact on memorizing the necessary meaning or definition. Some teachers may also give antonyms to help with creating a contrast that accentuates memorization.

Nevertheless, some teachers mentioned that most students, especially in the secondary school stage, just want them to mention the necessary or textbook-exam-related equivalent in Arabic. For example, FT9 said, “In secondary schools, it is the meaning that they look for...give me the essence and the gist...translation”. MT13 mentioned that he usually says the Arabic equivalent because this is what most students are used to, but he avoids writing it on the board. MT7 also mentioned that most students want the teacher to save their time and give them the equivalent in Arabic, and he usually does that in the end:

If I give the definition first [Arabic equivalent], he [the student] will ignore its pronunciation and spelling. Put the important thing first in the forehead [forebrain]. I knew this from experience. When I taught them the definitions or meanings of words, they ignored the pronunciation and the spelling... After pronunciation and spelling, I present its meaning in Arabic. (MT7)

In view of the foregoing, it is worth noting that most teachers also agreed on some difficulty they may find in teaching culturally bound, culturally sensitive or contextually uncommon words, and they usually resort to Arabic to find a direct or indirect equivalent.

Some teachers (MT5, MT6, FT9, FT10, MT13) stated that using dictionaries, mostly electronic, is helpful, and they encourage students to do so on their mobile phones, if available, whether in class or at home. However, although some of them said that they prefer and encourage students to use English-English dictionaries, some teachers commented that most students usually use English-Arabic ones.

8.2.2.2 The Spoken Form of the Word

All teachers seemed to care about the written and the spoken forms of the word. Nevertheless, it was realized that the majority of teachers give more priority to the spoken form followed by the written form. MT7 noted:

I tell them [students] that all they need to focus on is the pronunciation and the meaning of the word, and not to focus on spelling. And as it is language education, the pronunciation should be linked to the meaning, not the spelling. When they get busy with spelling, they ignore the meaning. I want to make input and make sure that the word registers.

Most other teachers also indicated that they say the word or make students say it first, and then write it on the board or refer students to it in the textbook. Some of them found that more helpful with memorizing it and getting familiar with it. Even with primary or preparatory school teachers who found spelling important, they reported that they make sure that they say the word correctly and ask students to repeat it whether while or before writing it on the board. It is worth mentioning here that one of the teachers (MT3) mentioned how learners find it attractive and “different” to hear the word pronounced by the teacher in a native-like way.

The interview and observation data indicated that teachers usually prefer introducing the spoken form to the written form. In all cases, most teachers say the word first, or as some of them said, “Read it out” (MT11, FT10) first. They then make sure that the whole class does the same, or that individual students use the word by itself or in a sentence proposed by either the teacher or the student.

It is remarkable that most primary stage and preparatory stage teachers used the Arabic verb *yisamm'a* to refer to how students prove their knowledge and memorization of the word. The word in Arabic is close to ‘recite’ in English, but it is also derived from the same verb *sami'a* in Arabic, which means ‘hear’. *Yisamm'a* is used to mean saying from memory what has been mostly taught by a teacher or, traditionally, a sheikh who usually makes young children memorize the Quran by reading the verses out loud without explaining the meaning while making them repeat more than once. The sheikh later checks their

memorization by making them recite those verses. One teacher (MT5) mentioned how this approach worked effectively with most kids in helping them memorize and get exposed to standard Arabic and how it can also work in making students learn, know and memorize vocabulary in a target language like English:

Repetition is important. If you memorize the Holy Quran, you repeat it. If you did not memorize at all, when you read it many times, you memorize without any effort. This happens with the language, especially for the vocabulary, but I advise them [students] to put it in a sentence. When you memorize it in more than one sentence, you can say it clearly and fluently without any effort. Practice makes perfect. (MT5, verbatim)

Another primary school teacher (MT6) reported a similar stance regarding repetition and using Arabic. During the observation session, he always pronounced each of the lesson words, and students repeated after him without being asked to repeat. Each time he said the word three or four times and the whole class repeated loudly. After finishing, he often asked them in Arabic, “What does it mean?” And when the whole class gave the equivalent in Arabic, he moved on.

8.2.2.3 The Written Form of the Word

Primary school teachers were the ones who mentioned the importance of spelling and the form of the word as a priority in their teaching, especially with the first three grades where students need to know the alphabet, the form of words, and how to read and write them correctly. MT6 reported that he knows that a student has actually learnt a vocabulary item when the student can “read it and know its meaning. He also knows its spelling because they focus on it in exams”. With higher stages, teachers indicated that they say and write the word on the board or refer to it in the text, and it is by and large the responsibility of the student to repeat and practice using it in written exercises. For example, MT7 said, “I show the student the [novel] words used in the textbook passages, or I give them notes. But for the kid to use it

in a sentence or so, it is up to him to do that by himself”. Some teachers mentioned that they try to help with that by assigning homework or follow-up tasks, but because of the limits of time, this happens only once, and it is up to the student to work on the written form of the word to retain it.

Memorization and repetition were the key words mentioned by most teachers, which depend on each student’s abilities and diligence. Some teachers (MT2, MT3, FT4, FT9) mentioned reading comprehension and exposure to extracurricular texts, especially novels and stories, as the best ways to memorize the written form and retain it in long-term memory. They stated that they usually encourage their students to do so when they have time or during school holidays. They also mentioned that this strategy worked the best for them as young learners of English, although most of them mentioned using it during their university years. Some teachers also reported how they encourage their students to repeat writing new words using a technique of hiding the word, writing it from memory, checking it after writing and so on until they can write it without checking anymore and make sure it is memorized.

8.2.2.4 The Grammatical Behaviour of the Word

Most teachers mentioned nothing about addressing the grammatical behaviour of the word in their vocabulary instruction until asked by the interviewer, and many of them responded that if time allows or if students’ levels are suitable for extra details, they would focus on possible different functions of the word in use, but because of time constraints and the low levels of students, they just mention one function of the word as required by the textbook.

A few in the secondary school stage may care to cover different grammatical behaviours of the word, but they rarely try to cover all of them to avoid “confusing the student” (MT7). FT9 commented that she would do the same if students seem interested. She said, “I also give information about its possible grammatical functions and usage as well, but

there are colleagues who do not find that necessary. They just say the word, its meaning in Arabic and that is it". MT6 does not find it necessary with primary stage students as long as they know how to use the word in a practice sentence and what it means.

In all cases, using a word correctly in a sentence or using it correctly in a written exercise or a proposed activity in which a student can say it loud or read it out seemed to be enough for most teachers. Also, as some suggested, with more exposure to language and with progress in their educational stages, students can know more about other details of the behaviour of the word or use English-English dictionaries.

It should be noted, however, that only two teachers (MT2 and MT3) highlighted how they believe that it is important to use derivatives and morphological derivation in teaching vocabulary to help with knowing the meaning of the word as well as its grammatical behaviour. They clearly indicated that they like teaching these aspects, but in reality, it only happens when students are ready for such information or willing to learn and apply it. During their observation sessions, both teachers did not even hint at possible derivatives in the vocabulary items they taught.

8.2.3 Cognitions About Using a Word

In their reference to word use, almost all informants mentioned the following two sentences without much change in wording: "I put it in a sentence" and "I ask them to put it in a sentence". As noted in the observations, the participants either wrote a simple example sentence and said it loudly (MT6, MT3) while asking students to repeat after them or referred them to the ones in the textbook (FT14, MT2). All participants mentioned the word and its textbook-based function as a part of speech before referring to the sentence. They then elicited understanding and correct application by asking one or more students to stand up and read out the exemplary sentence (MT3, MT6, FT14) and then made them answer practice questions and do more drills (MT3, MT6, FT14, MT2).

In her explanation of how she introduces different uses of the word, FT1 said “I use the word in more than one context. I care about all possible meanings of the word and I like to teach them”. Then she started explaining: “For example, if I teach them the word ‘play’, I give them examples like: ‘He plays football’, ‘I saw a play yesterday’”. It is obvious that the meaning of the word in use is viewed in its possible functions as a part of speech in connection to other words in a sentence. In other words, word use is more about its grammatical function and the closest definition associated with that function rather than what the same word with the same function can indicate or imply.

Even with a polysemous word that has one grammatical function, only two teachers (FT10, MT2) indicated that they would focus on using it in different sentences to indicate those possible uses. Other teachers reported explicitly or implicitly that they would rather pay attention to the single word use suggested by the textbook. As MT7 put it, “I show the kid the words used in a textbook passage or the notes I give to them. But for the kid to use it in more sentences or so, it is up to him to do that by himself.”

In general, most informants referred to word use in the grammatical or structural sense rather than the semantic or pragmatic sense. The meaning seemed to draw heavily on its equivalent in Arabic and the mental image of it as introduced and perceived by the learner. Then the focus is on its form and use in the correct structure of English as a TL.

The semantic and pragmatic sense of the word requires authentic, communicative TL input, among other conditions, to be attained. As expected by students and resorted to by most informants, the MT is used as a shortcut to meaning. An equivalent in the MT is given or elicited, while the semantic and pragmatic sense of the word in the TL is derived from symbolic representations of language (mostly written texts) rather than authentic verbal or sociolinguistic interactions. Based on the results of the questionnaire, teachers tend to focus less on the cultural connotations of vocabulary items. Together with the findings from the

interview and observation data, both teachers and students tend to focus on using the word accurately in its grammatical sense to convey meanings based on mental images grounded in their MT. It is a shortcut to goals grounded in an examination-oriented education system in which communication in a TL is not tested or assessed.

MT2 mentioned a case of one of his “brilliant students” who could define (give an Arabic equivalent of) any word he encountered and could position it correctly in a sentence but “he does not have the skill to understand its use in the text. He knows all the meanings of the words he sees, but he does not know what the sentence means in general”. He explained that it is because of how most teachers focus on giving definitions (Arabic equivalents), repetition and structural exercises without paying much attention to language in use. Does this mean that he does the opposite with his students? He reported that he tries “when contextual factors allow for doing things right”.

8.3 General Discussion of Qualitative Findings

The practices and cognitions expressed by the study participants in regard to teaching and learning imply the notion of *le sens pratique* (Bourdieu, 1990) that seems to permeate most of what they reported or did in reality. This *sens pratique*, or practical sense, is “a practical mastery of the logic or immanent necessity of a game, which one gains through experiencing the game” (Darvin & Norton, 2015, p. 47). This sense is exercised and attained by habitus (Bourdieu, 1990, 2000; Kramsch, 2008). In light of *sens pratique* as a product of habitus, we can understand how their cognitions and practices regarding contextualization, using the MT versus the TL, and using traditional methods versus non-traditional methods are all mediated by contextual factors (Breen et al., 2001) or the field that structures their habitus and ultimately their *sens pratique*. With this practical sense, habitus structures the field in turn to fit the requirements of ‘immanent necessity’.

Viewing this field within the scope of the education system in general and the language classroom in particular, it could be argued that concepts of ‘form’, ‘meaning’ and ‘use’ seem to be modified and/or addressed according to that practical sense to “get things done”. Form is mostly about pronunciation and spelling; meaning is mostly about the equivalent in the MT, and use is about example sentences that draw more on the textbook and structural aspects and rely less on communicative aspects or cultural connotations of the word in TL. It is by and large within the imagined meaning grounded in the MT that the learner is presented with the English vocabulary item without a full presentation of its meaning as communicated and practiced in the culture of the TL. “It is only in a language that I can mean something by something. This shews clearly that the grammar of "to mean" is not like that of the expression "to imagine" and the like” (Wittgenstein, 1953, section 38).

As Liddicoat and Scarino (2013) argue, there are three layers of language that should be considered in language teaching and learning: structural system, communication system, and social practice. The findings indicate that EFL teachers in Egypt tend to address aspects related to the structural system more often, and they focus less, or marginalize, aspects related to the communication system and social practice of the TL. They indicated that they are aware of the importance of these aspects; however, the field mediated their cognitions and practices to the extent that word knowledge aspects that should be expanded and explored within the communicative system and social practice were by and large confined within the structural system.

It could be argued then that teachers’ references to ‘form’, ‘meaning’ and ‘use’ in vocabulary instruction represent a language-game or a form of life in which the language and activities of teaching a foreign language are distinct from the language and activities used in their MT. In other words, they know that in Arabic, whether standard or colloquial, ‘form’, ‘meaning’ and ‘use’ are more about communication and social practices rather than the

structural system. However, either for reasons related to the low proficiency levels of some teachers or the several contextual factors that have been there for so long, they use the words ‘form’, ‘meaning’ and ‘use’ to mean something rather different in their teaching of the TL. ‘Form’ is more about accurate symbols or sounds used correctly in the TL, while ‘meaning’ and ‘use’ rely heavily on MT language use.

“When one shews someone the king in chess and says: "This is the king", this does not tell him the use of this piece—unless he already knows the rules of the game up to this last point: the shape of the king” (Wittgenstein, 1953, section 31). We can just imagine that both teachers and students rely on another language system (their MT) in which the language-game related to the equivalent vocabulary item could be totally different from the language-game of the TL. To know how to use the vocabulary item (the king) in the TL, they need to know the rules of the language-game in that TL, including its cultural connotations and practices related to it. As Liddicoat and Scarino (2013) put it:

The language game is a union of language and action...Language games involve equally the supporting language practices that enable learning through language use and the whole of a language in its context of social practice. In communication and in learning, language is integrated with action in order to achieve local aims. The differences lie in the purposes of the interactions, not in the nature of interaction. (pp. 47-48)

In sense of the above, the purpose of the language game played by the participants seems to aim at the outcome, in terms of students knowing and accumulating as many vocabulary items as possible, rather than ‘the union of language and action’. It is the language game that fits the requirements of the field in its wider sense as well as the “institutional affordances and constraints” (Sun et al., 2020, p. 15). It could be also argued that it is a befitting language game for some teachers who may not have the required efficiency or knowledge and for some

students whose learning goals are entrenched within an examination-oriented education system.

Chapter 9: Social Factors and Their Influences on Teachers' Cognitions

This chapter presents the findings and discussion related to RQ3 about the influence of social factors on teachers' cognitions. The data came mainly from the interviews administered in person with fourteen in-service EFL teachers. Some findings of the questionnaire data will also be discussed when relevant. The social factors that appeared in the interview themes were related to both micro-social factors, which are linked to classroom, school and small management circles as well as macro-social factors that are related to community and society in general, including sociocultural, socioeconomic and socio-political aspects. Such aspects will be analysed and discussed in relation to teachers' cognitions, roles and practices while shedding some light on teacher status and the constraints teachers have to deal with.

The chapter is divided into seven sections. Section 9.1 focuses on findings related to the participants' reasons or motivations behind becoming and being teachers while considering social factors. Section 9.2 addresses findings related to the direct influence of society on their 'decisions' to become teachers. Section 9.3 reports findings related to the participants' emotions as teachers and how they are socially constructed. Findings related to student-teacher relationship in terms of the sociocultural image of the teacher as perceived by the participants are discussed in section 9.4. As for findings related to teacher status in society in general and the influence of private lessons, they are presented in sections 9.5 and 9.6, respectively. The last section (section 9.7) focuses on the participants' cognitions in light of contextual constraints and inhibited agency.

It should be noted that this chapter presents and discusses findings related to the environment/context/field in its sociocultural and post-structuralist sense with a focus on its influence on cognitions reported by the study participants (i.e., findings related to RQ1. RQ2

and RQ3). Each section includes findings and their discussion in light of the context of the study, the theoretical framework and previous studies.

9.1 On Becoming and Being a Teacher: Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation

An open questionnaire item (item A6) addressed the participants' consideration of being English language teachers. The question was *As a young learner of English, did you ever think of becoming an English teacher at that time? If yes, why?* Although the question did not directly focus on social factors, it revealed some aspects that are related to their cognitions in general and the topic of this chapter in particular. Of the 118 participants, three did not give a clear answer. The responses of the remaining 115 participants indicated that most of them (n= 62, 53.9%) did not think of becoming English teachers, whereas 53 participants (46.1%) thought of teaching English as their future career. The thematic analysis of the 53 responses by the participants who indicated that they thought of becoming English teachers revealed that the most frequent reason was interest in English as a language (25 occurrences). Most of the 25 participants who mentioned that reason used expressions like "I liked it", "I loved it", and one participant wrote: "I adore it." The second most frequent reason was the positive influence of one or more of their past English teachers (10 occurrences). The third most frequent reason was the importance of English itself as an international language (7 occurrences). Among other interesting reasons was making money (3 occurrences) and teaching it differently to the way they were taught. (2 occurrences).

On the other side, and although the participants were not asked to provide reasons for not considering teaching English as their future job when they were young learners, eight participants stated that they always dreamed about a different job in which they could use English, but they never wanted to be English teachers. Others provided reasons that are worth mentioning using their verbatim comments here:

- "Not many students think or want to be a teacher."

- “Because teaching is a tiring [tiresome] profession. Teaching is not a good source of income, but I wanted to improve my English.”
- “Because I hated teaching”
- “It is a difficult job to deal with students and their parents who considered themselves as professors.”
- “I hated English during my primary stage because [of] one of my English teachers.”

The previous excerpts indicated emotional and social factors that shaped their perceptions of teaching. The use of past tense by some participants could indicate a change in their perception about teaching, but others used the present tense, which may indicate their unchanged perception about the job.

As for the interview data, the fourteen informants were asked a similar question with a focus on the reason behind being English teachers. Their answers were mostly consistent with the data collected from the questionnaire. All interviewed teachers indicated that they chose to teach English due to their interest in or love for English as a language, yet, as young learners, not all considered language teaching as a future job. Only four teachers (FT1, MT2, MT3, MT13) had thought of it as a personal goal before they started university, while others just accepted it or were convinced into it being the best available choice after finishing secondary school and having to choose one of the available places in higher education or after finishing university and having to choose it as an available job. Most informants reported that they regretted their decision to become teachers and considered resignation or career change.

Among the four informants who reported their early intrinsic motivation and interest in becoming English teachers, only one of them expressed his regret (MT13) and commented that it was because of his dissatisfaction with “the financial and social status...everything. Teachers are at the bottom”. The other three teachers did not hesitate to state that if they

worked only for the income, they would not stay as teachers for long, but they like the profession and do not want to change it because of either the role they play in helping students learn or the distinction they find in being teachers of English. It should be noted, however, that, except for FT1, who is financially secure, the other three teachers give private lessons.

The four teachers who personally chose teaching English as a future job earlier in their lives expressed the connection between their early recognition of their own abilities or talents as learners and their choice of teaching as a job. Examples of these abilities or talents were being able to memorize up to 300 hundred words a day (FT1), having a talent for learning vocabulary and teaching grammar (MT3), “having a talent for teaching” (MT2), or realizing that “delivering information is a talent” (MT13).

Overall, the findings from the questionnaire and interview data indicate that most participants did not want to be teachers. This finding is line with the finding by Hartmann (2008) in her study of the informal market of education in Egypt. The author commented:

The majority of teachers I talked to had not chosen their profession for idealistic reasons or even chosen it at all. Due to the specific nature of the university system, many of them had just been allocated to the faculty of education due to their final score...In the hierarchy of subjects and university faculties, education occupies a rather low position. Hence, it seems that teaching is not an occupation that many graduates consciously choose, but rather one they end up with. (p. 29)

These findings are much related to the domain of teacher motivation, which has been poorly researched in LTC (Kubanyiova, 2006; Wyatt, 2015). However, this study considers teacher motivation inseparable from their emotions and cognitions (see Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). It is also historically and socially situated and connected with their notions of power relations and social space as will be discussed in the following sections. These findings are

broadly consistent with the findings of research studies in education (e.g., Ashiedu & Scott-Ladd, 2012; Cuddapah et al., 2011; Spear et al., 2000) as regards lack of motivation among teachers and the reasons they think of career change, i.e., issues with students' behaviours and attitudes, low income and little recognition from society.

As regards their early interest in becoming EFL teachers, the findings are generally in line with the findings of Gao and Xu (2014) in their study of Chinese EFL teachers who, like most of our informants, grew up in rural areas and were also unwilling to become EFL teachers, yet becoming a teacher was the only way towards upward social mobility and improved English skills. For this study's informants, some indicated a similar incentive to improve their language skills by joining English departments. Informants also indicated how social factors, including aspirations for social mobility, were among the reasons they became English teachers. The following section will shed more light on this point.

9.2 Society and Becoming a Teacher

Most participants highlighted the influences of the culture in its social, socioeconomic and institutional aspects on their 'decisions' to become teachers as they did not personally choose this career. FT9 commented that she never considered teaching as a job, but she was young, and there were other factors that influenced her choices at that time:

My wish was to join the faculty of law, but it was in another city, and my father did not approve of me travelling alone as a girl. So, I said to him I would like to join French department in the faculty of arts. He did not accept, and he said to me, 'Go to faculty of education so that you guarantee appointment [state job] after graduation'. So, I did not want to upset him, and I joined faculty of education, English department because it was the best department. I was the top of my class in secondary school, [So] I chose the best department, which was English, and because I also like languages in general.

The previous excerpt gives a general picture of what happens in most Egyptian families when students have to choose between the available free-of-charge places in higher education according to their scores in *thanawiyyah 'ammah*. The allocation of these places is determined by a central ministerial bureau known as *Maktab El Tansiq* (placement office), and students usually resort to older professionals in the family or trustworthy educated ones to help them choose between the available places. They are sometimes compelled to make a decision as directed by adults. MT8 recounted that during his first month in the faculty of education, he spent two weeks in his room feeling frustrated and depressed because he did not want to continue his studies in the faculty, knowing that he would become a teacher. His family, though, kept telling him that it was the best available choice, and he had to give in.

The findings indicate that except for MT13, informants who chose to become teachers with less sociocultural channelling and more intrinsic motivation expressed no regret about their decision. Conversely, the majority of those whose decisions were socioculturally channelled regretted it, and they either considered resignation or career change. Similar to Gao and Xu's (2014) findings, it was a way to achieve upward social mobility (in a socioeconomic sense); however, it was not the only way but the most appropriate one from the perspective of their family members and within the scope of other available places allocated by the placement office. In other words, the field with its conceptions of economic, social and cultural capital exercised symbolic violence on the informants as teenagers who were convinced into a path that they were not actually willing to take. They seemed to have no choice but "complicity" (Widin, 2015, p. 75) or "self-marginalization" (Kumaravidelu, 2003, 2008, 2012, as cited in Widin, 2015, p. 75).

