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University
of Glasgow

Recontextualising Communicative Language Teaching
in Saudi Arabia

Ahmed Olayan R. Alharbi

B.A. (English Language Teaching), M.Ed. (TESOL)

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School of Education, College of Social Science
University of Glasgow

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Abstract

In 2004, a project spearheaded by the Saudi Arabian Government formed agreements with international companies to help develop Saudi English language skills so that the Saudi workforce could better meet international companies' needs. This new project mainly used the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach based on the concept of communicative competence. However, there are some issues with the implementation of this imported approach in terms of whether this new pedagogy fits the broader Saudi context and its pedagogic traditions. Findings of reviewed studies from various non-Western contexts show that there is often misunderstanding and resistance to CLT implementation, which may be related to a lack of teacher education in this area. This research addresses these issues as well as the lack of alignment with Saudi pedagogic culture and summative assessment, using a theoretical framework drawing on theories of communicative competence, Bernstein's theory of pedagogic discourse, Shulman's theory of teacher knowledges and Walsh's categories of interaction in language classes. This framework was used to analyse data generated from the English Language Teaching course textbooks now used across Saudi schools, and from interviews with the teachers and students who use it.

A typical unit from a middle school English Language standard textbook and the associated teacher guidance were analysed. Overall, the lesson designs outlined the possibility of communicative language teaching. Then qualitative case studies of four English teachers working in a middle school for boys were conducted using semi-structured interviews before and after classroom observations to explore teachers' different understandings about the concept and principles of CLT as recommended by their set textbook. In addition, focus group interviews with students elicited students' reflections on their experience of learning English.

The case studies demonstrated a gap between the recommended CLT-based curriculum and the teachers' pedagogic practices which reflected a more traditional method of the Grammar Translation Method (GTM). However, there was significant variation amongst the case studies reflecting residual practices and different approaches to the pedagogic content knowledge of language learning. The teacher interviews highlighted that the Saudi context is a pedagogic culture which is highly exam focused. Notably, the students' comments also aligned with this exam orientation, which suggests that the power and consensus surrounding this pedagogic nexus is reinforced not only by teachers but also by the students, making it the dominant mode

of pedagogy. In this way, the new curriculum and its emergent practices were working against a very different pedagogic culture. The CLT approach typically suggests pedagogy with weaker framing and C- in what Bernstein terms an “invisible” pedagogy. This would encourage students’ participation in weakly framed pedagogy, and a curriculum of C- that draws on students’ life experiences and common sense rather than technical rules or specialised knowledge. However, the official recontextualization field (ORF) of the textbook – though communicative in intent – is still carefully controlled and staged, and so can be understood to navigate a middle position between the Saudi context which typically favours very F+ and C+ in a visible pedagogy and the CLT approach. Overall, the teachers in all four cases constructed different relations with the students to that suggested by the CLT-aligned teacher’s book, as they all recontextualised the textbook material in activities with stronger framing that aligned with their pedagogic content knowledge and professional preferences. The conclusion argues that any imported approach such as CLT will inevitably be recontextualised to be more acceptable within the constraints and pedagogic culture of the particular context.

Table of Contents

| | |
|---|------|
| Abstract..... | ii |
| List of tables..... | xiv |
| Table of figures..... | xv |
| List of acronyms and abbreviations..... | xvii |
| Acknowledgements..... | xix |
| Author’s declaration..... | xx |
| Chapter 1: Research background..... | 1 |
| 1.1 Introduction..... | 1 |
| 1.2 History of English language teaching in Saudi Arabia..... | 1 |
| 1.3 SA Educational system and pedagogic culture..... | 5 |
| 1.3.1 SA classroom environment..... | 10 |
| 1.3.2 English textbooks..... | 11 |
| 1.3.3 Teacher education..... | 13 |
| 1.4 Research context — CLT in Saudi Arabia..... | 15 |
| 1.5 Research rationale..... | 16 |
| 1.5.1 Researcher initial personal reflection..... | 17 |
| 1.6 Research aim..... | 18 |
| 1.7 Research questions..... | 18 |
| 1.8 Thesis outline..... | 18 |
| Chapter 2: Literature review..... | 20 |

| | |
|---|----|
| 2.1 Introduction..... | 20 |
| 2.2 Language learning..... | 20 |
| 2.3 Teaching methodologies | 23 |
| 2.3.1 Grammar Translation Method..... | 23 |
| 2.3.2 Audio-lingual method | 25 |
| 2.3.3 Communicative learning | 27 |
| 2.3.4 Communicative language teaching (CLT) principles | 29 |
| 2.3.5 Critical appraisal of CLT | 33 |
| 2.4 CLT in the Saudi classroom..... | 39 |
| 2.5 Cultural differences..... | 40 |
| 2.5.1 Summary of the Saudi Arabian studies reviewed | 42 |
| 2.5.2 Summary of the international studies reviewed..... | 44 |
| 2.5.3 Misunderstanding of CLT..... | 46 |
| 2.5.4 Resistance to the concept | 48 |
| 2.5.5 Lack of use of L2 | 50 |
| 2.5.6 Student lack of language proficiency | 52 |
| 2.5.7 Teacher lack of language proficiency | 53 |
| 2.5.8 Student-teacher relationships | 54 |
| 2.5.9 Lack of alignment with exams | 55 |
| 2.5.10 Teacher education and continuing professional development challenges | 56 |
| 2.5.11 Practical difficulties | 57 |

| | |
|--|----|
| 2.5.12 Textbook and materials-related challenges..... | 58 |
| 2.6 Identifying the gap in the field of study..... | 59 |
| 2.7 Conclusion..... | 60 |
| Chapter 3: Theoretical framework..... | 61 |
| 3.1 Introduction..... | 61 |
| 3.2 Linguistic theory..... | 61 |
| 3.2.1 Saussure — <i>langue</i> and <i>parole</i> | 61 |
| 3.2.2 Chomsky — competence and performance..... | 61 |
| 3.2.3 Hymes — communicative competence..... | 63 |
| 3.2.4 Cummins — 2 categories of communicative competence (BICS and CALP)..... | 65 |
| 3.2.5 Canale and Swain — 4 categories of communicative competence..... | 68 |
| 3.2.6 Bachman — organizational and pragmatic language competence..... | 71 |
| 3.2.8 Walsh —interactional competence..... | 73 |
| 3.2.9 Summary of communicative competence theory development..... | 79 |
| 3.3 Day and Conklin’s adaptation of Shulman’s theory of teacher knowledge..... | 80 |
| 3.3.1 Pedagogic nexus..... | 82 |
| 3.3.2 Teacher beliefs..... | 84 |
| 3.4 Bernstein — pedagogic discourse..... | 85 |
| 3.6 Overview of theoretical framework..... | 94 |
| Chapter 4: Methodology..... | 96 |
| 4.1 Introduction..... | 96 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| 4.2 Paradigms..... | 96 |
| 4.3 Methods overview..... | 98 |
| 4.3.1 Case study..... | 99 |
| 4.3.1.1 Samples..... | 101 |
| 4.3.2 Interviews..... | 101 |
| 4.3.3 Transcription and translation..... | 107 |
| 4.3.4 Checking the research instruments..... | 109 |
| 4.3.5 Classroom observation..... | 110 |
| 4.3.6 The analysis..... | 113 |
| 4.3.7 Textbook analysis..... | 116 |
| 4.3.8 Ethical considerations..... | 116 |
| Chapter 5: Textbook analysis..... | 118 |
| 5.1 Introduction..... | 118 |
| 5.2 The textbook..... | 118 |
| 5.3 Criteria for textbook analysis..... | 120 |
| 5.4 Analysis of the textbook..... | 122 |
| 5.4.1 Lesson 1 – Under the Sea (seven activities)..... | 127 |
| 5.4.2 Lesson 2 – Plans for the future (seven activities, as in Lesson 1)..... | 134 |
| 5.4.3 Lesson 3 – An amazing story (four activities)..... | 141 |
| 5.4.4 Lesson 4 – Saudi Review (four activities)..... | 143 |
| 5.5 Conclusion..... | 147 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Chapter 6: Fahad Case | 149 |
| 6.1 Introduction..... | 149 |
| 6.2 Classroom experience | 149 |
| 6.3 Textbook and teacher’s book..... | 150 |
| 6.4 Fahad’s classroom – observations | 153 |
| 6.4.1 Lesson summary | 153 |
| 6.4.2 Lesson phases..... | 154 |
| 6.4.3 The instructional/regulative discourse | 157 |
| 6.5 CLT in the lesson | 159 |
| 6.6 Use of L1/L2..... | 163 |
| 6.7 Assessable practices..... | 166 |
| 6.8 Conclusion | 169 |
| Chapter 7: Talal Case..... | 171 |
| 7.1 Introduction..... | 171 |
| 7.2 Classroom experience | 171 |
| 7.3 Textbook and teacher’s book..... | 172 |
| 7.4 Talal’s classroom – observations | 174 |
| 7.4.1 Lesson phases..... | 174 |
| 7.4.2 The instructional/regulative discourse | 178 |
| 7.5 CLT in the lesson | 181 |
| 7.6 Use of L1/L2..... | 184 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| 7.6.1 Language being elicited/modelled | 184 |
| 7.6.2 Distance between L1 and L2..... | 185 |
| 7.7 Assessable practices..... | 186 |
| 7.8 Conclusion | 188 |
| Chapter 8: Ali Case..... | 189 |
| 8.1 Introduction..... | 189 |
| 8.2 Classroom experience | 189 |
| 8.3 Textbook and teacher’s book | 190 |
| 8.4 Ali’s classroom – observations | 193 |
| 8.4.1 Lesson summary | 193 |
| 8.4.2 Lesson phases..... | 194 |
| 8.4.3 The instructional and regulative discourses | 198 |
| 8.5 CLT in the lesson | 200 |
| 8.6 L1 and L2 use in the classroom | 204 |
| 8.7 Assessment practices | 206 |
| 8.8 Conclusion | 208 |
| Chapter 9: Tariq Case | 210 |
| 9.1 Introduction..... | 210 |
| 9.2 Classroom experience | 210 |
| 9.3 Textbook and teacher’s book..... | 211 |
| 9.4 Tariq’s classroom – observations..... | 214 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| 9.5 Lesson summary | 214 |
| 9.6 Lesson phases..... | 215 |
| 9.7 The instructional and regulative discourse | 219 |
| 9.5 CLT in the lesson | 220 |
| 9.6 L1/L2 use in the classroom | 224 |
| 9.7 Assessable practices..... | 226 |
| 9.8 Conclusion | 229 |
| Chapter 10: Discussion and Conclusion | 231 |
| 10.1 Introduction..... | 231 |
| 10.1.1 Researcher final personal reflection..... | 231 |
| 10.2 CLT in theory..... | 234 |
| 10.2.1 Demands of GTM and ALM and CLT | 234 |
| 10.2.2 CLT principles and communicative competence..... | 235 |
| 10.3 CLT in practice | 235 |
| 10.3.1 Non-western and Saudi literature..... | 235 |
| 10.3.2 Teacher knowledge and beliefs..... | 237 |
| 10.3.3 Bernstein, visible and invisible pedagogies | 239 |
| 10.4 CLT recontextualised..... | 241 |
| 10.4.1 Pedagogic Recontextualization Field (PRF) of CLT | 241 |
| 10.4.2 Walsh – modes and features of interaction..... | 243 |
| 10.4.3 Kumaravadivelu on postmethod approach..... | 245 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| 10.5 Addressing the research sub-questions | 246 |
| 10.5.1 RSQ 1: how do Saudi textbooks reflect CLT principles?..... | 246 |
| 10.5.2 RSQ 2: what do teachers understand about CLT? | 247 |
| 10.5.3 RSQ 3: what are the challenges and constraints with regard to implementing CLT? | 247 |
| 10.5.4 RSQ 4: what advantages and disadvantages do the teachers associate with CLT? | 249 |
| 10.6 Contribution to the field..... | 249 |
| 10.6.1 Theoretical contribution..... | 249 |
| 10.6.2 Methodological contribution..... | 253 |
| 10.7 Addressing the overarching research question: how does CLT fit into the pedagogic culture of Saudi Arabia? | 254 |
| 10.8 Limitations | 256 |
| 10.8.1 Time and Space..... | 256 |
| 10.8.2 Setting and Participants..... | 257 |
| 10.9 Future research..... | 258 |
| 10.9.1 Different setting | 258 |
| 10.9.2 CLT in online classes..... | 259 |
| 10.9.3 Linking formative and summative assessment | 259 |
| 10.9.4 Focus on curriculum and textbook reform..... | 259 |
| 10.9.5 Focus on student participants..... | 260 |
| 10.9.6 Focus on teacher education..... | 260 |
| 10.10 Implications for policy and practice | 260 |

| | | |
|---------|--|-----|
| 10.10.1 | Recontextualising CLT | 260 |
| 10.10.2 | Aligning curriculum and assessment | 261 |
| 10.10.3 | Initial Teacher Education and Continuing Professional Development..... | 261 |
| 10.10.4 | Contribution of CLT to ELT in Saudi Arabia..... | 262 |
| | Bibliography | 265 |
| | Appendices..... | 276 |
| | Appendix A: Plain Language Statement..... | 276 |
| | Teachers | 276 |
| | Students/ Parents..... | 279 |
| | Appendix B: Consent Forms..... | 281 |
| | Teachers | 281 |
| | Students/ Parents..... | 282 |
| | Appendix C: Prepared Semi-Structured Interview Questions | 283 |
| | Teachers | 283 |
| | Students..... | 284 |
| | Appendix D: Textbook Extracts | 285 |
| | Appendix D-1: <i>Lift Off 6</i> , Unit 2..... | 285 |
| | Appendix D-2: <i>Full Blast 5</i> , Lesson 1c, ‘Be Creative’ | 293 |
| | Appendix D-3: <i>Full Blast 1</i> , Lesson 3, ‘Numbers’ | 295 |
| | Appendix D-4: <i>Full Blast 5</i> , Lesson 1a, ‘Let’s Meet Up’ | 297 |
| | Appendix D-5: <i>Full Blast 3</i> , Lesson 1c, ‘My Style’ | 299 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Appendix E: Teacher’s Book Extracts..... | 301 |
| Appendix E-1: <i>Lift Off 6, Teacher’s Book</i> , ‘Contents’ | 301 |
| Appendix E-2: <i>Lift Off 6, Teacher’s Book</i> , ‘How Fast Should You Teach?’ | 304 |
| Appendix E-3: <i>Lift Off 6, Teacher’s Book</i> , ‘Unit 2..... | 305 |
| Appendix E-4: <i>Full Blast 5, Teacher’s Book</i> , Lesson 1c, ‘Be Creative’ | 313 |
| Appendix E-5: <i>Full Blast 1, Teacher’s Book</i> , Lesson 3, ‘Numbers’ | 315 |
| Appendix E-6: <i>Full Blast 5, Teacher’s Book</i> , Lesson 1a, ‘Let’s Meet Up’ | 316 |
| Appendix E-7: <i>Full Blast 3, Teacher’s Book</i> , Lesson 1c, ‘My Style’ | 318 |
| Appendix F: Notes for analysis of 4 lessons..... | 320 |
| Appendix G: Notes on first interview (with Talal)..... | 325 |
| Appendix H: Notes on last interview (with Tariq) | 326 |
| Appendix J: Notes on student focus groups..... | 327 |

List of tables

| | |
|---|-----|
| Table 1: Summary of Studies in South Arabian Context..... | 43 |
| Table 2: Summary of Studies in International Context | 44 |
| Table 3: Walsh — Theory of Modes | 75 |
| Table 4: Typical Interactions of Language Pedagogies..... | 78 |
| Table 5: Criteria from Walsh and Bernstein..... | 115 |
| Table 6: Textbook Analysis Criteria..... | 121 |
| Table 7: Lesson 1 Activity C — gap filling..... | 130 |
| Table 8: Lesson 4 Activity A – stress & syllables | 144 |
| Table 9: Summary of Criteria in Lessons 1-4 Activities A-F..... | 147 |

Table of figures

| | |
|--|-----|
| Figure 1. Elements of Chomsky’s theory of linguistics..... | 62 |
| Figure 2. Communicative competence of Hymes..... | 64 |
| Figure 3. BICS and CALP | 66 |
| Figure 4. Communicative competence of Canale and Swain | 68 |
| Figure 5. Bachman's Model (adapted from Bachman, 1990, pp. 84-87)..... | 72 |
| Figure 6. Teacher Knowledge (adapted from Day & Conklin, 1992, p.40) | 80 |
| Figure 7. Classification and framing (adapted from Bernstein, 1990, p.205) | 86 |
| Figure 8. Message Systems (adapted from Bernstein, 2003, p.77)..... | 90 |
| Figure 9. Pedagogic Discourse (adapted from Bernstein, 2000, p.13) | 91 |
| Figure 10. Three Rules (adapted from Bernstein, 2000, p.28) | 91 |
| Figure 11. Pedagogic device (adapted from Bernstein, 2000)..... | 93 |
| Figure 13. Lesson 1 – Saudi Stars – Activity A..... | 124 |
| Figure 14. Lesson 2 – Different ways of shopping – Activity A..... | 125 |
| Figure 15. Lesson 3 – An amazing story – Activity A | 125 |
| Figure 16: Lesson 1 – Saudi Stars – Under the Sea – Activity A..... | 127 |
| Figure 17: Lesson 1 Activity D – speech bubbles | 131 |
| Figure 18: Lesson 2 Activity A – true or false..... | 134 |
| Figure 19: Lesson 2 – Plans for the Future – Activity A..... | 135 |
| Figure 20: Lesson 2 Activity B — correcting statements..... | 135 |
| Figure 21: Lesson 2 Activity C — gap filling | 136 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| Figure 22: Lesson 2 Activity F — writing sentences | 138 |
| Figure 23: Lesson 2 Activity G — writing vocabulary | 139 |
| Figure 24: Lesson 3 – An amazing story – Activity A | 141 |
| Figure 25: Lesson 3 Activity D — gap filling | 143 |
| Figure 26: Lesson 4 – Saudi Review – Activity A | 144 |
| Figure 27: Lesson 4 Activity C — vocabulary | 146 |

List of acronyms and abbreviations

| | |
|---------------|---|
| ALM | audio-lingual method |
| ARAMCO | Arabian-American oil company |
| BICS | basic interpersonal communicative skills |
| C | classification |
| C- | weaker classification |
| C+ | stronger classification |
| CALP | cognitive academic language proficiency |
| CD | compact disk |
| CK | content knowledge |
| CLT | communicative language teaching |
| CPD | continuing professional development |
| EFL | English as a foreign language |
| ELT | English language teaching |
| ESP | English for specific purposes |
| F | framing |
| F- | weaker framing |
| F+ | stronger framing |
| GTM | grammar translation method |
| IC | interactional competence |
| ICC | intercultural communicative competence |
| ID | instructional discourse |
| Int. | interview |
| IRF | teacher initiation, student response, teacher feedback. |
| L2 | target language |
| Obs | observation |
| ORF | official recontextualizing field |
| PCK | pedagogic content knowledge |
| PD | pedagogic discourse |
| Ph.D. | doctor of philosophy |
| PK | pedagogic knowledge |
| PRF | pedagogic recontextualizing field |
| RD | regulative discourse |
| RSQ | research sub-questions |

| | |
|--------------------|------------------------------|
| S1, S2 etc. | students in excerpts |
| SA | Saudi Arabia |
| SETT | evaluation of teacher talk |
| TBLT | task-based language teaching |
| TKB | teacher knowledge base |
| UK | United Kingdom |
| US | United States |
| VPN | virtual private network |
| WTC | willingness to communicate |
| WW1 | first world war |

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Author's declaration

I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, that this dissertation is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at the University of Glasgow or any other institution.

Printed Name: *Ahmed Alharbi*

Signature: _____

Chapter 1: Research background

1.1 Introduction

The English language has become very important in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (SA) with a growing number of Saudi citizens choosing to learn it for various economic, political, professional and personal reasons. However, studies on English outcomes highlighted problems with language capability: for example, “Alsubahi (2001) indicates that 60% of students sample from five universities passed their final English examination with very low achievement standard” (Abahussain & Ahmed, 2019, p.116 referring to Alsubahi, 2001). Therefore, the government of SA, through the Ministry of Education, has reformed the school curriculum in an attempt to improve the teaching of English. A key part of this effort is the implementation of communicative language teaching (CLT), but much of the research conducted in the Kingdom suggests that the implementation of CLT has largely failed (Abahussain, 2016, p.30; Al-Nasser, 2015; Al-Seghayer, 2014; Batawi, 2007). This chapter presents the context of my research, first by outlining the uneven history of English teaching in SA, then describing the highly centralised education system in the Kingdom in terms of typical schools, classrooms, teachers, students and textbooks. This is followed by a discussion of the more conservative English teaching methodologies currently practised in SA schools. The chapter finishes by outlining the aims of the research, along with the research question and sub-questions.

1.2 History of English language teaching in Saudi Arabia

In this section, I discuss the Saudi history of English language learning and how the relationship with English has changed over time from it being perceived as a threat to the development of a more instrumental view. The discussion considers the government investment in the official policy that aims to build English language competence in the SA population and how the core curriculum in secondary and tertiary education has become a key item on the government agenda.

Rugh (2002, p.40) points out that, during the 600 years of Ottoman rule, ending just after WW1, a number of merchants making pilgrimages to Mecca chose to start private schools in the Hijaz region, in the western part of Saudi Arabia. They opened private schools in different cities as well, such as Medina and Jeddah, where they taught some subjects in Arabic. Before 1925, the education system in Saudi Arabia was based on a system called

Kuttab, which is translated in English as “writers”. The students would go to their teacher, who was called *Mutaua*, or in English, “religious man”, to learn how to recite the holy book of Islam, the Qur’an, as well as how to read and write for Arabic. The strategy of teaching focused on memorisation and the use of drills. Modern Saudi Arabian schools still use the *Kuttab* strategy. Memorisation has similarly shaped traditional Saudi methods of teaching English. While memorisation was considered the only way to learn at the time, many families simply chose not to send their children to this type of school. At this stage, schools were only for boys; girls were not accepted in schools until 1960 (Al-Romi, 2001).

It is not known exactly when the English language entered the school curriculum in Saudi Arabia (Alshahrani, 2016). Some researchers suggest a date of 1924 for its entry into the system as an elementary school subject (Al-Shabbi, 1989; Baghdadi, 1982), while Niblock (2004) reports that it entered the system before the new kingdom was established in 1932. Al-Seghayer (2014) states that English entered the Saudi education system five years after the General Directorate of Education in Saudi Arabia was established in 1924.

Alshahrani (2016) points out that, in the 1920s, learning English was not a priority for Saudi citizens and the language did not have high social status. During this formative period, it was common for Saudi citizens to regard foreign languages as posing a threat to their mother tongue as well as to their identity, religion and customs (Alshahrani, 2016). According to some religious scholars at that time, learning a foreign language was forbidden. For example, one of the most famous Saudi scholars of Islam – Ibin Othaimain – said that teaching English to children is a real threat to their identity (Almograbi, 2017). He believed that if children learned English at a young age, this would negatively affect their relationship with their mother tongue, the language of the Qur’an. Therefore, in the early twentieth century, learning English was given little importance in Saudi society.

In 1925, even before the declaration of the unified Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in 1932, the government took responsibility for establishing schools for male Saudi citizens (Alrashidi, 2015). The Directorate of Education was established to manage schools and the education of Saudi citizens. At the time, few people were able to read and write in Saudi Arabia. The government did not have the financial resources to manage or design the curriculum, they adopted the Egyptian curriculum. These first Saudi schools were considered elementary schools (Al-Romi, 2001). Alrashidi (2015) states that the first elementary school opened in Saudi Arabia in 1930 for boys and in 1960, they admitted girls.

The discovery of oil and its value in the global market have become the biggest motivators for English language education in Saudi Arabia. After the discovery of oil in the early 1930s,

the world became more interested in Saudi Arabia, and the English language gradually grew in usefulness, both economically and socially (Zuhur, 2011). At that time, the use of English was specific to business contexts (Alshahrani, 2016). After the discovery of oil in the region, an Arabian-American oil company (ARAMCO) was founded in 1933. In its initial years, the company employed American managers, so Saudi citizens could only work for this company if they had good English skills (Elyas, 2014; Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). Therefore, English became a necessary competence for work placements; English was the language of the oil business (Al-Johani, 2009). This led to a significant shift in attitudes towards learning English, as workers in the oil industry were encouraged to acquire better English language skills to become more effective in their managerial and technical skills (Looney, 2004). It also became necessary to establish a language school featuring special classes focusing on teaching ARAMCO workers to communicate in their specific professional setting.

In 1940, ARAMCO established language schools for Saudi ARAMCO employees and for the general population. The schools mainly employed English teachers from the United States and the instruction focused on speaking and communication skills that helped Saudi workers communicate with the Americans; the language pedagogy was thus communicative in intent. The curriculum was an American curriculum, and the school provided four hours of English instruction every day (Alafaliq, 2003; Aramco, 2018). This might be considered a programme of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in today's terms. ARAMCO continues to dominate the Saudi economy and to have significant influence in Saudi society (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). The teaching programme has resulted in a radical societal change in attitudes towards using and teaching English. The ESP orientation has also spread to schools, colleges, public and private universities and other educational institutions related to health, administration and commerce in Saudi Arabia (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014).

The Saudi Arabian Directorate established its first school in Saudi Arabia in 1937 (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). Despite some Saudi citizens' continued belief that the English language was a threat, this was not reflected in official policy. By this time, the Government of Saudi Arabia regarded English as economically valuable (Al-Braik, 2007). It established the first secondary school for Saudi citizens in 1937 in the city of Mecca to prepare students to study abroad and win scholarships. Mahboob and Elyas (2014) suggest that this school was the first to officially teach English in Saudi Arabia. Mahboob and Elyas (2014) note that all subjects taught were based on the Egyptian curriculum except religious subjects, which were controlled and managed by the Saudi government. This school is regarded as the foundation of the modern secondary school in the country (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). Mitchell and Alfuraih (2017) point out that the number of students in attendance was estimated to be

around 2,000. The government recruited Egyptian teachers and used the Egyptian curriculum because, at the time, they were unable to establish their own curriculum. Saudi Arabia was a poor country and there were no Saudi scholars to teach and manage the education system. However, Al Thowaini (2015, p.11) asserts that the Egyptian curriculum was too specific to Egypt and not appropriate for the Saudi setting. Therefore, the authorities were forced to change the curriculum gradually, until in 1975 the government finally sought help from the Lebanese American University to produce a series of textbooks in maths and science. In 1958, the Saudi Ministry of Education implemented foreign language education in the official school curriculum for English (Al-Johani, 2009); (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014), beginning with teaching English at the middle level (grade seven to grade nine) (Al-Abdulkader, 1978).

However, English teaching was then removed from middle schools in 1969, so English was only offered at the secondary level for grades 10 to 12 (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). Since that time, English has gained more importance, resulting in the spread of English education to more schools. Presently, the Saudi Ministry of Education implements English language classes for children starting in grade 4 (Alfahadi, 2012). I will explain this current school structure further below.

Mahboob and Elyas (2014) view the 1970s in Saudi Arabia as a period when the motivation to learn English was largely instrumental, as the language was used widely in new Saudi companies. A significant number of workers from abroad worked in Saudi Arabia, contributing to developing and building the nation's infrastructure. Most of the workers were foreign nationals and some of them were from Arabic countries. The foreign nationals had an impact on the importance of teaching English in Saudi Arabia demonstrating a need to improve English because communicating with these workers was key to the Saudi economy (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014).

Most companies now require workers to have English language skills as one of their main requirements for employment. This English requirement has even spread to companies that do not primarily conduct business in English because it has become the sign of a qualified worker (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). Companies now require English as a requisite skill for applicants to be considered qualified for employment. In this way, English competence functions as a symbolic qualification whether these workers actually need it or not. This means in other times when English not to be used it can regard as to a symbolic reflection of education level This shift from regarding English language learning with suspicion to

noting its value in the job market is not universal. This means the use of English in Saudi society outside of professions was limited.

In summary, the above section has discussed the SA attitude towards English as progressing through different stages from the perception of threat to usefulness. Teaching English began in the 1920s under very different economic and cultural conditions from today. The discovery of oil was a major reason for the most dramatic change in English teaching policy. This took concrete form when the teaching of English was made compulsory in middle and secondary schools from the 1970s. However, this official policy still faces challenges. Since being made a compulsory subject at these school levels, English has been given more time and investment in the educational system, as discussed in the following section.

1.3 SA Educational system and pedagogic culture

This section describes the centralised educational system in Saudi Arabia, with its set textbooks and strict pedagogic culture, as well as the recent attempts at reform. Starting with the school system, then the centralised curriculum, the discussion moves to the recent reform of educational policy and curriculum, the role of the students in the classroom, the set textbooks, and the specifics and context of English teacher education.

There are three types of schools in Saudi Arabia: private international schools, private Saudi schools and state schools. The curriculum in international schools differs from one school to another, following diverse curricula from the United Kingdom (UK), the United States (US), Germany, India and other nations. English is used as the instructional language in all these international schools. International schools are primarily for expatriate students who live with their parents in Saudi Arabia, and they only recently allowed Saudi students to enrol. State schools are funded by the government, and most students in these schools are from the middle and working classes. Private Saudi schools primarily serve students from the upper, more affluent classes. The curriculum in private and state schools is the same (Hamdan, 2015).

In Saudi Arabia, the government funds education and so it is free for all children to attend all stages of state schooling. Education is compulsory for students in Saudi Arabia from age 6 (grade 1) to age 15 (grade 9) (Alshaikhli, 2016). Education in private and state schools is divided into three stages: primary, middle and secondary. The primary school stage of education is divided into six grades. Primary students are 6 to 12 years old. The subjects taught at the primary stage include Islam and religious identity, as well as basic academic subjects, such as mathematics, science and English. The second stage of education is the

middle school stage, which is divided into three grades. Middle school students range in age from 12 to 16 years old. At this stage, students are taught Islamic themes and other subjects, such as Mathematics, English, Arabic, Science, National Studies and Computing. The third stage is the secondary school stage, which is divided into three grades. Secondary students range in age from 17 to 19 years old and study the same subjects as the middle school students.

The school year, which runs from September until June, is divided into two semesters. The school week lasts for five days, from Sunday to Thursday, with Fridays and Saturdays constituting the school weekend (Hamdan, 2015). In Saudi Arabian schools, classes run from about 7.30 or 8 am until 1 pm. This also varies by season (for example, in summer, classes may begin at 7.45 am, while in winter, classes begin at 8 am). In general, students are taught seven lessons each day, with each lesson consisting of a different subject and lasting for 45 minutes. There is a 30-minute break after the third lesson and a break for prayers after the sixth lesson.

The curriculum and pedagogy in private and state schools are centrally controlled by the Ministry of Education and the General Presidency of Girls. As a result of this strict control, all these schools use the same teaching methods, the same kind of textbooks, and the same assessment techniques under the same educational policy. The Ministry of Education is responsible for creating the policies and strategies and educational planning and it also assumes responsibility for continuing professional development (CPD) and hiring teachers, as well as supplying textbooks to all the schools from grade 1 to grade 12 (Abahussain, 2016).

Education in Saudi Arabia is segregated by gender. Girls are always taught by female teachers and boys are taught by male teachers. Even though boys and girls are segregated in terms of their learning environments, they have the same educational support, funding and curricula. Generally, they learn the same subjects, except for in a few select cases (only boys are taught physical education and only girls are taught home economics). These differences stem from Saudi Arabia's Islamic identity and strict gender ideology.

Saudi Arabia had the same educational system from 1970 to 2001 and then it was reformed. Before 2001, the English language curriculum in public schools in Saudi Arabia was part of the Saudi General Curriculum, which was particularly focused on maintaining Islamic and Arabic identity. The policy document declared the following:

One of the goals of the education system in the Kingdom is to provide students with proficiency in English as a way of acquiring knowledge in the fields of

sciences, arts and new inventions, and of transferring knowledge and the sciences to other communities, in an effort to contribute to the spread of the faith of Islam and service to humanity (Ministry of Education, 2002) translated and cited by Wiseman and Davidson (2018, p.264)

The government policy is that English is instrumental in the acquisition and transfer of knowledge focused on English teaching in Saudi schools. The government's investment in English to further "the spread of the faith of Islam" could be understood as not only referring to converting non-Muslims but also to using English as a tool to teach Muslims who do not speak Arabic the principles of Islam. However, there was no clear guidance regarding how to implement this in English teaching or what the English syllabus should be (Elyas & Badawood, 2016). Furthermore, the intensive focus on Islamic and Arabic identity was opposed by Western pressure (Elyas & Badawood, 2016). The government faced accusations that such teaching produced hatred of others and even sowed the seeds of terrorism. There was a common critique that Saudi education misrepresented Western culture. As a response, the Saudi government planned to reform the education system to foster respect for differences in Western ideas as simple cultural differences and greater acceptance of non-Saudis (Elyas, 2014).

Another critique of the former educational system was that it did not prepare students with the language skills needed for either the domestic or the global market, nor meet students' technology requirements (Almalki, 2014). It was considered too traditional and no longer appropriate, with some educators arguing that there was also a need to improve student-teacher interactions rather than just lecturing (Elyas & Picard, 2013). Consequently, a decision was made by the Saudi authorities in 2000 to put in place an initially 10-year plan to reform the education system, starting from 2004 but not ending in 2014. The four years from the decision to the start of the implementation were to allow time for setting up the plan (Elyas & Badawood, 2016). This general education reform aimed at:

- Forming general curriculum and specialized material standards along with curriculum developments
- Building houses of expertise and instructional design centres.
- Developing primary levels curriculum that enhance stable personality and values and develop life skills for the learners.
- Developing secondary school curriculums to contribute to preparing for the labour market.

- Complete development of interactive digital curricula which balances between the presented amount of knowledge within learner's needs and requirements.
- Orientation of staff working in creating the curricula.
- Prepare experts in creating curriculums. (*Policy Document, post-2001: Ten Year Plan (2004-2014)*, MoE English version, cited in Elyas & Badawood, 2016, p.75)

The Saudi education system aimed to provide students with more appropriate contemporary education. The system now aimed to balance students' Islamic identity and Saudi cultural values with a more global identity.

Faruk (2014) asserts that one of the main reasons for the reform in the educational system was to gain educational capital in the "knowledge based economy" (Faruk, 2014, p.74). This goal was to harmonise with the wider Saudi Arabian initiative, *Vision 2030*:

Vision 2030 is built around three themes: A vibrant society, a thriving economy and an ambitious nation. This first theme is vital to achieving the vision and a strong foundation for economic prosperity. In the second theme, a thriving economy provides opportunities for all by building an education system aligned with market needs and creating economic opportunities for the entrepreneur, the small enterprise as well as the large corporation. The third theme is built on an effective, transparent, accountable, enabling and high performing government. (Saudi Gazette, 2016)

In another author's words: "we can say that Vision 2030 of Saudi Arabia focuses on vocational training, innovative advanced technologies, entrepreneurship, market needs, and multi-faceted education in Saudi Arabia" (Bhuiyan, 2016a, p.62), therefore, the Ministry of Education paid particular attention to improving the status of English, making it a key aspect of the government's general aims (Bhuiyan, 2016a). To guide this improvement, the Ministry developed twelve English curricular objectives in 2002:

1. develop their intellectual, personal and professional abilities.
2. acquire basic language skills in order to communicate with the speakers of English Language.
3. acquire the linguistic competence necessarily required in various life situations.
4. acquire the linguistic competence required in different professions.
5. develop their awareness of the importance of English as a means of international communication.
6. develop positive attitudes towards learning English.

7. develop the linguistic competence that enables them to be aware of the cultural, economical and social issues of their society in order to contribute in giving solutions.
8. develop the linguistic competence that enables them, in the future, to present and explain the Islamic concepts and issues and participate in spreading Islam.
9. develop the linguistic competence that enables them, in the future, to present the culture and civilization of their nation.
10. benefit from English-speaking nations, in order to enhance the concepts of international cooperation that develop understanding and respect of cultural differences among nations.
11. acquire the linguistic bases that enable them to participate in transferring the scientific and technological advances of other nations to their nation.
12. develop the linguistic basis that enables them to present and explain the Islamic concepts and issues and participate in the dissemination of them. (Policy for ELT 21 century for all school levels, MoE English version, cited in Elyas & Badawood, 2016, p.78)

I find it useful to divide the above objectives into those that deal overtly with language only, and those that address student awareness of, and attitude towards, English and cultural difference more broadly. Those dealing with language include 1, 2, and 3. The first objective covers basic skills, while the second aims to help students acquire these skills to use them functionally and meaningfully. This shows how the authorities are trying to change the perception of language learning as simply a school subject and an exam to pass. Rather, it recasts English as a set of skills for life in which students are expected to demonstrate both knowledge and mastery. The third objective, which links the use of language skills to students' future jobs, is similar to the second objective in that it addresses the meaningful use of language in the future. This third objective would suggest providing the students with specific types of authentic, work-related materials and tasks.

The next set of objectives (4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9) address awareness of, and attitude towards, English. The fourth concerns shaping the attitude of Saudi students towards English, which may link to the cultural status of English in Saudi Arabia, that is, whether it is still regarded as a threat to Saudi cultural values or not (Alshahrani, 2016). The fifth objective also reflects an increasing awareness of the use of English as a *lingua franca*. The fourth and fifth objectives might be addressed in the classroom with, for example, textbooks that focus on global English (Forman, 2014). The last four objectives, including number 7 which is about spreading Islam, relate to identity and English. A possible interpretation is that Saudis are

expected to set an example by going abroad and being decent, moral people according to the traditional Islamic understanding, but with broad religious knowledge. Objectives 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 relate to intercultural competence. The last objectives speak to wider purposes of education; they illustrate the role of English in the Saudi Arabian context and show that the goal is to create global citizens with strong local identities. The applications of cultural competence in this context are discussed more in depth in Chapter Three of this thesis in terms of cultural identity and intercultural engagement.

These English objectives were published in 2004 with a focus on improving the students' language. However, some reports show that Saudi students' outcomes are below what might have been expected. For example, Bhuiyan (2016b) argues that most Saudi students graduating from high school after studying English for 12 years tend not to be able to communicate in basic conversations, write basic sentences or understand even very simple texts. Bhuiyan (2016b) notes that educators have reported these problems with students' English language levels. The reason is that these students treat English as a subject to pass. This highlights assessment as a powerful motivational factor in the Saudi context.

In summary, considering the above features, the Saudi Arabian education system could be understood as a national curriculum that aims to implement a new philosophy of education embedded in specific objectives. English language teaching is part of this education system, but it has specific goals that are now officially based on the implementation of communicative language teaching (CLT). This approach was developed in the 1970s when language pedagogy was being reconfigured and reformed elsewhere in the world; it outlines set specific principles, activities and goals for language learning (Richards, 2006). This raises the question of whether these goals can be accomplished or not. In the following section, I describe the classroom environment in order to better understand the pedagogic culture in SA.

1.3.1 SA classroom environment

This section describes the typical Saudi teacher, the student role and the strict relations maintained between them.

In Saudi Arabia, students are expected to show respect by falling silent when a teacher enters the classroom and not talking while the teacher is talking; they are also expected to remain silent until they are given permission to talk. This expectation stems from the Saudi custom of showing respect by being quiet. Students must raise their hand and be called upon if they want to speak; otherwise, it is considered rude and students may be punished for speaking

out of turn. Some Saudi students are also afraid of making mistakes and being punished; these punishments may take the form of negative evaluations. The source of Saudi students' anxiety in the classroom was from fear of teachers' negative evaluations (Al-Khasawneh, 2016). This suggests that the Saudi classroom is a strict environment with low tolerance towards mistakes.

CLT aims to help students move from passive receivers to active learners in an environment where teaching is not undertaken to simply pass on information to the students, but to engage them in a variety of pedagogic projects and activities to facilitate the learning process. This type of setting raises questions about whether the strict pedagogic culture in the environment of the Saudi Arabian classroom, with students playing a submissive role and the teacher a very powerful one, fits with CLT goals or not. Such an environment may not encourage students to participate and use their English as it may inhibit them from taking risks while learning.

1.3.2 English textbooks

In order to develop the English curriculum, the Ministry of Education asked for help from companies from the US and European countries to design suitable English textbooks. Sami Al-Shuwaikh (Director of Tatweer Educational Services, tasked with the responsibility of developing the textbooks), commented on this aspect of the curriculum reform:

The textbooks design will aim to develop the four English skills, the communication skills by using different strategies and the textbooks will include 30% of the Saudi and Islamic identity and the rest will be from the global identity but content that does not conflict with the local identity (Al-Shuwaikh cited in Aleqtisadiah, 2013, online)

These textbooks are provided for free to all schools, public and private, which have the same students and teachers' books.

The textbooks follow the English curriculum, based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. There are six levels at the primary school stage, six levels at the middle school stage and six levels at the secondary school stage. They are used from the beginning of grade four in the primary stage. There are two English lessons a week in grades four to six. These six levels of English in primary school have to be covered, one level per semester. Thus, each grade involves two levels of English. The middle school has four lessons a week with six levels as well, one level per semester. The middle school has four

English lessons a week from grade 7 to grade 9. English is a compulsory subject from primary through to secondary school (Hamdan, 2015).

Communicative competence is one of the main goals of these textbooks (Abahussian, 2016). This goal is achieved through different types of communicative activities, such as role play, group work, group discussion and problem-solving, as recommended in the teacher guide. The textbooks also use different types of “real-world” materials, such as articles from magazines and newspapers, pictures, texts, reports, advertisements and posters from different places. Interaction is emphasised in these textbooks through communication and conversation based on both audio and written texts. The reason for these activities is to increase the students’ communicative ability both in class and outside the classroom.

The textbook packages include student textbooks, student workbooks, the teacher’s book and the CDs that come with all textbook series. The teachers and students are required to use these texts and cover all the lessons and activities in the books, and they also must use the audio CDs to cover some of the listening lessons. Posters, flash cards and other materials are also supplied for the teachers to use in the classroom. The textbooks have links to resources on a website that provides the teachers with guidance on using all the material and a digital version is provided to use with a projector in the classroom. The textbooks cover the four skills of listening, speaking, writing and reading. The teacher’s book explains the goals of each lesson and clarifies the skills and the functions of the grammar and vocabulary to be taught. Vocabulary is not presented in isolation as it is shown with sentences and examples for the teacher to use. Grammar is presented first as a model form in the teacher’s book, and the students are typically asked to use the model for grammar activities while the teacher monitors and assists the students during the activity. The teacher’s book clarifies how to facilitate student practice during class, and it includes ideas for additional activities for using English, such as role play and pair work.