9.3 Socially Constructed Emotions: The Past and the Present

Among the most recurrent themes in the interviews was teachers' emotions and their interconnectedness with their cognitions and practices. Whether as young learners, teacher-

students at the university level, or in-service teachers of English, most informants recounted how they thought, felt and reacted to various situations in their lives, and how such situations influenced the way they see themselves and others. It was also noted that various contextual factors had their influences on their cognitions and their views of themselves as human beings, community or family members and professional teachers.

9.3.1 As Young Learners: Emotions Related to Language Use in Society

In addition to their negative and positive emotions in their interactions with their past school teachers (see Chapter 6), some informants still remember how they felt proud, fulfilled, distinguished and empowered because of their special abilities in learning English, especially in memorizing many words (FT1, MT3) or translating them (MT11), or using English in their wider social circles outside the classroom. MT2 described the satisfaction he felt when he helped his other classmates in learning some rules or words when he was a secondary school student. MT3, coming from a rural background, described various situations in which he felt distinguished and proud because as a son of an illiterate farmer, he was able to learn English fast and use it in the school morning broadcast. He commented (verbatim):

My father was so happy when I read English. He was a simple farmer. He sometimes...tried to go to school and waited at the school gate to listen to me speaking in English during the school morning broadcast on the mic. He told me that he was so happy on hearing me...on listening to me while speaking English, and so I decided to continue...really.

FT4 also mentioned how because of her father's job as a translator, some English-speaking persons visited their house when she was young, and being able to interact with them made her feel good. MT7 recounted his positive feelings when his father encouraged him and his siblings to learn English and used to reward them for showing understanding. Another

informant, MT11, referred to how his interest in translating many words to English caught the attention of some of his family members and made him feel distinguished as a young teenager. MT6 mentioned how his older cousin encouraged him and made him feel able to learn English. Coming from a rural background, he also referred to how using English outside the classroom was not common or expected, and how his cousin's support and praise of his use of some words made him feel competent.

Most of the aforementioned emotions seem related to how they felt when adults recognized their abilities through caring support, positive feedback and recognition. FT4 and MT11 used the same word (distinction) to refer to their emotions in positive situations they recalled as young learners of language. This distinction was seemingly experienced based on the feedback and reactions of adults, including teachers or family members.

9.3.2 As Teacher-Students: Emotions Related to Incompetence in Communication Skills

Among other emotions that seemed to influence their cognitions as learners and teachers were some teachers' emotions of embarrassment and frustration as teacher-students in English language departments at the university level where some lecturers used English all the time. At that time, they were also supposed to use English to interact with their classmates or lecturers, but they could not. MT5 commented (verbatim):

I had classmates who had been in language schools, and they could speak fluently with the teacher. We were silent because we did not accustom to do this... We had studied for 12 years in schools... but not talking English... We wrote, copied and pasted.

Although he did not name his emotion at the time. He used 'silent' as an indication of helplessness and then elaborated his frustration about the years they spent in schools without learning how to communicate in English. Another participant (MT6) indicated how he felt helpless because most university lecturers used English all the time. He also commented:

I remember some classmates who whispered all the time, 'We do not understand a word'. Those classmates graduated and became teachers relying on memorization and using some help from other teachers with how to explain a certain rule. They sometimes ask about the meaning of certain words.

Later in the interview, the same teacher stated that he himself used to memorize model answers and recite them in oral exams. He is also the same teacher who makes his students memorize conversations and recite them with an assumption that this would help them improve their oral skills.

As a university student in English department, one of the participants reflected on that challenging situation and decided to take private language courses after finishing his first year at university. He enrolled in a private language training centre in another city (Alexandria). Following is how he described his experience and how he felt at the time:

It was funny that I was there in my first class in the course after finishing my first year in English department, and I literally discovered listening for the first time. I did not understand a word then. I felt embarrassed. I said to myself, 'Oh my God. I do not know what is going on'...So, I decided to take more courses telling myself how I would be an English teacher while I cannot understand spoken English. (MT7)

As a university student, MT7 worked on improving his skills and went beyond the boundaries of formal education. Feeling embarrassed may have made him insist on improving his listening and speaking skills. In addition to taking extra courses, he also mentioned that he started browsing the internet for materials and videos that would help him know more about the language and using it, and he is still doing that as an experienced teacher.

Except for five informants (FT1, MT2, MT3, FT4, FT9), all the others expressed how they felt helpless or frustrated during university years because of the way they had been taught English as a library language in schools and how they struggled to improve their

speaking and pronunciation at that time. Two of them expressed that they are still struggling with these two aspects until now (MT6 and FT10). It is not clear whether the five teachers had these issues as teacher-students or not. However, three of them (FT1, MT2, and MT3) indicated that before joining university, they were keen on developing their language skills apart from the school by watching movies or reading extracurricular texts.

It could be concluded that all those who expressed their negative emotions about their previous emotional-cognitive experiences (*perezhivaniya*) felt a sense of marginalization as they were unable to use the language like some other students. This marginalization brings to mind Bourdieu's concept of distinction, which is mainly about legitimate privilege (versus marginalization) based on power and influence (Bourdieu, 1991). In the case of the informants, especially MT6 and MT7, the symbolic power of language acquired by students who had been to language schools made them feel marginalized as university students. However, and according to each informant's dispositions (*habitus*), one decided to find a way through this distinction by memorizing answers (MT6), and the other decided to improve his communication skills through private training. It should be noted, though, that the field may have had its influence, in an economic sense, on what each of them decided to do to handle this sense of distinction and their emotions of embarrassment.

9.3.3 As In-Service Teachers: Emotions Related to Language Teaching

During the interviews, most informants expressed their emotions about several situations and practices they have experienced as in-service teachers at different levels of the context. They were sometimes asked about their emotions in certain experiences, but in many other cases, they just went on explaining how they felt and how the experience impacted their cognitions or practices. The thematic analysis revealed that except for most of those who did not indicate any feelings of regret about being teachers (FT1, MT2, MT3, MT11, FT14), the majority of informants expressed more negative than positive emotions about their

experiences as in-service teachers. The following sections will present these emotions, as revealed in the findings.

9.3.3.1 Negative Emotions

As in-service teachers, most informants recounted several situations and experiences in which they felt frustration or anger. The thematic analysis of their responses revealed that they mostly referred to these emotions in three contextual levels or what Kayi-Aydar (2019a) refers to as the micro, mezzo, and macro layers of context. According to the author, the micro level is mainly the classroom, the mezzo is the school environment, including administration, and the macro is the wider social context with its socio-political and socio-educational discourses.

The emotions of frustration the majority of informants expressed while using the same word in Arabic (*ihbat*) were mainly about their lived experiences at the micro level, usually because of students' misbehaviour or apathy. Most of them referred to students' age, gender or family upbringing as reasons for misbehaviour and mentioned private tutoring as the main reason for apathy. MT12, for example, commented that such an attitude of apathy makes him feel "insulted and humiliated". Interesting in the findings is that most of these teachers indicated that eventually they became more indifferent to what students did in class. Even those who used to use corporal punishment or shout at students at the beginning of their career indicated that they became either more patient or indifferent. However, the participants also indicated that when they feel frustrated, they focus on language aspects students expect from private tutors and engage them in activities or exercises that could have been missed by their private tutors to either get their students' attention or prove that they are more proficient than their private tutors.

At the mezzo level, most informants expressed their frustration with the reactions of the administration or some colleagues as regards their attempts to do things right or

differently. FT4 described how she felt frustrated because of miscommunication at school level: “I tell them that I need to know the new plan...they say follow the old one...nobody will ask. No...It is a frustration...frustration...much frustration”. She also expressed her frustration with discouraging comments from colleagues who find her interest in innovation and improving language teaching unfitting. MT7 indicated a similar emotion when some colleagues mocked his insistence on pronouncing words correctly and when inspectors wanted him to focus on formalities and “check the necessary boxes”.

Regarding the macro level, most informants referred to their frustration with the education system and its examination-oriented policies that make students focus on memorization and rote learning as well as changes that the EMOE suddenly imposes without considering the needs and levels of students and teachers. MT8 mentioned how he felt frustrated when some parents contacted him to comment on his approach in teaching and ask him to “make the boy memorize many words.” MT7 also mentioned how he got frustrated when a parent asked him to focus more on drills. FT9 mentioned how many parents made good teachers feel frustrated because they give more consideration to private tutors who help their children get full marks in assessments. She noted, however, that they generally appreciated what good teachers do in school classes.

The informants’ reported emotions of frustration with students’ behaviours and apathy seemed to affect their cognitions and practices in class. Some of them use verbal reproach as a less harmful but “embarrassing” technique instead of corporal punishment (FT1, MT7, FT10, MT11). Some choose to ignore what students do or the attitude they show and just keep working in a mostly traditional way (FT4, FT9, MT3), change their teaching methods from group activities to individual activities (MT3) or ask students to “do what they want in silence”, as MT13 said, while the teacher does something else.

As for their frustrations at the mezzo and macro levels, it was interesting that more than one informant used the same expression to indicate how they had to adjust to what the context imposed as they could not change the nature of things, so they just “go with the flow” (FT1, FT4, MT6, MT7, FT10) as regards official requirements that the administration prioritises.

The several references to the same emotions of *iḥbat* or frustration by most informants indicate their sense of failure in doing or achieving something. In Egyptian Arabic, this word is most often used to refer to a feeling that something is/was done in vain without reward or recognition. In English, as well as in Arabic, it also suggests suppressed anger. Those emotions of suppressed anger mixed with futility seemed to accumulate from their experiences as regards their dissatisfaction with the way most of them were taught communication skills in English, the feelings of embarrassment some of them went through as teacher-students, the apathy of students who are more interested in what they learn with private tutors, discouraging comments they receive from colleagues or administration, little consideration of their voices and needs as teachers, and parents’ interference with what they do or little consideration of it.

9.3.3.2 Positive Emotions

Among the recurrent positive emotions in the interview data was the emotion of happiness that some experienced after helping one or more students, especially when they were able to help socially less advantaged students improve their study skills (MT3, FT4). Others also reported their happiness for being recognized by students as good or interesting teachers (FT1, FT9, MT5), being recognized and appreciated by some parents (MT6), being recognized and appreciated by the school administration (FT1). In this regard, it is worth noting an excerpt from MT6 in which he described his emotions as a teacher when he felt recognized by the community:

I had that feeling during my first three years in a rural school.... At that time, the children [students] had no private tutoring, and they relied completely on me. They needed me. No one else was able to be of help, even their parents who were just simple farmers. At the time, English was a new requirement in primary schools, and parents used to support me and pray for me and encourage me. When they did that, I felt as if I were flying in the sky. I was not thinking of money or giving private lessons at all. I was very enthusiastic, and when I found that a class did not have a teacher because of his sickness or so, I volunteered to give them an English lesson.

Regarding recognition from students and school administration, FT9 also mentioned a recent situation with one of her students twice during the same interview. She seemed excited about the comment she received from her student and considered it as a very rewarding recognition of what she does as a teacher:

When the boy told me that I deserve to be in a better place [school] because I work hard with students, I felt proud of myself. I told him wait...I will bring the principal so that you can tell him what you said to me...It is a testimony for me. My daughter was in one of the schools I worked in, and she used to tell me that her classmates liked me so much and liked my lessons...and such things gave me like a push, and I felt happy and proud.

The informants' recurrent emotions of happiness seemed to be much attached to recognition from the three levels of context. This recognition could be viewed as the factor whose absence results in frustration. The following verbatim extract from MT5 gives a general overview of what most informants seemed to focus on with regard to their positive and negative emotions as teachers.

For me, appreciation is very important because I am very sensitive to this. All disappointing points or disappoints [disappointments] around me. It make[s] me...it

make[s] my psychology very bad. If I have a great encouragement, I can do many things without any pay or any reward...but I need encouragement and appreciation really...especially in my school here from my colleagues...my headmaster and my local administration directors...people around me in my work...but in some situations, I feel I lack the encouragement, and this affects me greatly.

As indicated by most informants, their cognitions and practices are interconnected with their emotions. When they get recognition and appreciation from one level of context, they expect the same from the other circles. As indicated by their comments, the wider the circle they get recognition from, the more they experience positive emotions about their practices and think of what they do differently. Conversely, their emotions of frustration make them feel that it is futile to attempt to change things for the better or teach the language as they believe it should be taught or even work on their teacher development. FT9 commented that she stopped looking for teacher development programs or pursuing her postgraduate studies because her development as a teacher would not be recognized or appreciated well. The same was indicated by FT4, FT10 and MT12 who pursued graduate studies to find a different path in academia, as they indicated their love for teaching—but not in the context of pre-tertiary education.

The findings related to the informants' emotions, whether in the past or at present, indicate that their experience, awareness and management of their emotions are related to their own personal characteristics as well as the sociocultural context in its different layers and how it influences their own conceptions, assumptions and practices. These findings are closely in line with previous studies on the influence of teacher emotions, whether in general education or ELT (e.g., Ballet et al., 2006; Cowie, 2011; Gersten, 1999; Hargreaves, 2000, 2003; Loh & Liew, 2016; Song, 2016; Xu, 2013; Zembylas, 2005a, 2005b). For example, Song (2016) found that Korean EFL teachers' positive and negative emotions, as situated in

their contexts, affected their identities and practices. Cowie (2011) found that EFL teachers in Japan had strong contextually constructed emotions of frustration, anger and helplessness that negatively affected their cognitions and practices.

Together with the findings about their emotions in their prior learning experience (Chapter 6), the findings indicate that their lived experiences (*perezhivaniya*) as young learners and teacher-students seemed to influence their personalities, cognitions and reported practices as in-service teachers. FT1's positive lived experience with one of her teachers made her willing to be a teacher early in her life. She told him personally when she was in secondary school that she wanted to be like him. She then became a teacher who enjoyed interacting with students. Although she found herself in the job where she felt somewhat dissatisfied with the institutional context, she sounded tolerant and understanding of her students. MT2's positive experiences were similar to FT1 in many aspects.

MT8's negative experience as a primary school student who was beaten by his school English teacher in front of his mother (see Chapter 6) was socially compelled into becoming a teacher. His initial frustration and depression about his early experiences recurred throughout his comments, showing his dissatisfaction with the whole context of his career at all levels. He indicated that he was looking hard for a different job.

MT3 was recognized as a prep school student by one of his teachers. He mentioned his experience with his father, the farmer, who specifically went and waited outside the school building to listen to him speaking in English in the morning broadcast, along with his experience when another farmer gave a sarcastic comment indicating his inability to be a distinguished student because he is a son of a "peasant". Such experiences, as he stated, had much influence on him and his decision to be a teacher. It was remarkable that he mentioned how he cared about socially disadvantaged students to the extent that he sometimes cried when he heard from them about some socioeconomic problems. It is also remarkable that for

him, speaking English perfectly is a major characteristic of a language teacher. He also insisted on doing the whole interview in English despite some long pauses.

MT6, who was called ‘the peasant’ by one of his past teachers, was embarrassed by another, and later felt helpless because of his weak communication skills as a teacher-student, ended up being a teacher who appreciated social recognition from students’ parents and insisted on avoiding and embarrassing students in his class. During observation, it was noticed that he stopped any student from correcting or commenting on another student’s answer. He also reported that he would not perform well in class for the whole day if the school manager, for some reason, did not greet him in the morning or show him a positive attitude.

Regarding their emotions as teacher-students, MT5 and MT7 went through similar experiences in which they felt frustrated or helpless because of their weak communication skills compared to some other students who had been to private language schools. However, unlike MT6 who preferred to memorize texts and answers for oral exams, they started working early on their communication skills by traveling to another city to take a communication course or using the internet. Both also highlighted the importance of a teacher being fluent in English. MT5 was the only other teacher, besides MT3, to insist on doing the interview in English and called me later asking for a copy of it to review his speaking and consider working on any issues.

The previous findings suggest that those lived experiences from the past, whether their past as learners or teachers, were refracted through their own individual prisms as each one interpreted it based on his or her own dispositions (*habitus*) and according to several sociocultural factors. It is in the same vein that we can see the interplay between their *perezhivaniya* and their *habitus*. Throughout their stories, power relations seemed to permeate how such lived experiences were refracted. Their social spaces and their desire for

recognition, or the social space they inhabit, even at the level of the micro-social space of classroom, seemed to be an overarching factor in their *perezhivaniya* and habitus. And from their accounts of their lives in learning and teaching English, they mainly worked on either investing in the positive and expanding it in their practices as teachers or resisting misrecognition in different ways based on each individual's *perezhivanie* and their attempts to restructure the field or adapt to its imposed boundaries.

Regarding the emotions of frustration most of them went through in their experiences as teachers, it is noteworthy that all informants, whether they were committed to teaching or were considering a career change, agreed that such emotions had an impact on their teaching experiences. However, they also refracted these frustrations based on their own dispositions or personal characteristics. For some of them, their habitus, based on their *perezhivaniya*, either worked according to the structuring field or reframed their scope of the field to be within the classroom field, the school field or the surrounding community field where they gave private lessons.

It is worthwhile to restate that emotion in this study is viewed through the lens of Vygotsky's concept of *perezhivanie* that underpins its "dialectic unity" (Johnson & Worden, 2014, p. 127) with cognition. According to the theoretical foundations of SCT and poststructuralism, teacher cognition, in its interconnectedness with teacher emotions, is based on historical and social factors (Dang, 2013; Golombek & Doran, 2014), as emotions often arise from previous experiences. The findings are in line with the views and findings emphasizing the relevance of "teacher's historicity" (Golombek & Doran, 2014, p. 103) in exploring and understanding language teacher cognition. However, whereas Golombek and Doran addressed teacher's historicity "in terms of his/her feeling and doing of teaching", this study addresses teachers' historicity in terms of teachers' prior learning experiences, whether as young learners or teacher-students (see Barnard & Burns, 2012).

To better understand the findings related to the participants' emotions, it is also worthwhile to note the connection between emotions in its unity with cognition and habitus (see McNay, 1999 and Zembylas, 2007). As Watkins (2016) argues:

Bourdieu (1990) theorised the notion of habitus to explain how practice sediments within the body as dispositional tendencies which guide practice. Though never foregrounded in his work, this can be understood as an affective process. As he explains, 'the child incorporates the social in the form of affects' (Bourdieu 2000, p. 167), a process that continues throughout life. Practice, as such, is affective. (p. 72)

'Incorporating the social in the form of affects' sounds like a sociological conceptualization of the Vygotskian psychological perspective of *perezhivanie*. In other words, habitus as dispositions influenced and mediated by the field is a Bourdieusian approach to understanding individual practice in relation to society, while *perezhivanie* is a Vygotskian approach to understanding individual consciousness in relation to society.

In view of the foregoing, it is essential to understand emotions, from a Bourdieusian perspective, as reflections of power relations in society (Lanas, 2016; Zembylas, 2005b, 2007). As Zembylas (2007) notes:

Emotion norms, just like other norms, delineate a zone within which certain emotions are permitted and others are not permitted, and can be obeyed or broken, at varying costs; they reflect power relations and thus are techniques for the discipline of habitus. (p. 447)

In this sense, the findings of the interviews, along with the questionnaire and the Q sorts (especially the factor analyses), suggest that their lived experiences, *perezhivaniya*, and habitus, situated within different layers of context, played interconnected roles in the way their cognitions and practices are shaped. They also suggest that their sense of their social space or position determines which sub-field (class, school, private tutoring class,

community, etc.) gets their own recognition when recognition from the wider society or the main field does not seem to give them the social space or position they believe they deserve.

As Dumais (2002, p. 46) argues,

[Habitus] is generated by one's place in the social structure; by internalizing the social structure and one's place in it, one comes to determine what is possible and what is not possible for one's life and develops aspirations and practices accordingly.

With this borne in mind, it could be argued that while socially constructed emotions as part of 'internalized' lived experiences (perezhivaniya) play their dynamic roles in shaping each informant's habitus, that taken together, perezhivanie and habitus influence individuals' cognitions about the possibility of things as well as the practices that accord with such possibility.

9.4 Student-Teacher Relationship: A Sociocultural Self-Image

Most informants viewed their relationships with students in terms of family relationships that indicate responsibility, care and support. Most male teachers reported that they saw themselves as fathers of the students, in the place of their fathers, or as second to their fathers. MT11 confirmed that he dealt with his students the way he wanted all other teachers to deal with his own children. As for the female informants, two (FT4 and FT14) saw themselves as mothers to students. FT1 saw herself as a "dignified friend," yet she reported that a teacher is like a father to students. FT9 saw herself as a "guardian and adviser". They both highlighted the importance of good behaviour and positive attitude of students. All participants confirmed that students must show respect and good demeanour in a way similar to what they supposedly do with their parents, especially their fathers, or older family members.

This finding is consistent with what Hartmann (2008) found, though from the perspective of Egyptian students, that they "displayed respect and affection for their teacher,

who seemed to be a father-like figure for them” (p. 69). The family member self-image comes with its attributes of compassion, giving, caring, and supporting, but it also comes with a sense of patriarchal authoritarianism as a dominant ideology in most Arab societies (Høigilt, 2017; Sharabi, 1988) that assumes inherent rights and responsibilities. Students are expected to show respect, commitment and appreciation. They should also listen and obey to certain extents.

If such responsibilities are violated by students, penalties, including corporal punishment from the authoritarian figure, the teacher, seemed to be an acceptable consequence. Most male and female teachers stated that they still have to use the stick in class or enter the class with one in their hands even if they do not use it. Only four out of the fourteen teachers said that they never use corporal punishment. These findings are highly congruent with the arguments made by Farag (2006), Hammad (2010), Hammoudi (1997), Hartmann (2008), and Naguib (2006) in their studies on education in Egypt and the Arab world, that authoritarianism, as a sociocultural pattern, permeates all levels of society starting from the state down to families and classrooms.