In primary schools, the textbook series is called *Get Ready*. It is divided into six levels, each with ten units. Eight of these are for the basic structures and vocabulary. *Get Ready* aims to support the students’ basic language skills so they can start to use English to communicate their own meanings. Another general aim is to help the students with basic writing skills. The last aim is to increase the use of role play and group work in the early stages of using English in the classroom. In the middle schools, the textbook which follows on in the same series is called *Lift Off* and the *Full Blast* series is similar. They are both divided into six levels, each with ten units (*Lift Off*) or four modules (*Full Blast*) further divided into lessons focused on various aspects of language: such as function, vocabulary, independent learning

and study skills. In the secondary schools, the textbook is called *Flying High* and this also has six levels. Each level has eight units with different topics. Each unit has four lessons, the first focuses on communicative skills; the second and third analyse the new language the students are using; and the fourth, called “Saudi Arabia and the World”, focuses on SA identity and the globalised world. This textbook engages communicative activities such as role play and group work to use the language in the classroom. The next section will consider how teachers are educated to teach these textbooks.

1.3.3 Teacher education

This section describes the education the teachers have received in relation to teaching the new curriculum. To meet the growing need for English learning in Saudi Arabia, the Ministry of Education hired teachers from various countries, mostly other Arabic countries such as Egypt, Syria and Jordan (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014).

Saudi Arabia also needed Saudi teachers to teach English. Therefore, local universities opened English departments to teach four-year degree courses to meet the dramatic growth in demand for English language teachers. This was in the context of a wider Saudi development plan to improve higher education, as SA Deputy Minister at the time explained in *University World News*:

The new development plan focuses on developing the scientific workforce and enabling graduates with the necessary knowledge and education to apply it to entrepreneurship, an area where considerable progress remains to be made for the translation of knowledge into production. (Sawahel, 2010)

These factors increased the number of public universities from seven in 2005 to 27 in 2018. There are now also 11 private universities in Saudi Arabia that have their own English departments or English language centres (Al-Mahrooqi & Denman, 2014; Abahussain, 2016; Ministry of Education, 2018).

In order to become English language teachers, Saudi students can choose one of three pathways, two of which require a further course in general pedagogy after graduation. These pathways are offered by many universities, including King Abdulaziz University Imam Muhammad ibn Saud Islamic and University, King Fahd University, King Faisal University and Umm al-Qura University (Abahussain, 2016). These pathways are as follows: through an English language and literature department, through a language and translation department; or through an education department. Most English teachers in Saudi Arabia have

graduated from a department of language and literature because most of the local universities have these departments (Abahussain, 2016).

1. **English language and literature departments** provide courses in linguistics, literature, translation and interpretation. These departments aim to foster the students' communication skills in English language and familiarity with English literature, as well as a grounding in grammar in the "four skills" of English language: listening, speaking, reading and writing. This type of English department is for students who are looking to work as translators, pursue academic work in linguistics, or to meet the needs of the market. The teaching in English departments involves both theoretical knowledge and practice (Abahussain, 2016).

In academic terms, such departments aim to provide students with theoretical knowledge of English language to enable them to understand the language in-depth and improve their abilities as critical and creative thinkers in their chosen research field. This aspect of the departmental pedagogy focuses on comparative research, research practices, and empirical research in English language, literature and linguistics. These departmental courses do not qualify students to teach in schools. Therefore, some universities provide an extra course after graduation for this purpose. This course comprises pedagogic skills and methods that help the student to apply what they have learned in the classroom (Abahussain, 2016).

2. **Translation department** goals are different from one university to another. Five universities provide these courses (King Saud, Taibah, Imam, King Khalid and King Abdulaziz. King Saud University and King Khalid University) aiming to help the students to become translators, while Imam University and Taibah University also aim to help the students work as teachers and researchers. Graduates of these courses wishing to become teachers also need to complete the general teacher education course after graduation from any institution (Abahussain, 2016).
3. **Education departments** aim to prepare the students with knowledge, attitudes and skills needed to work as English teachers. They provide courses in communication skills and knowledge of the teaching of English, in English literature, as well as in translation (Abahussain, 2016). These students are not required to take a further teacher education course after graduation.

However, after graduating and becoming a teacher by following one of the above pathways, Saudi teachers may still experience challenges in implementing CLT. For example, Abahussain (2016) notes that some Saudi teachers feel uncomfortable teaching using CLT

due to the lack of teacher preparation in this approach. He explains that teachers may find it difficult to handle group chat situations in which students should be speaking in the target language, but they often hold side conversations in their mother language. This raises a question about the Saudi teacher education, whether it sufficiently prepares the teachers for their role in the new curriculum, as well as the question of whether the educational reform has given enough attention to the Saudi context, Saudi pedagogic culture, and the student culture, to help teachers deliver CLT effectively.

The pathways described above outline typical teacher education before entering the teaching profession to teach English in any of the three levels of schooling. Thus they may reflect the views about learning English of the teachers who have taken each pathway. For example, English language from the English language and literature departments may mean something different to the idea of English from translation departments. The first view of English is more about what is in the literature; a translation department may prioritise translation as an approach while an education department may have a different meaning as it may be more about how to teach with more knowledge about classroom and learning methodologies.

Furthermore, when the Saudi English school teachers start teaching, they receive further CPD to help them to cope with the educational reform and to teach CLT effectively. This CPD, called the Experience Program, aims to develop the teachers' language and methodologies to help them stay up-to-date with new developments in their field (Education, 2016).

In summary, the SA educational system is top-down, with strict control of the teaching and strongly traditional religious practices and goals. The students typically play a passive role in the classroom, with a strict distinction between teachers and students. English teaching in SA is part of this system. However, the textbooks, with goals based on a CLT approach, are designed in countries that usually consider themselves more “progressive” than Saudi Arabia, with more teacher autonomy and more freedom for the students to participate. This raises the question of whether these practices suit the character of the SA educational system or not. This question, informed by the following review of literature in the field, is addressed by the research question and sub-questions.

1.4 Research context – CLT in Saudi Arabia

It has long been recognised that the quality of teaching English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabian schools needs to be improved (Abahussain, 2016). In 2004, a project spearheaded by the Saudi Arabian Government formed agreements with international

companies to help develop Saudi English language skills so that the Saudi workforce could better meet international companies' needs (Aleqtisadiah, 2013). This new project mainly used Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) techniques to provide a new and improved curriculum for learning and teaching English in Saudi Arabian workplaces. CLT is an approach to language learning based on communicative competence (which will be discussed in more detail later in Chapter Two). The project aimed to improve teaching in Saudi Arabia and English communication skills by helping teachers update their strategies to teach English, develop textbooks, use technologies in teaching and implement critical thinking opportunities in student activities. The focus was on improved communicative competence and thinking skills, and cooperative learning, as well as improving the four skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking. The project emphasised learning by using authentic, near-authenticity and meaningful language. Informed by experts from the US in an effort to ensure high quality teaching in the classroom (Ministry of Education, 2002), the government project highlighted student-centred pedagogies rather than teacher-centred instruction. Accordingly, the Saudi Ministry of Education recently changed its school curriculum to adopt new methods focused on reading, writing, listening and speaking (Ministry of Education, 2002). The new curriculum is based on CLT strategies and is intended to give students a chance to mainly learn English through participating in communicative activities such as group work and games.

1.5 Research rationale

Although CLT has been officially adopted by the Saudi Ministry of Education, there are still some issues with its implementation (Abahussain, 2016). The CLT approach was imported from a different cultural context, which raises the question of whether this new pedagogy fits the broader Saudi context and its pedagogic traditions. As educational researchers address the question of why teachers are facing difficulties in implementing CLT in their classrooms, it seems useful to explore how the teachers and students currently understand and enact CLT.

There appears to be a gap between the curriculum which is based on a CLT approach and the teachers' practice and it is important to understand why this gap persists. This gap is commented on by various authors in the literature review who point out that many English teachers hold misunderstandings about the concept and principles of CLT. I want to understand how Saudi teachers and students understand CLT, how they use the new

curriculum material premised on CLT principles, and what kind of texts and activities they provide for the students.

1.5.1 Researcher initial personal reflection

As a researcher, I recognise that my personal views, my stance on various subjects, my life experience and my culture can all inform the decisions that I make regarding my research. Of course, subjectivity cannot be fully eliminated but, by recognising potential biases, it is easier for me to be more transparent about how and why I have made the decisions I felt most appropriate in the circumstances.

I see myself as personally linked to the research as I am very interested in what people think about themselves and about their experience. I enjoy when they describe their situation by telling me a story as it can be a sign of trust between us. I would describe myself as a good listener, as conscientious, sociable, family-oriented and with a warm connection to my culture. On the surface I seem like a typical Saudi man and perhaps I allow people to think so because it is easier than challenging the stereotypes and judgementalism that exists in our culture. However, I am very aware that our present Crown Prince Mohammed Bin Salman (may God bless him) is seeking to change many things and that our culture is dynamic. When I came to Scotland, I missed my family and friends and country so much and wondered how I would cope with this new way of life but I found that it was easier than I had imagined. One of the main reasons why I adjusted successfully was that my supervisors, and other University of Glasgow staff, were so supportive and gave me help whenever I contacted them. In this way, I was able to complete the research.

When I returned to my country, Saudi Arabia, as a university researcher from Scotland, I had been living abroad for almost two years and had previously spent over two years studying in Australia. It took me some time to adjust to being back home and I comment about this in detail in Sections 4.3.2, focusing on my decisions regarding dialect and level of formality as well as cultural concerns over adults talking with children not from their family. Although there are stereotypes about my country, actually we are a very warm people and it is common to see either men or women holding hands while they walk along the street and the usual greeting is to kiss someone on both cheeks (both for members of the same gender). This warmth is also a characteristic of our professional relationships, including those at school, which is a big difference from other countries where those relationships are more formal. Therefore, I had to remember this when starting fieldwork in a Saudi school. In Section 10.1.1, I comment further on how this experience has changed me personally and

as a researcher and how attention to relationships enabled me to notice a specific finding that I might otherwise have overlooked.

1.6 Research aim

This research aims to understand the factors that contribute to the relative failure in the implementation of communicative language teaching in Saudi Arabia; this research should help to give some suggestions to improve the current teaching of English.

1.7 Research questions

The main question driving this research is:

1. How does communicative language teaching (CLT) fit into the pedagogic culture of Saudi Arabian schools?

This question will be approached through the following sub-questions:

1. How do Saudi textbooks reflect CLT principles?
2. What do teachers understand about CLT?
3. What are the challenges and constraints with regard to implementing CLT?
4. What advantages or disadvantages do teachers and students associate with CLT?

1.8 Thesis outline

The outline of this thesis is the following:

Chapter One provided background to the research focusing on the history of English Language Teaching (ELT) in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (SA) and the educational system, the decision of the Ministry of Education to implement Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), and a broad description of the pedagogic culture of the country. Chapter Two reviews and evaluates the relevant literature in the field regarding the implementation of CLT in non-western countries and in SA in particular. Chapter Three sets out the theoretical framework the which draws on communicative competence theories, Bernstein's theory of pedagogic discourse and Shulman's theory of teacher knowledges. Chapter Four discuss the chosen methodology of classroom observation, semi-structured interviews and textbook analysis. Chapter Five is the first part of the analysis: an in-depth review of a sample unit of a textbook widely used for ELT in Saudi classes. Chapters 6-9 presents the second part of the analysis: comparing and contrasting the interview discourse and classroom practice of each of the 4

case study teachers whose classes were observed. This second part includes analysis of the textbook used in those classes. Chapter Ten summarises and discusses the findings through the theoretical frame, to address the research question and sub-questions, addresses limitations then concludes with suggestions for future research, implications for educational policy and for the contribution of CLT in Saudi Arabia.

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

The perceived success of communicative teaching in Western contexts encouraged many other countries to adopt this approach in the hope that it would improve the low level of English found among many second language learners. However, this direct importing of a methodology can lead to some difficulties and challenges (Bax, 2003). The principles of the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach, for example, do not necessarily transfer well to a new context with different features and conditions.

In the first part of this chapter, I will review literature regarding the principles of language learning in general, along with considering various teaching methods in more depth, in particular CLT, a method that was designed in response to behaviourist teaching approaches such as the Audio-Lingual method (ALM) that encouraged the use of drills. CLT builds on the debate about whether language learning is implicit or explicit and it focuses on developing skills that are applicable to real life rather than in-depth grammar knowledge. This method appeals in an increasingly globalised world where English speaking is becoming widespread. While there is a vast amount of literature on communicative language teaching in Western contexts, there is less work focusing on this approach in non-Western contexts and in Saudi Arabia in particular. In the second part of this chapter, therefore, I will review studies considering communicative English language teaching in Saudi Arabia and other non-Western countries. The focus will be on the problems with this method documented in these studies. The general themes of these works included teacher misunderstanding of CLT, resistance to the CLT concept, the limited use of L2 by both teachers and students, excessive focus on exams, teacher education and continuing professional development (CPD). Challenges, practical challenges, and textbook and materials challenges. The chapter will end by identifying the pertinent gap in the research and presenting the chapter conclusions.

2.2 Language learning

Much research has discussed how language develops and is learned by humans (Saville-Troike & Barto, 2016). Learning a second or non-native language (L2) can be a conscious or subconscious process. Generally, and in traditional theories, it is suggested that, as distinct from the way we learn as babies – and perhaps apart from total immersion in natural settings – second language learning is not subconscious (Saville-Troike & Barto, 2016). However,

more recent theories have suggested that this depends on how the language is being taught. This relates to the discussion of explicit or implicit learning:

Explicit knowledge refers to knowledge that is analyzed (in the sense that it can be described and classified), abstract (in the sense that it takes the form of some underlying generalization of actual linguistic behaviour), and explanatory (in the sense that it can provide a reasonably objective account of how grammar is used in actual communication). (Ellis, 1993, p.93)

While implicit learning is defined as “a primitive process of apprehending structure by attending to frequency cues” (DeKeyser, 2008, p.313), explicit learning is more declarative and requires more conscious effort; it is also slower, more controlled and not “automatic”. Implicit learning from exposure to the language, on the other hand, is understood to be faster, automatic, less controlled, involves the sub-conscious, and requires less conscious effort (Ellis, 1993).

There is some discussion in studies about implicit and explicit language learning. Ellis (2003) suggests that most language is acquired by learners “incidentally”, and thus second language learners can also acquire language without thinking much about the form or the process. Krashen (1981) asserts that input – using the receptive skills of reading and listening – is about exposing students to the language, therefore the learner will learn naturally; on the other hand, the output uses the productive language skills of speaking and writing (Krashen, 1981). In this view, input enables the learners to learn the language “naturally”. This can be seen more clearly in children than adult learners. Ellis (2003) talks about first language (L1) acquisition as being largely incidental and implicit and thus incidental learning may align more with implicit than explicit learning. Therefore, in a child, language acquisition is associated with an innate ability to process the language and acquire it before or while developing an understanding of their environment. Other studies point out that learning a second language, however, may depend on the age of the learner and the context (Robinson, 2002). This is because younger people are more likely to draw on this innate ability to acquire the language.

Some studies highlight that incidental learning of a second language, however, is markedly different from that of the first language. This implicit learning may be constructed via pre-knowledge. The learner has pre-knowledge about a language. For example, pre-knowledge about first language grammar will become the frame through which they understand and relate to the new language’s grammar. Similarly, the existing knowledge about one set of

vocabulary is the pre-knowledge that forms a gateway to the new language's vocabulary (Saville-Troike & Barto, 2016). This process means that the new language can only ever build on and attach to pre-knowledge of language, which places a lot of importance on a pre-existing understanding of spoken and written language. This argument can also extend to knowledge of culture, which can provide another gateway (Saville-Troike & Barto, 2016). Different contexts have different features in terms of the relationship to the language being learned as a second or foreign language. This has resulted in each language and pedagogy related to it in each distinct culture being endowed with particular patterns as to how it should be learned, acquired and used (Pennycook, 2010).

Meisel (2011) points out that a potentially high level of difference between a first and second language, both linguistically and culturally – as in the difference between Arabic and English – may make language learning more complex and lead the cognitive system to be less clear on how words and grammar relate across the two languages. The degree of familiarity can increase or decrease based on the distance between the culture and target language. This clearly depends on context, as a different frame of cultural reference may also have an impact on language learning in this context. For example, as discussed in Chapter One, historical cultural links may impact how a language is valued, which can in turn affect how English is taught and learnt in Saudi Arabian schools, where hierarchy may be emphasised in learning through patterns such as imitating the teacher. There is a long history of what learning looks like in Saudi Arabia and, therefore, English teaching in the Kingdom may be shaped by this pedagogic heritage, as much as by the culture of the target language.

The language being learned in the classroom may also be different from the language required in everyday situations (Krashen, 1981). The goal of a lesson can have a strong shaping influence on the sequence of the lesson, forming it in such a specific way that what comes next becomes more predictable than in real life. Learning in a classroom may also simply be characterised by different features from an everyday situation. For example, some elements may be missing in the classroom and added elements may differentiate it from the language acquisition that would occur through real situations and interactions. Learning can also involve an element of consciousness and formality as students and the teacher have pre-existing goals with regard to what to learn, how and what to achieve. However, this depends on the pedagogy implemented in the classroom. For example, if the teacher provides an opportunity for the students to interact meaningfully this can manifest the elements of language acquisition noted above. On the other hand, a highly controlled classroom with a plan for the sequence and no freedom for the students to interact freely with each other will

differ greatly from real life situations. This suggests that language acquisition may be different from language learning in terms of how they are processed. Language may be processed more naturally and implicitly when there is meaningful, authentic interaction, while learning a language can create more planned explicit knowledge (Saville-Troike & Barto, 2016).

This section has outlined some of the complexities and debates about the conditions of learning a second language, considering what is needed to learn a language. It has discussed the difference between first and second language learning, as well as the cultural aspects of learning that feed into the process and thus make it easier for certain people to learn particular languages that are more similar and draw on a shared cultural frame of reference. Relevant aspects of these debates are interrogated in depth in Chapter Three and summarised in section 3.6.

2.3 Teaching methodologies

In order to understand the changes that communicative teaching seeks to implement, it is important to consider CLT in the context of language teaching methods that have commonly been used. To do so, in this section I will look at influential methods, including the Grammar Translation and Audio-Lingual methods, before discussing CLT.

2.3.1 Grammar Translation Method

The Grammar Translation Method (GTM) focuses on learning the grammar of the target language and translating text between the mother tongue and the target language (Tetzner, 2006). Brown (2014) states that this method was employed in the past to teach “dead languages” that had no native speakers. GTM was used to teach these languages via such pedagogic strategies as lists of vocabulary for memorisation, emphasising rules of grammar and syntax and dual translation. GTM is used to help students prepare for written exams by emphasising how to read the specific text and write similar examples. Celce-Murcia and McIntosh (2014, p.3) list the characteristics of GTM:

1. There is a lot of use of the mother tongue in the classroom and little use of the target language (apart from source texts).
2. The teaching of the vocabulary of the target language is done by presenting the vocabulary in a list of unrelated words.
3. The emphasis is on explaining the structural rules of grammar.

4. The teaching focuses on students reading difficult text even in the early stages of learning.
5. Text activities analyse the grammar rules in the text, such as parsing verbs.
6. Drills and translating from L1 to L2, or vice versa, are common.
7. There is little focus on pronunciation.

GTM is shown by many educational authors to have many positives that have maintained its popularity in language teaching. First, by using this method, it becomes easy to check how the students are developing in some aspects of the language because teachers know how to assess the students; tests of grammar rules and translations from one language to another are easy to score (Brown, 2014). This method is helpful for the teacher who wants to know whether or not the students have accomplished the goals, such as getting the students to translate from the target language and vice versa, and to know the grammar of the target language. Thus, the popularity of GTM amongst other methods may be understood, especially when the teacher knows the students' L1.

GTM is helpful for students to understand how the structure of the target language works and, by studying progressively more complex aspects of this structure, they can learn the new language systematically. GTM is also useful for teachers whose L2 proficiency is not high because in this method there is little need to speak or listen to the target language in the classroom as its delivery may be done by using L1. This is because the target language is learned by analysing grammar rules and applying them (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Non-native L2 speakers may be better at understanding and explaining how the structure of the new language works than native speakers who have not been formally instructed in their own grammar (Asl, 2015). Importantly, teachers still need high enough proficiency in L2 to be able to translate the topic they are going to teach. While a low level of proficiency can make some classroom activities difficult, it is possible for teachers with a low level of proficiency in the target language to use high level comprehension skills in order to expose learners to a variety of L2 text in a way that they can understand (Chastain, 1976).

Larsen-Freeman (2000) provides some techniques related to GTM that are helpful for comprehending the target language in complex text, such as translation from the text to the mother language and vice versa, and synonym and antonym activities. The teacher may ask the students to look up and translate unfamiliar vocabulary from the text, memorise new words or use them in sentences. This is possible because vocabulary is considered the core element of such language learning (Nation, 2013). Even if the level of the text is high, the teacher can still set the task at an appropriate level where both the teacher and the students

can feel confident. Richards and Renandya (2002) argue that translating L1 to L2 and vice versa can thus have a positive impact because vocabulary is the basis of reading, writing, listening and speaking skills (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

Reading and writing then enable the learners to become more familiar with aspects of L2 and thus contribute to improving the other two skills of listening and speaking. However, GTM does not emphasise the processes of learning that are highlighted by communicative learning according to Krashen (1981) – as discussed later in this chapter. Despite GMT ignoring learning development processes, the in-depth and explicit analysis of the grammar rules enables the learners to understand the system of the L2 in detail. Therefore, Larsen-Freeman (2000) argues that, even though GTM emphasises reading and writing, grammar rules, reading and translating, it can also help to improve speaking and listening skills. Translating from one language to another can help to analyse the difference between the languages as the process is one of carrying the meaning of the first over to the second so it has meaning which is also helpful for speaking and listening.