Overall, the findings show that most informants’ cognitions about their relationship with their students indicate a sociocultural influence apparent in the way they see themselves as patriarchal figures in the broad sense of the meaning, i.e., father, mother, big brother. However, for them, authoritarianism does not necessarily imply ignoring the rights of others (students). Teachers care, support, guide, explain, and reward, yet, in all cases, the teacher’s “dignity should be cared for” as there are “limits between the student and the teacher” (FT1) that are socioculturally regulated. So, for example, the teacher should “try to be funny but within limits.” A teacher “cannot teach with any kind of hissing in the class” (MT3, verbatim), and a good student “must be a nice blend of morality, punctuality, intelligence, understanding, modesty...also obedience and following [the teacher’s] instructions” (MT3,

verbatim). In this sense, we can understand why most of them referred to students as *eyal* (slang for kids), which literally means dependents.

The findings indicate that when their socially mediated cognitions about their roles as authoritarian figures are questioned by students' behaviours or comments, they feel frustrated or humiliated. Such emotions, as discussed earlier, affected their reported practices.

In their comments about what they expect from students, most informants used Egyptian Arabic to refer to respect (*ihtram*), discipline (*indibat*), commitment (*iltizam*), politeness (*adab*), obedience (*ta'ah*). All these words should be understood as used in the Egyptian context, where they all suggest regarding and recognizing the position of a person in authority, whether it is professional, social, cultural, or symbolic, and acting or interacting with that person according to his or her position with a sense of fear, in some cases, and the anticipation of negative consequences if these norms are not met.

Based on Wittgenstein's notion of a language-game, patriarchal authoritarianism should not be understood or interpreted in a non-Arab, non-Egyptian sense of the word as some may link it to sheer oppression or suppression if translated or used outside its context. The sense of fear and avoidance of negative consequences should also be interpreted in the same context. Herrera (2010, p. 127) realized how "caring and committed teachers" in an Egyptian school also use "punitive practices" and attributed this kind of contradiction to sociocultural factors that reproduce repression. However, she found that teachers view those practices of "pain and shame" (p. 128) as "the correct way to maintain control and to ensure high academic performance" (p. 128). Students in her study had conflicting opinions about corporal punishment, yet the majority of them contended that "it was wrong to punish a slow learner or someone who was making an effort to learn". Their stance indicates an implicit approval of corporal punishment if the weak are cared for.

In this study, the informants' references to caring, supporting and giving imply many layers of meaning that go beyond the student's learning to include their well-being. These aspects are in a complex interplay as forms of life and representations of culture that do not always have the same positive or negative connotations that equivalent words may have in a different culture. MT8 reported that he beats some students because he cares about them. He used an Egyptian expression, '*khayef aleih*', which literally translates as "afraid for him (the student)" and is supposed to mean that the teacher has that sense of fear (indicating concern) and keeps doing the act of beating, as a teacher, that he himself recalled as a negative memory from his prior learning experience. This same sentence is used by many parents in Egypt to imply that their interference with their children's freedom is justified because it shows their children the right path until they can decide and choose for themselves.

An interesting Arabic verb that most informants used to refer to caring and supporting is *yira'ai*, which has several shades of meaning based on its use in Egyptian Arabic. This word could be translated as observe, guard, keep, consider, avoid, abide, tolerate, support, and sympathize, among other relevant meanings that depend much on the pragmatic context. Most participants used it to refer to how they care, but at the same time, the nuances of its possible uses were present in their comments on how a teacher should observe and fear (*yira'ai*) God in what he/she does; consider, keep and abide by (*yira'ai*) convictions and traditions; tolerate, support and sympathize with (*yira'ai*) students; and consider and observe (*yira'ai*) the examination-oriented system and what students and their parents expect. The repeated and nuanced use of the word implies their consideration of several contextual factors, and it is widely used in the sense of conforming to socially acceptable norms. It should be noted that the same word was used by most participants to refer to their teaching practices when they 'consider' what works for students and their needs, as opposed to what textbooks or ideal theorization suggests.

The previous discussion is not meant to mitigate the negativity of certain notions or underestimate the positive consequences of other ones. It is mainly meant to draw attention to the complexity of teachers' cognitions and how they need to be understood in their context while considering the language-games adopted and practiced in their socially mediated activities. It also aims to underline the unsuitability of sweeping generalizations when it comes to LTC or teacher emotions, especially with NNESTs.

Hartmann (2008, p. 45), for example, referred to the verb that most teachers and students use in Egyptian Arabic to refer to the teacher's activity in class. She commented, Most people I spoke to in Egypt used the verb *yeshrah/sharah*, the Arabic word for "explain". The verbs for "to teach" – *yedarris/darrasa* – and "to explain" – *yeshrah/sharaha* were used synonymously. This is a significant hint at the way the role of the teacher is generally perceived in Egypt. Teaching and learning is characterized by a strong emphasis on rote learning, on memorization and reproduction of a given body of knowledge, which is prescribed by centrally devised curricula and textbooks. (cf. El Tawila/ Lloyd 2000: 90f.)

Although her conclusion is generally true, the use of the *yeshrah/sharah* as equivalents of explain/explained does not consider the language-game in which this verb is used as it is not about rote learning or memorization in general. It could be an equivalent of explain but it is more about demystifying and introducing an unknown matter while helping and supporting students in understanding it. Most English teachers for example would do this with grammar, and many others would use *yeddi* (give) or *yedarris* (teach) to refer to their teaching of an English lesson in general. Nevertheless, the teacher as a patriarchal figure (father, mother, etc.) is supposed to give, care and support. Understanding and judging their roles based on other contextually irrelevant language-games could lead to wrong conclusions.

9.5 Teacher Status in Society

Before analysing the themes related to the status of the teacher, it should be noted that according to the findings of the questionnaire item (item B39) about statements that they view as self-evident knowledge among teachers of English or taken-for-granted ‘truths’ about language teacher work, the ones that got the highest scores were:

- The teacher is like a prophet. He deserves all dignity and respect. ($n=100$)
- Teaching is a mission, not just a job. ($n=98$)
- A student should not smoke in front of a teacher. ($n=94$)
- “I am a slave to anyone who teaches me a letter.” ($n=63$)

Whether those statements were selected as personal beliefs held by each participant or as truths they think are common in the collective mind of EFL teachers in Egypt in general, they indicate social and religious values that influence the way teachers see themselves, their profession, and their relationship with students.

Beside the intrinsic nature of religious values, and how they are perceived in terms of teachings transferred from one generation to the other in Abrahamic religions, the perception that a teacher is like a prophet also has its roots in the literary heritage of Egypt. One of the most renowned and prominent poets in Egypt, Ahmed Shawqi (1868-1932), wrote a poem about teachers, and it has been highly celebrated by many teachers across generations. Many students are also encouraged to memorize and recite it in poetry recital competitions. The first verse in the poem reads, “Stand up for the teacher and pay utmost awe; the teacher is almost a prophet”.

As educated carriers of knowledge, teachers used to be highly respected in the Egyptian culture. However, more respect was usually paid to teachers of religious knowledge rather than secular knowledge, especially in rural areas where the sheikh/scholar in the mosque, who used to be a graduate of Al-Azhar, was the only source of knowledge to most

people who were illiterate or poorly educated. The label of “scholar” was, and is still used, to refer to those of them who were highly educated in Al-Azhar, and “knower of Allah” for those who may be educated as well as pious and/or mystic. In all cases, older generations of educated people in Egypt usually tell anecdotes about how their parents used to take them to the teacher and say, “Here he is, do whatever you like to make him learn well”. Sometimes they would add, “He is your son”. That was a complete delegation from the parent to allow the teachers to use corporal punishment if it helped with their child’s learning.

The notion that the teacher is like a prophet may have lost its presence in the collective mind due to socioeconomic factors that have made many teachers act like exploiters by focusing on giving private lessons to improve their income. However, it could be argued that it is in the back of the collective mind, and it is still recalled when some teachers behave or act in a way that is contrary to that notion or perception. It should also be remarked that, as Herrera (2010) notes, the Ministry of Education in Egypt is literally named in Arabic ‘*wazarat al-tarbiyah w al ta’leem*’ or the ministry of upbringing and instruction. The word ‘*tarbiyah*’ means upbringing, and it is the same word used to name all faculties of education in Egypt. Many teachers stress the fact that *upbringing* is put before *instruction* to indicate the prioritisation of their roles in instilling and emphasizing morals. As Herrera (2010) argues:

That the word “upbringing” appears before “instruction” in the title of the Ministry is not by chance. The state's emphasis on the “upbringing” and moral formation of the young is a hallmark of its educational history. As Gregory Starrett asserts, “Muslim states have followed a different course to modernity, insisting explicitly that progress requires a centrally administered emphasis upon moral as well as economic development” (1998, p. 10). (p. 129)

In his article about studying LTC through the lens of SCT, Cross (2010, p. 437) wrote, “assumptions concerning the social positioning and agency of teachers within their contexts for practice need to be more fully addressed as we consider the implications of a social dimension within teacher cognition”. Considering this, the following sections aim to present, analyse and discuss the findings related to social positioning, i.e., status, and how it may affect their sense of agency.

The interviews revealed various themes related to how the participants see their social positioning as English language teachers. All participants agreed on one statement, albeit with different words, which is that “teachers deserve a higher status in society”. FT1 commented:

Other professions have more respect and rights than the profession of teaching, although those professions are made by the teacher who raises others to be able to do their jobs. So, I see teaching as the best job, but from the perspective of society, many jobs get more respect and appreciation, and society does not put it where it deserves. She also stated that she believes in Shawqi’s verse that reads, “The teacher is almost a prophet”, but she added that this is not what society thinks. When asked about her status in the Egyptian society as a teacher, FT9 said, “That is embarrassing...you know how it is like... We have become at the bottom of the society...unfortunately. This job takes everything from us and rarely gives us anything”. FT4 gave a similar response with a short laughter while referring to the researcher’s background as an Egyptian:

I guess you know the answer. Of course, the teacher is in a position that is lower than anyone in the world. I do not know why, but socially, financially...on all levels. The teacher is the one with the lowest position. I do not know why, frankly.

Viewing the position of the teacher as being at the bottom of the society was also iterated using the same expression by MT13. MT3 responded to the same question by stating that

most people see him as “merely a worker...an employee”, which may indicate that he is just a person doing a job like anyone else in the working class without recognizing the role and the value of the profession. This cognition was also highlighted by MT5, who commented (verbatim), “For the community here we are like workers for them. This needs to be changed. Of course...teachers who brought up all these great characters and professions...Why don’t we get some respect from the community around us?”. The findings related to the social positioning of teachers as perceived by the informants are in line with the findings from (Hammad, 2010) in his study of Egyptian teacher’s perceptions about school culture and their influences on their shared decision-making.

Most teachers also commented on the low level of respect and appreciation for teachers and their profession these days compared to the past. FT4 mentioned that her grandfather was a teacher of Arabic and she saw how people paid him utmost respect when she was walking with him in the streets. On a similar note, MT6 said:

We [teachers] are at the lowest rank...financially speaking. Even when it comes to acknowledgment and respect, it is less. We do not have that status like in the old days. I still have respect and reverence for my primary school teachers. Now, there is less respect.

Their reference to the past and how teachers used to receive more respect and recognition from society suggested two subthemes that most other participants referred to as well. The first is related to the authority of the teacher and how teachers were given more power with regard to what they do with their students. The second is the socioeconomic status of the teacher and how teachers are struggling to meet their needs with little remuneration that affects their status in society.

As for the authority of the teacher, it could be noted from what most teachers mentioned that the sense of respect they alluded is mixed with a sense of fear of the teacher

who was, and should be, authorized to reward and punish his students. This authority was more established in the past before the official decree 591 from EMOE that prohibited corporal punishment in schools in 1998. Before that time, it was not uncommon for teachers in schools to use sticks to punish their students for any kind of misbehaviour: wrong answers to questions, bad marks in exams, not doing homework, and in some cases, which the researcher witnessed himself as a young learner, for misbehaviour outside the school, especially in the primary and preparatory stages. To a certain extent, such acts from the teacher were permitted and authorized by some parents, especially in the rural or less urban areas where most parents implicitly or explicitly entrusted teachers with some of their social privileges as guardians of their children.

In view of the foregoing, most participants compared what they experienced as young learners who had that image of the teacher as a person in authority to the current situation after corporal punishment was banned (to be explained more later). MT12 believes that this banning made both students and parents careless. “Now if you say something to a student...or slap him on the face, he would slap you back.” (MT6). In the past, parents “accepted the idea of hitting or punishing students” (MT3). A noteworthy excerpt from FT9 reads:

In the past, the teacher used to report a student’s problem to his guardian and the guardian used to say ‘*iksar w ana asallah*’ [break a bone, and I will fix it]. Now, if the teacher says anything the student does not like, the guardian would say to the student, ‘Who is that teacher? Tell me his name, and I will break his bones’.

In the same connection, we can understand what MT8 recounted (Chapter 6) about his experience in the past when an English teacher beat him in front of his mother, who did not react to it. MT8’s explanation was that both thought what the teacher did was for his benefit

as a learner. The mother, the student and the teacher were working in accordance with the authoritarian rights of the teacher, as a caring father figure.

The findings reported in this section complement and supplement the findings by Herrera (2010) and Hargreaves et al. (2017) in their studies on education in the Egyptian context that using “harsh punitive measures” (p. 13) in the classroom was tolerated by some students. Hargreaves et al. (2017) commented, “It seemed that these were permissible because of the teacher’s authority they perceived, in terms of her/his superior knowledge, pedagogic experience, charisma or traditionally prestigious role as a teacher” (p. 13). Interestingly, one of the interviewed pupils said, “I would learn best when the teacher is kind, encourages me to study, and explains well. She would be kind to the good students but wouldn’t show any mercy to the bad ones” (p. 13). This comment from the perspective of a pupil could explain how the position of the teacher is perceived and how as a figure of authority, he/she is supposed to care and punish at the same time. As Hargreaves et al. (2017) argued, this position of authority seems to have undergone some change because of many factors, including social media. The informants in this study seemed to put more blame on families and how some families think that they “bought the teacher” (MT8) because they hire them as private tutors.

As an alternative strategy to exercise authority after banning corporal punishment in schools in 1998, some teachers use what has been known in schools as “a’*māl es sanā*” or coursework grades, which were mainly decided by the teacher based, technically, on each student’s performance in class. Many teachers used those grades as an alternative strategy to reward and punish students. A few informants stated that they still use them. However, those grades have been abused by some teachers to force students into taking private lessons (Krafft et al., 2019). EMOE has gradually reduced the grades assigned by the teacher in some stages to minimize their abuse.

The aforementioned findings about how teachers see their relationships with their students are in line with the previously mentioned studies. The findings also complement the findings from the questionnaire and the Q sorts with regard to the participants' sense of power relations and how power influences their cognitions, emotions and practices. Most participants view the status of the teaching profession based on the historical determinants of the field in terms of the cultural capital ascribed to the teaching profession, but they are also aware of the recently expanding influence of and the need for economic capital. The cultural capital assumed in the traditional position of the teacher as the father figure and the knower seems to have diminished due to many teachers' pursuit of economic capital through private tutoring. This struggle for economic capital sometimes requires pressuring and exploiting students and parents in one way or another, which negatively affected the traditional image and position of the teacher as a righteous, caring, and knowing father figure. The following section will shed more light on the influences of private tutoring as a socioeconomic factor.

In all cases, the findings indicate that whether in the field of the classroom or society in general, the participants' habitus seems to be caught in a struggle with the field and its parameters due to the dynamicity and complexity of fields (classroom, school, or society) that structure their habitus. Among the 14 informants are some who do not aspire to economic capital based on teaching, hence their aspiration for the cultural capital—which is also diminishing. Even those who give private lessons seem to care about cultural capital when it comes to their position in the field of the classroom where their own students should behave and perform in accordance with their cognitions about their authority as teachers. All informants indicated that they care for cultural capital as traditionally ascribed by society and represented in authorizing them as teachers who could punish and reward and respected figures who are saluted in the streets.

As a “system of lasting, transposable dispositions which, integrating past experiences, functions at every moment as a matrix of perceptions, appreciations, and actions” (Bourdieu, 1977, pp. 82–83), the concept of habitus seems relevant in explaining and understanding the participants’ cognitions of their practices in the field(s) based on their ‘past experiences’ as learners and teachers. Noteworthy is that habitus as an embodied system includes the vocabulary the person uses to express their cognitions (Braun, 2012), and while language-game is itself a notion of language in use as regulated by the social field, together they can help understand the informants’ choice of Arabic vocabulary to refer to their position in the field.

The participants referred to the teacher as a “father” or a person of authority who might “slap the student on the face” (MT6), “break his bone” (FT9) or “push [students’] heads on the wall” (FT14) because the field used to authorize him or her to do that. They reiterated that teachers deserve dignity, respect, appreciation, recognition, obedience and all attitudes that need to be understood in terms of their field and their structured system of perceptions, appreciations and actions (i.e., habitus) through which they see their roles as knowers who are delegated by the society to raise students with caring support, penalize them if they misbehave, and educate them according to what the system imposes. They transmit knowledge while considering conventional, natural and practical powers that play major roles in the field. This same perspective explains the findings from factor analyses and Q sorts, where teachers’ sense of power along with their pursuit of recognition and respect seem to shape ‘the matrix’ of their cognitions and practices.

It should be noted that the violent expressions some informants used to express their authoritarian rights in punishing careless and disobedient students are some of many that could be used in the Egyptian context to mean just scolding someone strongly or physically punishing them. In all cases, it is the context, or the activity, that determines if the person

means it literally. An Egyptian parent could use some harsher expressions with their children to mean the same. As a researcher from the same culture, I was aware of that, and the informants also seemed to expect that I would understand those expressions as used in our culturally regulated language games.

As MT3 mentioned, if CLT means losing control of the class, he would forsake it for the conventional and traditional, and he would also use Arabic if this control or sense of authority were affected by using the TL. The position of the teacher, especially in classroom, seems substantial for most of the participants, and their cognitions and practices as ways of adapting to the field seemed to prioritise what they believe works better in a *sens pratique* rather than what theorizers suggest or recommend. It is worthwhile here to requote a relevant excerpt from FT9:

In our culture, we usually need a mentor, a guide, someone to tell us what to do or not to do...even we as grown-ups need such people. It is part of our culture as the proverb goes, “if you do not have *kebeer* [a guardian or a mentor], go and look for one’. The student needs his father, his teacher and those people who have influence on his life...those who are like examples in his life. If this connection or this dialogue dies...no one learns anything from the other...What to learn?

So, in a Wittgensteinian sense, the meaning of ‘guide’ here is used in a way similar to the meaning of ‘mentor’ and ‘guardian’, i.e., “someone to tell us what to do”. This suggests that when it comes to teaching language, and as a form of life, or an activity in the field of teaching, whatever method suggested by an outsider would go through the teacher’s system of perceptions and appreciation (*habitus*) as structured by the field in which language use itself is part of the process. In other words, asking a teacher to facilitate learning or guide the student to active learning based on a Western or non-Arab, non-Egyptian conceptualization

of teaching and learning could lead to unexpected outcomes if such considerations of habitus and language-games are marginalized.

9.6 Influences of Private Tutoring

Most parents in Egypt send their children to private tutors, and there are cases when they send the child to two different teachers of the same subject, just to ensure that she/he gets the best from the two. With more population growth in Egypt and less trust in formal education, the demand has soared to create a competitive market.

MT6 mentioned how parents view private lessons as market products, assuming that better tutors charge more. He also mentioned how some teachers seized the chance and met this expectation, which created a heavy burden straining many families in the country. MT6 observed that is why some people think that teachers are “greedy”. Such a tension between teachers and society represented in parents was mentioned by most teachers who are aware of how some people see them as greedy suppliers but are also aware of some parents who respect and appreciate what they do, “but this is not the majority” (MT8).

FT9 does not give private lessons. She tried, but she “did not like it”. She sent her children to private English tutors because they were known for “making their students able to get the full mark in the final exams”. She did not do that herself because she had enough at school, and her children were convinced that those teachers were the best in the city. She commented:

Parents are happy and want this to happen. They do not want to tie their children to hard work and studying...they want the shortcut...the easy way...the teacher that can help them [students] get the highest marks...as they [students] say to each other and share it from one year to the other, ‘I will go to that teacher who made that student seal or close the test’[get the full mark].

Aware that this is what most parents and students want, all informants, especially those who do not give private lessons, are in a dilemma when it comes to teaching English in school. Most informants reported that they try to teach the language according to their cognitions about what works best in this regard, but they know and feel that most students want what works for getting the full mark in the final test. Another challenging and straining issue is the fact that most students come to their classes fully aware of what will be taught and unwilling to pay more attention or effort because they have already studied and practiced it extensively with another tutor. And when the teachers try to do something different by focusing on the language or even the test, students may frustrate them, as FT4 mentioned in cases when she tries to introduce new vocabulary:

Once I utter a word, they would instantly tell me its translation in Arabic. I do not like such a situation, but it is imposed by reality. Even when I try to stop them and introduce these words in my own way, it does not work, and things get out of control.

Another issue that some teachers mentioned is the comparison that many students make between their classroom teacher and their private tutors. Such comparison is sometimes voiced by students, who may question the teacher's knowledge, as mentioned earlier. To compete with the other teacher or to prove credibility, some teachers said that they either show more knowledge of unfamiliar words or use some techniques they use in their private lessons to show more familiarity of and efficiency with the requirements of final exams.

Private lessons have also created tension among school teachers themselves, and some informants noted that in many situations, some English teachers are valued by the number of students in their private lessons. MT3 commented (verbatim), "The more students you have in private lessons, the better teacher you are and more respect you get from colleagues and even school managers". He added that he may be the best in teaching the language, but he would be viewed as less efficient if compared to another colleague who has

more students. FT9 and MT12 mentioned that even students and their parents think likewise when it comes to evaluating teachers.

Many participants blamed the situation on other teachers who abused the educational system and the needs of students and their parents. Some commented that they know of English teachers who have huge centres with “secretaries and assistants” (FT9), and they are like stars in the community, turning the whole matter into a business. In Alexandria and other governorates, as FT9 mentioned, teachers at private tutoring centres prepare and sell their own notebooks in which they summarize textbooks in an examination-focused way and include exercises and drills using both English and Arabic. Remarkable here are some of the titles of those notebooks in which teachers use competitive phrases to refer to themselves as the ‘Legend in English’, the ‘Master’ or the ‘Emperor’ and so on. Such titles imply the competitive market culture, and how each teacher tries to prove that he is the best.

For most informants, the image and the status of the teacher have deteriorated because of the private lessons market, where some teachers defamed the position of the teachers by what they do to attract more students and become more popular. Such a perception was also indicated by the questionnaire participants’ responses to item B39 as one of the common truths that 43 participants (36.4%) selected was subitem statement D16 *We need to be friendly with the students so that they sign up for private lessons*. Some participants also highlighted how the position of the teacher as a role model who raises his or her children (students) has changed due to the change in priorities and value system that has made some “ready to steal in order to survive” (MT12).

Because of private tutoring, many students do not show up to school, and when they do, it is mainly because of the regulations that could lead to dismissal from school if the student exceeds a certain percentage of absenteeism. So, students are relatively forced to attend classes they do not need; parents are forced to send students to private lessons, and

teachers are forced to teach at school and follow the regulations. All teachers expressed their realization of that struggle of powers and their sense of conflict when they have to deal with what students, students' parents, school managers, the ministry and their own families expect from them as English language teachers. This struggle raises the issue of agency and what they choose to do when they work in such an environment.

The findings related to the phenomenon of private tutoring and its impact on teacher status and teachers' practices support findings from other studies in general education about private tutoring in Egypt (e.g., Hartmann, 2008, 2013; Ille, 2015; Loveluck, 2012; Sieverding et al., 2017). They also support findings from McIlwraith and Fortune's (2016) study of English language teaching in Egypt, that private tutoring is one of the challenges to effective language teaching and it makes some teachers perform less in class.

Based on the informants' comments, it could be argued that with their sense and understanding of the field in which private tutoring is a norm, their habitus as teachers works in accordance as they developed dispositions that accommodated the structure of the field as well as their own pursuit of capital. However, a tension exists as to the conflict between cultural capital (teacher status) and financial capital (teacher's income), where choosing one of them over the other is a dilemma, especially for those who need to give private lessons to improve their incomes. And even for those who do not give private lessons, the supposition that teachers' efficiency is measured by the number of students enrolled in his or her private lessons creates another level of capital that stands as a challenge and would lead to emotions of frustration regarding the value of their performance in class.

9.7 Teacher's Inhibited Agency and Contextual Constraints

As a complex and multidimensional notion, teachers' inhibited agency was a recurrent theme in the interviews. As part of the informants' cognitions about the ways they

decide to act or think they can act in class, the informants referred to how several contexts affect their conceptions of power and their negotiations of their roles to practice their agency.

As explained earlier, most teachers chose teaching as a profession based on social pressures or recommendations that convinced them into joining English language programs in university. The discourse that convinced them was both socioeconomic and socio-political in nature. Many participants stated that either family members or relatives told them that specializing in English and education would guarantee getting appointed in secure teaching positions in government schools, and they could also give private lessons before getting appointed. Known as *takleef* in Egyptian Arabic, that direct assignment of new graduates of faculties of education and some graduates of certain departments in faculties of arts was regular in Egypt until 1998 due to the high demand for specialized teachers in different stages. Although being guaranteed a position in a government school is no longer a common incentive, being a teacher who can make a fortune giving private lessons has become an incentive for many families and students.

However, during university years, some participants realized that rote learning and memorization as well as focusing on literacy skills during their pre-tertiary stages did not help them cope with the requirements of studying English language or literature in university. As mentioned earlier, some felt embarrassed, and some realized how it was crucial to develop audio-oral skills as well. Most participants realized the need for studying English as a language rather than a core subject in their university years, and it seemed to influence their cognitions through the affordances and constraints that they experienced in different contexts.

Based on the data collected from the interviews, all teachers reported that they tried to teach the language as a language without giving priority to literacy skills at the cost of audio-oral skills. However, the education system in Egypt, according to most of them, does not help because of imposing textbooks, assessment policies and limited time frames of teaching

periods that are not sufficient for teaching the language properly. Other constraints like lack of resources or class size were also mentioned, but they did not appear as recurrent as these three issues. All participants expressed a sense of dissatisfaction with most ministerial decisions that do not take the teacher into account and mainly think of him or her as a follower who is supposed to execute orders and comply with regulations regardless of what the teacher thinks or feels.

According to most participants, their voices have never been heard and their suggestions to improve teaching English have never been considered. MT2 said:

The ministry does not try to listen to teachers themselves. I, as a teacher, know better about students' problems, their needs, which styles work with them. They must collect all those opinions and refer to them when they put any system of assessment or curriculum, but what happens is that one person or a small group think and decide what way we must follow in assessment or curriculum...some people in the ministry. The teacher does not have the freedom to design assessments in a way that can allow measuring the skills he focused on or trained the students on for a month.

Commenting on hearing from EMOE or trainers it hires to give workshops to EFL teachers, he said:

I have never heard about something like how to test the listening skill or the speaking skill. Everything is about reading and writing...with grammar and vocabulary only, although there are some resources now that can help with listening and speaking.

Lack of positive communication between EMOE as the controller of the education system and teachers as executors of the policies was highlighted by many other participants.

Referring to those in authority in EMOE, FT9 commented, "They are walking on a path that is totally different from ours. They do not give us a chance to suggest or discuss any decisions they make".

With such lack of communication or consideration for what teachers think, most participants reported that they just receive orders and decrees informed by local governorates, school managers and inspectors on what must be done regardless of any limitations or constraints, as indicated by most questionnaire participants in their responses to item B39 about taken-for-granted truths among English teachers, *Inspectors tell us what they think, and they do not care about what we need* (n=67, 56.7%). To adapt to such situations, some teachers expressed frankly that they just do what is expected as a formality and do what they think is right when they have a chance or when time allows. When FT3 once criticised how something was being done, others told her “*mashey halik*”, which means go with the flow. That sense of teaching as a formality was also mentioned by FT9 who said, “Everything is now merely a nominal formality. It looks like real, but it is not...no essence”. An interesting comment from MT12 sheds more light on how he views the whole situation when he has to do things he does not believe in:

The teacher acts like teaching, but he does not really teach. The government acts like paying our salaries, but it does not really give a rewarding salary. The student goes to school to learn, but he does not really learn, and the inspector from the ministry acts like doing his job, but he does not really do it. Everyone is lying to everyone... That is the truth. That is the bitter reality that people live. However, people have conscience, mind you, most colleagues have conscience; they really wish to benefit students and work hard, but seriously the reality is tragic.

That conscience that M12 referred to, or fear of God or trying to please God as mentioned earlier by some other informants, plays a major part in making teachers decide to act in a way that accords with their cognitions, their personal values, and their sense of agency. M12's reference to acting and lying resonates with what teachers mentioned regarding the official role of the teacher in presence of inspectors observing their classes and how they teach

according to those inspectors' expectations and criteria (see chapter 6). More than half of the questionnaire participants also indicated the same in their response to item B39 about common truths among English teachers in Egypt as more than half of the participants (n=60, 50.8%) selected the statement *When supervisors come to observe our class, we do things according to their understanding of good teaching.*

It should be noted here that according to all informants, teaching the way they want depends on microsocial and macrosocial factors that are presented in the following sections.

9.7.1 Time Constraints

Most informants referred to how limited time in class periods does not allow them to focus on all language skills or communicative activities while having to finish the required number of textbook units as ascribed by EMOE. Some disapproved of the limited number of English language classes each week as well as scheduling periods late in school day when students are usually exhausted and unwilling to participate in more activities. FT1 commented:

The time allocated for the usual period is not enough for doing all that you need to do with the textbook and the workbook, and I am committed to a curriculum I have to finish. If I finish lessons according to the imposed plan and I have extra periods...that would be a good opportunity for more group work, interactive activities and similar things.

MT13 explained the tension he feels when he has to finish the required units, try to teach English "ideally" and, at the same time, makes sure that students do not complain:

The curriculum is packed, and we have to run to catch up with deadlines. This does not make teachers able to teach in an ideal way...This affects using activities in general. You try to deliver necessary information and that's all... grammar, vocabulary, I do not know what...but...last semester I finished one unit in two

periods. I was not happy with that, but I had to. In all cases, students take those units outside. I mean in private lessons.

9.7.2 Students and Parents' Assumptions and Expectations

Most informants mentioned that their practices in classes are mainly based on what students seem to demand and their examination-focused assumptions about what class teachers are supposed to do. Although a few (FT1, MT2, FT9) mentioned that they try to convince students into learning communicatively and understanding language apart from exam requirements, many others expressed their frustration when students keep hinting or referring to what is being taught in relation with final exams. In some cases, they hear from parents either directly or indirectly if they do not focus on what students need in terms of exam requirements, especially if there are students who cannot afford to pay for private lessons.

MT12 said, "Sometimes I am accused of being not that good teacher because of activities or aspects I focus on...because I do not focus on grammar all the time". Another remarkable and relevant comment by the same teacher explains clearly what some teachers go through and why they try to do things their own ways:

In the beginning they [students] give you an impression like what is he [the teacher] doing? He is just wasting our time...You can see it in their eyes. One good student told me once that these things will not be in the exam...I do not want them. I said, 'my daughter...we can benefit and learn from that', but she was not interested, which makes me feel frustrated and stop focusing on such stuff. If the one in front of you is not interested, you lose interest yourself.

Although FT9 is one of those who try to introduce more communicative content and encourage students to participate in task-based activities, she commented:

I do not think the Egyptian society in general, and students and their parents in particular are willing to accept and deal with the effective language teaching methods that books or qualified teachers of English recommend or use. There are totally different considerations they have in mind.

9.7.3 Students' Apathy and Misbehaviours

A recurrent theme in the interviews in relation to what teachers do and their decisions to act according to their cognitions and set of values is students' motivations, attitudes and behaviours in class. Most teachers expressed their frustration when students give them the impression that they are not interested in whatever the teacher does because they already get what they want in private lessons except for few students who may be motivated to learn the language itself. Primary school teachers did not seem to have that issue because they can engage students in activities they like, such as songs, acting or drawing.

For those who teach older students, some teachers commented that they try to teach some extra information about grammar and vocabulary or just tell students to do what they want without making much noise. The informants indicated that every class has its own characteristics, and the way they teach depends on the dominant attitude of students and whether they are well-behaved and willing to learn and engage in activities that the teacher thinks appropriate and useful for them. Teachers of preparatory and secondary stages, except MT2, mentioned that much of their teaching methodology relies on the above-mentioned aspects. MT2 thinks that it is the teacher's personality and his way of teaching that could motivate students and determine how students act. In this regard, FT4 commented:

There are students who should not be schooled. They should stay home. They are not willing to learn and just enjoy misbehaving in our classes. When I have classes like that, I don't teach. I don't. I just do what I am supposed to do, delivering what is required in the textbook. The student does not want to comprehend or do anything.

No disciplinary acts are taken by the school. And students say to me, ‘Sit down Miss. We are not looking for explanation (teaching) today’. I just write a couple of words on the board...and that’s it. What can I do?

FT9 mentioned a situation with a student that could describe what she thought and felt as a teacher after many years of experience in teaching English when she was told directly that her efforts in class were unnecessary. She reported:

A student came to me and said, ‘You want to teach us, but we do not want to learn. You want to work, but we do not want to, and you do your best with us in vain’...That was harsh to hear.

9.7.4 Students’ Levels and Previous Language Learning

Although the level of students sounds like an educational factor related to students’ learning, it is generally a microsocial factor that influences teachers’ cognitions about their roles and their teaching approaches. One of the most challenging factors for all teachers in preparatory and secondary stages is that students arrive in their classes without the expected level of English. As preparatory stage teachers commented, students come from primary schools without having learned the basics of the language as a language, having just memorized and practiced model answers for all their final exams. The same point was mentioned by secondary school teachers. All of them blamed it on other teachers as well as the education system that prioritized learning to the test. MT2 commented:

I think there is a problem with how teachers should deal with students in primary stages and make them like the language, how to avoid putting pressure on the student because of grammar or spelling. To be frank, in many cases, the teacher may not have the skills or the abilities to do that correctly with them...in that stage or all stages. We have teachers, for example, who just enter the class as a routine without doing anything creative or activities that would help the students interact positively. Some

teachers limit themselves to regular habits of teaching and doing things in a certain way and do not consider improving themselves or their techniques.

MT13 commented that the levels of students had gone down in the last ten years, which has affected his temper in class as he has grown less patient with students. He added that he just does what he is required to do as a job and does not consider extra work or effort to go beyond teaching grammar and vocabulary. MT8 noted that even his pronunciation had been affected badly because he had to adapt it to students' levels and their lack of listening skills that were ignored by most previous teachers "as students are not accustomed to using English a lot. I mean English-English" (MT8). While referring to working on his own listening and pronunciation skills, MT7 also mentioned that he cannot pronounce English words in class the way he wishes and knows is right because most students would not be able to understand. He added that such situations frustrate him, and he teaches in a way he knows is not the best, but it is difficult for him to "fix accumulated issues of learning the language incorrectly". Commenting on the infeasibility and wishful idealism of teaching English communicatively or using modern approaches, he said, "The way English is taught in all stages, and I taught all stages, is not rational. You know the reality of education in our country? How come they do not even learn the basics in primary or preparatory stages?".

9.7.5 Assessment Policies

The washback effect and its impact on the way teachers act and teach was another theme that all participants highlighted in various parts of the interviews. As all major final exams are imposed by EMOE, local governorates, administrations or school managements (when one or more master or expert teachers design the final exam), many teachers have no say in how their students and their methods of teaching are assessed. Knowing that their efficacy as teachers is generally and mostly measured by how many of their students (whether in school classes or private lessons) get the highest grades or full marks, they have

no choice but to consider those imposed assessments and students' grades as benchmarks that evaluate their performance and effectiveness.

Such assessment policies are the main currents of the flow that many of them mentioned they have to go with. As is the case with textbooks, most of them have no say in the matter of assessments, so they teach according to what textbooks and final exams necessitate, and some find it sometimes unfair to encumber students with language skills or components that could be improved later or during summer vacation. MT2 expressed how English teaching and learning would be much better if teachers are asked about their suggestions for final exams, which, according to him, has never happened. He wondered how he could focus on speaking and listening skills or encourage students to write without minding some minor mistakes while final exams just test their grammar and vocabulary and students get penalized for their mistakes in accuracy. With that in mind, MT8 finds it inevitable to teach in a traditional way focusing on rote learning "due to the curriculum and the tests", which makes him "focus on vocabulary and grammar". Even in cases when listening was added as a component of the test in some grades, MT7 commented:

Even the listening part in the exam...who dictates it? A teacher says the words very slowly in a way that is not normal like everyday speech. So, the student does not need to care about listening to normal speech to learn the native language and the accent.

9.7.6 Flexibility of School Management

Some teachers noted that it would be unfair to blame school management for any negative aspects of teaching and learning English as they just have to follow what is imposed and decided by higher levels of management. For example, MT7 noted,

Everything is centralized. The school manager, in turn, and as the proverb goes, is 'the sheriff's slave'. He just does what he is told to do. Go right...he goes right...go left ...he does so.

However, some participants mentioned that some school managers are more understanding and encouraging than others when it comes to giving more space to the teacher to do activities that improve students' English skills, such as creative activities in the school morning broadcast, short plays performed by students in English on certain national or religious occasions, using computer rooms when needed, trying to be fair in the distribution of teaching loads, and appreciating how the teacher is keen on making students learn the language. MT6 even mentioned that part of his enthusiasm and creativity in teaching depends on the school manager's attitude at the beginning of the day, and how when the school manager decides to give him extra teaching as a substitute teacher, it makes him lose interest in what he does, and he focuses on just doing the job by the book in terms of a couple of words delivered or written on the board. MT11 also mentioned how the style of management in school could make the teacher more willing to "go an extra mile and do his best in giving students all his experience and knowledge".

FT4, FT9 and MT12 tried to implement some different techniques of teaching that would require changing the status quo of how things are done in fixed-seat classrooms, and their acts were either rejected or frowned upon. FT4, FT10 and MT13 reported that they had several issues with school managers because the three of them wanted to either participate in training courses run by the British Council or try some of techniques they learned in those courses.

9.7.7 Inspectors' Knowledge and Attitudes

Most participants indicated negative cognitions about the roles played by supervisors and inspectors who, as previously mentioned, come to visit and observe their classes, and many teachers just teach the way those inspectors want and expect. However, some teachers highlighted how good inspectors could motivate and encourage them to teach differently, even when they are not observing them in classes.

MT6, for example, recalled positive memories with one of his past inspectors because he was always supporting and encouraging all teachers of English in all the schools he was in charge of, and he used to deal with them in a fatherly way:

He used to visit us once a year in class...and usually asked students questions and tested their knowledge from which he knew how you did as a teacher. He used to say 'I am like your father' to all of us. He used to invite us to a feast in his house in Ramadan. Every month we saw each other as a group of teachers working in the same local administration. We got closer to him and to each other as teachers. He asked us to call him if we had any trouble. He told others in the administration that 'English teachers are my kids. If there is anything you blame on any of them...talk to me, and I will deal with it'.

Such sociocultural dimensions of the wise, generous authoritarian *father*, as represented in the relationship between the inspector and his teachers, seemed to play a major role in how MT6 performed in his classes and taught the way he found most effective and useful for all students. MT6 mentioned that when that inspector summoned all teachers, he usually asked them to give example lessons and share ideas in a fruitful brainstorming which had its impact on MT6's teaching methods.

MT5 also mentioned one of his inspectors who used to praise him in front of his students, telling them that he trusted him and his knowledge as a teacher. However, MT5 highlighted that he expects more from supervisors: "We need more...one who make[s] us benefit a lot...we need one to be like an encyclopaedia" (verbatim). MT5 was referring to the knowledge of the supervisor/inspector and how sharing it with the teacher can make a difference. The knowledge of the supervisor was also highlighted by FT9, MT13 and FT14 who mentioned cases in which they benefited much from inspectors who gave them some tips and techniques that helped much with their teaching while supporting and encouraging

them in teaching the language creatively or using more modern techniques. However, those were exceptional cases, and all of them noted that the majority of inspectors are different and want teachers to do things in a conventional way by following the written regulations and policies of EMOE. With such inspectors, most teachers feel obliged to do things their way or according to the officially ascribed way. However, FT4 commented that she makes sure that all her paperwork is adequate and then teaches the way she believes is right and effective, and although she may hear some disapproving comments after the class, she defends her point of view.

More than four decades ago, and in a study about the Egyptian education system, Hyde (1978) wrote:

Teachers, especially at the lower levels, are the natural target for complaints of the defects of an educational system. They are accused of ignorance, stupidity, lack of sensitivity and professional failure by parents, administrators, and the public at large. They are expected to act as professionals in spite of an inadequate education, a too short training, having to teach large classes in the worst available buildings, lack of amenities, low status and low salary. (p. 96)

As the findings indicate, the situation at the time of writing does not seem to differ much. The previous findings are broadly consistent with the findings of studies on ELT in Egypt (Abdelhafez, 2010; El-Fiki, 2012; Gahin, 2001; Latif, 2012) as regards constraints that affect EFL teaching beliefs and practices in Egypt. They partially coincide with findings by Hammad and Norris (2009) and Hammad (2010, p. 108) related to the negative influences of “a long tradition of centralized control that characterises Egyptian schools” and how they affect teachers’ cognitions, especially with regard to their decisions and actions. Overall, these findings, along with other findings discussed in this chapter, are consistent with

previous research in LTC (e.g., Breen et al., 2001; Feryok, 2008; Golombek, 1998; Johnson, 2009; Kubanyiova, 2006).

The findings also suggest that habitus with its product of *sens pratique* and in interplay with language-games and *perezhivaniya* seem to give a possible understanding of “how the social becomes the individual” (Vygotsky 1998, p. 198). Power relations seem to be a major aspect in this transformation. Whether as young learners of English or current in-service, experienced teachers, it is evident in the findings that part and parcel of how teachers see themselves, others and the environment/field/background in which they all interact is related to their sense of their power in relation to the power assumed, acclaimed and exercised in their social space. This power is the power of concepts and assumptions carried forward in the culture, or the power acclaimed and exercised based on sociocultural parameters of the capital.

Chapter 10: Conclusion

The aim of this study was to explore the hidden inner worlds of English language teachers in a way that considers the multidimensionality of cognition and the influence of context on shaping it. I started the study with no predetermined suppositions in mind but with a theoretical framework that helped with fathoming the depth of teachers' cognitions by considering its sociohistorical and psychological dimensions. Bearing in mind that no study in the Arab world or Egypt has focused on teacher's cognitions in teaching vocabulary, I aimed at focusing on this aspect while exploring it as part of their overall cognitions about teaching EFL.

The study was designed to answer four questions related to their cognitions about their past of language learning, their present cognitions and practices as in-service teachers, and how the past and the present are situated in the social. While using closed-ended questions to get a general insight into the prevalent trends or opinions through a questionnaire, I also used open-ended questions to allow room for specific cognitions and perceptions. Q methodology was then used as a tool for investigating their subjectivity and exploring their own predilections in ranking statements that represent cognitions derived from theoretical and sociocultural discourses. To add depth, I recorded and analysed their hesitations in shifting the ranks of these statements. EFA and Q factor analysis were conducted to look for latent constructs in their responses to the questionnaire and Q sorts. In-depth semi-structured interviews followed these procedures to fathom more psychological, professional and sociocultural aspects of teachers as individuals. Then observation was conducted in order to compare some informants' reported cognitions to their actual practices.

The following sections will outline the findings of each research question. As a reminder of the content of each question, RQ1 addressed Egyptian NNESTs' cognitions as young learners of English in general and English vocabulary in particular while RQ2 focused

on their current cognitions, as active teachers, about teaching EFL and its vocabulary. RQ3 was meant to investigate the influence of sociocultural factors on teachers' cognitions whereas RQ4 aimed at investigating the relationship between their cognitions and their practices.

10.1 RQ1

The findings revealed that prior language learning experience has a major influence on teachers' cognitions and practices. Their emotions and dispositions about language learning and teaching have developed early, leading, in most cases, to life-long influences on their worldviews and their practices, whether inside or outside the classroom. A major finding was that as young learners, the participants placed importance on the teacher-student relationship with its interpersonal interaction of power relations. They emphasised the role played by past teachers in empowering them, and how such experiences with their accompanying emotions shaped their cognitions about teaching English and continued to have influences on their current cognitions and practices. Whether in EFL or vocabulary teaching and learning, the sociohistorical past influenced the participants' cognitions, especially with regard to what is effective and workable in a realistic, pragmatic sense versus what could be effective but impractical in the context they have known and experienced all their lives.