However, knowledge of the structure and vocabulary of L2, as is the emphasis of GTM, is insufficient when the main requirement on the person's language skills is to speak and understand the spoken language in order to communicate. What this language learning goal requires is a level of competence more geared towards listening and speaking. In response to this critique, American linguistic scholars developed the Audio-Lingual method (ALM).

2.3.2 Audio-lingual method

In the middle of the 20th century, with the need for international communication during the Second World War, the Audio-Lingual method – also known as the Army Method (Diekhoff, 1945) – spread across the US and Canada and, later, to the rest of the world, significantly affecting the way people learn languages, including English (Corson, Tucker, & Corson, 1997). This new model of teaching (ALM) was often related to the basic technology of the language laboratory: audio recording by tape recorder which became generally available after the Second World War (Schwartz, 1995).

ALM emphasises accuracy. The reason for doing so is that, in order to learn the language quickly, it was believed that the best approach was imitating and producing the correct spoken language. Native speakers were seen as the main resource in learning the new language as they could provide the vocabulary and the pronunciation. This repetitive type of learning in ALM is based on the theory of behaviourism elaborated by the psychologist Skinner. His theory proposed principles of human and animal behaviour and attempted to

explain the conditions that affect and cause people to behave in certain ways (Skinner, 1957). When it comes to the field of language teaching, the theory of behaviourism encourages learning by imitation and repetition with reinforcement. Stimulus and response are reinforced by verbal or nonverbal rewards and punishments (Brown, 2014). Thus, what goes on inside the head of the learner is not important; learners are treated as closed machines or “black boxes”; what is important is the input and controlled output. The characteristics of ALM according to Richards and Rodgers (2014) can be summarised as follows:

1. The students have to listen to a dialogue in the classroom, then they repeat the phrases of the dialogue they heard. While the students are repeating these phrases, the teacher has to make sure that they are saying them correctly (in terms of pronunciation, intonation and grammar) and the teacher corrects any mistakes immediately.
2. Lessons that follow ALM seek to focus on students’ spoken skills before written skills.
3. Learning is by analogy rather than analysis. This means that learning does not require explanation, but simply comparing and practicing. Learners develop the patterns of L2 through practice. The drills enable the learning process to acquire and build the learners’ language. Therefore, grammar is not explained but instead learned inductively. This means students learn more by comparing examples of grammar in use with other examples rather than by formal grammar rule input.
4. Textbooks may be used for reading vocabulary aloud and for writing; the norm is to imitate the writing by copying some sentences or paragraphs.
5. Activities are typically (but not always) done in a language laboratory.

ALM is based on mechanical repetition and automaticity. Automaticity has strong theoretical support in terms of how language is successfully acquired (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). This is different from GTM, which is based more on explaining than automatic learning. ALM assumes that second language acquisition requires focused attention when students are learning and they learn from controlled processing. Then, learners move from controlled processing to automaticity. This means that the learners are limited to using specific language to practice.

After the learners have learned the basic skills, such as basic vocabulary, they may gradually move on to a higher level of complexity, by which time the automatic language will be a habit and they may learn to use the language more freely (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). This has an advantage in terms of both formative and summative student assessment, as well as the design of second language textbooks. (Assessment is discussed in depth in Chapter

Three.) Testing will be straightforward as the learning is based on clear input and output. The learners need to practice and memorise, for example, a greeting, and then they can use this skill automatically without much thought. This makes ALM clear for students to follow and simplifies preparation for exams to test what has been practised and memorised.

The automaticity and clear predictable language learning means that this method remains popular and it still dominates the practice of language teaching in many parts of the world (Saville-Troike & Barto, 2016). Automaticity may be presented to teachers as the model to imitate. In this case, the teacher will either need a high level of proficiency or they will need to play tapes of native speakers modelling the language. This is because the main way to acquire the language by using this method is through dialogue and drills led by teachers, so the teachers need to pronounce the language correctly in a similar way to native speakers. This raises the question of the level of ease or difficulty in comparison to using other methods such as GTM or CLT in diverse contexts – one aspect of this is their very different view of errors and correction in language learning, which is explored in depth in Chapter Three.

However, ALM has attracted some scholarly critique. One criticism is that ALM does not help learners in the real world to communicate freely and spontaneously. It may give the students some formulaic sentences to repeat and some model dialogue to practice in a controlled situation, but this can result in difficulty for the learners to use the language creatively and meaningfully (Byram & Hu, 2013). Byram and Hu (2013) and other critics of this kind of behavioural conditioning highlight the view that conversations outside the classroom can be very different. This suggests the need to teach in a way that helps the students to be prepared to use their language meaningfully and spontaneously rather than just reproducing sentences that they have memorised. This need for more creativity and sensitivity to the specific situation led to the development of communicative language teaching.

2.3.3 Communicative learning

This section will discuss communicative language learning and, in particular, input, output, authenticity, information gap, meaning and complexity. This will support discussion of the relationship between language learning and CLT. This section will first provide a quick overview of the theory that underpins the communicative approach in order to develop a clearer understanding of CLT, then discuss the principles of CLT and the cultural differences that can complicate the application of CLT in the Saudi context.

2.3.3.1 Communicative competence as a goal

“Communicative competence” was first proposed by Hymes in 1972 (for a more in-depth discussion of Hymes’ theory, see Chapter Three), who noted that:

I should take competence as the most general term for the capabilities of a person. Competence is dependent upon both (tacit) knowledge and (ability for) use... The specification of ability for use as part of competence allows for the role of non-cognitive factors, such as motivation, as partly determining competence (Hymes, 1972, p.64)

“Communicative competence” thus refers to a person’s knowledge of a language that can be used appropriately in communication. The term was developed in response to the structuralist views of de Saussure (2011) and was later developed by Chomsky (1965) in his theory of competence and performance (see Chapter Three). This was extended by Hymes (1972), who coined the term “communicative competence” and added the dimension of appropriateness and understanding of how language can be used appropriately according to differences in context and situation. Communicative competence refers to the ability to use language in communication. For example, knowing what grammar to use and how, how to ask, what language to use and how to communicate with who, when and how to do so appropriately. Thus, communicative competence refers to the individual’s knowledge about the language to use in actual context and particular situations (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Byram and Fleming (1998) later extended this concept to intercultural communicative competence, which moves a step beyond appropriateness to a level of intercultural knowledge and understanding. They suggested that two countries that have significant cultural and linguistic distance between them will be more difficult to bridge (see Chapter Three).

From the concept of communicative competence, there emerged broad teaching principles based on certain goals. The goal of communicative competence is to use the language more appropriately and meaningfully in actual teaching settings. CLT is based on this communicative competence goal. Communicative language teaching (CLT) developed following this and it is thus a broad principle that covers many aspects of language and not just the grammar or vocabulary like previous methods (Brown, 2014).

2.3.4 Communicative language teaching (CLT) principles

This section presents the overarching principles of the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach. From the literature, I will identify key elements that CLT draws on. These include accuracy, fluency, authenticity, complexity and meaningfulness.

Although the spread of English over the world is not new, under globalisation this process may be seen as different from the driving military needs of the English-speaking countries that saw the rise of ALM (Diekhoff, 1945). Many countries have attempted to rethink the way English is being taught in recent years and one popular solution has been the implementation of CLT. This is generally understood as a response to the limited effectiveness of the GTM and ALM methods (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). The “communicative” approach involves two aspects: a focus on the function of the language and practising the language with a focus on communicating with others. This method is a result of theory proposing a need to emphasise “communicative proficiency” rather than “structure” (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p.84). This rethinking of how and why to teach a second language resulted in the communicative language teaching approach. Swain and Lapkin (1998) discuss an example of a communicative activity and how the students work in pairs to construct knowledge that in a paired activity can be stronger than their individual capacity. They note further research is required on this drawing in student feedback. They note that its implementation will be valuable when combined with teacher feedback. They place emphasis on the knowledge that is constructed through group or pairs to further learning.

According to Richards (2006), CLT is based on the concept of communicative competence and is concerned with teaching effective and appropriate language for the students to use in communication with others in real life situations. CLT may be seen as “a unified but broadly based theoretical position about the nature of language learning and teaching” (Brown, 2014, p.241) and can be defined as:

Communicative language teaching can be understood as a set of principles about the goals of language teaching, how learners learn a language, the kinds of classroom activities that best facilitate learning, and the roles of teachers and learners in the classroom. (Richards, 2006, p.2)

Brown (2014) emphasises that CLT is not a specific method that a teacher can follow in a specific way, but rather an approach entailing broad principles. These principles require the teaching to be aligned with the goal of communicative competence. These elements focus

on those noted by Richards (2006), aiming to teach and learn a language that is more appropriate to context and situation. Appropriateness considers what kind of language is to be used and for what reasons and purposes, how to communicate with others, how to maintain this communication and what to do if there is a breakdown in communication. It involves the language being “meaningful” – related to the students and their real lives – and the learners taking risks and experimenting with the language. To accomplish the goals of CLT, a classroom using this approach has characteristics:

1. Focus on not only grammatical or linguistic competence and the form of the language but on all aspects of communicative competence.
2. Focus on elements of pragmatic language use, the functions and the purpose of language use, the authenticity and meaning that provides students with authentic text and activities that students can engage with.
3. Balance between accuracy and fluency, noting that the two are important.
4. Encouraging students to use English productively, which means encouraging them to use the language in such a way that it is aligned with the context. This is because language used in context is unpredictable, so students in the CLT classroom have to focus on skills that enable them to communicate in such contexts.
5. Providing space for the students to use their own learning style by understanding what style of learning suits them; this is designed to give them more space to use a suitable learning strategy that increases their autonomy.
6. Requiring the teacher to be the facilitator and the students to construct their learning. This means it is not the teacher’s role to explain and know everything, but instead to guide and organise their learning and to help where necessary (Brown, 2014, p.43).

CLT aims to balance between the dimensions of fluency, accuracy and complexity. Fluency may be defined as “natural language use occurring when a speaker engages in meaningful interaction and maintains comprehensible and ongoing communication despite limitations in his or her communicative competence” (Richards, 2006, p.14). Accuracy in turn is defined as “the learner’s use of grammar, vocabulary and phonology, and the extent to which this is free from mistakes” (Parrott, 1993, p.64). Complexity is defined as “[t]he extent to which the language produced in performing a task is elaborate and varied” (Ellis, 2003, p.340). CLT, therefore, aims to balance between these dimensions rather than providing a full focus on accuracy, like previous methods, as it is suggested that this limits the naturalness of speaking. At the same time, accuracy is still important and CLT does not ignore the correct form for the sake of meaning.

Another important focus is meaningfulness. Meaningfulness in CLT refers to using the second language functionally to involve more meaningful engagement for the learners (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Meaningfulness thus refers to using the second language to engage with the learner on topics that relate to their own interests or lives, and thus that have a more essential meaning. The focus on meaningfulness in the CLT context is drawn from the fact that it may help to involve the learner in learning by conveying messages that have meaning for the learner and to let the learner learn by doing. This, in theory, encourages the learner to take risks by using the language, rather than only focusing on the correctness of the language. A balanced focus is supported by the findings of Second Language Acquisition research:

Classroom-based research in a variety of settings has shown that, within the limitations of time and circumstances in which they are learning, learners benefit from both meaning-focused and language focused instructional elements. Teaching approaches that exclude—or virtually exclude—either element will deprive learners of opportunities to reach their potential for language development. (Lightbown, 2016, p.113)

In conveying messages, CLT encourages the use of information gap activity to increase more meaningful use of language (Ellis, 1994). Ellis adds that information gap refers to when there is part of the information given and there is another part of information the students need to supply. There is then a need to work with each other and process meanings to fill the information gap. They need to share and communicate to acquire all of the necessary information. Ellis (2003) added that this can be an opinion gap or an information gap, and this gap needs to be reduced by sharing information or opinions among students or between students and the teacher. Ellis (2003) states that an advantage of information gap activities is that the teacher can provide input, which students can then process to achieve the task.

CLT suggests that teachers should make use of “authentic” materials. Nunan (1999, p.79) defines authentic written and spoken text as text that has: “been produced in the course of genuine communication, not especially written for purposes of language teaching. They provide learners with opportunities to experience language as it is used beyond the classroom”. Morrow (1977, p.14) in turn notes that “an authentic text is a stretch of real language, produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience and designed to convey a real message of some sort”. Because CLT involves authenticity, the real messages means that there is personalisation in authenticity. Personalisation is defined as “when students use language to talk about themselves and things which interest them” (Harmer, 2012, p.276)

However, authentic language text or speech may not match with students' level as it may be too difficult for early-stage learners and it may not suit the lesson goals and the lesson content. Therefore, the material can be modified, but doing so will necessarily make it less authentic even though it is more suitable. This may raise the question of whether to use authentic materials even if the learners do not understand, or to modify the material, but thereby become less authentic as a result of the modification.

Even the idea of "realness" can become complex, as Nunan goes on to suggest: "Of course there is a great deal of language generated within the classroom itself that is authentic, and this can very often be used for pedagogic purposes" (Nunan, 1999, p.79). Gilmore (2007, p.3) develops this point as follows:

the concept of authenticity can be situated in either the text itself, in the participants, in the social or cultural situation and purposes of the communicative act, or some combination of these. Reviewing the multitude of meanings associated with authenticity above, it is clear that it has become a very slippery concept to identify as our understanding of language and learning has deepened.

This idea of authenticity as being a "slippery concept" emerges regularly, both in the theory and in the classrooms themselves, in part because, as Nunan notes, the discussion of what is authentic is problematic. After all, the classroom environment itself is still an authentic one. Guariento and Morley (2001) argue that when any activities have elements of naturalness and realness then they can be called authentic. However, when teachers only reproduce the language in the task and focus on aspects rather than the whole, this will be less authentic because the task does not mimic real interactions, but instead only reproduces the language in the task. For example, if the task involves role-playing different situations from outside the classroom it could be argued that the situation is likely to be authentic, while the learners doing this activity by themselves are not authentic. This is thus authentic-like as it mimics an actual situation in the task. The authenticity not only relates to the language itself but can also be related to the degree of authenticity in the situation and the activities.

When language from real life that is authentic is shifted into the classroom, it may become inauthentic. This is because the very shifting of it into the classroom renders it less authentic because it is no longer a genuine form of communication in the classroom, which has its own register and its own discourse. It is also important to consider what authentic material looks like when it is applied to lower-level learners. Situations or text taken from the real world without being simplified may not be suitable for lower learner levels (Guariento &

Morley, 2001). Further, as Kumaravadivelu (2006) notes, a CLT curriculum does not guarantee a meaningful and communicative lesson. While the activities in a CLT classroom will be planned by the teacher, communication in the real world can entail missing elements such as unfinished sentences and incorrect grammar use, and it can also be less understandable because it may include difficult vocabulary or words such as slang.

In the above discussion, the general principles of CLT have been explained as a broad and balanced concept focusing on teaching language in meaningful ways and using authentic language materials to enable students to use the language more freely outside the classroom.

2.3.5 Critical appraisal of CLT

2.3.5.1 Weak and strong versions of CLT

The previous sections of this literature review highlight a debate among second language acquisition (SLA) researchers about what language is and how it is acquired. This debate is developed in Chapter 3 and summarised in section 3.6. Ellis and Shintani (2014, p.37) note that, as SLA empirical studies questioned the value of traditional methods such as GMT and the newer ALM, there was an attempt, “in the 1970s” to find a new approach. Thornbury explains how this approach was different from the behavioural emphasis of ALM:

The immediate impetus to define curriculum objectives not as structural ‘patterns’ but in terms of ‘functional/notional models’ emerged out of a Council of Europe project in the early 1970s that aimed to reform and standardise the teaching of modern languages to adults across Europe (Thornbury, 2016, p.225)

This impetus, which “prioritised semantic categories, specifically language notions and communicative functions, over structural ones” (Thornbury, 2016, p.225), led to CLT but with different approaches:

...there were two distinct approaches to CLT: the L (or linguistic) approach, as embodied in functional-notional syllabuses, and the P (or psychological and pedagogic approach), in which naturalistic learning processes are activated through communication. (Thornbury, 2016, p.227)

Ellis & Shintani (2014, p.43) agree: “A weak and strong version of the communicative approach can be distinguished”. Ellis & Shintani (2014, p.43) explain further: “The aim of both is to develop ‘communicative competence’ but they differ in how this is to be achieved”.

Thornbury (2016, p.227) identifies the P approach as linked with the “strong” version of CLT, acquiring language through communication, and the L approach as “the “weak” version of CLT, involving the systematic and incremental teaching of the sub-components of communicative competence”. In the view of Ellis & Shintani (2014, p.43), this **weak version** of the new approach was at first not very new, as it used the traditional “accuracy-oriented methodology” of present-practice-produce (PPP). However, these authors also mention a later reordering of PPP:

an alternative – produce-present-practice – [...] involved starting with a communicative task in order to identify learning problems that could then be addressed through presenting and practising specific linguistic features. In effect, the ‘weak’ version of CLT differs from traditional approaches to language teaching only in minor ways. (Ellis & Shintani, 2014, p.43, ellipsis mine)

This minor difference is detailed by Thornbury (1998, p.110) as, “the absence of pattern practice drills, the addition of information-gap activities, and a greater tolerance of error”. Ellis and Shintani (2014, p.43) also note that the weak version of CLT “itemizes features of communication to be taught” and highlight the development of the **strong version** of CLT:

...weak CLT lacks a principled basis for developing grammatical competence. Subsequently, this was remedied as notional/functional syllabuses were abandoned in favour of hybrid syllabuses that included a grammar component. Also, due in part to the growing influence of SLA on language pedagogy, proposals were forthcoming for how interaction could be made to work for the acquisition of grammar as weak CLT morphed into strong CLT (i.e. task-based teaching). (Ellis & Shintani, 2014, p.46)

The difference between the versions may be seen as a difference of control as, in the strong version, the teacher has less control than in the weak version. The weak version – which Thornbury (1999, p.18) calls the “shallow-end approach” – is more planned because it starts by identifying what feature to focus on and then addresses the learning needs identified, in order to improve the communication. TBLT is not the only strong version of CLT but they all have the same “principle that classroom language learning will proceed more efficiently if it occurs in a similar way to ‘natural’ language learning” (Ellis & Shintani, 2014, p.43). The strong version – which Thornbury (1999, p.18) calls the “deep-end approach” – is giving the students more space to use the language to communicate freely, as Ellis and Shintani (2014, p.135) explain:

Task-based language teaching aims to develop learners' communicative competence by engaging them in meaning-focused communication through the performance of tasks. [...] However, TBLT is not just concerned with developing 'fluency in the communicative process'. It also aims to develop learners' linguistic competence (i.e. to help them acquire new language) and their interactional competence (i.e. their ability to use the target language to participate in discourse). A key principle of TBLT is that even though learners are primarily concerned with constructing and comprehending messages, they also need to attend to form for learning to take place. (ellipsis mine)

Ellis (2003, p.19) says the task has four main characteristics:

1. The task has to carry communicative messages.
2. The task has to involve a gap; this can be an opinion gap or an information gap, and this gap needs to be reduced by sharing information or opinions among students or between students and the teacher.
3. The task must encourage learners to use their own resources; these resources can be linguistic resources or non-linguistic resources such as body language or gesture.
4. The task has to involve learners' communicative outcomes.

In general, TBLT should be meaningful as meaning is the starting point of teaching languages; the form will come after that (Willis & Willis, 2007). Willis and Willis (2007) explain that this does not mean that form is not important. They point out that it may be difficult to understand language without explicit grammar or vocabulary instruction. However, in some cases, limited grammar is enough to use the language meaningfully. They explain that teaching grammar should not be the main aim as this may stop learners from using language freely. On this point, Ellis (2003) agrees in that he says form comes after meaning, as students may learn language forms after engaging with language meaningfully. This means that the control in the strong version is on the side of the students rather than on that of the teacher. Therefore, the strong version will require different kind of relationship which is less hierarchical which may clash with traditional pedagogies:

The 'strong' version offers a far more radical alternative to traditional approaches. In this version, no attempt is made to specify the teaching content in terms of a set of gradable linguistic items. Instead, the content consists of a set of 'tasks', which the teacher and students carry out in the classroom. The methodology is fluency oriented – directed at getting students to use language for

communication rather than to practise correct usage. (Ellis & Shintani, 2014, p.43)

Another point to note about weak and strong versions of CLT is that they may demand different degrees of tolerance of ambiguity. In a study on this aspect of personality, CLT and introvert/ extravert second language learners, Ahmadi Safa (2017, p.28) comments on willingness to communicate (WTC):

The concept of WTC is related to communicative language teaching (CLT) in which the fundamental role of communication is highlighted [...] as an atmosphere of active engagement of the learners in the second language is emphasized [...] Tolerance of ambiguity as another personality trait deals with how a person encounters with uncertain conditions along with vague and inexact cues (ellipsis mine)

Although Ahmadi Safa (2017, p.31) finds that the WTC of both introvert and extrovert students increases with a higher tolerance of ambiguity. He also mentions an “inverse relationship between the degree of extroversion and writing performance”. Thornbury (2016, p.231) mentions a misunderstanding of CLT that it is only about teaching speaking. However, writing is also a productive skill and can be communicative, but it may not demand as high a degree of tolerance of ambiguity and extraversion as speaking (Ahmadi Safa, 2017). Roeder, Araujo-Jones and Mille (2020) note that their teacher respondents use communicative writing tasks to assess what grammar points may need to be addressed. As Ellis & Shintani (2014) note this use of reordered PPP in communicative tasks in weak CLT, these findings on writing and less extroverted students may be a point in favour of weak CLT. Also, the weak form is less “radical” than the strong version (Ellis & Shintani, 2014, p.43) so it may be easier to implement in settings where the pedagogy is more traditionally controlled and teacher-centred.

2.3.5.2 Pedagogic and contextual issues with CLT

CLT has attracted criticism because of several issues. Firstly, there is the possible clash of an imported pedagogy with local pedagogic culture, highlighted by Kumaravadivelu (2006, p.64): “CLT offers perhaps a classic case of a center-based pedagogy that is out of sync with local linguistic, educational, social, cultural, and political exigencies”. A focus of this conflict may be in the role of the teacher. In CLT the emphasis is on leading the students to generate language. However, this emphasis may clash with the hierarchical role of the teacher in a context where the teacher is the source of knowledge, who knows how to explain

knowledge and who transfers knowledge to the students. In a hierarchical role, teacher-student relations are strict: the teacher is at the top and controls the entire class; the students pay attention and only answer or participate when the teacher gives them permission. In contrast, the role of the teacher in CLT is more egalitarian, giving space to the students to experiment with the language. This clash is especially evident in how the teacher treats mistakes. In a hierarchical role, the teacher tends to demand accurate answers whereas, in CLT, mistakes are seen as a natural part of learning. Loumbourdi (2018, p.4, *ellipsis mine*) points out that this approach to mistakes in learning is perhaps not suitable for all:

CLT has not come without its criticism by voices objecting mainly to the promotion of fluency that came, as it was suggested, to the expense of accuracy, producing, thus, learners that might have been more comfortable communicating but, at the same time, made more mistakes [...] it was suggested that the approach could not really cater for all types of learners, especially more analytic ones, who needed rules and a more bottom-up approach to language learning.

Secondly, depending on the level of the implementation of CLT, there may be misalignment between teacher education, curriculum and assessment. Teacher education has to align with classroom practice: how to explain and how to give space to the students. If this is not done, there will also be a clash between the CLT-based curriculum that the teachers are expected to teach and the traditional pedagogy that they have learned. Teachers tend to use the pedagogy that they are familiar with. This clash may lead to misunderstanding and to rejection of the new pedagogy. Savignon (1991, p.272) comments that “in our efforts to improve language teaching, we have overlooked the language teacher”. Similarly, a curriculum needs to have its assessment in alignment. If the curriculum is changed to one based on CLT but the assessment is still traditional, the assessment tends to drag the curriculum after it. When there is a strong focus on traditional assessment, rewarding (for example) a type of learning such as memorisation of knowledge, this affects the kind of teaching in the curriculum. The strong version of CLT is clearly more radical in terms of pedagogy but there may be an issue especially with the weak version of CLT in this regard as it may be misunderstood and taught through traditional pedagogy (Ellis & Shintani, 2014). All of these pedagogic issues with CLT are included in Chapter 3 as part of the theoretical framework, analysed in findings Chapters 6-9 and also discussed in Chapter 10.

A third issue is the concept of method, which Pennycook (1989, p.609) underlines as problematic:

It is therefore important both to understand the construction of the Method concept within an apolitical, ahistorical, positivist, and progressivist orientation to education, and to investigate the effects of the production of that knowledge. This knowledge, then, should be seen within its political context

Some of this context is commented on, below, under the appropriacy issue. A problem here is that CLT is supposed to be an approach to language learning. However, if teachers have been educated at university to follow a fixed method step-by-step, then when it comes to implementing CLT in the classroom there may be a misunderstanding. Teachers in this situation may feel uncomfortable without a rigid procedure to follow and may feel lost because they learned in the teacher education to follow a specific method such as GTM. This issue of method and postmethod is discussed in depth in section 2.5 of this chapter and also in Chapter 10.

A fourth issue is that of the CLT classroom in the wider institutional setting. Holliday (1994) points out not only that the specific demands of this type of English teaching, in terms of resources of time, space and materials, may not be possible for the school to provide, but also that the pedagogical practices in that classroom may negatively affect the teaching of other subjects Holliday says “there may be peer pressure against a teacher introducing group work into her or his classroom, on the grounds that students will carry new expectations into other subject classrooms which their teachers might find disruptive” (Holliday, 1994, p.4).

The implementation of CLT also raises issues of appropriacy and the opportunity to engage with the language for real communication. Firstly, CLT seeks to address the issue of appropriacy in communication. If English teaching focuses only on grammar rules, vocabulary or memorised sentences without the students having an idea of how and when to use the language, there can be a danger of them using it (for example) an inappropriate form of greeting or item of vocabulary and so offence or misunderstanding may be caused and the communication will be broken. This issue is discussed in depth in Chapter 3 and Chapter 10. An emphasis on appropriate, rather than simply fluent and accurate, communication is an advantage of CLT but Kumaravadivelu (2006, pp.62) finds that CLT in practice does not always deliver what is expected: “It was believed that CLT classrooms reverberate with authentic communication that characterizes interaction in the outside world. But a communicative curriculum, however well-conceived cannot by itself guarantee meaningful communication in the classroom.”

As discussed in Section 2.3.5.1, above, the difference that Kumaravadivelu (2006) identifies between the communicative expectation and the pedagogical practice of CLT raises the question of whether greater understanding of the versions (weak or strong) of CLT would affect implementation. That question is outside the scope of this thesis but it is raised in Chapter 10 as a possibility for educational policy. Broadly it is possible to say that, as discussed in Section 2.3.5.1, above, the relevant literature supports the view that the strong form of CLT has more potential for success, especially in terms of communicative speaking, but its radical break from traditional pedagogy may be challenging in some settings. In contrast, the weak version, even using the alternative order of PPP, is less distinctive. However, it may be easier to implement and may also be helpful for more introverted students, especially in terms of communicative writing.

The explanation of all of these issues may provide greater understanding of the factors that can lead English teachers to recontextualise CLT in order to implement a pedagogy that they are more familiar with, and one that is more in alignment with their teacher education and pedagogic culture. This recontextualisation is discussed in depth in the findings chapters (6-9) and in Chapter 10. The following section discusses CLT in Saudi Arabia.

2.4 CLT in the Saudi classroom

As explained above, in a communicative teaching approach it is crucial for the students to share, stay engaged and use the language meaningfully. Every context has different features and conditions of learning. The above method places emphasis on features of learning that tend towards the implicit, such as being less declarative and requiring less effort; the teacher is the facilitator and the students are in charge of their learning – even though explicit learning may also be used (DeKeyser, 2008). However, these implicit features may be difficult to implement among learners in non-Western contexts such as Saudi Arabia. Non-Western contexts such as Saudi Arabia are often characterised by different features, such as being more declarative, more authoritative, more explicit and demanding, and having more hierarchical relations between the teacher and students in the classroom.

In relation to Saudi Arabia in particular, a number of studies have discussed the impact of the communicative teaching approach on teaching results, and why this method still shows limited results. As discussed in Chapter One, the traditional power dynamics in the classroom are very different from those required by the communicative approach. Traditionally, the teacher is the main source of knowledge and the controller of the learning sequence (Abahussain, 2016; Abdulkader, 2016; Al Asmari, 2015). Teacher-student

relationships have strict boundaries, with the teacher controlling the input and the students simply receiving input. In Western countries, on the other hand, such as the UK – where the current communicative textbooks used in Saudi schools were developed and written – the standard teacher-student dynamic is less authoritative (Hyde, 2012). This suggests that overall Western contexts may demand less hierarchical relations. Nonetheless, it should be noted that not all Western schools are characterised by student autonomy (Benson, 2013) and such structures will vary from country to country, and school to school.

In studying CLT in a non-Western context, it is nonetheless essential to consider that CLT was developed in the West, and then imported. In this, it is important to explore how CLT implementation in the non-Western context is different from that in the Western context and how well this approach has moved between cultures. Many studies have explored how CLT fits into non-Western contexts in both schools and universities, thereby generally focusing on this approach among students of a higher level. Due to the limited number of studies in this area, this work considers studies in universities as well as schools, generally focusing on more advanced learners from age 13 and up.

This part presents how CLT fits into non-Western cultures, with a particular focus on Saudi Arabia, exploring the challenges that can emerge when implementing CLT in these contexts. All of these studies note at least some challenges when moving the CLT approach from Western into non-Western contexts. These challenges can be summarised as CLT clashing with traditional pedagogies and teacher education, the low second language proficiency of teachers and students, and an educational system that is very hierarchical and centralised. The studies also note a preference for grammar focus, cultural differences, lack of student motivation, large classes, time pressures, lack of authenticity and different relationships between students and teachers, with limited space being given to students. All these findings are explored in depth in later chapters.

2.5 Cultural differences

This part will begin by discussing the cultural differences that generally emerge between *Western* and *non-Western* teaching environments in terms of the characteristics of these different contexts. Although these terms are used in this thesis as generally understood, as Kumaravadivelu (2008) notes, with the current level of globalisation, not to mention the divergencies between people within countries and between countries in the non-West, these generalisations can be regarded as over simplified.

As is noted above, in response to globalisation necessitating widespread English-speaking skills, communicative teaching has spread from Europe and America (where it was first developed) to much of the non-Western world. However, academia still contests how successful this has been. One of the main reasons for this is that CLT has its roots in the West and was developed in a Western context. Some studies see the Western context as generally more individualist than non-Western contexts where collectivism is more commonly the focus (Green, Deschamps, & Paez, 2005). Individualism is defined as “a situation in which people are supposed to take care of themselves and of their immediate families only” (Hofstede & Bond, 1984, p.419), while collectivism refers to “a situation in which people belong to in-group or collectivities, which are supposed to look after them, in exchange for loyalty” (Hofstede & Bond, 1984, p.419). People’s relationships with one another are different in collectivist and individualist societies; in a collectivist culture, the focus is on looking after each other, while in individualist cultures, individuals take care of themselves and those they care about. In collectivism, the group comes first, while in individualism the individual comes before the group. As the relationship between members is more important in collectivism than in individualism, the two systems have different understandings of success.

Some researchers note that Western classes are generally smaller than those in the non-West, and there is a generally less authoritative approach to teaching common in Western societies. With regard to class size, nowadays this can vary, and while some of the studies discussed below describe large classes, some are no bigger than the average Western class. Abahussain (2016) and Hassan (2013) both found the classrooms they were researching to be much larger than in the West, with classes of 40 and 70 students respectively. Of the two, Hassan is the only one whose research focuses on schools, however, while the other focuses on universities. In comparison, in the UK, primary school classes are a maximum of 33 pupils and the average class has 25 pupils (Kidner, 2011). While such classrooms are not necessarily learning languages using CLT, these statistics indicate a general difference.

In terms of cultural differences, and particularly teaching style, these have been broadly discussed by many researchers. It is noted that these cultural differences can have a very strong impact on all aspects of teaching. In *Marxism and Literature*, Williams (1978) points out that culture has a significant impact on the way people learn and he notes that culture, particularly in relation to teaching, is very different between the West and non-West. Nonetheless, Kumaravadivelu again argues that globalisation is breaking down these

categories and a more nuanced understanding of culture in teaching is necessary (Kumaravadivelu, 2008).

In later works, Kumaravadivelu proposes a “post-method” that goes beyond CLT in response to the apparent failings of CLT. He draws these failings from the potential inability of CLT to deal adequately with culture (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). Despite the positive features noted above, he argues that CLT still offers a classic pedagogy that is centre-based and ignores the local linguistic features and the pedagogic culture of each context. This inability to deal with local contexts decreases its popularity because problems emerge when it is implemented in different contexts. Hu (2002, p.93) highlights this problem in the Chinese context:

[In China] It is a common belief that a teacher must assume a directive role, having the sole prerogative in deciding what to teach and exerting complete control over the class all the time (Tang & Absalom, 1998). This is to make class events fully predictable, guarantee the smooth delivery of carefully planned contents, and give a sense of security to both teacher and student

This suggests that sometimes moving outside the pedagogy that teachers are comfortable with may simply be too much of a change. While a communicative approach may be a challenging one anywhere, it is perhaps more of a challenge in non-Western contexts as the shift being asked of both students and teachers is more significant. In this context, Hu (2002) questions whether this approach is valuable in China, and these findings can be extended to other non-Western contexts.

2.5.1 Summary of the Saudi Arabian studies reviewed

This section will present the studies to be discussed, seen in Table 1 on the next page, along with their methodologies, aims, locations and participants, in order to compare them in terms of the approaches they used and the value they offer the current work. The studies I reviewed focusing on the Saudi Arabian context were all conducted in either Saudi schools or universities. Therefore, they reflect a similar context in terms of general pedagogic culture. However, it should be noted that universities are more flexible as the teacher or lecturer chooses what to teach, while in schools they all have the same allocated textbooks.

Table 1: Summary of Studies in South Arabian Context

| Study | Aim | Methodology | Place | Participants |
|--|--|--|---|---|
| Abahussain (2016) Ph.D. thesis | To explore the challenges faced by novice English teachers using CLT | Interviews, questionnaires and document analysis | Saudi Arabia, secondary schools | Teachers and recent graduates from the schools of education, arts and languages |
| Farooq (2015) Article | To study the teacher perception and practice of CLT | Mixed-method approach, classroom observation and a teacher questionnaire | Taif University English Language Centre, Saudi Arabia | 50 male and 50 female teachers, 10 observations (male teachers) |
| Asmari (2015) Article | To study challenges in the implementation of CLT | Quantitative method that included questionnaires | Taif University English Language Centre, Saudi Arabia | 100 EFL teachers (50 male and 50 female) |
| Al-Garni and Almuhammadi (2019) Article | To study how CLT affects the students' speaking skills | Quasi-experimental method, pre- and post-tests | Jeddah University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia | 21 female EFL students |
| Wajid and Saleem (2016) Article | To study attitudes towards CLT in classrooms | Small questionnaire | Colleges affiliated to King Abdul-Aziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia | 20 teachers |
| Adil (2020) Article | To study the role of translation in CLT implementation in classrooms | Semi-structured interviews | Universities in Saudi Arabia | 20 professors and lecturers |

Abahussain (2016) used interviews and questionnaires with teachers and recent graduates of the schools of education, arts and languages, as well as document analysis, and found that the challenges were misconceptions of CLT, exam orientation and lack of teacher education. The teacher-centred pedagogy was preferred; there were large classes and a lack of resources to help with using CLT. Farooq (2015) used a mixed-method approach, classroom observation and teacher questionnaires with male and female teachers in a Saudi university and found the challenge to be a lack of teacher education, time pressures and lack of CPD.

Al Asmari (2015) used questionnaires with male and female teachers of a Saudi university and found that the challenges were lack of teacher education and CPD, lack of authentic materials, time pressures, lack of student motivation and students' low level of proficiency. AL-Garni and Almuhammadi (2019) used the quasi-experimental method and pre- and post-tests with female students in a Saudi university and found that the challenges were lack of materials, time pressures and a lack of CPD. Wajid and Saleem (2016) used a small questionnaire with teachers in a Saudi university and found that in practice the teaching drew on ALM and GTM, which clashed with CLT in theory. Adil (2020) used interviews with professors and lecturers in Saudi universities, finding that teachers avoid using CLT activities in their classes because of a lack of materials. Generally, these studies found that CLT was not implemented in practice. Most of the studies used questionnaires and interviews, except one, but this was conducted in a university and not a school context.

2.5.2 Summary of the international studies reviewed

The general non-Western studies I review (see Table 2, below) in addition to those above are from China, Egypt, Bangladesh, Rwanda, India, Jordan, Ethiopia, Indonesia and Taiwan. All these studies discuss cultures with a generally similar relationship to the English language: the native language is very different from English linguistically and there is a big distance between the cultures. However, in some of these countries, especially India and Bangladesh, students may have more experience of English being used in everyday life (Rahman, Hamzah, & Meerah, 2010).

Table 2: Summary of Studies in International Context

| Study | Aim | Methodology | Place | Participants |
|------------------------|---|---|--------------------------------|--|
| Chen (2016) PhD | To study the practice of CLT implementation in classrooms | Three questionnaires, classroom observations and interviews | Taiwanese EFL secondary school | 90 students in the eighth grade |
| Mulat (2003) Master | To study the attitudes towards CLT and its practical problems | Questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation | Ethiopia | 80 English language teachers from 10 schools |
| Hassan (2014) PhD | To study the views on CLT difficulties | Classroom observation and interviews | Bangladeshi secondary schools | Five male teachers |

| | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|---|---|---|
| Mangubhai et al. (2007) Article | To study the CLT approach in the textbook and what the pedagogy is pushing towards | Text analysis | N/A | Sample of 34 texts on CLT |
| Xue (2009) PhD | To study the degree of adaptation by teachers who have overseas experience | Interviews, classroom observations and questionnaire | Yangzhou University, Fudan University, Sun Yat-Sen University, and Peking University, China | 21 teachers with Occupational English Test CPD |
| Ntirenganya (2015) Master | To study views about the difficulties in implementing CLT | Online questionnaire | Rwandan University | 16 EFL teachers |
| Ibrahim and Ibrahim (2017) Article | To study whether or not Egyptian English teachers are using CLT | Classroom observations, questionnaire responses and face-to-face interviews | Egypt's public schools in Giza governorate | 100 English teachers |
| Sreehari (2012) Article | To study CLT options and difficulties regarding its implementation | Structured questionnaire and classroom observations | State of Andhra Pradesh, India | 1,500 male and female students from 35 colleges |
| Karim (2004) Master | To study the attitudes towards CLT | Written questionnaire | Post-secondary education in Bangladesh | 36 university-level EFL teachers |
| Asassfeh et al. (2012) | To study the learners' attitudes towards CLT | 41-item questionnaire responses, analysed with descriptive and referential statistics | Jordan | 1,525 EFL school students |
| Wiyono et al. (2017) Article | To study how CLT affects the learners' outcomes | Questionnaires and documentation | Blitar, East Java, Indonesia | 40 elementary school teachers |

In India, Sreehari (2012) used a structured questionnaire with students and found there to be a lack of authenticity, not enough communicative activities and not enough CLT CPD for teachers. Wiyono and Gipayana (2017), focusing on Indonesia, distributed questionnaires to teachers and also researched documents and found there to be a clash between the exam-orientation of the curriculum and CLT; CLT was found to not be useful in their results. Investigating Bangladeshi schools, Karim (2004) used a questionnaire and found CLT to clash with teacher education and beliefs. Xue (2009) studied China using interviews with teachers, classroom observations and questionnaires and found there to be a clash between CLT and Chinese traditional pedagogy in terms of the relations between teachers and students as well as a major difficulty with intercultural differences in the Chinese context. This study was only conducted in Beijing, however, where exposure to English may tend to be higher than in rural areas of the country.

Researching Ethiopia, Mulat (2003) used interviews with teachers, classroom observations and questionnaires with teachers and found that teachers have positive attitudes towards CLT, and it can be successful if teachers believe in it. In Bangladeshi schools, Hassan (2013) used classroom observations and interviews with teachers and found there to be a lack of CPD in CLT, low level proficiency of students and educational system clash with CLT. Looking at a Rwandan university, Ntirenganya (2015) used questionnaires with teachers and found the difficulties to be big classes, lack of motivation to use L2, student role in Rwanda clashing with CLT, lack of teaching material and time pressures. Researching Egypt, Ibrahim and Ibrahim (2017) used interviews with teachers, classroom observations and questionnaires with teachers in schools and found the difficulty to be a lack of CPD in how to implement CLT. Chen (2016) conducted a study in Taiwanese schools, where there was more autonomy for schools to choose what content to teach, but with overall national guidance. Chen found that the actual pedagogy was teacher-centred. Overall, all these studies found that CLT was not being successfully implemented; for various reasons, which will be discussed further below, they all experienced some form of clash with the CLT principles.

2.5.3 Misunderstanding of CLT

Misunderstanding the concept of CLT is a common issue across many different contexts where CLT is implemented. Misunderstanding may lead to a refusal to apply the concept due to a belief about what it involves.

In the Saudi context, studies that discussed misunderstanding the concept of CLT included Abahussain (2016), Al Asmari (2015) and Adil (2020). Abahussain (2016) found that

misunderstanding of CLT caused CLT to become a challenge for the teachers; CLT was perceived as teaching speaking skills only and ignoring grammar altogether. Therefore, teachers preferred not to use it because they didn't want to miss out grammar and other skills. Al Asmari (2015) found similar misconceptions about CLT: that CLT teaches no grammar and only speaking skills. Adil (2020) found that there was misunderstanding of CLT as the teachers considered translation to be the main strategy to be used in CLT. Their understanding of CLT was that the language translation strategy is a key element in developing the necessary communicative skills. The majority of the teachers used translation as the main learning technique and they suggested that translation is a good communicative strategy during the lesson. Al Asmari (2015) found that the teachers have a limited understanding of CLT, which was a challenge to implementing CLT. However, as the aim of CLT is communicative competence is and one of the elements of that is strategic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980), strategic translation can be helpful when it aligns with this aim. This point about strategy is discussed in depth in Chapter Three.