10.2 RQ2

The findings revealed that teachers' cognitions about teaching and learning English and its vocabulary are inseparable from the power of latent constructs that appeared in the exploratory factor analysis. It was evident in the findings that their cognitions are inseparable from their sense of the power of the known (familiarity), the knower (transmitter of knowledge), the oral (communication in context), the practical (workability and suitability), the conventional (values, norms and habits) and the natural (special capabilities) as

convictions that seemed to influence their worldviews in general and LTC in particular. Such convictions were inseparable from the context, as the interviews revealed. The Q sorts also revealed that their power as knowers is at war with the field, as a major construct in the Q factor analysis appeared to be related to their social positions and power relations in society, whether in classroom, at school or in the wider circle of the social context. These power relations and the participants' sense of their positioning seemed to influence their cognitions and decisions in language teaching. When they teach, they seem to have all the above-mentioned constructs in mind, and their cognitions seem to consider the social in determining what they can do (based on their competence), are supposed to do (based on institutional requirements), are expected to do (based on students' and parents' assumptions), all versus what they should do (based on theoretical speculations or recommendations).

10.3 RQ3

It would be considered simplistic and reductionist to confine the impact of the social on the participants' cognitions and practices to a description of its influences. The findings revealed that the social (including language-games) is interwoven in several ways (as *habitus*) into their cognitions (including emotions and *perezhivaniya*) and their practices as *sens pratique* (practical sense), whether in teaching EFL or its vocabulary. The data yielded by all the study instruments revealed that when the participants think of language teaching, socially-constructed emotions are part and parcel of their thinking and the language they use to encapsulate the meanings ascribed to phenomena according to its use (form of life). Their life career itself was mostly mediated and compelled by society. In many instances in the interviews, teachers were asked about teaching and learning, and they responded with comments about their cognitions and emotions with regard to others, including students, students' parents, colleagues, past teachers, administrators and community members while referring to the education system and the culture of society. Overall, aspects related to their

cognitions as situated in and mediated by society highlighted their sense of themselves and the other in terms of interpersonal relationships and power relations. They also highlighted how the pursuit of capital, hence status (whether economic or cultural), seems to be an overarching factor in shaping their cognitions and practices.

10.4 RQ4

Based on observation, the findings indicated that it would also be simplistic and reductionist to say that teachers' practices align or do not align with their cognitions. Whether it is about teaching English in general or its vocabulary, they just do what they know works in a certain place, with certain students, at a certain time. However, counting on questionnaire data where participants may report ideal propositions expected by researchers or theoreticians would most probably lead to findings that demonstrate discrepancies between attested cognitions and observed practices. The use of Q sorts and in-depth interviews showed the participant's inner emotions and thoughts about several aspects of the teaching process. The data obtained by both methods made it possible to uncover the multidimensionality of the participants' cognitions about what they believe is ideal and does not work, what they believe is effective but impractical, what they believe is effective and practical, and what they believe is simply practical in view of the context as a field with all its subfields.

10.5 Theoretical Implications

Among the theoretical contributions of this study is that it incorporated the Wittgensteinian conceptualization of language in use (*Sprachspiel*), Vygotsky's concept of *perezhivanie* and Bourdieu's notion of habitus into one conceptual framework that proved useful in exploring LTC from a situated sociocultural perspective.

Wittgenstein's concept of language-game was utilized to tap deeper levels of the interview informants' consciousness through their choice of words in expressing their cognitions. In many cases, socially regulated uses of certain words were iterated by more

than one informant. Their uses of words seemed to be bound to the culture and the implications they probably expected I would understand as a member of the same culture. Whether in their cognitions about language and vocabulary teaching and learning, teacher-student relationship, power relations, their uses of words seemed to count much on their social rule-following in the sense that the meanings of concepts are shared and regulated, sociohistorically, by members of the same community whose use of them as forms of life (or culturally situated practices) could vary considerably from the meanings used and shared by other communities.

Vygotsky's *perezhivanie* is in itself a way of making sense of our emotions. This sense-making is also based on concepts and their meanings as perceived by each individual in his or her environment. This sense-making happening in the refraction of lived experiences influences and may determine how each individual sees himself in the world and acts in accordance. As the findings revealed, the participants' *perezhivaniya* seemed to influence and determine how they developed as young learners, teacher-students and in-service teachers. This development, including their world views and practices, has been an ongoing process carrying the past into the present and seems to shape their conceptions about the future in a sense that could help us understand LTC as a process of developing, being and becoming.

It is in a similar vein that Bourdieu's habitus, together with language-game and *perezhivanie*, served as a conceptual tool of understanding the informants' sense-making as agents in society. Habitus could be considered a sociological unit of analysis that is a counterpart to the Vygotskian *perezhivanie* as a psychological unit of analysis. In other words, Vygotsky's angle was positioned in the psyche in its relationship (unity) with the environment while Bourdieu's angle was positioned in the field (environment) in its relation to and impact on the agent. For Bourdieu, it is more about practice as an outcome of persons' dispositions in conjunction with their sense of capital within/according to the parameters of

the field, i.e., “(Habitus x Capital) + Field = Practice” (Bourdieu, 1984, p. 101). For Vygotsky, it is more about personality in unity with environment, i.e., the “*indivisible unity of personal characteristics and situational characteristics, which are represented in the emotional experience*” (Vygotsky, 1994, p. 342, italics original). And in all cases, language, with the games that Wittgenstein elucidated, is at the heart of Bourdieu’s formula of practice and Vygotsky’s conceptualization of the indivisible unity.

Through the interrelationship of the three concepts, this study has used a relatively interdisciplinary lens through which the complexity, dynamicity and multidimensionality of LTC could be explored. It was through this theoretical framework that LTC was approached as a study of consciousness in practice through language. And the three writers who theorized these concepts were by and large concerned with investigating the same in variant ways.

10.6 Methodological Implications

The study implemented four instruments, i.e., questionnaire, interview, observation, and Q methodology. The following paragraphs will present some methodological implications of these instruments respectively

Regarding the questionnaire, although as a self-reporting instrument it could be criticized for limiting the participants’ options, using open-ended questions was effective in getting responses that did not differ much from interview informants’ responses, so that together they both helped in getting an overview of teachers’ cognitions in the Egyptian context. Furthermore, counting on Bourdieu’s concept of *doxa* (common or taken-for-granted truths), a questionnaire item was designed to investigate their cognitions about some common truths related to classroom, school or society. The findings from this item proved useful in analysing and discussing other findings revealed by other instruments. It should also be noted that the questionnaire items related to vocabulary teaching and learning strategies consisted of numerous direct and technical issues that would fit rating and scaling questionnaire items

rather than narrative or subjectivity-focused techniques. The questionnaire also helped as a foundational base of possible commonalities that EFL teachers in Egypt may share with regard to language teaching in general and vocabulary teaching in particular.

The interviews were also useful in going deeper into the inner worlds of the informants. Being semi-structured in design, the interviews helped with giving each informant the chance to discuss their own thoughts, emotions and concerns in ways that accord with their own individual experiences, subjectivities and perspectives of the world. Nurturing a climate of confidence and trust was essential in conducting the interviews as some issues could be sensitive on both socio-political and professional levels. Most informants seemed hesitant or reserved in the beginning of the interviews or when some questions addressed issues related to theoretical expectations versus realistic practices. However, when repeatedly reassured that the purpose of the interview was to give them the chance to speak their minds and make their voices heard, they gradually felt at ease and some of them started reflecting on personal and professional mistakes they had done in some of their classes.

As an interviewer, it was also important to avoid sounding judgmental or evaluative. All informants were aware of my experience in language teaching, and it was important to warrant that I was not there to ask about optimal or ideal assumptions but their own thoughts and emotions about their experiences in language learning and teaching. It was also important to give each informant the choice to use the language they felt more comfortable with. Although I reassured them that using their native language (Egyptian Arabic) would be better, two of them insisted on using English in spite of some fluency and pronunciation issues. In all cases, codeswitching was recurrent in all interviews. For those who used Egyptian Arabic, most codeswitching to English occurred when they brought up some technical or professional terms. For the two who used English, it occurred when they wanted

to use some informal, colloquial terms in Arabic that would sum up their thoughts or feelings about a certain topic. The issues of language choice and codeswitching in interviews are worth further investigation into what they could reveal about teacher cognition and teacher emotion.

Observation also helped with shedding more light on what teachers think in relation to what they do. Some may argue that this study is about teachers' cognitions rather than teachers' practices and, therefore, observation was unnecessary. However, this study views cognition in its various dimensions including action/practice in its interconnection with thoughts and emotions. In parallel with this, this study does not aim to investigate alignment or correspondence between cognition and practice but rather the relationship and interaction between both. In this sense, observation was used to explore teachers' actions in their own subfields (classrooms) to have a better idea about their cognitions in relevance to reality. Although few observations were conducted due to limits of time and strict procedures at schools, they helped with understanding how teachers act or have to act in each classroom and how students and what they need have an influence on what teachers think and do.

As for the Q sorts, only two studies implemented it in topics related to LTC and they either focused on first language teacher beliefs (Culpepper, 2015) or pre-service EFL teachers' mindsets (Irie & Mercer, 2018). This study is, to my knowledge, the first to use Q methodology in investigating in-service EFL teacher cognition while also adhering to the optimal procedures adopted by Q methodologists. Furthermore, video recording of Q-set ranking was an addition to the instrument through which the movements of the respondents' hands were observed and analysed to add more depth into the data and explore possible indications of their hesitations in prioritizing their predilections.

A noteworthy implication is the possibility of using Q methodology as a mediational tool that could help teachers reflect on their own cognitions and practices when seen in

conjunction during the process of sorting. While sorting, many participants raised some questions related to their reflections on their sorting decisions. According to Q methodology procedures, the researcher should not comment or interfere with the participants' thoughts or choices to keep their manifested subjectivity as intact as possible. With this in mind, I refrained from any intrusive acts.

According to Watts and Stenner (2012), there are possible methodological choices to expand the qualitative data that could be gathered during or after sorting. Along with the possibility of recording complete sorts or taking notes about where respondents started and finished ranking items, the authors also recommended using post-sorting interviews to gather some complementary qualitative data related to the respondents' decisions. However, I realized that once most of them were done, they seemed to have no further comments on what they decided.

In more than one case, when asked about ranking certain statements, especially the top-ranked ones, many simply indicated that they did that because they thought it was more or less important from their perspective. The recording of hand movements was a useful alternative to post-sorting interviews as it showed their self-referential, subjective hesitations or reflections on certain statements, with a focus on where they started and where they finished their rankings. It was useful in addressing the interplay between their implicit and explicit thoughts and going deeper into habitus as a socialized subjectivity (see Chapter 7).

In all cases, it is important to note that their questions and comments during the process of sorting drew my attention to the possible influence of Q sorting on their cognitions about language teaching, which could be the focus of a future study that would use Q methodology with some modifications that would allow investigating its mediational influence.

10.7 Limitations

Despite every effort to make this study as representative of EFL teachers in public schools in Egypt as possible, there were some inevitable limitations and constraints that I have gradually realized. First, I was aware that recruiting participants through official channels or by sending letters to principals who would in turn ask teachers to respond to surveys or take part in other data collection procedures would have most probably resulted in typically ideal responses from some or bogus ones from others. One informant (FT4) reported that they sometimes get some questionnaires and they just fill them out with either typical answers or checking boxes randomly. So, sampling was mainly based on the snowball technique starting with friends or acquaintances who were willing to participate and invite others to take part in the study.

Bearing in mind that investigating teacher cognition depends much on hidden aspects that participants would be willing to elicit and share, this sampling technique was adopted and implemented. Due to the nature of this technique, the number of questionnaire participants was limited to 118 participants, most of whom come from the lower part of Egypt and live in rural or suburban areas.

Every possible effort was made to reach more participants from Cairo and Alexandria, the two major cities, upper Egypt, and other remote areas. However, very limited responses were received, and some were incomplete. Bearing in mind that questionnaire participants were limited in number, not selected randomly or with proportional representation from every region, the study's findings may not be generalizable to the whole country. Nevertheless, they could represent the cognitions of many teachers working in the same education system and belonging to the same culture.

It should be noted here that having already known some participants may have had its ethical issues especially with regard to interview data. Three interview informants have been

long-term friends. This may have made them feel relaxed and willing to share data openly to a friend rather than a researcher (see De Laine, 2000). However, all participants, including the three friends, were reminded or assured repeatedly that the information they shared were for research purposes and some of them could be available to the public with strict confidentiality and anonymity. For this reason, some relevant quotes or personal stories that would probably make some participants identifiable were not included in the study.

Another issue was the possible influence of power differentials in the sense of the authoritative role of the researcher and the nature of inquiries that aim at investigating personal experiences or professional practices. Whether for participants I, the researcher, already knew or for those who had been complete strangers, I ensured that all instances of interpersonal interactions were as friendly and compassionate as possible, while showing understanding of all issues that may have sounded sensitive or private. I realized, though, that interviews done online by voice calls were more comfortable and convenient than face-to-face interviews. I also realized that my role as an observer was less intrusive with participants whom I already knew. In all cases, the nature of LTC and its exploration of personal beliefs, experiences and emotions requires more research into ethical principles and issues related to recruiting participants or collecting data.

It should also be noted that due to the time limits that most participants referred to, especially among those who give private lessons, it was not possible to conduct several interviews with the same informant. However, every possible effort was made to reach a degree of saturation based on one interview meeting.

As regards Q sorts, they did not require much time in ranking the statements, yet the challenge was in making up their minds and deciding their own subjectivity. This necessitated no interference from my side, except for a preparatory explanation, and in some

cases, there may have been statements that were ranked randomly because some informants did not fully understand what they referred to or they just wanted to finish the task.

This previous point regarding misunderstanding or even misrecognizing the meaning of certain items, statements or even words could have occurred in the participants' responses to questionnaires or Q sorts. I decided not to include Arabic translations in both instruments to avoid, first, implying their incompetence in understanding English, and secondly, because many aspects referred to terms that could not be translated accurately into Arabic as they refer to methodological or academic concepts related to foreign language teaching (e.g., concordance, CLT, TBLT among others). Vocabulary itself has no accurate equivalent in Arabic. The common equivalent is *mufradat*, which could be translated to 'words'.

Another limitation that should be noted is related to the mixed-method approach adopted in this study. Every possible effort was made to achieve complementarity of the data. The preliminary plan was to make sure that interviewed teachers were all selected from those who participated in the questionnaire. The same was planned for Q sort respondents and observed teachers. Due to the limitations regarding sampling, anonymity and time constraints, it was not possible to follow this plan. However, all observed teachers had been interviewed, and most of those who responded to the Q sort or took part in the interviews had participated in the questionnaire. With this in mind, integration of data was sought as an analytical goal in IMMR (innovative mixed-methods research) (see Riazi, 2016a), yet the complexity and multidimensionality of the data along with the constructivist nature of Q sorts (Stenner, 2009) led to yielding findings that were specific to each instrument. However, as an overall conclusion, they did not seem to contradict or diverge fundamentally from other findings.

Regarding observation, it is important to note that more sessions could have made the analysis more robust. Because of the official constraints explained in the methodology

chapter, they were limited to four single sessions with four teachers. However, I realized that there was a degree of formality, or even rituality, in what all of them did, probably due to my presence. At some moments, I realized that the observed teacher and his/her students had to emotionally and socially deal with the presence of an intruder. Although two of the observed teachers were long-time acquaintances, this observation seemed to apply to all sessions. Despite the limited number of observations and the degree of formality I noticed, what they practiced in class seemed sufficient for comparing it with their reported cognitions and practices.

10.8 Implications for Practice

The study of LTC aims basically at fathoming the hidden aspects of teachers' inner worlds to help with recognizing, understanding and improving their experiences as teachers and human beings and consequently help with the quality of their students' learning and education in general. This study's findings indicate that teaching and learning have much to do with teacher cognition as shaped and mediated by society. Theoretical or socio-political endeavours that aim to change the status quo of education in general and language education in particular would be in vain if they marginalize teachers' cognitions. The findings indicate that what teachers think, feel and do is mainly an ongoing process of negotiating possibilities according to socially constructed dispositions and emotions or lived experiences (*perezhivaniya*) that have been developing in line with rule-governed concepts (language games) shaping their ontological and epistemological stances. They see themselves and the world around them according to their own histories with others who share that sociocultural background, yet with nuances that make every individual unique as a person.

It is noteworthy that the previous assumption does not mean that determinism prevails at the cost of free will. It simply means that every individual's experience as a member in a certain environment (Vygotsky's term), field (Bourdieu's term) or rule-governed game

(Wittgenstein's term), shapes his or her worldview, cognitions and practices in many aspects. In a Wittgensteinian sense, their decision to continue the chess game and to choose where to move the king is theirs, yet it is all within the rules of the game—the rules that have developed over time, amongst its players, as the game has evolved, and, even if codified, continue to evolve—that all players should recognize. Moving the king the way they want without sticking to the rules understood by other players is another game that has its different rules, yet bystanders would not call it chess as they know it.

In view of the foregoing, the findings of this study have some implications of practice that could be summarized in the following:

- The findings indicated that the participants' prior learning experience influences their cognitions and practices in several aspects. However, teacher-student relationship seemed to be a major element in their cognitions about language learning and teaching. Positive experiences with encouraging and helpful teachers in which teachers as young learners seemed to feel a relative degree of power seemed to matter considerably for most participants. These findings indicate that TSR needs to get more attention in teacher education research in general and LTC studies in particular. Teacher educators should also focus on this aspect in preparing and training teacher-students on interpersonal skills as part of their future pedagogical practices.
- This study indicated that extrinsic motivation as shaped and mediated by sociocultural factors had much influence on language teachers' cognitions and practices. Whether in choosing teaching profession as a life career or continuing teaching in spite of several constraints they mentioned, extrinsic motivation in forms of economic, sociocultural and interpersonal stimuli seemed to affect their sense-making as regards the value of things and their

possibilities in finding their ways as members of society (field). According to Vygotsky (1987/1934), to understand what people say, we need to understand what they think, and to understand what they think, we need to understand the motivation behind it. With this in mind, one of the implications of this study is the importance of investigating teacher motivation and its historicity in exploring and understanding LTC.

- It is in light of the previous aspect of teacher motivation that researchers, policy makers and teacher educators can relate other study findings regarding power relations, social status, recognition, economic and cultural capitals, institutional policies, administrative decisions and practices, students' motivations, behaviours and attitudes, parents' comments and/or intrusions. These factors, as grounded in their context, seemed to affect their motivation, hence thinking, and consequently their habitus and *sens pratique*. To deal with issues related to language education in Egypt and to improve the status quo, more attention needs to be paid to what the findings revealed in this regard.
- The findings indicated that most participants are aware of the importance of learning and teaching communicative skills. As past young learners or current in-service teachers, they stressed the importance of fluency, speaking skills, pronunciation and all aspects of language that have been rarely addressed adequately in schools. However, there were few instances of comments indicating adequate knowledge about how such aspects of language should be taught or learned. Also, the use of mother tongue while focusing on improving communication skills in target language seemed to be a major issue as regards how much of MT should be used and when. In all cases, most participants seemed to have inadequate knowledge about effective methods in teaching

communicative skills or to what extent MT can be used in teaching English or its vocabulary. Policy makers and teacher educators can benefit from the findings of this study in addressing these issues.

- The qualitative data of the study indicated that imposing educational reform or directing teachers to what should be done, according to experts or theorizers, would lead to sham implementations or artificial applications, especially in front of observers or inspectors, and would need to first go through teachers' filtering cognition of what reality necessitates versus what idealism assumes. This reality is too complex to be summed up into what teachers do in their current classes. This complexity lies in the dynamic interplay of sociocultural factors, including, for example, language-games pertaining to concepts and meanings in use, as based on MT, religious values, personal histories of teachers and learners, notions of capital and power relations, socio-political assumptions, and, last but not least, a working socket in the classroom.

Suggesting, promoting or imposing teaching methods, language policies or curricula that are supposed to improve language teaching without considering this complexity is and has proved to be a waste of time and energy. For the same reason, teachers' voices must be heard because they are the ones most involved in the subfield of schools and classrooms. A Western perspective of language teaching that may underestimate the effectiveness of traditional methods, rule out MT, minimize the role of the teacher in transmitting knowledge, underrate teacher's authority or overrate students' autonomy, would most probably face resistance, at least in a passive way. Teachers' cognitions, situational and experiential knowledge of their environment and the needs of their students, and in many cases, inadequate

content knowledge and poor language proficiency, would all together make it difficult for those *ideal* assumptions to inform practices.

In all cases, the data and findings of this study can be of much use to policy makers and language educators in Egypt as regards how current teachers' past and present of language learning and teaching should be borne in mind along with factors that affect their cognitions and practices.

10.8.1 Implications for Vocabulary Teaching

To my knowledge, this is the first study in LTC to focus on vocabulary teaching in Egypt. It is the second study in around 20 years about LTC in Egypt, as LTC has been an under-researched area in the country. The data and the findings of this research can be of use to teacher educators and policy makers as regards factors that influence teaching English vocabulary in public schools. Among these factors are teachers' prior learning experience, the examination-oriented education system, and teachers' reliance on MT 'when necessary'.

The findings indicated that in spite of their emphasis on the importance of contextualization and practice in teaching and learning vocabulary, it seemed that most teachers had either an inadequate knowledge or proficiency regarding teaching and learning vocabulary in authentic/communicative use rather than teaching and learning it in limited textbook-based drills.

The qualitative data suggested that they are aware of how vocabulary should be integrated into all language skills and how teaching and learning it is vital in language learning; however, factors related to their prior learning experiences, the context, especially the examination-oriented system and examination-focused students and parents seemed to affect their cognitions and practices as they end up focusing on memorization, repetition and examination-tailored practices.