According to Mangubhai, Marland, Dashwood, and Son (2007), many teachers misunderstand CLT and how to use this approach with students. Other findings consistent with this view include those of Hassan (2013), Chen (2016), Xue (2009), Ibrahim and Ibrahim (2017) and Karim (2004). These studies showed such misunderstanding (examples are below) to be one of the barriers to implementing CLT. Hassan (2013) suggested that a lack of familiarity with teaching methodologies led to unfamiliarity with CLT. Chen (2016) further found that misunderstanding the nature of CLT is one of the reasons for it being regarded as such a challenging approach. In a different context, Xue (2009) showed that misunderstanding CLT is also a challenge for teachers in Chinese universities. When these teachers were interviewed, the majority of them were found to misunderstand the features of CLT, and nearly all of them believed CLT to be learner-centred interactive teaching or teaching without grammar. When asked, most of the participants gave vague answers and were unable to identify what CLT is. Such misunderstanding can naturally stop any pedagogy from being implemented.

The above findings generally suggest that misunderstanding is a result of a lack of knowledge about CLT, which relates to another challenge that will be discussed further below: teacher education. However, in Xue's study, although the author noted misunderstanding, the classroom observation found that most of the teachers were using some CLT activities in their classrooms, such as group discussions, presentations and question-and-answer activities. This can either suggest that they understood the concept but

did not express this in the interviews, or it may suggest that CLT can be successfully implemented without a full understanding of the concept. However, Xue does not clarify whether the teachers initiated these exercises or they were following the teacher's book.

In Bangladesh, Hassan (2013) found that a lack of knowledge about teaching techniques also creates difficulty for teachers in implementing CLT; CLT activities, such as group work, role-play, dialogues and discussions, were not used in the classrooms. For example, these teachers do not know how to address students' different learning needs, how to deal with different student levels, or how to manage large classes with up to 70 students in one room. Notably, this was the only study in a school that had to deal with such large class sizes. Xue (2009) looked at classes with up to 120 students, but this research took place in universities. This suggests that the size of the class may be the major problem, not CLT itself. The studies in China, Bangladesh and Taiwan showed similar results in terms of teachers, students and administrators all misunderstanding CLT principles. The Taiwanese schoolteachers, who had more freedom to choose what content to teach, and the Chinese university teachers with overseas experience, likewise all misunderstood the principles of CLT. Ibrahim and Ibrahim (2017) found that teachers have a lack of understanding of the concept of CLT and Karim (2004) found that many of the teachers did not differentiate between the effectiveness of a teacher-centred and a student-centred approach.

The above findings on misunderstanding are mainly drawn from non-Western contexts outside Saudi Arabia, while only one study discussed above is from the Saudi context. The studies involved interviews with teachers, but they did not involve interviewing students or observations to find how this understanding actually manifests in the classroom. In relation to my research, this suggests a need to interview students and undertake observation in the Saudi classroom context to get a clearer picture of the impact of this level of understanding.

2.5.4 Resistance to the concept

This section will explore studies that discuss resistance to the concept of CLT as a challenge to CLT being implemented. If the teachers consider the method to be too much of a challenge to their values and their systems of working, they may reject it.

There was also found to be a line between misunderstanding CLT and teacher behaviour that showed rejection or resistance to CLT. In the Saudi context, the studies that covered resistance to the concept of CLT included Abahussain (2016), Farooq (2015), Al Asmari (2015), Adil (2020) and Wajid and Saleem (2016). Wajid and Saleem (2016) found that teachers had a positive opinion of CLT, but there was no application of their understanding

of CLT in reality and no use of communicative activities. Abahussain (2016) found that teachers prefer to use a teacher-centred pedagogy such as GTM or ALM. The study found GTM and ALM to better suit the teachers as they became more relaxed and felt this worked better in the large classes. This study showed that the teachers prefer their role to be at the centre as the explainer, with them as the main source of knowledge.

Al Asmari (2015) found resistance to CLT for many reasons, such as needing more time to prepare than with GTM and ALM, needing extra materials to satisfy the need for authenticity and meaningfulness, students not wanting to engage with communicative activities and it not fitting with the Saudi pedagogic culture or the students' role in learning. Farooq (2015) found that female teachers were aware of CLT but resistant to using it as they did not consider it suitable for various reasons, including large classes, difficulties of doing pair work and lack of aids. However, despite their noted resistance to the concept of CLT, the teachers were using some communicative activities, such as pair work and group work. Adil (2020) suggests that the communicative approach can be applied by using translations, which can be used to make the communicative teaching more meaningful and to bridge with low level students when using CLT activities. This can be related to the argument of Cook (2001) with regard to using L1 and L2 positively (see the 'Lack of Use of L2' section below).

Studies looking at other non-Western contexts also showed rejection or resistance to CLT (Chen, 2016; Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2017; Karim, 2004; Xue, 2009). This was generally drawn from studies using classroom observations and surveying the teachers' beliefs and they noted that teachers were being influenced to use certain pedagogies. Chen (2016) showed there to be resistance among Taiwanese secondary school teachers, also finding a gap between what they believed communicative language teachers should do and what they were actually doing in their classrooms. The researcher added that CLT was considered to lead to a loss of control of the lesson. This highlights how closely misunderstanding and resistance are related to one another. Importantly though, these teachers seemed to be rejecting the method based on their knowledge of it, rather than their lack of knowledge.

In Xue's (2009) study, CLT activities did not follow the principles of CLT: the teachers were found to use CLT textbooks but apply CLT in a way that was more traditionally related to GTM methods. For example, the activities in the textbooks categorised as "functional" were used for drills and asking and answering questions, and the students memorised these activities rather than using them functionally. Xue noted that the teachers in these universities combined elements of CLT with a fixed traditional teacher-centred approach. These teachers also had the biggest classrooms. Even though these teachers noted their

support of CLT, their actual practice was hierarchical and teacher-centred. This is different from the findings of Adil (2020), who described the positive use of the traditional approach to bridge to CLT. Xue (2009) pointed out that these teachers believe that a fixed traditional teaching style is highly effective. This study in the Chinese context showed that these teachers believe some aspects of the Audio-Lingual method (such as drills, text memorisation and receiving knowledge without thinking) to be helpful in teaching English. ALM appears to be the dominant approach to CLT activities in this context because there is a gap that ALM may fill. Even though the more traditional pedagogies in these studies were seen as part of learning, their implementation can lead to difficulty in implementing some aspects of CLT. For example, the high control generally applied in pedagogies such as ALM will value accuracy over fluency and thus limit the space to practice CLT.

From the above studies, there is a clear similarity in the results between the Saudi and other non-Western contexts. Most of the studies noted resistance to CLT, except the Wajid and Saleem (2016) study, which was in favour. Most were also not using CLT as a result of this resistance, except one study from Saudi Arabia that was using translations as a bridge to CLT. Only one study was conducted in a Saudi school and it did not use observations to link the noted resistance to CLT and how it manifested in the actual classroom. There is thus a need to use classroom observation in a school in the Saudi context to explore how resistance to the concept results in the teachers' actual pedagogies.

2.5.5 Lack of use of L2

This section will discuss the findings related to the challenge of using L2 and this emerging as difficulty in implementing CLT. Given that the use of L2 is central to CLT, unwillingness or inability to use L2 extensively will have a very significant impact on a communicative pedagogy.

The called-for use of L2 over L1 in the CLT approach can be challenging as many of these classrooms traditionally have a strong L1 preference. In relation to the Saudi context, the studies discussing this include Farooq (2015) and Abahussain (2016). Farooq (2015) found that the teachers in universities demanded that L2 only be used; Abahussain (2016) in turn found the teachers in schools to be using a large amount of L1, with L2 used to read out the text, while L1 was used to translate L2. The cases discussed by Farooq (2015) were thus using L2 in a way that aligned with CLT, in that there is some degree of use of L2 in order to communicate. On other hand, Abahussain (2016) found that this use of L2 is very limited. Krashen (1981) sees a need for input of L2 to enable the students to be able to produce the

desired output. However, these two Saudi studies of Farooq and Abahussain are in a different setting which suggests that the different amounts of L2 may depend on whether it is being used in schools or universities. This difference may be related to a logical conclusion that the English language level of school students should be generally lower than that of university students who have studied English for more time. It must be noted that Abahussain (2016) only considered three secondary schools in one city, which is too small a number to represent the practices across the country.

In contexts other than Saudi Arabia, Ibrahim and Ibrahim (2017) and Asassfeh, Khwaileh, and Al-Shaboul (2012) found the main language used in the classroom to be L1 rather than L2. Ibrahim and Ibrahim (2017) suggested that the majority of the teachers predominantly used L1 and they did not let the students use L2, instead of encouraging them to use L1. Communication with the students was generally in L1. Asassfeh et al. (2012) found that teachers were not creating an atmosphere conducive to using L2 in their classroom. This would perhaps involve more openness to students talking and being creative with the language; instead, in these settings, students paying attention to the teacher and speaking when permitted was considered to be good learning. These students had very little freedom to use L2 and no freedom to use L2 to experiment; there was a large amount of correcting the students while they were using L2. Nonetheless, as Cook (2001) argues, even if students and teachers are not using L1 all the time, although they may lose the meaningfulness of CLT, L1 use may be used as a step towards CLT – for example when using L1 to make the L2 clear for the students. The teacher can check the meaning or translate to carry the meaningful message or bridge between L2 and L1. Then the next step is to use the meaning in L2 in context so L1 may therefore facilitate language learning. This can be seen as an instance of strategic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). However, the heavy use of L1 noted above suggests that this strategic mix of the two languages is not being widely applied in schools.

This section has discussed the use of L1 and L2 in the CLT classroom. A large amount of L1 commonly used was considered a challenge to CLT in schools, while in universities there was found to be a demand for a high level of L2 to be used. The teachers all agreed on the need for a large amount of L1, except for one study in the Saudi context which encouraged more use of L2. Neither of the Saudi studies explored how L1 and L2 are actually used in the classroom and how this relates to the relationship between the two, which this work will consider. L1 can be useful; Cook argues that it is necessary to consider four factors in this regard: efficiency, learning, naturalness and external relevance (2001, p.117). The first factor

denotes that the use of L1 may sometimes be more effective than that of L2; the second factor notes that the use of L1 is also helpful in the learning process; the third factor, naturalness, highlights how students feel when using L1 instead of L2, regarding it as natural, convertible and more functional; the final factor, external relevance, considers that the students will use L1 and L2 in the real world. Cook (2001, p.117) adds that it should nonetheless be considered what element of L2 is being lost when using L1, noting that focus should be placed on the need for the students to experiment with L2 as well as being exposed to L2.

2.5.6 Student lack of language proficiency

This section will discuss how a low level of student proficiency is a challenge or perceived challenge to teachers implementing CLT.

Many of the studies showed students' low level in the target language to be a challenge to implementing this approach. In the Saudi context, the studies covering lack of language proficiency were Abahussain (2016) and Al Asmari (2015). Abahussain (2016) found that the limited language proficiency of the students stopped them from using the recommended CLT approach. Al Asmari (2015) found that the low level of proficiency was the main challenge that made the students reluctant to engage with the oral activities and pair work, which require the use of L2, as discussed earlier in this chapter. Both studies found that the low level is a reason for the challenges, and it limits CLT implementation. When linking this to other pedagogies such as GTM and ALM (discussed above), these pedagogies clearly fit with low level students. One of the main principles of GTM is to teach difficult text to early-stage learners. Similarly, ALM does not require a high level because it is based on drills rather than the use of L2. CLT, however, is a broad approach and although there is no clear guidance and many differing pedagogies are based on these principles of CLT, the misunderstanding section above suggests that many teachers interpret this as a method depending on sophisticated conversing in L2.

Examples of this from elsewhere include Xue (2009) in China, Hassan (2013) in Bangladesh and Ntirenganya (2015) in Rwanda. Xue (2009) found that the majority of teachers thought that a low level of English was one of the main challenges in the Chinese context. The study showed that most of the participants found this lack of language ability to be a potential barrier to implementing teaching English communicatively. However, they also believed that a high level of language proficiency may not be necessary and instead an acceptable language level is enough to apply CLT. Nonetheless, the studies did not clarify what this

acceptable level of English proficiency was. Hassan (2013) found that the low level of students makes it difficult to implement CLT in the Bangladeshi context; therefore, no CLT activities were used. A similar study conducted in Rwanda by Ntirenganya (2015) found that teachers in this context believed students' low level in the target language to be a challenge to implementing CLT because they were not comfortable using L2 in CLT activities or to communicate as they did not want to make mistakes in L2; instead, they used L1 for most of the classroom time. This aligns to some degree with both ALM and GTM, avoiding mistakes, as ALM emphasises, while using a large amount of L1, as GTM highlights. In CLT, however, it is emphasised that mistakes are part of the learning process.

Thus, all the studies that discussed this point agreed that low level student proficiency makes CLT difficult to implement. In relation to my study, it is necessary to consider how teachers deal with low language proficiency and to consider teachers' beliefs alongside a classroom observation. Of the two studies in the Saudi context, neither observed the classroom to find the impact of low-level proficiency.

2.5.7 Teacher lack of language proficiency

This section will explore the findings related to the lack of language proficiency in teachers. Lack of language proficiency among teachers was found to be another issue that may challenge teachers and students in implementing CLT. In relation to the Saudi context, the studies that covered this include Abahussain (2016) and Al Asmari (2015). Abahussain (2016) found that this lack of proficiency emerged from the teacher's own education as limited exposure to L2 was a main challenge for recent graduate teachers in using the CLT approach recommended in their teacher guide. Al Asmari (2015) found the same among university teachers, suggesting that the low level of the teachers was a main reason for the teachers using a teacher-centred pedagogy. These two studies agreed that teachers' lack of language proficiency can make it a challenge to implement CLT, which is also supported by the findings of Brown (2014). This is because teachers are required to use L2 more communicatively with the CLT method.

The other studies covering teacher lack of proficiency were Hassan (2013), Xue (2009) and Ibrahim and Ibrahim (2017). Hassan (2013) found that the low level of teachers in Bangladesh schools led the teachers to use teacher-centred approaches with a large amount of L1. Xue (2009) also found that for Chinese teachers their low level led to them not using the communicative approach, but instead adopting a teacher-centred method. In Egypt,

Ibrahim and Ibrahim (2017) found that the low level of the teachers led the teacher to use teacher-centred methods and to ignore communicative activities such as pair work.

In summary, all the studies discussed above seem to reflect a general acceptance that a lack of teacher language proficiency means the teachers are unable to implement CLT. However, this is not necessarily the case as it is possible to implement CLT even with low level teacher proficiency, although it is perhaps not as efficient. This is because CLT requires a balance between accuracy, fluency and the use of meaningful and authentic, productive and not predictive language (Brown, 2014). Notably, low language proficiency will impact all language-teaching pedagogies, not just the CLT approach.

2.5.8 Student-teacher relationships

This section will discuss the findings related to student-teacher relationships. As noted above, there is generally a difference between the Western and non-Western context in terms of the relationships in the classroom and this can impact the implementation of CLT (R. Ellis, 1994). One of the main ways these different features emerge is in the student-teacher relationships.

In the Saudi studies, Abahussain (2016), Farooq (2015) and Adil (2020) noted the impact of student-teacher relations. Abahussain (2016) found that “transmitter of knowledge” is one of the main characteristics of the teacher’s classroom role in Saudi Arabia. He noted that teachers were the main source of trusted knowledge in the classroom and their high level of control led to them not using activities such as group and pair work. The majority of these teachers used teacher-centred approaches. Farooq (2015) also found that the relations between the teacher and students were very hierarchical and teacher-centred, which clashes with the relations required by CLT. Adil (2020) noted similar hierarchical relations applied by the teachers and that they used these hierarchical relations to provide a translation pedagogy that clashed with the CLT approach. While such a hierarchy does not necessarily have to clash with CLT so long as the lesson follows the core principles of communicative competence (accuracy and fluency balance, meaningful, authenticity and productivity of language use) (Brown, 2014), if this hierarchy results in a loss of one or all of these elements then it will clash. In Abahussain (2016), the transmitter of knowledge role clashed with the need to use meaningful language.

Chen (2016), Xue (2009), Karim (2004) and Asassfeh et al. (2012) found a clash between what CLT requires and the actual role of the teacher in the pedagogy, which was related to pedagogic culture in these local contexts, while Sreehari (2012) found that the students

wanted a more learner-centred approach. Chen (2016) noted that a teacher-centred approach is the dominant practice for Taiwanese teachers, which clashes with the CLT approach that requires a more student-centred approach. In a different context, Asassfeh et al. (2012) in Jordan showed that the classes were teacher-centred and very controlled; there was no space for the students to control their own learning and low tolerance of mistakes and student disruption. In the Bangladesh context, Karim (2004) drew similar findings, suggesting that teacher-centred is the dominant pedagogy. Xue (2009) in turn found the Chinese teachers to be uncomfortable with a student-centred approach; the study found the Chinese traditional pedagogy to dominate in this context, which is generally teacher-centred. Xue (2009) showed that CLT clashed with Chinese tradition and the role that teachers are expected to play in the classroom. The study added that teachers fear that CLT will lead to them losing control, which clashes with their need to remain the dominant authority in the classroom. The researcher added that the students believed the teachers should be the main knowledge transmitters.

To summarise, there were similar findings in the Saudi context and the context of the other non-Western countries as most of the findings above show that the dominant pedagogy is teacher-centred, which clashes with CLT. Most of the studies also showed a preference for this authoritative relationship between teacher and students. Notably, however, these findings mainly focus on the teacher perspective. Two studies involved students' views; in one of them the students noted a preference for teacher-centred approaches and the others noted a preference for less hierarchical relations. In relation to my study, the previous findings have not closely considered the degree of control, use of control in the classroom and what role this plays in using a CLT-based curriculum.

2.5.9 Lack of alignment with exams

This section will discuss the studies' findings related to a lack of alignment between the curriculum and the exams and how this impacts on a CLT pedagogy. In the Saudi context, the studies exploring a strong focus on exams included Abahussain (2016), Al Asmari (2015) and Farooq (2015). Abahussain (2016) found a strong exam orientation, with the summative exams affecting the pedagogy, pushing it to be more teacher-centred and distant from CLT in order to match with the written exams. This affected the process of teaching in the classroom as teachers selected specific content that matched the written exams. Al Asmari (2015) found that the exam system affected what the teachers focused on and it limited the teachers in using a CLT pedagogy. Farooq (2015) found that the lack of clarity in terms of

how to assess the communicative competence of students drew the teachers to focus on skills that had a clearer form, such as grammar and vocabulary.

Chen (2016), Mulat (2003), Hassan (2013), Xue (2009), Ntirenganya (2015) and Wiyono and Gipayana (2017) all agreed that CLT is affected by the exam system. Chen (2016) and Mulat (2003) found there to be a focus on certain skills that are to be examined; this affected CLT by focusing the teachers on content that would emerge in the exams. Chen (2016) found that the Taiwanese teachers focused on grammar and writing more than any other skills, and skills associated with the communicative approach, such as speaking and writing to communicate, were ignored. Among Bangladeshi students and teachers, Hassan (2013) found that some speaking skills were not being taught in the classroom. This was suggested to be because speaking and listening were not examined. Similarly, in Ethiopia, Mulat (2003) showed a conflict between the communicative textbook and the national exams, which stopped Ethiopian teachers from focusing on speaking and listening. In China, not only the skills, but also the techniques being exam-oriented, was driving teachers to use memorisation and imitation, as Xue (2009) noted. Xue suggested that this was because the exam-orientated Chinese teachers considered the communicative approach not to be useful for passing the exams. This dominant pedagogy among the teachers involved using certain pedagogy elements and ignoring other aspects of CLT in order to encourage passing exams rather than learning the language as a skill.

The above shows agreement between the Saudi studies and other non-Western context studies in relation to the strong impact of exams on the CLT pedagogy, with the exam focus very often directing the teacher focus. However, none of the above studies used a theoretical framework exploring the relationship between exams, the teacher's actual pedagogy and the curriculum.

2.5.10 Teacher education and continuing professional development challenges

This section will discuss teacher education and CPD challenges in implementing CLT. In relation to the Saudi context, the studies discussing teacher education and CPD challenges included Abahussain (2016), Farooq (2015), Al Asmari (2015) AL-Garni and Almuhammadi (2019). Abahussain (2016) found that a lack of teacher education related to CLT as a teaching approach was stopping teachers from implementing CLT in their classes. The lack of focus on improving language proficiency in universities was a further issue in teacher education that was considered a challenge. Farooq (2015) found that different teachers have different teacher backgrounds, but most of them did not receive CLT in CPD

or their teacher education. Al Asmari (2015) suggested that the lack of language and culture in teacher education was one of the main challenges to CLT implementation and there was a lack of CLT in teacher education and CPD for CLT. AL-Garni and Almuhammadi (2019) found that there was a lack of teaching on how to prepare the lessons and the materials to implement CLT lessons and activities and the study noted a need for CPD on this.

Mulat (2003), Hassan (2013), Ntirenganya (2015), Ibrahim and Ibrahim (2017), Wiyono and Gipayana (2017), Karim (2004) and Chen (2016) also found challenges in this area. Mulat (2003) showed that teachers who were long out of university had difficulty implementing the curriculum compared to those who had more recently graduated. Hassan (2013) found that the teachers' lack of CPD was one of the main pedagogic challenges that stopped them from implementing CLT. Ntirenganya (2015) suggested that there was no teacher education to help them understand how to implement CLT and the teachers had insufficient CPD. Ibrahim and Ibrahim (2017) found that teachers needed more CPD on how to build CLT into the environment of the classroom. Wiyono et al. (2017) reported that most of the teachers in their study lacked CLT teacher education, which made CLT difficult, and some teachers lack of education in the methods and techniques that could help them. Asassfeh et al. (2012) found that teachers lacked CPD. Chen (2016) found that most of the teachers who had received CLT education only learned it as a theoretical course and they found it difficult in reality. Mulat (2003) found that teachers who had recently graduated had the most positive attitudes towards using CLT. Karim (2004) also found a clash between teacher education and CLT.