Language educators may use the data provided by this study to design training courses that raise teacher-students' awareness regarding more reliance on word meaning and word use in the context of the TL and its cultural connotations and less or moderated reliance on using equivalents based on the MT. Policy makers also need to consider the same in assessment policies by developing assessments that address meaning and use based on the cultural connotations of words among speakers of the TL.

10.9 Future Research

As a study of human cognition, this thesis does not claim covering all that should be covered as regards LTC. It was mainly an attempt to explore the hidden aspects of teachers' using words they say or think of while looking as deeply as possible into why they think this way and considering the influence of the outer world on their inner worlds. Such an endeavour started as an ambitious attempt to allow NNESTs to speak their minds and tell outsiders about their own perspective and the perspective from which they see the world of language education.

That said, the thesis has not addressed certain areas that could merit future research. For example, using confirmatory factor analysis with a larger sample of participants could help confirm or refute the results of EFA implemented in this study, especially as the factors extracted highlighted the role of specific sociocultural convictions in framing teachers' cognitions. Video recording of hand movements in Q sort ranking proved to be a useful technique in enriching the interpretation of Q factor analysis. However, a post-procedural interview could be used to investigate other untold cognitions regarding teachers' subjectivity and predilections. Also, and as mentioned earlier, a further investigation of the possible influence of Q sorting as a mediational tool could help to understand more about teachers' implicit cognitions in their interplay with the practices.

The data collected from the interview indicated that personal stories were frequently used by informants to foreground and background their cognitions, especially in reference to their motives, emotions, self-images and roles. Using narrative frames to elicit teachers' cognitions could help shed more light on more intricate dimensions of LTC.

It is also noteworthy that open-ended questionnaire items proved useful in approaching LTC, especially when questions allow participants to address their personal perspective and consider avoiding leading questions that would suggest ideal answers. However, using journals could have added more depth and made the data more robust. As the aim was to get an overall picture of LTC among Egyptian NNESTs, the multiple data sets and relatively large number of participants did not allow for a timely implementation of journals.

Another possible area for future research is attempting to explore students' perceptions about their teachers' cognitions. After the observation sessions, I had some short conversations, after appropriate permissions from the teacher, with students who were interested in what I was doing. More systematically collected comments could help understand more about teachers' cognitions, especially in relation to students' learning, needs and power relations. I also had some comments from two of the school principals where the observation sessions were carried out. Knowing the nature of my research, they also commented on some points pertaining mainly to socioeconomic, socio-political and administrative aspects that affect what they and their school teachers think, feel and do. Further research taking several parties involved in language education into consideration, while focusing mainly on LTC, could help broaden the scope of the domain and contribute to the empirical applications of its theoretical implications.

Another important area and research topic that could stimulate further research is social media as a platform on which many teachers express their cognitions openly,

especially when they use pseudonyms to hide their real identities. Some informants hinted at their membership of Facebook groups dedicated to Egyptian English language teachers and how they feel a sense of solidarity and find an outlet to voice their concerns on these groups. One of these groups has more than 600,000 members. Upon checking, I found several posts that echoed much of what many informants discussed in the interviews. However, I also realized that some parents were also members of the group, along with some members from other professions or other countries. In all cases, if there could be a way to use the available data on such groups after meeting validity and reliability requirements, such data could unlock many aspects of teacher cognition, bearing in mind that they are posted with a motive of sharing thoughts and emotions without necessarily caring about what a researcher or a theorizer thinks.

10.10 Recommendations

If there is any particular recommendation aiming at a specific action that can be taken by policy makers, teacher trainers and educators, curriculum and material designers and anyone authorized to set laws or regulations regarding education in general and language education in particular, it is simple and plain: Listen to teachers. Their thoughts, emotions, motivations, histories, needs, assumptions, and constraints are all part of contexts or fields that mediated their cognitions and actions. Their struggle to weigh possibilities is far beyond the classroom, a well-designed textbook, and a good salary. There is a need to consider what happened in their past and how it has been grounded in their culture, mediated earlier by adults, and has been since mediated by educators, students, students' parents, administrators and other members of their communities, all while sociocultural convictions, notions of capital and power relations play highly influential roles in shaping their cognitions and situating their practices.

Teacher educators need to listen to teacher-students about their motivation in becoming teachers, their interpersonal experiences with past teachers, and what aspects of language skills or components they need to improve or have been poorly addressed by their past teachers. They can then develop courses or programs—or even simply opportunities to discuss these topics—to address related issues.

Policy makers can create a channel through which teachers' voices, comments, and contributions can be heard and appreciated. Any decision making regarding what they do in their classes should involve teachers from different regions and backgrounds, not experts or supervisors who might not have experienced contexts similar to what many teachers have to deal with.

As regards English language teaching in general and vocabulary teaching in particular, there is a need to design curricula and training programs that consider socioculturally-grounded cognitions about teaching and learning a foreign language without presuming the superiority of a certain theory or approach over the other. Besides, and as with the recommendation regarding policy making, designing language materials for a culture or a community that could be totally or partially unfamiliar to the designer would be more effective, workable and useful when individual teachers from that culture, including those in remote unprivileged areas, are involved.

10.11 Conclusion and Coda

This study started as an attempt to approach the inner worlds of human beings, their consciousness, their emotions, and the language they use to give meanings to things and share those meanings, all within the limits of the outer world. It is a study about non-native English-speaking teachers of English and their cognitions in teaching EFL in Egypt that made it possible to understand how teachers as individuals think, feel and act according to their own understanding, awareness of and interaction with the context they live in. This context

should be considered in its diachronic and synchronic dimensions, where local/native language, in its universal sense, has a pivotal role in shaping teachers' concepts about teaching English as a foreign language in general or teaching its vocabulary.

The context/field within which language teachers as social agents live and interact should also be viewed in terms of its tensions, especially those related to positioning and power relations. Besides, with concepts based on language shared by the community within which teachers think, feel and act, and with tensions, power relations and power negotiations taking place in the outer world, the inner worlds of teachers need to be investigated in light of the unity of the mental and the affective, where the role of emotions cannot be ignored or marginalized.

As for practical outcomes and empirical implementations that could concern practitioners or policy makers more than theorization does, this study has revealed that in order to change the status quo of language education or to improve it anywhere, it is imperative to explore what teachers understand, to see their outer world from their perspective, to recognize and appreciate their concepts as based on their local language, culture and traditions, to consider how they keep struggling for a social space that is mainly determined by factors generally unknown to outsiders, to acknowledge how their emotions influence their decisions, and to respect them and value the roles they play in making a difference.

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Appendix A - Table 1

Agreement with Statements About Teachers' Cognitions

Item	Statement	M	SD
(T1)	Some languages are easier than others.	4.4	0.76
(T2)	It is important to repeat and practice a lot.	4.6	0.70
(T3)	Learning English is mostly a matter of translating.	3.1	1.26
(T4)	Learning English is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words.	3.6	1.16
(T5)	It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it.	3.1	1.35
(T6)	Women are better than men at learning English.	3.1	1.22
(T7)	It is important to speak English with an excellent accent.	4.3	0.93
(T8)	You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly.	3.5	1.31
(T9)	Some people are born with a special ability which helps them learn a foreign language.	3.7	1.16
(T10)	It is easier to speak than to understand English.	3.2	1.30
(T11)	Learning English is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules.	2.9	1.22
(T12)	Egyptians think that it is important to speak a foreign language.	3.9	1.12
(T13)	People who are good at maths and science are not good at learning foreign languages.	2.5	1.07
(T14)	It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language.	3.2	1.13
(T15)	Learning English is different from learning other school subjects.	3.9	0.98
(T16)	Egyptians are good at learning foreign languages.	3.5	1.09
(T17)	If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be hard to get rid of them later on.	2.9	1.24
(T18)	People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.	3.9	1.00
(T19)	It is better to learn English in an English-speaking country.	4.0	1.07
(T20)	Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.	3.8	1.10
(T21)	The best way to learn new vocabulary is through reading	3.8	1.05
(T22)	Studying words in isolation is not a good use of class time.	3.8	1.11
(T23)	Once learners know roughly 1000 words and the basic structure of English, they can easily participate in conversations with native speakers.	3.4	1.07
(T24)	Learners' errors should be corrected as soon as they are made in order to prevent the formation of bad habits.	3.6	1.15
(T25)	EFL teacher should use English as the dominant language of instruction.	4.0	0.90
(T26)	The primary focus of English language programs should be on the development of vocabulary and knowledge of grammar.	3.6	1.04
(T27)	The role of English teachers is to help students learn what is in the textbook.	3.1	1.19
(T28)	Studying English is not suitable for students who have difficulty with learning in general.	3.0	1.12
(T29)	The role of cultural instruction in English language programs should be secondary to that of vocabulary and grammar.	3.3	1.09
(T30)	The focus of assessment in English language programs should be on students' knowledge of vocabulary and grammar.	3.3	1.17

(T31)	Teaching is a talent rather than a matter of learning some teaching skills.	3.7	1.28
(T32)	Teachers know better about what works in their contexts than those who give workshops on improving teaching and learning.	3.5	1.10
(T33)	I stick to official textbooks.	3.2	1.08
(T34)	I teach according to what I think is right not what experts suggest.	3.3	1.11
(T35)	Teaching English in Cairo or Alexandria is very different from teaching it in other towns or villages in Egypt.	3.6	1.24
(T36)	When in the classroom, rules and behavior matter more than what students learn.	3.6	1.12
(T37)	In some situations, I avoid certain teaching methods I believe are more useful.	3.2	1.24

Appendix B - Table 2

Frequencies of Reported Taken-for-Granted Truths Among Egyptian EFL Teachers

No	Statement	N
(D1)	The teacher is like a prophet. He deserves all dignity and respect.	100
(D2)	Teaching is a mission not just a job.	98
(D3)	A student should not smoke in front of a teacher.	94
(D4)	We do what is required in the textbooks.	79
(D5)	We should care about our image out of school all the time. We are teachers.	72
(D6)	The most important thing is to control your class.	69
(D7)	Inspectors tell us what they think, and they do not care about what we need.	67
(D8)	Teaching English is difficult because students do not practice enough.	66
(D9)	“I am a slave to anyone who teaches me a letter”.	63
(D10)	When supervisors come to observe our class, we do things according to their understanding of good teaching.	62
(D11)	Do what makes them answer difficult questions on final tests.	55
(D12)	It is always about final exams.	54
(D13)	The managers and the administration do not know anything about teaching English.	52
(D14)	English teachers have a higher status than teachers of other subjects.	47
(D15)	We need to be friendly with the students so that they sign up for private lessons.	43
(D16)	A student should not argue with his/her teachers.	42
(D17)	If we speak with an American or British accent, students would not understand a word.	40
(D18)	It is just a job, and we are not paid well for it.	38
(D19)	Workshops are just a waste of time.	37
(D20)	We have kids to feed and that is all that matters.	35
(D21)	We do what makes us go through the day.	35
(D22)	Parents will complain in all cases.	34
(D23)	No one has the right to tell me how I do my job.	24

Appendix C - Table 3

Q sort Factor Arrays

No	Statement	F.1	F.2	F.3	F.4	F.5
1	English is the colonizer's language that happened to be global.	-3	1	0	2	-2
2	English language is a necessity for Egyptians.	-1	4	4	3	3
3	English is a silly language if compared to Arabic.	-1	-2	-3	-4	-4
4	An English teacher should be native-like in all the skills and components of language.	-2	0	0	2	-3
5	The more words a teacher knows, the more competent he/she is in teaching English.	1	-3	0	1	1
6	An English teacher should get an international certificate in language proficiency.	0	-3	2	0	3
7	An English teacher should have an academic certificate in teaching.	3	0	2	2	2
8	Learning English is like learning mother tongue.	-2	1	-1	1	0
9	Language skills should be taught integratively.	3	-3	3	0	0
10	Some language skills are more important than others.	2	-1	1	-3	3
11	Some language skills need to be taught and focused on separately.	0	2	1	-1	2
12	Communicative language teaching works the best.	4	2	3	1	2
13	Grammar-translation method is more effective with Egyptian students.	-2	-2	-4	1	0
14	Teaching to the test works well in learning English in Egyptian schools.	-3	-2	-3	-3	2
15	The mother tongue (Arabic) should be allowed to be used in English classes.	-1	-4	-2	1	-1
16	The more tasks and exercises students do, the better their English will be.	1	3	1	4	1
17	Error correction should be avoided as much as possible.	2	0	-1	-1	-2
18	Memorization is the key factor in learning English.	0	0	-3	0	3
19	English language teachers should be friendly with their students.	4	4	3	3	4
20	English language teachers are responsible for making students learn.	0	3	2	0	1
21	English language teachers should keep students busy so they don't misbehave.	0	0	-2	-1	0
22	Students should always follow the teacher's instructions and advice in language learning.	1	2	1	2	4
23	It is the student's responsibility to master the language as he/she likes.	-3	-2	0	0	0
24	Students care more about passing exams rather than acquiring the language.	1	3	0	3	1

25	Nobody supports English teachers at their job/in the workplace.	-1	1	-4	-2	-1
26	Private lessons are more important/valuable than school lessons to English teachers.	-4	-4	-1	-2	-2
27	Everyone thinks they know what English teachers should do.	-4	0	2	-2	-1
28	Nobody listens to teachers' opinions about educational matters.	-2	-1	-1	0	-1
29	Mastering English language endows social respect in Egypt.	0	0	-1	1	-3
30	Classroom management issues can prevent effective teaching.	3	-3	1	-3	0
31	Managerial decisions affect how teachers feel about their mission and performance.	2	-1	-1	0	-2
32	Parents' comments and opinions affect how a teacher feels about students.	0	-1	0	-3	1
33	After my experience in teaching, I have got less enthusiastic about my job.	-1	-2	-3	-1	-3
34	English language teachers are valued by the number of students in their private lessons.	2	2	-2	-4	-4
35	English language teachers are judged by the quality of their English, especially when speaking.	2	1	1	3	0
36	English language teachers get more respect than other teachers of some subjects.	1	1	0	-2	0
37	English language teachers are expected to make more money than teachers of some other subjects.	-3	0	-2	-2	-3
38	English language teachers are the upper crust/ "high heel "of teachers' community.	-1	-1	0	0	-1
39	Society does not pay much respect to teachers like before.	3	1	-2	4	1
40	A teacher has the power to make a difference in society.	1	3	4	2	-1
41	If I had a child, I would like him/her to be an English language teacher.	-2	2	2	-1	-2
42	Egyptian English teachers are the best in the Arab world.	0	-1	3	-1	2

Appendix D - The Questionnaire

LANGUAGE TEACHER COGNITION QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for taking the time to fill this questionnaire in. We do appreciate your interest and participation.

يرجى الإجابة على جميع الأسئلة، ويمكن تجاوز الأسئلة الاختيارية.

1. Please fill in the following fields:
Name (optional): -----
Gender: -----
Age: -----
Years of teaching experience: -----
Email (optional): -----
Governorate: -----
2. What are your professional qualifications? Please choose all that apply.
 BA in English Language and Literature (Faculty of Arts)
 BA in English Language and Literature (Faculty of Education)
 Higher Studies Diploma (Education)
 MA in -----
 Other (please specify) -----
3. What is your current teaching position?
 Assistant teacher
 Teacher
 Master teacher
 Master teacher (A)
 Expert teacher
 Senior teacher

PART A

A1. Please tick all that apply to complete the sentence.

I liked the way most of my teachers taught me

- English writing.
- English reading.
- English speaking.
- English listening.
- English vocabulary.
- English grammar.
- English pronunciation.

A2. What do you think your past teachers could have done to improve their ways of teaching you English language in general?

.....

 A3. For words that you think you learned very well, what was the most effective strategy used by some teacher/teachers that helped you learn them?

A4. For words that you think you learned very well, what was the strategy you used to learn them?

A5. Who was your favorite English language teacher and why? (you can mention the teacher's first name if you like)

A6. As a young learner of English, did you ever think of becoming an English teacher at that time? If yes, why?

A7. If you had had a chance to repeat your language learning experience, what would you have liked teachers to change?

Part B

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Section A: LANGUAGE AND TEACHING COGNITIONS

Read each statement on the following pages. Decide whether you agree or disagree with each statement. For example, if you strongly agree (SA), mark:

Strongly agree (SA)	Agree (A)	Undecided (U)	Disagree (D)	Strongly disagree (SD)
X				

Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD
B1. Some languages are easier than others.					
B2. It is important to repeat and practice a lot.					
B3. Learning English is mostly a matter of translating.					
B4. Learning English is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words.					
B5. It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it.					
B6. Women are better than men at learning English.					
B7. It is important to speak English with an excellent accent.					
B8. You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly.					
B9. Some people are born with a special ability which helps them learn a foreign language.					

B10. It is easier to speak than to understand English.					
B11. Learning English is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules.					
B12. Egyptians think that it is important to speak a foreign language.					
B13. People who are good at maths and science are not good at learning foreign languages.					
B14. It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language.					
B15. Learning English is different from learning other school subjects.					
B16. Egyptians are good at learning foreign languages.					
B17. If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later on.					
B18. People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.					
B19. It is better to learn English in an English-speaking country.					
B20. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.					
B21. The best way to learn new vocabulary is through reading.					
B22. Studying words in isolation is not a good use of class time.					
B23. Once learners know roughly 1000 words and the basic structure of English, they can easily participate in conversations with native speakers.					
B24. Learners' errors should be corrected as soon as they are made in order to prevent the formation of bad habits.					
B25. EFL teacher should use English as the dominant language of instruction.					
B26. The primary focus of English language programs should be on the development of vocabulary and knowledge of grammar.					
B27. The role of English teachers is to help students learn what is in the textbook.					
B28. Studying English is not suitable for students who have difficulty with learning in general.					
B29. The role of cultural instruction in English language programs should be secondary to that of vocabulary and grammar.					
B30. The focus of assessment in English language programs should be on students' knowledge of vocabulary and grammar.					
B31. Teaching is a talent rather than a matter of learning some teaching skills.					
B32. Teachers know better about what works in their contexts than those who give workshops on improving teaching and learning.					
B33. I stick to official textbooks.					
B34. I teach according to what I think is right not what experts suggest.					
B35. Teaching English in Cairo or Alexandria is very different from teaching it in other towns or villages in Egypt.					
B36. When in the classroom, rules and behavior matter more than what students learn.					
B37. In some situations, I avoid certain teaching methods I believe are more useful.					

B38. English is...

- 1) a very difficult language
- 2) a language of a medium difficulty
- 3) an easy or a very easy language

B39. Please tick all that you think are self-evident knowledge among teachers of English or taken-for-granted « truths » about language teacher work:

- Teaching is a mission not just a job.
- Teaching English is difficult because students do not practice enough.
- It is always about final exams.
- If we speak with an American or British accent, students would not understand a word.
- We do what is required in the textbooks.
- We do what makes them answer difficult questions on final tests.
- The most important thing is to control your class.
- Parents will complain in all cases.
- The managers and the administration do not know anything about teaching English.

- We have kids to feed and that is all that matters.
- It is just a job, and we are not paid well for it.
- Workshops are just a waste of time.
- Inspectors tell us what they think, and they do not care about what we need.
- We do what makes us go through the day.
- When supervisors come to observe our class, we do things according to their understanding of good teaching.
- We need to be friendly with the students so that they sign up for private lessons.
- English teachers have a higher status than teachers of other subjects.
- We should care about our image out of school all the time. We are teachers.
- A student should not smoke in front of a teacher.
- A student should not argue with his/her teachers.
- "I am a slave to anyone who teaches me a letter".
- No one has the right to tell me how I do my job.
- The teacher is like a prophet. He deserves all dignity and respect.

Section B: TEACHING VOCABULARY

This section asks about how you teach new vocabulary.^[SEP] **Please give your best estimate as to how often you employ the following techniques.**

Please refer to the definitions below to help you answer this section and the ones that follow.^[SEP]

Vocabulary Notebook: a space where students write down information about words they encounter or find interesting/useful.

Word List: a list that has the English word in one column, and the meaning/translation/example sentence in another column.

Word Card: an English word is written on one side of a card, and the meaning is written on the other (in either English or the student's first language). Students look at one side of the card, guess the answer, then check the back.

Mnemonic Strategy: strategies other than traditional memorization that help students to remember a word's meaning. For example, creating mental image of the word or mentally linking the word to a similar-sounding word in the student's first language.

Concordance: an alphabetical list of words used in a book or a written work.

B40. When teaching a new word, I:	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
Explain some grammatical functions of the word.				
Refer to the information provided in the course textbook.				
Say the word aloud.				
Write the word.				
Draw/display a picture of the word.				
Use the word in an example sentence.				
Give a simple definition in English.				
Give a simple definition or equivalent in Arabic.				
Ask a student for the definition.				
Give examples of a synonym or related word.				
Explain some cultural connotations of the word.				
Act out the word using gestures.				

Discuss the underlying meaning of the word. (e.g., <i>neck</i> of a person/bottle/river = a skinny connecting part.)				
Identify the stress pattern of the word.				
Identify prefixes (<i>un-</i> , <i>re-</i>) or suffixes (<i>-able</i> , <i>-tion</i>).				
Use supplemental materials (i.e., materials other than those in the course textbook).				
Give some different definitions of the word in English.				
Give some different definitions of the word in Arabic.				
Teach the word in context.				
Teach conceptually related vocabulary (e.g., food- fruit, vegetables, meat, bread, etc.).				
Teach phrases/idioms that include the word.				
Teach collocations of the word.				
Teach the word using a concordance.				

Section C1: BELIEFS ABOUT VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES

This section asks about what strategies you have your students use when learning vocabulary. Please refer to the definitions in section B to help you answer this section.

B41. When my students learn new words, I have them:	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Keep a vocabulary notebook.				
Study using word lists.				
Study using word cards.				
Use a mnemonic strategy to better remember a word.				
Guess the meaning of the word from context.				
Guess the meaning of the word from its parts. (e.g., <i>redraw</i> must mean “draw again”.)				
Use a vocabulary learning program on the internet.				
Work in pairs/groups to complete vocabulary activities.				
Look up the word in an English-English dictionary.				
Look up the word in an English-Arabic dictionary.				
Use it correctly in a written sentence of their own.				
Say it correctly in a spoken sentence of their own.				
Use it in various collocations (written or spoken).				
Pronounce it in a native or native-like manner.				
Use concordances as a simple reference tool.				
Think of or look up for some of its synonyms and/or antonyms.				

Section C2: BELIEFS ABOUT VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES

This section focuses on your beliefs about the effectiveness of the following vocabulary learning strategies. Please refer to the definitions in section B to help you answer this section.

B42. When students learn new words, I believe it is highly effective for them to:	SA	A	U	D	SD
Study using a vocabulary notebook.					
Study using word lists.					
Study using word cards.					
Study using mnemonic strategies.					
Guess the meaning of unknown words from context.					
Guess the meaning of the word from its parts.					

Use a vocabulary learning program or application on the internet.					
Focus on words that they are interested in learning.					
Work in pairs/groups to complete vocabulary activities.					
Look up the word in an English-English dictionary.					
Look up the word in an English-Arabic dictionary.					
Use it correctly in a written sentence of their own.					
Say it correctly in a spoken sentence of their own.					
Use it in various collocations (written or spoken).					
Pronounce it in a native or native-like manner.					
Use concordances as a simple reference tool.					
Know or recognise some of its synonyms and/or antonyms.					

Section D: ASSESSING VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE

This section focuses on assessing your students' vocabulary knowledge.

B43. I assess my students' vocabulary knowledge at the beginning of the course. Yes No

B44. I give my students vocabulary tests once per _____ (number of) classes.

B45. What kind of vocabulary tests do you usually give your students?^[SEP]

- ◆ Non-cumulative (includes only words the class is currently studying)
- ◆ Cumulative (includes current words plus all previously-studied words)

Section E: INSTRUCTOR KNOWLEDGE

B46. I believe students need to know about ____ % of the words in a text in order to correctly guess an unknown word's meaning from context.

- a) 68 b) 78 c) 88 d) 98

B47. I believe that the most common 2,000 words in English make up about ____ % of the words used in English in daily conversation.

- a) 60 b) 70 c) 80 d) 90

Section F:

B50. When you teach new vocabulary, what is the strategy you think has proved most successful with your students?

.....
.....

B51. When you teach new vocabulary, what is the strategy you think has proved least successful with your students?

.....
.....

- If you like to participate in the rest of the study as per the consent form you signed, please provide your contact details below. I will be happy to get in touch with you soon.(اختياري)

Name:

Email:

Phone number:

Appendix E - Interview Protocol

The following sections are representative of the topics and themes discussed in the semi-structured interviews. The order of these sections was not the same with every informant, and some questions were not asked because the informants had discussed the relevant topic in his/her comments about another question. Follow-up questions were used after most questions.

Biodata:

- What is your age, qualifications, teaching experience?
- Which types of schools did you work in and which stages did you teach?

General questions about English language

- How do you see English language?
- How did you see it as a young learner and how do you see it as a teacher?
- How do you compare English to Arabic?

General questions about prior learning experience

- Could you tell me about your experience as a young learner of English? Any positive or negative memories? What did you like? What didn't you like?
- Who was your favorite English teacher and why?
- What helped you the most in learning English language?
- What helped you the most in learning English vocabulary?

General questions about becoming a teacher?

- Why did you decide to become an English teacher? Any regrets?
- Was there anyone behind your decision to be a teacher?
- How were you prepared to be a teacher?
- How did your language learning experience, whether as a young learner or a university student, contribute to your skills as a teacher?

General questions about teaching and learning English

- How do you see teaching English as a language? How you think it should be taught?

- Which teaching approaches you think work with students? Why?
- What do you usually do when you teach a regular lesson in the textbook?
- Which language skills or components do you usually focus on in your classes?
- What a good student should do to learn English effectively?
- Let's talk about your positive and negative emotions as a teacher of English. Any situations or experiences that you would like to talk about?
- What do you like/dislike about your job?

General questions about teaching and learning vocabulary

- How often do you focus on vocabulary teaching?
- In your opinion, what is the best approach to teaching vocabulary?
- What is the approach or method you used in teaching vocabulary and it proved most effective in your classes?
- What do you think is the most effective approach to learning vocabulary?
- Do you use Arabic in teaching vocabulary? Why/ Why not?
- What are your goals as a teacher when you teach vocabulary?
- What should be done to improve language teaching in public schools?

General questions about the context

- What do you think is the current status of English teachers?
- What do you think of private tutoring?
- From your perspective, what is the situation like in public schools with regard to teaching English?
- What do you think about the influence of administration on your teaching?
- What do you think of students, their parents and society in general regarding what they expect from you as a teacher?

Appendix F - Sample Transcript of an Interview Conducted in English (Verbatim)

Interviewer: What do you aspire to as a teacher, whether professionally, financially or socially?
Informant: I think teaching in Egypt financially is different from all the other countries in the world. The teacher in Egypt has a very bad salary and people look on the salary. People appreciate people according to the salaries. Other jobs in electricity and petroleum or water ...when they hear that this person works in an oil company, I think he appeals to them more than just teachers. I think most of the teachers' decisions to give tutoring lessons is that. They want to tell the society that they are equally footed to those people and even superior to them. I can earn a lot of money more than them, but most teachers refuse the idea of tutoring lessons morally, but they have to do it because it is financially important.
Interviewer: So, it is a goal for you and some teachers to make more money because salaries are not enough, but they are not happy with giving private lessons.
Informant: I think when I go to school my goal is to teach students. I do not even remember the salary because it is so weak and so insufficient. I can do without it...it cannot buy anything especially in the current economic conditions. So, my goal on going to school is how to help the students to learn language. I think...I feel a pick of conscience if I even sit down for few minutes...I fell something wrong. How can I sit down for a few moments and those students are so idle...lazy and need my help. So, I do my best and strain myself...I can write more than one board and I do every possible thing to help them. I think that the student is a great responsibility. His parents give them from their food. They eat little things to provide their children with clothing and then good teaching. So, I feel dutiful towards that. I think when I teach them, I remember their fathers...their parents. I even tell them that if you do not write the correct answer in the exam, I give you half the mark...I cannot give you zero. Half the mark is for your parents and for your attendance at the school, but do not leave the page empty. If you write any words, I will give you a mark for your parents and for attendance and for effort, not for your intelligence or for your standard.
Interviewer: Ok, so do you think students' parents or the society in general ...do you think they appreciate what you do as a teacher?
Informant: Most of them appreciate that.
Interviewer: Even if you do not give private lessons to them? I mean does this happen with your school students who don't take private lessons?
Informant: I am sorry to say that students especially in Egypt, especially in the countryside, and rural areas are so connected to the teacher who give them tutoring lessons more than other teachers. They get adapted to him quickly. The students treat their tutor in a distinguished way rather than other teachers who do not give them tutoring lessons. I think this is not right. These students must be more connected with their school teachers, but what happens is the opposite.
Interviewer: But you think parents appreciate and cherish what you do in your school classes?
Informant: I think most parents know everything about teachers from the attitudes and the opinions of their children about their teachers. If a student tells his parents that the teacher is so lazy, parents do not respect that kind of teacher. Their children reflect everything that occurs in the class to their parents.
Interviewer: If there is a chance to shift your career or to find another job that may pay you the same salary or higher than what you get from teaching, would you consider it?
Informant: I think if it is something related to English. I can work as a tour guide, but I think it is somewhat difficult. It needs historical facts. But if it is the same income, I will continue teaching. I find myself in teaching. I think teaching is something more paramount than the salary. The salary

is so weak...so bad compared with the effort of the teacher inside the class, but not most teachers I think ...I have different kinds of attitudes towards giving the teachers a good salary because I meet different kinds of teachers. Some teachers do not deserve to have their salary. I think their salary nowadays is something more than the effort they exert in class. If I have a good salary, I will stop tutoring lessons because I work around the clock. I work day and night without stopping. It is very exhausting. So, any equal job with the same salary will be more favourable to me, and I will quit teaching but if teaching has a salary lower than the other job, but I will stop giving tutoring lessons.

Interviewer: Do you have any quotes, proverbs or sayings from our culture that you hold as a belief about your work as a teacher?

Informant: Yeah. I think the teacher has a great message...has a great message but there are a lot of obstacles in our society. I cannot say that the teacher is compared with a messenger or a prophet. I think it is not wholly correct. Some things must be discarded from our schools to give the teacher this sacred position...this holy position. The society as a whole deformed the teacher reputation...giving tutoring lessons and dealing with students as friends and there is not any gap between the students and the teacher. Some teachers give tutoring lessons and other teachers envy them for that. Even teachers have some kind of feelings towards each other. Some teachers look to their colleagues who give tutoring lessons as more important than managers. I think the manager himself feels inferior to those teachers because they make more money and sometimes he may ask some of them for some financial help like a loan or something. I think some teachers have doctrines (morals and principles" and they deserve to be addressed by the saying "a teacher is almost a prophet or messenger", but not all teachers especially those who are weak and lazy...who deal with students distinctively.. who differ between students. I think most teachers do not deserve this proverb.

Interviewer: You referred to the distance between the teacher and the student. At the same time, you think that teachers should be friendly with their students. Could you explain that?

Informant: I ushered that but personally I feel that the students are more than my sons. I love them deeply. And sometimes tears appear on my eyes and I try to control myself in such a situation when I see a child or a student in some problems...for example financial problems, orphans, needy students.

Interviewer: Does this apply to students who are usually troublemakers or misbehave most of the time?

Informant: I deal with wicked students cruelly. I punish them. Firstly, I try to put them on the right way and give them advice. I do all possible efforts to help this kind of students to be moderate, but if this style does not accord with those kinds of students, I deal with them cruelly. I punish them. I can kick him out of the lesson. I sometimes call the student outside the class and speak to him as a father. I remind him that he is here not for himself alone...he reflects his family. He should be well-mannered and have some kind of respect towards his family and I try to tell him that family works hard to educate him and teach him...so he must not waste the efforts of his family and in most cases he listens to me and changes.

Interviewer: Is there a saying or a proverb you reject or do not believe in as a teacher?

Informant: I think after teaching all these years I have a good position in society especially with engineers, doctors, teachers...they deal with me as a father. They deal with me as someone who gives them a hand. So, I think a saying like whoever teaches me a letter I am like a slave for him...in the meaning that I respect him and feel gratitude to what he did...I think this is somewhat right.

Interviewer: If we talk about your experience as a learner of English, could you remember a situation or an incidence that made you so emotional and might have changed or affected your world view or your decision to become and English teacher. This emotional situation could be something that made you very happy, or sad, or frustrated etc.
Informant: As a learner, I have two situations...one of them is so critical. In the first year secondary, on the first day of study, the books are distributed, and we carry all the books and come back home. Someone was in the car with me, and told me "You, the son of so and so, will study all these things". His son joined...entered a technical school, and he thinks his son is very good and I entered a secondary school, and he feels that how can I study all these books. So, I think he was so ridiculous. He I think he laughs at me. I always remember this situation as a motive to learn well. This is one thing. For teaching I have another situation. I think the most helpful situation that gave me the nerve to continue to achieve this goal as a teacher of English...is the headmaster of the preparatory school. He was called [name removed for privacy]. He always gives me some kind of encouragement and my teacher of English in the preparatory school. Though he was a non-specialist, but he dealt with me so kindly...and encouraged me to be a teacher of English.
Interviewer: Could you describe a good English teacher?
Informant: I do not remember his name. He was so young. He was a newly graduate from Gharbeya Governorate, and he taught us just few lessons, but his pronunciation was so distinguished. I felt that is the first time to listen to English in my life.
Interviewer: So, for you this made the model for a good English teacher?
Participant: Yeah, I thought that this is the only teacher of English I encountered in my life.
Interviewer: Do you try to be like him when you teach?
Informant: I always remember him. When I teach secondary schools and I speak so rapidly because I speak about something memorized...something to me so easy...some students I see in some students' eyes some kind of admiration, and at this moment...at this stage I remember Mr. [name removed for privacy] who came to us from Gharbeya.
Interviewer: So, if we describe a good English teacher in general, he should pronounce English well?
Informant: Yes, I think pronunciation is the cornerstone of teaching English.
Interviewer: What else?
Informant: I think perfect pronunciation makes learners so happy. They feel something in you. They feel so attracted to such a kind of teachers.
Interviewer: Even if they do not understand you well?
Informant: Even if they do not understand. They feel something different, and I feel so when I deal with young kids, and I say for example laughed /laft/...or I like it /ailaikit/...they smile. When I stress on watched...asked.../askt/ they heard it with a d before and when they hear it with a /t/ they feel something different, and they smile...they smile naturally.
Interviewer: Could you describe a good student or learner of English?
Informant: The most intelligent I have taught is [name removed for privacy]. He was not just a genius at science subjects. He was so brilliant at English.
Interviewer: What do you mean by brilliant?

Informant: He could understand from the first time, and he astonished me by using some kinds of expressions and by his style of writing. I admired him very much.
Interviewer: So, in general, you know a good student when he or she does what or has what traits?
Informant: A good student must be a nice blend of morality, punctuality, intelligence, understanding, modesty...just.
Interviewer: Is obedience and following your instructions part of it?
Informant: Yes.
Interviewer: Do you find yourself sometimes imitating your past English teachers in some activities or behaviours?
Informant: Yeah...I think I do not imitate some kinds of teachers, but I got affected by a friend more than previous teachers. Sometimes I remember [name removed for privacy] and I try to imitate him especially in phonetics or pronunciation.
Interviewer: If you can imagine what students say about you as a teacher, how do you think students see you?
Informant: Nowadays I think there is a generation gap between me and students because I became old. I think this question should be divided into different kinds of stages in my life. Nowadays some students think that I am a complexed teacher because they are...they get adapted to cheating. They cannot do without cheating. Cheating became a fundamental part in exams. When they go to exams, they know that cheating is their right, and I combat that, so most students hate me for this thing. But, on the other hand, most distinguished students deal with me as a father. In the past, cheating was not common as these days.
Interviewer: Suppose you want to do your best in one of your classes using the best approach you believe is efficient enough, but students decide to misbehave, do emotions have the priority at the time and you might decide to stop teaching them according to what you believe in because they do not pay enough respect or attention?
Informant: To me, I always prefer to teach boys so the most...I think the most disturbing students I have worked for some years in teaching boys in industrial school...technical schools...and those students are so wicked and so cruel...they even use a different kind of language, and then I have taught for a general secondary school for boys. Most of the students are ill-bred and are immoral. However, just on entering the class from the first beginning I gave them some doctrines...I gave them some principles. My principles are so and so and so...if anyone of you is against any kind of code, I will punish him either by marks or firing him or calling his parent to come to school...no stick. When I start teaching, and they find me knowledgeable, and give them all possible efforts of teaching, they deal with me very respectably other than teachers. I see the same students so violent...so cruel...so wicked with other kinds of teachers.
Interviewer: So, what if you teach an activity using communicative language teaching and things get out of control or become messy, would this make you stop what you do and use a different methodology because classroom management comes first, or you insist on going on?
Informant: I think class management...without class management everything will be doomed to failure. Class management is the first step...it is a priority for me. I cannot teach with any kind of hissing in class. So, if things get messy or they misbehave, I may forsake communicative teaching activities because they may not work with students who act like that.

Interviewer: How do you see the policy of English language teaching in public schools and the curriculum imposed by the ministry according to this policy?

Informant: I think the process of education in Egypt is so confused and so perplexed. I think it is a failure.

Interviewer: What about management...your direct and indirect management and its role in your job?

Informant: I think the management is something artificial. It is just ...they cannot follow the teacher inside the class. The most important thing to them is to put a teacher inside the class. What is the teacher doing inside the class does not concern them. Inspectors come to school to sign that they visited the school and they put the signature and the date of the visit and something like that. They might visit the class or two classes and then leave the school. Most inspectors do not have any kind of conscience in their work. I think the inspector's visit to me inside the class is the worst class to me because I follow the rules of teaching in this class. I know that he has certain criteria in his mind, and I try to apply these criteria in the class. All the students do not understand what is happening because these criteria are against the process of teaching, but I have to do it his or her way. The management ..to the management the most conscientious and hard-working teachers are those who get up early and sign at the appropriate time and leave the school at the appropriate time and they do not care about what happens inside the class. For them, the teacher is just an employee that must be there on time and leave on time. I think it is even worse than that. They put teachers inside the classes to stop noise and take attendance...and I can do whatever I want inside the class. I can tell jokes inside the class. Some teachers at a preparatory school have lunch inside the class.

Appendix G - Sample Coding using MAXQDA (interview)

<p>..favoring students' participation</p> <p>..asking students to correct</p> <p>..assuring understanding</p> <p>..favoring interaction</p>	<p>26 A: And what methodology you usually adopt in most of those lessons?</p> <p>27 L: I love to make students come up with what makes me work. I think with them in a loud voice..by the way for example if I explain a rule this is what I always do..I explain the rule..and make a question or two and I deliberately say wrong answers to those questions and let them correct me, and there are many people who would not think and would say that the teacher said so and so..which means it is right..so I assure understanding by doing something like that. I make them come up with questions. I love interaction so much..as a teacher in class..there should be interaction because we have experienced the method of lecturing before as learners ..no..it is over and it is not suitable for this age. Kids now are aware and they understand the difference.</p>
<p>..group work</p> <p>time constraints</p> <p>distinguishing girls as students</p> <p>..having to finish the syllabus</p> <p>..doing activities out of class time</p> <p>..using role play</p> <p>distinguishing girls as students</p> <p>time constraints</p> <p>..assuring managers</p> <p>recognizing social media</p> <p>frustrating moments</p> <p>frankness_focus</p> <p>Students' Absenteeism</p> <p>..recognition from students</p>	<p>28 A: So, how often does this happen in your classes? I mean do you usually act as a facilitator and let them do things on their own?</p> <p>29 L: I always do this at the time of practice using the workbook. I divide them into groups of five or six and assign a leader who is usually higher in level and she would correct their mistakes in a practice test from the workbook. But as you know unfortunately the time allocated for the usual period is not enough for doing all what you need to do with the textbook and the workbook, and I am committed to a curriculum I have to finish. If I finish lessons according to the imposed plan and I have extra periods...that would be a good opportunity for more group work and interactive activities and similar things. As for role play, I ask them to do it in the school broadcast. I even made them do a short play in the morning broadcast. It was a simplified version of a Shakespearean play and I used some extracts from it. It was wish classes of girls only..who are usually more active than boys and they want to do more interesting things. The time in periods do not give much room for such activities so I do it at other times like the broadcast time..it was something beautiful and the school management videotaped it and posted it on their page on Facebook and it had its good impact even on the local administration...thank God.</p> <p>30 A: Can you remember a situation when you felt so efficient and successful as a teacher? What happened that made you feel like that?</p> <p>31 L: The girls of third year preparatory..this year..frankly..in the first semester. It was the first time I taught third year preparatory as I had not taught that year before. At the beginning of the year, most of them did not show up. You know third year students and secondary school students do not go to school basically. Thank God..I remember very well that the few students showed up in the first week. In the end of the semester..there was a reasonable number of students keen on coming to class everyday. The class size is usually 60 or so. Around twenty to thirty girls in the class</p>

Appendix H - Sample Coding System (MAXQDA)

Code System		Code System	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▼ <input type="checkbox"/> teacher status and respect 2 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> teacher's reputation 1 <input type="checkbox"/> teacher's authority 2 <input type="checkbox"/> parents' complaints 2 <input type="checkbox"/> consequences of prohibiting beati... 1 <input type="checkbox"/> politics 1 <input type="checkbox"/> recognition from society 1 <input type="checkbox"/> financial status 1 <input type="checkbox"/> sympathy with teachers 1 ▼ <input type="checkbox"/> developing habits 1 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> caring for others 1 <input type="checkbox"/> being reserved 1 <input type="checkbox"/> giving instructions to others 1 <input type="checkbox"/> dealing better with society 1 <input type="checkbox"/> being more patient 1 <input type="checkbox"/> being calmer 1 > <input type="checkbox"/> frustratig moments 8 <input type="checkbox"/> recognizing social media 2 > <input type="checkbox"/> distinguishing girls as students 5 > <input type="checkbox"/> complaining about time 3 > <input type="checkbox"/> Teaching methodology 11 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> frankness_focus 8 <input type="checkbox"/> Disinclination to English-speaking cut... 2 <input type="checkbox"/> linking understanding to exams 1 <input type="checkbox"/> comprehending English 1 <input type="checkbox"/> Not memorizing English 1 <input type="checkbox"/> past teacher's methodology 2 <input type="checkbox"/> sharing love for language 1 <input type="checkbox"/> loving the language 3 > <input type="checkbox"/> liking English as a learner 30 > <input type="checkbox"/> hating English as a learner 3 <input type="checkbox"/> comparing colleagues 1 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▼ <input type="checkbox"/> Worst vocab strategy 0 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Using Arabic 25 <input type="checkbox"/> visual aids 12 > <input type="checkbox"/> repetition without use 10 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Word lists 9 <input type="checkbox"/> brainstorming 7 <input type="checkbox"/> cooperative learning 7 <input type="checkbox"/> listening 5 <input type="checkbox"/> focus on form without meaning 4 ▼ <input type="checkbox"/> individual work 3 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> individual activities. 1 <input type="checkbox"/> using E-E dictionary 3 <input type="checkbox"/> giving meaning directly 2 <input type="checkbox"/> definition in English 2 <input type="checkbox"/> Lecturing 2 <input type="checkbox"/> vocabulary notebook 1 <input type="checkbox"/> Problem solving 1 <input type="checkbox"/> speaking 1 ▼ <input type="checkbox"/> Best vocab strategy 0 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> vocabulary notebook 4 <input type="checkbox"/> use a dictionary 2 ▼ <input type="checkbox"/> through listening 2 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> through listening 1 <input type="checkbox"/> word lists 7 ▼ <input type="checkbox"/> Defining in E 9 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> presentation 1 <input type="checkbox"/> write/say/explain 1 <input type="checkbox"/> Through reading 2 <input type="checkbox"/> using tablets/computers 4 > <input type="checkbox"/> Brainstorming 11 ▼ <input type="checkbox"/> use in writing 19 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> giving examples 9 	