There is agreement between the Saudi findings and the non-Western context findings as they all suggested that a lack of teacher education was a main challenge to CLT implementation. These studies generally found a gap between what teachers learned and the actual practice required to implement CLT. However, it should be noted that such a gap would be a challenge to any pedagogy. The gap between what they learned and what they were expected to practice led the teachers to make adjustments to their pedagogy to deal with the reality (Korthagen & Kessels, 1999). In relation to my study, there remains a need to explore how this gap in teacher education has affected Saudi teachers' actual practice.

2.5.11 Practical difficulties

This section discusses the findings related to practical difficulties in CLT implementation, such as lack of materials. In the Saudi context, the studies addressing practical difficulties included Abahussain (2016), Farooq (2015), Al Asmari (2015) and AL-Garni and

Almuhammadi (2019). Abahussain (2016) stated that English teachers find it challenging to implement CLT in their teaching practice. The practical difficulty of implementing CLT led teachers to focus on control of students and to use a teacher-centred pedagogy. Farooq (2015) found that limited time to prepare CLT materials and activities for their classes, before the lesson and in the lesson itself, is a challenge for them to implement CLT. Al Asmari (2015) and AL-Garni and Almuhammadi (2019) also suggested that it was difficult for teachers to find the time to develop activities and materials for CLT lessons.

Time pressure challenges were also noted in the studies of Chen (2016), Ntirenganya (2015) and Karim (2004). Chen (2016) found that teachers do not have enough time to prepare before lessons. Ntirenganya (2015) found that the teachers have limited time to develop materials for CLT classes and they have limited time if they have to implement communicative lessons. Karim (2004) suggested that the teachers did not have enough time to prepare communicative activities to use in their classrooms.

The studies above show that, in general, based on their resources, the teachers' CLT curriculum is not practical. While studies note different practical difficulties, most noted that the CLT pedagogy needed more time. The activities related to CLT were, for reasons of practicality, difficult to implement. This is similar to, and may also be exacerbated by, challenges noted in the previous section, with the lack of initial teacher education and CPD. In relation to my study, there was no classroom observation study that closely explored these difficulties when teachers in the Saudi context used textbook activities based on CLT.

2.5.12 Textbook and materials-related challenges

This section will discuss the textbook and materials-related challenges to CLT implementation. In the Saudi context, the studies considering textbook and materials-related challenges to implementing CLT were Abahussain (2016), Farooq (2015), Al Asmari (2015), AL-Garni and Almuhammadi (2019) and Wajid and Saleem (2016). Abahussain (2016) found that the available materials were outdated and there were no resources in the school for teachers and students to access the internet and thus further materials. Farooq (2015) found a lack of CLT materials for the teachers. Al Asmari (2015) found that there was a lack of authentic materials and more time was needed to find and prepare these materials for communicative activities. AL-Garni and Almuhammadi (2019) found that teachers had difficulty preparing materials for communicative activities. Wajid and Saleem (2016) in turn found that the quality of the material was low, which made communicative activities a challenge to implement.

The other studies addressing this topic included Chen (2016), Mulat (2003), Hassan (2013), Xue (2009), Ntirenganya (2015), Sreehari (2012), Wiyono and Gipayana (2017) and Karim (2004). Chen (2016) found that authentic materials needed more time to prepare and it took longer to find suitable options for the students' level, which made CLT more time-consuming than the traditional pedagogy. Mulat (2003) found that the national textbook based on CLT clashed with the national exams, which made CLT difficult to implement. This study also found that the available materials did not let the teachers design lessons according to proper communicative principles. Hassan (2013) suggested there was a lack of material and resources for the teacher to supplement their classes with so they could become CLT classes. The teacher read from the textbook during the activities because there was no clear idea and practical understanding provided by these textbooks on how to apply the activities. Xue (2009) found that teachers had materials for CLT classes specially designed for them, but they lacked authentic material. Ntirenganya (2015) found that teachers have limited time to develop materials for communicative classes. Sreehari (2012) likewise noted that teachers have a lack of authentic learning materials. Wiyono and Gipayana (2017) suggested that the textbook techniques and materials were not well chosen to suit the students and Karim (2004) found that teachers lack authentic materials and have little time to design materials for classes due to the individual levels and needs.

2.6 Identifying the gap in the field of study

Most of the Saudi studies discussed above note a lack of suitable materials and, in relation to the textbooks, a lack of authenticity. In the other non-Western contexts, the studies note similar findings, especially in relation to a lack of authenticity. However, as discussed above, authenticity itself is a difficult concept to define. In relation to my research, no findings explore the relationship between the teacher's book based on CLT and the actual teacher pedagogy in order to investigate the challenges that may emerge. This review of international and Saudi studies on CLT implementation has identified a gap in the field which can be described from several perspectives. Firstly, there is a need to study rural or urban locations without high exposure to English. This is the case with the small city in this research which is located in a province of Saudi Arabia far from the more populous and cosmopolitan urban centres. It is also useful to combine classroom observation with interviews of both teachers and students to explore more fully their understanding of CLT. This observation should clarify how teacher-centred the pedagogy in actual use is and whether and how the teachers use the guidelines in the teacher's book. The use of L1 and L2 should also be observed in class and the interviews can explore teacher beliefs about the need for a certain level of

English in order to implement CLT. Finally, using a relevant theoretical framework, the research can explore the suggested and actual interaction of the teacher and students in the classroom, as well as the relationship of the curriculum to assessment.

2.7 Conclusion

In summary, this chapter has discussed the theories of language learning, the difference between subconscious language acquisition and learning consciously in the classroom, and how people learn, including implicit and explicit learning. It has provided a background to and explanation of methodologies, including GTM, which draws on conscious and explicit learning, ALM, which draws on both explicit and implicit approaches, and CLT, which mainly focuses on subconscious/ implicit learning. The chapter also discussed communicative competence given that the CLT approach was drawn from the goals of communicative competence. It noted that communicative competence refers to the ability to use the language appropriately in real contexts. CLT aims to achieve the communicative competence goal via broad principles that align with communicative competence. The chapter then discussed the fact that as CLT developed in a Western context, it may be unsuited to non-Western contexts, which can be very different in terms of pedagogic culture.

The findings of the studies from various non-Western contexts showed that there is often misunderstanding and resistance to CLT, which may be related to a lack of initial teacher education and CPD in this area. Teachers were also found to be unable to implement some of the basic precepts of CLT, such as establishing a relaxed classroom environment and making heavy use of L2, although this was found to be more of a problem in school than university settings. In terms of practical difficulties, there was noted to be a lack of time and suitable materials to create a proper CLT classroom. Despite the above challenges, some studies found that the teachers were able to implement some aspects of CLT. The gap that emerges from these findings is mainly methodological. None of the Saudi studies used classroom observations, interviews and textbook analysis, and therefore they do not explore the alignment between the textbooks, the teacher beliefs and the actual classroom. Therefore, this research uses classroom observations, interviews and textbook analysis to explore what pedagogy is being suggested, whether this suggested pedagogy is the one being implemented in the actual classroom and how the teachers interact with the students in their classrooms. This analysis is based on the theoretical framework that is developed in the next chapter.

Chapter 3: Theoretical framework

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the theoretical framework for the research: drawing on concepts of communicative competence, teacher-knowledge, change, theories of pedagogic discourse and English in the world. First, it presents an in-depth exploration of how understanding the concept of communicative competence and its evolving components has developed over time. Second is a focus on how contemporary teaching practices and theories can be understood to contextualise residual practices of the past, in the light of a theory of change. The discussion then moves to the theory of teacher-knowledge to analyse how Saudi teachers are educated to teach CLT. Lastly, it reviews Bernstein's theory of pedagogic discourse to understand how the interaction between teachers and students will vary under different pedagogic designs.

3.2 Linguistic theory

3.2.1 Saussure – *langue* and *parole*

The development of modern language theory can be said to start with Saussure at the beginning of the 1900s (de Saussure, 2011, p.111). Taking a structuralist view of language as a system similar to a code, Saussure highlighted the concepts of “*langue*” and “*parole*”. *Langue* refers to the rules, the structure and the principles of a language as a system. *Parole*, on the other hand, refers to the actual use of a system of language; in other words, how people use this coded system to communicate with each other. These components were understood to work separately.

3.2.2 Chomsky – competence and performance

These concepts were later developed by Chomsky (1965) with the concepts of *competence*, similar to *langue*, and *performance*, similar to *parole*. In Chomsky's theory of language, competence is based on knowledge of the structure of the language and performance on “the actual use of language in concrete situations” (Chomsky, 1965, p.4).

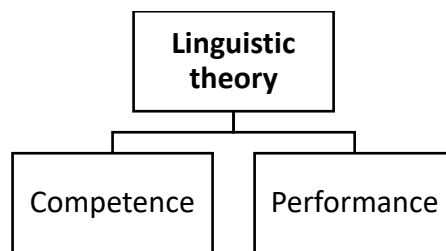


Figure 1. Elements of Chomsky’s theory of linguistics

Figure 1, above (adapted from Chomsky, 1965, p.3) shows Chomsky’s linguistic theory, which has an abstract nature:

Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech-community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors random or characteristic in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance (Chomsky, 1965, p.3)

The idealisation in Chomsky’s theory concerns perfect speakers in a perfect situation using their innate ability to produce language using what he called “universal grammar”. He understood this universal grammar to exist in every individual’s mind: “the grammar of a particular language, then, is to be supplemented by a universal grammar that accommodates the creative aspect of language use and expresses the deep-seated regularities which, being universal, are omitted from the grammar itself” (Chomsky, 1965, p.6).

Chomsky understood linguistic competence as an innate ability to use “the speaker-hearer’s knowledge of his language” (Chomsky, 1965, p.4). This linguistic competence involved many components: *syntax*, how a speaker uses grammar to form sentences; *morphology*, how a speaker forms words from morphemes; *phonology*, referring to pronunciation; and *lexicon*, a speaker’s vocabulary (Chomsky, 1965).

In Chomsky’s theory, linguistics is divided into issues of competence and performance. This competence is understood to be innate as it exists in every individual’s mind, and then the production (or realisation) of this innate competence is performance. This theory assumes an ideal speaker in an ideal context rather than the actual use of language by an actual speaker in a lived situation. In terms of Chomsky’s linguistics, communicative language teaching focuses less on abstract competence, or *langue*, and more on the performance, or *parole*, aspect of language in use.

3.2.3 Hymes – communicative competence

Hymes (1972) took a different view of the nature of linguistic competence and therefore of how language should be learned. He criticised Chomsky's frameworks of competence and performance as failing to explain how language can be used appropriately. Hymes pointed out that the concepts of competence and performance as theorised by Chomsky do not deal with how people interact in society and that the kind of linguistic competence in Chomsky's theory is not the only type of competence that matters. For Hymes, linguistic competence theory is necessary to understand language acquisition and production, but not sufficient as it refers to just one form of communicative competence.

Unlike Chomsky, Hymes (1972) focussed on the language knowledge that enables learners to speak and communicate effectively and appropriately, which is separate from its formal linguistic features. In his theory, Hymes argued that the *appropriateness* of the language choice is as important as the grammar rules of the language. Thus, knowing only the grammar is not sufficient to communicate; effective language communication needs to consider the setting. This because different contexts typically produce different language choices. Hymes' theory emphasises that, in addition to knowing the linguistic forms, a learner must also know how people interact and be able to communicate appropriately in specific contexts. This theory claims that to communicate effectively, the speaker has to consider how to speak, when to speak and when not to speak, in what manner, for whom this speech is intended, and in which setting, in order to know how the language functions. These contextual communication rules can differ from one setting to another.

Therefore, for this missing dimension of appropriateness, Hymes (1972) formulated the theory of *communicative competence*, which relates to the actual use of language in specific contexts, as opposed to the idealisation in Chomsky's theory. Hymes (1972, p.64) defined communicative competence as "the most general term for the capabilities of a person". Hymes (1972, p.64) added that "competence is dependent upon both (tacit) knowledge and (ability for) use. Knowledge is distinct, then, both from competence (as its part) and from systemic possibility (to which its relation is an empirical matter)" (Hymes, 1972, p.64).

Hymes thus defined linguistic competence with a wider understanding linked to the context rather than to the speaker/hearer's innate ability and their performance as more than the production of that innate ability in an ideal context. Like Chomsky, Hymes understood competence and performance, rather, as the ability to convey meaning and understand messages between people, knowing how to negotiate meaning interpersonally in a certain

context. Hymes (1972, pp. 284-286) distinguished the ability to use language from its performance and asserted that communicative competence includes the ability to judge one's language choice, based on four main criteria:

1. "Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible", which means a speaker must decide whether the language to be used is grammatically appropriate in the context in terms of syntax. This criterion is about the forms of the language and the learner's ability to use them.
2. "Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible", which means the speaker needs to decide whether or not the language choice can be processed psychologically. The language can be grammatically correct but may not be possible to communicate because of cognitive limitations. An example of communication that is not feasible is when there are grammar rules too lengthy or too complicated for the brain to process, such as when the speaker wants to link multiple clauses to each other.
3. "Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate", which means the speaker has to judge whether or not the language being used is suitable for the context. This criterion is about how suitable the language is for the particular context, which may involve certain cultural aspects. These specific cultural aspects require the speaker to speak accordingly.
4. "Whether (and to what degree) something is done", which means knowing the degree to which the language is common. The language may be formally possible, feasible and appropriate, but not relevant to a specific context because it is not usual enough to be clear.

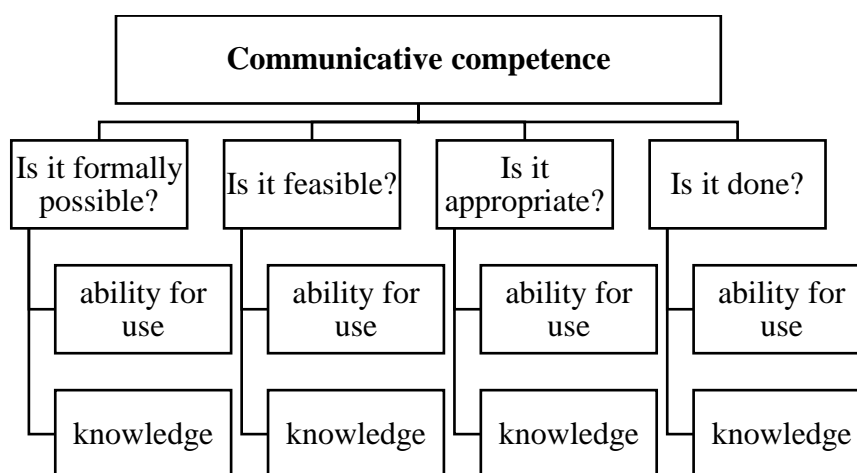


Figure 2. Communicative competence of Hymes

The main four criteria of this theory, summarised in Figure 2, each have two subcriteria, as Hymes argued “there is knowledge of each” and “ability for use also may relate to all four parameters” (Hymes, 1972, pp. 282-283). Knowledge, according to Hymes, is classified under competence. Ability for use is distinguished from the actual use of language and is therefore also classified under competence and not performance. Thus, there is a difference between potential ability and actual ability. Moreover, it is an oversimplification to imagine that Hymes’ theory developed from Chomsky’s, as the two worked in different fields. Chomsky was interested in the innate grammar ability of people and he did not mention the appropriateness of the use of language. His theory explained how the biological mechanisms helped the child to acquire the language in a subconscious manner. On the other hand, Hymes focussed on the ethnography of communication in use. Hymes was concerned with how language use reflected its context and what was considered appropriate. As Widdowson (1989, p.129) concluded in his statement on the two theories, “Chomsky and Hymes are playing in different kinds of games.”

Chomsky was concerned with the ideal speaker-hearer who knows the language in a perfect way however Hymes focuses on an ideal speaker who uses appropriate language in an ideal situation. The idealisation of Chomsky and the appropriateness of communication in Hymes’ theory will not reflect any actual pedagogic context. Neither of these theories completely explores how language works when it comes to an actual setting.

To conclude, Hymes’ theory was a response to the idealisation concept that underpinned Chomsky’s theory. Hymes’ theory went beyond idealisation given that this may not be the case in an actual context. However, the appropriateness in Hymes’ theory and the idealisation in Chomsky’s may be limited in exploring the language of learners in language classes – where they may become more or less competent through attending classes due to many processes (many of which they may be unaware of).

3.2.4 Cummins – 2 categories of communicative competence (BICS and CALP)

Cummins (1979) further developed the concept of communicative competence by addressing an area that Hymes and Chomsky did not consider: how the language works in an educational bilingual setting. Cummins focussed on communicative competence. His theory explores cognitive operations linked with the L2 learning processing. Cummins saw that in an educational setting there are two dimensions of language acquisition: for academic language and for social purposes. He argued that it is problematic to classify these two dimensions of language into a single category as there will always be differences between

them in terms of their use and development. Therefore, Cummins proposed a distinction between these dimensions of language which he called: basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) as shown in Figure 3, below (adapted from Cummins, 1979, p.71).

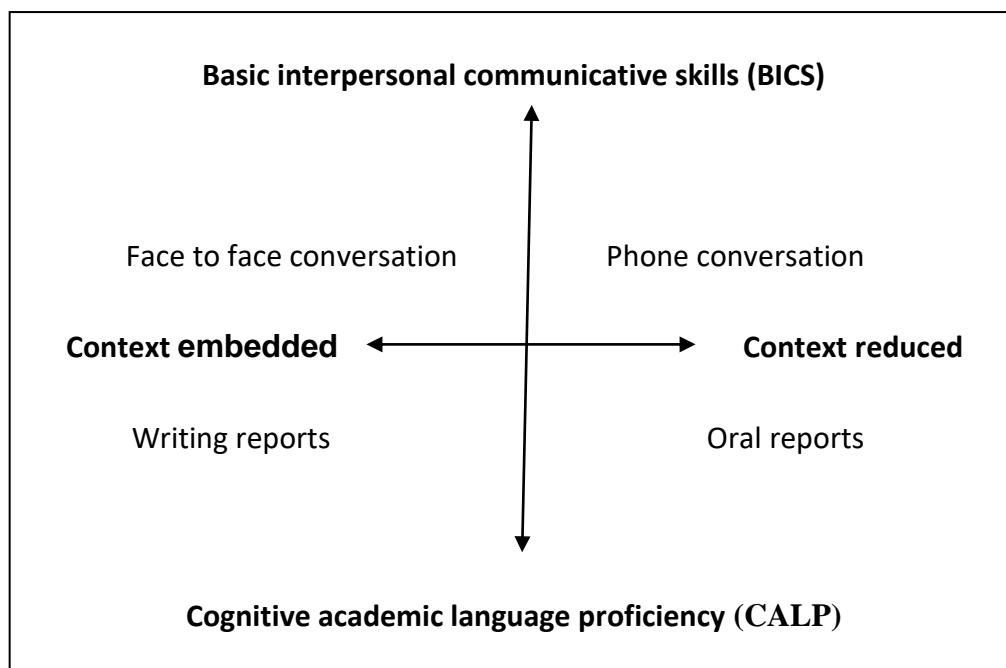


Figure 3. BICS and CALP

According to Cummins (1979), BICS is the dimension of language that reflects fluency. Cummins notes that BICS refers to the abilities that users of languages obtain in order to communicate functionally, including in everyday interactions. BICS does not only involve verbal communication, but can also refer to non-verbal communication, such as pointing at something or nodding to show agreement or engagement.

On the other hand, CALP is “the dimension of language proficiency which is strongly related to overall cognitive and academic skill” (Cummins, 1979, p.198). Academic language proficiency is clarified as “the extent to which an individual has access to and command of the oral and written academic registers of schooling” (Cummins, 2000, p.67). CALP refers to the language forms and register that are mainly used for academic purposes and contexts. CALP is linked with language proficiency in that it can be measured and assessed in the four skills which are reading, writing, listening and speaking. CALP involves academic language used inside the classroom and it includes activities such as academic writing, textbook reading, presenting or writing reports and reading newspaper articles.

There are differences between CALP and BICS in terms of the relation to context. BICS is “context-embedded”, while CALP is “context-reduced” (Cummins (2000, p.83). BICS

interactions, therefore, rely more on context for their meaning, such as social context, shared memories, physical environment and activities and, as such, they will be less cognitively demanding. On the other hand, CALP language is more demanding because the meaning is less dependent on the immediate context. CALP is linked to the language required for academic tasks, such as writing scientific papers, writing an assignment and group discussion of a topic. As CALP has less situational context to support language use, it is more cognitively demanding.

The development of CALP is different from that of BICS. CALP is more structured, which means the appropriate patterns are more distinct, and the learner is more conscious of demonstrating this competence. As BICS is often acquired through social interaction, the patterns can be more complex and less clear, and the learners may not be aware of their development (Cummins, 1979). CALP has an advantage over BICS in terms of being measurable through academic assessments. BICS is difficult to measure because it has social aspects and involves unfolding interaction that includes both verbal and non-verbal communication.

According to Cummins, distinguishing between CALP and BICS will only be possible under two conditions. The first is “extensive opportunities for interpersonal contact in L2” the second, “motivation to take advantage of these opportunities” (Cummins, Baker, & Hornberger, 2001, p.117). In this research, BICS is the type of L2 presented in the classroom for everyday informal use; CALP focuses on L2 with only academic purposes.