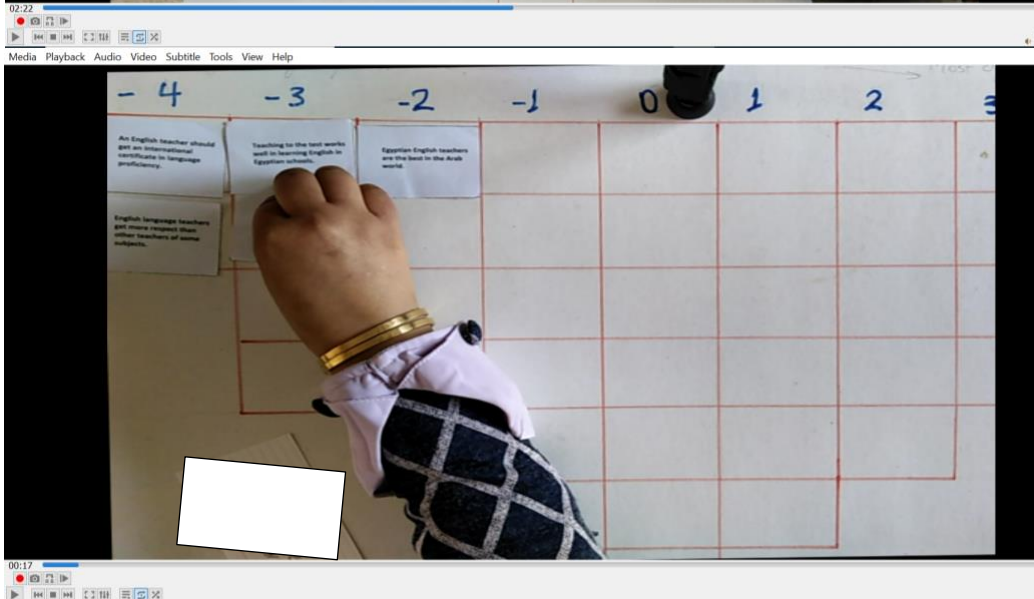
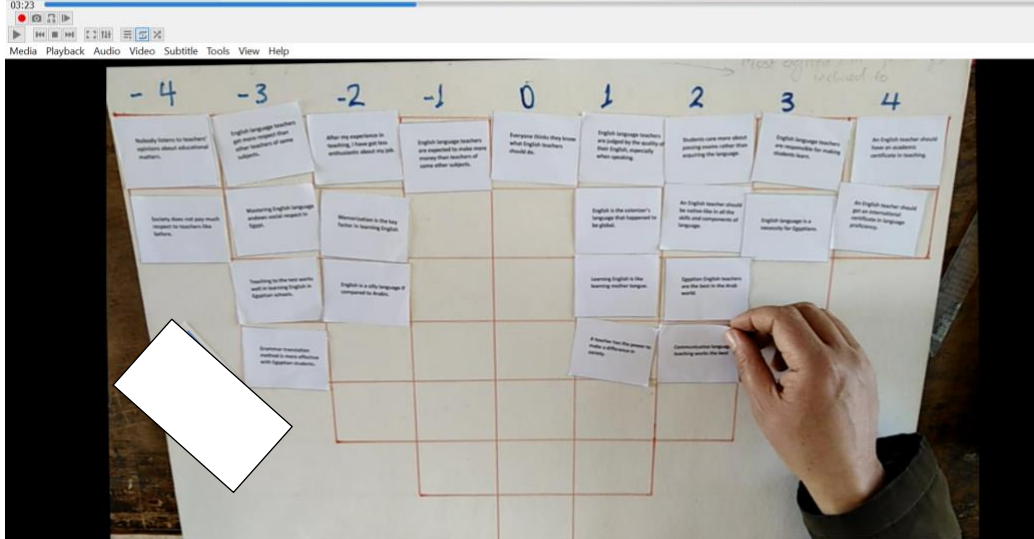
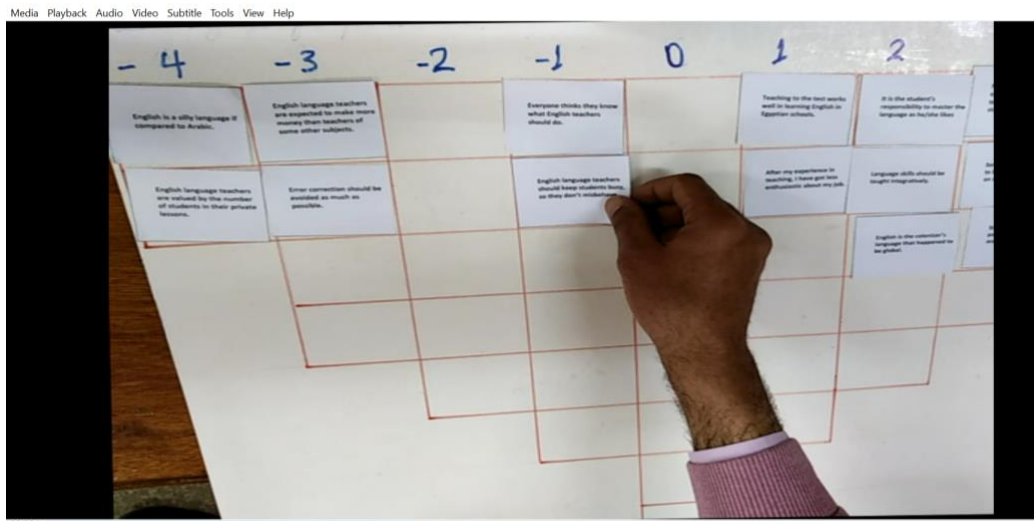
Appendix I - Sample Class Observation

The following excerpt is from the observation session of MT6 teaching 4th year primary school students.

T: Shhhhhhh! Do you all have the textbook (in Arabic). Open the book (in Arabic). Page 68.
SS: (Talking loudly)
T: No side talking (in Arabic)
T: In the kitchen /in za kitshin/ (Reading the title of the lesson in English and repeating it for 7 times)
SS: I-N THE kitchen /in za kitshin/ (repeating after the teacher each time)
T: Kitchen (repeating it for four times)
SS: Kitchen (repeating after the teacher each time)
T: Now look at the top of the page (in Arabic) the first word we have is (in Arabic) chocolate /shoklit/ (repeating it in English for four times)
SS: Chocolate /shoklit/ (repeating after the teacher each time)
T: Do not start repeating until I finish saying the word (in Arabic)
T: Chip /chib/ (repeating it in English for four times).
SS: Chip/chib/ (repeating after the teacher each time)
T: Cookie (repeating it in English for four times)
SS: Cookie (repeating after the teacher each time)
T: Do not start repeating until I finish saying the word (in Arabic)
SS: (follow the instruction)
T: Cereal (repeating it in English for four times)
SS: Cereal (repeating after the teacher each time)
T: Chocolate, chip, cookie
SS: Chocolate, chip, cookie (repeating after the teacher)
T: chocolate, chip, cookie.
SS: Chocolate, chip, cookie (repeating after the teacher)
T: Chocolate
SS: Chocolate
T: Chip:
SS: Chip
T: Cookie
SS: Cookie
T: strawberry /strobri/ (repeating two times)
SS: strawberry /strobri/ (repeating after the teacher each time)

Appendix J - Screenshots from Q sort Hand Movement Videos

The white rectangles in the images are used to hide the respondent's biodata.



A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y
	35-16. Egyptians are good at learning foreign languages.	0.125	0.240	0.376	0.235	0.106	0.004	0.419	0.467	0.062	0.039		0.169	0.319	0.044	0.002	0.354	0.056	0.233	0.341	0.338	0.251	0.197	0.014
	35-18. People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.	0.005	0.002	0.273	0.012	0.263	0.000	0.032	0.166	0.005	0.148	0.169		0.000	0.150	0.010	0.074	0.382	0.219	0.103	0.163	0.086	0.259	0.208
	35-19. It is better to learn English in an English-speaking country.	0.004	0.086	0.470	0.186	0.180	0.038	0.015	0.214	0.004	0.300	0.319	0.000		0.025	0.327	0.340	0.174	0.136	0.078	0.155	0.123	0.033	0.083
	35-20. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.	0.040	0.373	0.328	0.231	0.007	0.161	0.089	0.324	0.109	0.038	0.044	0.150	0.025		0.049	0.462	0.459	0.164	0.058	0.379	0.327	0.442	0.362
	35-24. Learners' errors should be corrected as soon as they are made in order to prevent the formation of bad habits.	0.349	0.015	0.048	0.017	0.081	0.054	0.308	0.286	0.065	0.024	0.002	0.010	0.327	0.049		0.000	0.481	0.006	0.017	0.382	0.266	0.327	0.167
	35-26. The primary focus of English language programs should be on the development of vocabulary and knowledge of grammar.	0.037	0.011	0.004	0.087	0.471	0.423	0.211	0.251	0.019	0.132	0.354	0.074	0.340	0.462	0.000		0.000	0.001	0.009	0.014	0.059	0.021	0.171
	35-27. The role of English teachers is to help students learn what is in the textbook.	0.183	0.131	0.133	0.081	0.053	0.453	0.071	0.074	0.014	0.478	0.066	0.382	0.174	0.469	0.481	0.000		0.000	0.007	0.385	0.011	0.001	0.427
	35-30. The focus of assessment in English language programs should be on students' knowledge of vocabulary and grammar.	0.120	0.000	0.000	0.005	0.158	0.193	0.446	0.002	0.000	0.076	0.233	0.219	0.136	0.164	0.006	0.001	0.000		0.001	0.000	0.077	0.008	0.109
	35-31. Teaching is a talent rather than a matter of learning some teaching skills.	0.147	0.015	0.007	0.107	0.369	0.021	0.251	0.382	0.013	0.219	0.341	0.103	0.078	0.058	0.017	0.009	0.007	0.001		0.103	0.000	0.000	0.134
	35-32. Teachers know better about what works in their contexts than those who give workshops on improving teaching and learning.	0.227	0.388	0.234	0.042	0.428	0.490	0.425	0.000	0.082	0.483	0.338	0.183	0.155	0.379	0.382	0.014	0.385	0.000	0.103		0.341	0.129	0.013
	35-34. I teach according to what I think is right not what experts suggest.	0.456	0.383	0.225	0.026	0.097	0.051	0.074	0.210	0.162	0.283	0.281	0.068	0.123	0.327	0.266	0.059	0.011	0.077	0.000	0.341	0.000	0.000	0.330
	35-36. When in the classroom, rules and behavior matter more than what students learn.	0.229	0.124	0.082	0.422	0.165	0.427	0.030	0.250	0.005	0.044	0.197	0.259	0.033	0.442	0.327	0.021	0.001	0.008	0.000	0.129	0.000		0.001
	35-37. In some situations, I avoid certain teaching methods I believe are more useful.	0.153	0.288	0.281	0.279	0.127	0.171	0.020	0.112	0.069	0.266	0.014	0.208	0.083	0.362	0.167	0.171	0.427	0.109	0.134	0.013	0.330	0.001	

a
Determinant
= .005

Appendix L - Information Sheet and Consent Form

Reference Number: 18/030
Approved on *March 20, 2018*



Teacher Cognition in EFL Teaching: A Study of Non-native English-speaking Teachers of English for Arabic-speaking Students in Egypt with a Particular Focus on Vocabulary

INFORMATION SHEET FOR TEACHER PARTICIPANTS

Thank you for showing an interest in this project. Please read this information sheet carefully before deciding whether or not to participate. If you decide to participate we thank you. If you decide not to take part, there will be no disadvantage to you, and we thank you for considering our request.

What is the Aim of the Study?

This project is part of the requirements for a PhD study in English language and linguistics. The aim of the study is to explore English teachers' beliefs and understandings of teaching English as a foreign language with a particular focus on teaching vocabulary to preparatory and secondary school students in Egypt. It hopes to uncover how teacher understandings and beliefs are shaped by social factors, how teacher beliefs match their practices, and whether this affects student learning and understandings of English language and its vocabulary.

What Type of Participants are being sought?

Participating teachers must be Egyptian English language teachers who have been teaching in Egyptian schools for five years or more. The anticipated number of participants is 100 teachers.

What will Participants be Asked to Do?

Should you agree to take part in this project, you will be asked to participate in the first phase of this study, and then to indicate whether you are willing to continue by doing one or more of the following activities. Your participation in one of the following is enough unless you are voluntarily willing to take part in another phase. You will indicate which phase you wish to participate in on the Consent Form.

Phase 1: Answer the questions included in the questionnaire (this can be done online or on paper as per your convenience). This will take around 30 minutes.

Phase 2: Participate in interviews. This will take around 60 minutes for each interview.

Phase 3: Participate in a Q-sort activity. This is an activity of sorting some common opinions and factual preferences in the order of your personal preferences. This will take around 20 minutes for each Q-sort activity. It is up to you to participate in one or more activities.

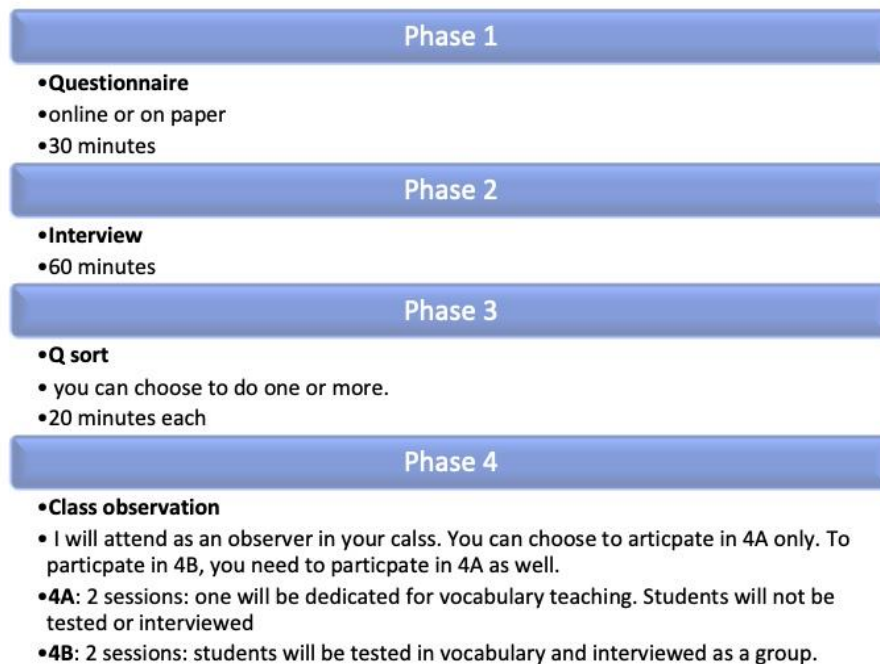
Phase 4A: Participate in 2 observation sessions during regular classes given by you as teacher of the class. One of those sessions should be dedicated to teaching vocabulary. I will just attend as a visitor and will not interfere with what you do in class. If you like to know how differences in your practice affect what students learn you may like to participate in Phase 4B

Phase 3: Participate in a Q- sort activity. This is an activity of sorting some common opinions and factual preferences in the order of your personal preferences. This will take around 20 minutes for each Q-sort activity. It is up to you to participate in one or more activities.

Phase 4A: Participate in 2 observation sessions during regular classes given by you as teacher of the class. One of those sessions should be dedicated to teaching vocabulary. I will just attend as a visitor and will not interfere with what you do in class. If you like to know how differences in your practice affect what students learn you may like to participate in Phase 4B

Phase 4B: Participate in 2 sessions that will include two short vocabulary tests and a group conversation with your students. Participating in phase 4A is a prerequisite for participating in this phase. Any of those procedures will not affect your students 'records or grades in any way. The average time will be around 50 minutes for each class time or as allocated by the school schedule plus 10-minute conversations with you after each session. You may share your lesson plans or notes related to your class with me if this is ok with you. The average time for the two vocabulary tests will be around 15 minutes for each. The group conversation with your students will take around 20 minutes.

The following diagram illustrates what is required from you as a participant and the average duration of each requirement. Please remember that you can participate in phase 1 only and then indicate if you are interested in taking part in other phases.



job title will be collected as this may be relevant to the research aims. Personal information that may identify you or connect you with the study will not be made public or published.

The collected information and data will help understand the beliefs and perceptions of English language teachers about English language, its skills and components, language learning and teaching, and how what teachers think, know and believe has its impact on education in general and language education in particular.

Only the researcher (Ahmed Tayel) and the supervisor (Dr Anne Feryok) will have access to all the data and information provided by participants. The data collected will be securely stored in such a way that only those mentioned above will be able to gain access to it. Data obtained as a result of the research will be retained for **at least 5 years** in secure storage. Any personal information held on the participants [such as contact details, audio or video tapes, after they have been transcribed etc,] may be destroyed at the completion of the research even though the data derived from the research will, in most cases, be kept for much longer or possibly indefinitely. You have the right of access to and correction of any personal information you provide.

Anonymity or Disclosure

The findings of the project may be published and will be available in the University of Otago Library (Dunedin, New Zealand) but every attempt will be made to preserve your anonymity.

In cases where you willingly provide your real name, contact details and other personal information, no one will have access to them except the researcher and the supervisor. Any published data will include pseudonyms. Your real names or trackable data about you will not be published.

Participants will have access to the findings of the data after the completion of the study. Each participant has the right to have an electronic copy of the findings upon request. If you chose to share your contact details with the researcher beforehand, you will be provided with a brief overview of the research findings and implications once the project is completed.

This project involves an open-questioning technique. This means that the general line of questioning includes topics about your beliefs about English language, its skills and components, learning and teaching English as well as contextual factors that affect the way you perceive all the previous aspects. The precise nature of the questions which will be asked have not been determined in advance but will depend on the way in which the interview develops. Consequently, although the University of Otago Human Ethics Committee is aware of the general areas to be explored in the interview, the Committee has not been able to review the precise questions to be used.

In the event that the line of questioning does develop in such a way that you feel hesitant or uncomfortable you are reminded of your right to decline to answer any particular question(s) and also that you may withdraw from the project at any stage without any disadvantage to yourself of any kind.

Can Participants Change their Mind and Withdraw from the Project?

You may withdraw from participation in the project at any time and without any disadvantage to yourself of any kind.

What if Participants have any Questions?

If you have any questions about our project, either now or in the future, please feel free to contact either: -

Ahmed Tayel

and

Dr Anne Feryok

Department of English and Linguistics

Department of English and Linguistics

University phone Number: +6434798637

Email Address: tayah899@student.otago.ac.nz

Email Address: anne.feryok@otago.ac.nz

This study has been approved by the University of Otago Human Ethics Committee. If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of the research, you may contact the Committee through the Human Ethics Committee Administrator (ph +643 479 8256 or email gary.witte@otago.ac.nz). Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated and you will be informed of the outcomes.



Teacher Cognition in EFL Teaching: A Study of Non-native English-speaking Teachers of English for Arabic-speaking Students in Egypt with a Particular Focus on Vocabulary

CONSENT FORM FOR TEACHER PARTICIPANTS

I have read the Information Sheet concerning this project and understand what it is about. All my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I understand that I am free to request further information at any stage.

I know that: -

1. My participation in the project is entirely voluntary and anonymous.
2. I am free to withdraw from the project before its completion.
3. Personal identifying information such as my name, contact details, audio or video recordings may be destroyed at the conclusion of the project but any raw data on which the results of the project depend will be retained in secure storage for at least five years.
4. The following checked phase/phases of the study is/are the one/ones I choose to participate in. (Please check the phase or phases you are willing to take part in). Please note that if you choose to participate in Phase 4A, you need to participate in Phase 4A first.
 - Phase 1: The questionnaire
 - Phase 2: The interviews
 - Phase 3: The Q-sort activities (you can choose to do one or more of the activities at the time of participation)
 - Phase 4A: Two observation sessions (without vocabulary tests or group interviews with students)
 - Phase 4B: Two observation sessions (with vocabulary tests and group interviews with students)
5. This project involves an open-questioning technique. This means that some of the questions I will be asked were not prepared in advance. Those questions will generally include topics about learning English and its vocabulary. The precise nature of the questions which will depend on the way in which the interview develops. Consequently, although the University of Otago Human Ethics Committee is aware of the general areas to be explored in the interview, the Committee has not been able to review the precise questions to be used.
6. The findings of the project may be published and will be available in the University of Otago Library (Dunedin, New Zealand), but every attempt will be made to preserve my anonymity.

I agree to take part in this project.

.....
(Signature of participant)

.....
(Date)

.....
(Printed Name)

.....
Name of person taking consent

This study has been approved by the University of Otago Human Ethics Committee. If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of the research, you may contact the Committee through the Human Ethics Committee Administrator (ph +643 479 8256 or email gary.witte@otago.ac.nz). Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated and you will be informed of the outcome.

Appendix M - Permission to Use Questionnaire

Re: Requesting permission to use questionnaire



Marian Rossiter <marian.rossiter@ualberta.ca>

To: Ahmed Tayel; Cc: mabbott@ualberta.ca; ohtarien@hotmail.com

Dear Ahmed,
Thank you for your interest in our 2016 publication in TESL-EJ, *L2 Vocabulary Research and Instructional Practices: Where Are the Gaps?*

We have no objections to your use of this questionnaire for your study. Please simply acknowledge that you have adapted it with permission and cite the original source. If your findings are published, we would be very interested in receiving a link to the report.

We hope that your doctoral research goes very well.
Best wishes,
Marian Rossiter

Appendix N - Screenshot of the Online Version of the Questionnaire

Restart Survey

Go to Bookmark

Clear

Mobile view on

Tools v

Acted out the word using gestures. Never Rarely Sometimes Often

Discussed the underlying meaning of the word. (e.g., neck of a person/bottle/river = a skinny connecting part.) Never Rarely Sometimes Often

Identified the stress pattern of the word. Never Rarely Sometimes Often

Identified prefixes (un-, re-) or suffixes (-able, -tion). Never Rarely Sometimes Often


Used supplemental materials (i.e., materials other than those in the course textbook). Never Rarely Sometimes Often

Gave some different definitions of the word in English. Never Rarely Sometimes Often

Gave some different definitions of the word in Arabic. Never Rarely Sometimes Often

Taught the word in context. Never Rarely Sometimes Often

Taught conceptually related vocabulary. (e.g., food- fruit, vegetables, meat, bread, etc.) Never Rarely Sometimes Often



The screenshot shows a mobile interface with a time of 12:29. It displays the same questionnaire items as the desktop view, but with a different layout and a background image of a building.