Cummins (1980) explained, however, that the distinction between these two concepts does not mean that they are unrelated. They are linked in the development of language as the development of BICS is essential to the development of CALP. He argues that BICS, in its verbal and nonverbal communication, is also a way to develop the academic aspects for learners in an educational setting. Correlation is not limited to that between CALP and BICS in the same language but may occur across languages as there is a correlation in CALP between L1 and L2. When learners have a high level of CALP in L1, this should also enable the development of CALP in L2. However, in this research, this assumption is not applicable because the features of Arabic are far from the features of English. In relation to my study, the distinction between BICS and CALP is helpful to understand the challenges that may exist in implementing pedagogies such as CLT. This research uses Cummins’ model to explore the different types of language expected from the participants.

3.2.5 Canale and Swain – 4 categories of communicative competence

Canale and Swain (1980) explored the language used in pedagogic contexts in a different way from Cummins, and in their view the most important dimensions of language use were not academic and social. They revisited Hymes' approach to the components of communicative competence.

Canale and Swain (1980) described these components as: grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence. – as shown in Figure 4, below (adapted from Canale & Swain, 1980, p.6).

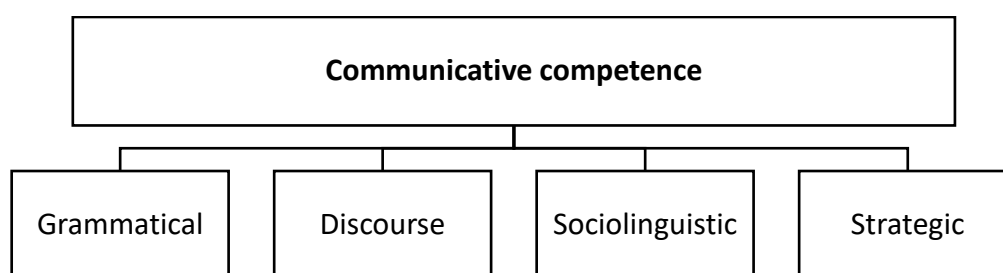


Figure 4. Communicative competence of Canale and Swain

The first category, *grammatical competence*, is about grammar and knowledge of grammar (including syntax and phonology). This category reflects Chomsky's theory of linguistic competence. In this model, grammatical competence is a crucial part of communication, however, knowing grammar alone is not sufficient to communicate successfully, effectively, and appropriately (Canale & Swain, 1980).

Their second category of communicative competence is *discourse competence*, which involves interstitial relationships (those between structures). Discourse competence is part of communication, but it operates beyond the sentence level. It refers to how sentences are combined together in order to make sense, and it suggests a speaker needs to understand more than individual sentences in order to communicate successfully and effectively. Such discourse can include friends chatting, formal meetings, emails, articles and books (Canale & Swain, 1980). In discourse competence, the focus is not only on sentences but also on the entire shape and sequence to construct meaningful discourse.

The third category is *sociolinguistic competence*, which refers to one's awareness and knowledge of sociocultural rules, genres and conventions. It includes knowledge of discourse, but it also refers to how a person needs to understand the social context in order to use the language effectively. Sociolinguistic competence involves consideration of the participants' roles, the participants' values, and the information being shared. Sociolinguistic

competence also involves how the participants interact in a particular context (Canale & Swain, 1980). Sociolinguistic competence is about whether a speaker is aware of his or her society, whether he or she is speaking in an acceptable way, and whether the speaker can interact with sociolinguistic appropriateness. This is therefore based on Hymes' concept of appropriateness; both focus on how language is used appropriately. What is new in Canale and Swain's theory is that it is more precise when it comes to the performance of this competence. This precision comes from two kinds of rules: sociocultural and discourse. These rules "specify how utterances are produced and understood appropriately with respect to the components of communicative events" (Canale & Swain, 1980, p.30).

The fourth category of communicative competence is *strategic competence*, which is defined as "*verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence*" (Canale & Swain, 1980, p.30, emphasis original). The role of this competence is to solve or repair any difficulty that may appear during the communication in order to continue with it. For example, a speaker momentarily forgetting a word in L2 (or even in L1) could use another word or nonverbal gestures to describe the concept (Canale & Swain, 1980). The strategic competence in this model plays a different role from that of the other components as its role is not limited to breakdowns in communication. It may also operate when, for example, the difficulty is in the grammar, lack of how to structure the language or lack of sociocultural rules – as these may all lead to a breakdown in communication. Therefore, translation may also play a strategic role if the aim is not simply to provide meaning in L1 but to enable the communication in L2 to continue.

In contrast, the strength of these three components (grammatical, discourse and sociolinguistic) can work strategically to solve breakdowns that may occur. Canale and Swain (1980) understood communicative competence to refer to language knowledge and skills that are necessary to communicate. They understood performance as the actual use of the language in real life. This concept reflects the distinction emphasised in Chomsky's (1965) theory of performance and competence discussed at the beginning of this chapter. However, in contrast to the ideal speaker and circumstances in Chomsky's theory, part of linguistic performance for Canale and Swain (1980) is related to the ability to use the language in a real and specific setting. This ability is "the realization of these competences and their interaction in the actual production and comprehension of utterances and the actual demonstration of this knowledge" (Canale & Swain, 1980, p.6).

Even though Canale and Swain mention competence and performance, their model is far from that of Chomsky and relatively similar to Hymes' model. Communicative competence for Canale and Swain is centred on the interaction between grammatical and sociolinguistic. Performance for Canale and Swain is different from Hymes' concept of performance, as for Canale and Swain performance is the actual production of these four components.

Despite Canale and Swain's model being based on that of Hymes, their view of competence and performance is very different; in particular, they suggest there is an overlap between them. How they differ, in this theory, is in their "ability for use". The two models treat this ability in a different way. In Hymes' model it is combined with knowledge in communicative competence; in Canale and Swain's model the ability for use is in performance as they exclude it from competence. The reason for this exclusion is that they "doubt that there is any theory of human actions that can explain "ability for use" and support principles of syllabus design intended to reflect this notion" (Canale & Swain, 1980, p.8).

The Canale and Swain (1980) communicative competence model – developed from Hymes (1972) – and its components (grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence) underpins the CLT approach and the CLT curriculum. However, in the view of Schachter (1990), some practical aspects of communicative competence are difficult to observe. Strategic competence, which involves solving difficulties in language use, is one such example. The difficulty is not limited to strategic competence. Lack of information regarding other competences in the model may result in its failure to explain how these competences interact with each other in a real setting. Schachter (1990) asserted that Canale and Swain simply list competences rather than providing a solid framework of communicative competence to explain what language ability involves and what needs to be acquired and used in the field of second language pedagogy. It is important to clearly describe how these competences interact in this field because without this clarity CLT textbook design will not be efficient. According to Schachter (1990), this unclear, complicated and incomplete picture of the components' interaction is a result of their unclear definitions of these components. This lack of clarity leads to overlap among all four components, as mentioned above. If it is unclear how they work exactly, this makes their assessment using this model problematic, as Schachter (1990, p.8) points out. (Assessment alignment is discussed in a later section in this chapter.) Therefore, to make the picture clearer, more work on assessment in second language pedagogy was necessary.

3.2.6 Bachman – organizational and pragmatic language competence

This clarity was provided by the revision of the model of Canale and Swain by Bachman (1990), which revised their categories – redistributing some elements – and added some of the missing aspects of communicative competence, including the ability to use language (Bachman, 1990, p.84). Bachman emphasised that the model of Canale and Swain was based on previous theories related to communicative competence theories and that the validity of the model when it comes to an actual pedagogic setting may be unproven. Therefore, Bachman (1990); Bachman and Palmer (1996) tried to fill this gap by adding to the theoretical model findings based on empirical results. Their revised model enabled the application for assessment that the Canale and Swain model did not. Even though Canale and Swain's focus was on L2 pedagogy, they did not clarify the difference between the language users or learners' skills and the assessment purpose. The assessment may not reflect the skills that the learners need to communicate outside the classroom. The assessments may simply focus on specific objectives and thus not reflect the demands for the needed skills to communicate in an actual "real-life" setting. Competence for assessment is thus different from that for the actual language needed. To fill this theoretical gap, Bachman's revised model, called communicative language ability, was designed to involve components that could be assessed.

Communicative competence ability, or what Bachman calls "language competence", is divided in this model into two types: organizational competence and pragmatic competence (Bachman, 1990, p.84). *Organisational competence* is defined as "those abilities involved in controlling the formal structure of language for producing or recognizing grammatically correct sentences, comprehending their propositional content, and ordering them to form texts" (Bachman, 1990, p.87). *Organisational competence* refers to the ability or the competency at play when a speaker or writer uses language that is grammatically correct for different language levels.

| Language Competence | | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------|
| Organizational competence | | Pragmatic competence | |
| Grammatical | Textual | Illocutionary | Sociolinguistic |
| Syntax | Cohesion | Ideational function | Dialect |
| Vocabulary | Rhetorical organisation | Manipulative function | Register |
| Phonetics | | Heuristic function | Nature |
| Morphology | | Imaginative function | Culture |

Figure 5. Bachman's Model (adapted from Bachman, 1990, pp. 84-87)

Within organisational competence, there are two components of ability: grammatical ability and textual ability. *Grammatical ability* in this model is the knowledge of grammar, such as syntax, semantics and morphology (Bachman, 1990). Bachman's concept of grammatical competence is similar to that of Canale and Swain (1980), referring to the knowledge of a language's structure. In Canale and Swain's model, grammatical competence is knowledge of the grammar rules and knowing how to use them appropriately in a given context. However, performance of grammatical competence is different in these models. In Bachman's model this is linked with the concept of ability. Performance in Bachman is more specifically for assessment as it is related to how to perform in a test.

Textual competence, on the other hand, is related to knowing how to join sentences into a whole. These joined sentences can be both in written texts and spoken language; this competence is similar to Canale and Swain (1980) concept of discourse competence, however, Bachman's textual competence focuses on how to comprehend and produce persuasive language. This persuasive language can involve knowing how to start a conversation, how to end it and how to sustain the language, which is similar to the strategic competence of Canale and Swain. Thus, Bachman's concept of textual competence took some features of discourse (about how to join sentences etc.) and some features of Canale and Swain that refer to maintaining the language in use. However, in Bachman's model, the text does not stand alone; it is linked to pragmatic competence (discussed below).

The second category of competence for Bachman (1990) is *pragmatic competence*. Bachman defines pragmatic competence as "the organization of the linguistic signals that are used in communication, and how these signals are used to refer to persons, objects, ideas, and feelings" (Bachman, 1990, p.89). Here, Bachman is describing the ability to use a language

in a given context in order to communicate within this context so that others can understand. Pragmatic competence has two adjacent competences: illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence.

Illocutionary competence is that which: “enables the language user both to empower language with certain illocutionary force and to interpret the illocutionary force of language” (Bachman, 1990, p.17). This means that the language user with illocutionary competence can deliver the intended meaning by using speech. The meaning may be direct or indirect, depending on what the language user intends. Under illocutionary competence are components that contribute to using the language functionally. Function in Bachman’s model refers to how the language user uses the language intentionally in order to accomplish a specific goal in communication. These components classified under it are ideational function, manipulative function, heuristic function and imaginative function. *Ideational function* in Bachman’s model refers to the language users engage in order to express meaning or exchange his or her experience with others. *Manipulative function* is the competence that the language user engages to enable them to change others’ behaviour. The *imaginative function* refers to the ability that the language user has to use the language creatively and imaginatively. The imaginative way for the students is when the teacher provides fantasy stories and dreams, and the students may use the language to express these types of unreal things. The *heuristic function* refers to the ability engaged by the language user for discovery and problem solving.

The second component classified under pragmatic competence is *sociolinguistic competence*, which is “the sensitivity to, or control of the conventions of language use that are determined by the features of the specific language use context; it enables us to perform language functions in ways that are appropriate to that context” (Bachman, 1990, p.94). The concept of sociolinguistics here is similar to that in Canale and Swain’s model as it refers to social rules that enable the language user to communicate appropriately. The difference is that Bachman is more precise as to what is required to use this ability. Bachman’s model states that what is required is to consider the variety of dialects, register (how the language is being used and for what reasons), the nature of the communication and the culture.

3.2.8 Walsh –interactional competence

The previous sections have focused on communicative competence as what is required to communicate and led up to intercultural competence (IC) as what is required to communicate

via a cultural interface. However, when it comes to the language classroom, there is an interactional context that makes its own demands.

The classroom is a social context that involves interaction between teachers and learners: “under this view, any attempt to analyse teacher-and-learner-talk starts from the assumption that verbal behaviour is goal-oriented and governed by certain rules” (Walsh, 2002, p.4). This insight focuses attention on certain characteristics of relations between the teacher and the students. These relations are not equal but asymmetrical. This is because the teacher is the classroom manager who more or less controls both how the topic is presented and how the student should respond. The teacher has the upper hand in any decisions over who contributes and for how long and even controls the nature of the contributions (Walsh, 2002). To understand this interaction as a social context, Walsh defines IC as “Teachers’ and learners’ ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning” (Walsh, 2011, p.158). The concept thus refers to the mastery of the skills used in the classroom to interact effectively to achieve the pedagogic goals. Interaction is at the heart of this theory. Because these interactions are linked to these goals, the type of interaction may either facilitate or hinder learning in the classroom.

Walsh explores the types of interactions in language classrooms in terms of their typical language use and how they work to achieve pedagogic aims to formulate his theory of Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT). SETT is based on three main assumptions. The first assumption is that the classroom is a construction within a social context. This construct has a specific feature that shapes it in that it is dominated by the teacher. This domination is reflected in teacher control over the sequence of lessons, what content to teach and the interaction between speakers. The second assumption is that this social context has to be understood in terms of interactions and the language used in these interactions to accomplish the pedagogic goals: “Pedagogic goals are manifested in the talk-in-interaction and the term mode encompasses the interrelatedness of language use and teaching purpose” (Walsh, 2011, p.111). The third assumption is that any classroom teaching entails different phases of activity, or what Walsh calls “modes” (Walsh, 2006, p.1). A mode is defined as: “an L2 classroom micro-context that has a clearly defined pedagogic goal and distinctive interactional features determined largely by a teacher’s use of language” (Walsh, 2006, p.1). Walsh outlines four modes: managerial; classroom context; skill and systems; and materials (Walsh, 2011, p.113) as seen in Table 3.

Table 3: Walsh – Theory of Modes

| Mode | Pedagogic goals | Learning features |
|---------------------------|--|---|
| Managerial | To transmit information | A single, extended teacher turn which uses explanations and/or instructions |
| | To organise the physical learning environment | The use of transitional markers |
| | To refer learners to materials | The use of confirmation checks |
| | To introduce or conclude an activity | An absence of learner contributions |
| | To change from one mode of learning to another | |
| Materials | To provide input or practice around a piece of material (e.g. text, video) | Predominance of initiation, response, feedback (IRF) pattern |
| | To elicit responses in relation to the material | Extensive use of display questions |
| | To check and display answers | content-focused feedback |
| | To clarify when necessary | Corrective repair |
| | To evaluate contributions | The use of scaffolding |
| Skills and systems | To enable learners to produce correct answers | The use of direct repair |
| | To enable the learners to manipulate the new concepts | The use of scaffolding |
| | To provide corrective feedback | Extended teacher turns |
| | To provide learners with practice in sub-skills | Display questions |
| | To display correct answers | Teacher echo |
| | | Clarification requests |
| | | Form-focused feedback |

| | | |
|--------------------------|--|------------------------|
| Classroom context | To enable learners to express themselves clearly | Extended learner turns |
| | To establish a context | Short teacher turn |
| | To promote oral fluency | Minimal repair |
| | | Content feedback |
| | | Referential question |
| | | Scaffolding |
| | | Clarification request |

Synthesised from Walsh (2011, p.113)

The managerial mode “explains and details the ways in which learning is organised” (Walsh, 2013, p.75). The goal of this mode is to set up the learning situation. It is the mode that the teacher uses to manage, to begin and end an activity. This means this mode is used to establish, maintain and end the learning situation. To do so, this mode has specific features of interaction. The first is its use of the language of control, often by commands, to manage the learners. It is also used to check the learners’ understandings related to this classroom management directed by the teacher. This mode is typically one-sided or monologue in that the amount of teacher talk is much higher than that of learner talk. This mode uses the language of signposting to signal and control classroom management.

In the materials mode, “the pedagogic goals and language use centre on the materials” (Walsh, 2013, p.116). This is different from the managerial mode as the focus is on the materials themselves. In materials mode, the goal is to elicit responses from the learners in relation to the class materials and to focus their attention on these materials in a productive way. The features of this mode involve questions by the teachers, correcting the student’s responses, checking the students’ understanding of the materials. This mode can incorporate an element of scaffolding as it provides the sequence of the materials. Unlike the managerial mode, this mode is two-sided interaction and the element of input here is not one of teacher instruction about classroom management but rather of presentation and processing of the material of the lesson.

The skills and systems mode is related “to practice in relation to a particular language system” (Walsh, 2011, p.118). This is wider than the materials language skills, the skills that are used for materials. These systems, according to Walsh, refer to phonology, grammar,

vocabulary and discourse, while the skills are related to the four skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking. The skills and systems mode emphasises accuracy. This mode is typically two-sided interaction but the language practice tends to be controlled. This mode tends to follow on from the materials mode.

Finally, the focus of the classroom context mode is “on eliciting feelings, opinions [and] attitudes” (Walsh, 2013, p.1). The goal of this mode is to manipulate L2 itself. This mode has elements of turn taking and scaffolding and is freer than the other modes. This mode when the teacher and the students shared and exchange authentic communication. In this mode, teacher talk is minimised and learner talk increased. Also minimised is the repair of the learners, to let their contributions flow more and so produce language more freely.

Walsh identifies another model called “side” mode or “side sequence”. This mode is used when moving between modes and is also called switching mode. Walsh came to discern these modes by focussing on the kind of interaction operating in the classroom. There are distinct features of this interaction which are scaffolding, repair, content feedback, extended wait time, referential questions, seeking clarification, confirmation checks, teacher echo, teacher interruptions, extended teacher turn, turn completion, display question and form focused feedback (Walsh, 2006, p.67). Table 4, summarises these different types of interaction:

Table 4: Typical Interactions of Language Pedagogies

| Interactional feature | Explanation |
|-------------------------------|---|
| Scaffolding | 1. Reformulation (rephrasing a learner's contribution) 2. Extension (extending a learner's contribution) 3. Modelling (providing an example for learner(s)) |
| Repair | Refers to the ways in which teachers deal with error |
| Content feedback | Giving the feedback to the message rather than the words used |
| Extended waited time | Allowing sufficient time (several seconds) for students to respond or formulate a response |
| Seeking clarification | 1. Teacher asks a student to clarify something the student has said. 2. Student asks teacher to clarify something the teacher has said |
| Confirmation checks | Completing a learner's contribution for the learner |
| Teacher echo | 1. Teacher repeats teacher's previous utterance 2. Teacher repeats learner's contribution |
| Teacher interruptions | Interrupting a learner's contribution |
| Extended teacher turn | Teacher turn of more than one utterance |
| Turn completion | When teacher completes learners' contributions |
| Display questions | When teacher asks questions when the answers are known by the teacher |
| Form focussed feedback | When teacher gives feedback on the learners' words not their message |

Synthesised from Walsh (2011, p.214)

These interaction features could express different priorities when situated in different language pedagogies. Scaffolding is defined as “a scaffold on a building, providing support for as long as it is needed” (Kane, 2010, p.34). Scaffolding is when the teacher is extending or correcting the learners’ contributions to elaborate them. Repair may be defined as “treatment of trouble occurring in interactive language use” (Seedhouse, 1999, p.59). This refers to interactions when the teacher corrects the learners’ errors in an immediate way. Seedhouse differentiates four types of repair. The first is *self-initiated self-repair* when one initiates the repair and completes it. The second is *other-initiated self-repair*, this is when someone else initiates repair and one completes it. The third repair is *self-initiated other-repair*, this when one initiates and another completes it. The last is *other-initiated other-repair*, this when another initiates and completes the repair. Content feedback interaction is when the teacher gives feedback related to the message not to the words of the learners. This means that feedback is given for *what* is being said rather than *how* it is said. Confirmation checks refer to when the teacher checks whether or not the learners understand the lesson point. In CLT the emphasis would be on checking the meaning of the learners. Teacher interruption refers to when the learner is interrupted by the teacher. An extended teacher turn is when teacher talk is extended for the purposes of instruction, or explanation of the curricular understanding. Turn completion is when the teacher completes the learner’s contribution.

3.2.9 Summary of communicative competence theory development

In summary, this section has reviewed the development of communicative competence historically, beginning with Hymes as his theory may be seen as a response to Chomsky’s perspective of universal grammar. Hymes added the perspective of the appropriateness of the language used: to whom; when; and in what manner. His work was developed by scholars such as Cummins with the addition of Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) and by Canale and Swain with grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence. Intercultural competence has also been added to communicative competence because otherwise the dimension of relations between cultures is missing. These competence theories mainly cover language knowledge. It is indeed important for language teachers to be competent in communication. However, being a competent *user* of a language does not necessarily mean being competent in teaching that language. For language *teachers*, this knowledge is not enough. Therefore, the next section discusses the additional knowledge teachers need in order to cultivate these components in their students.

3.3 Day and Conklin's adaptation of Shulman's theory of teacher knowledge

This section outlines Shulman's theory of teacher knowledge and its use in the theoretical model of ESL teacher knowledge of Day and Conklin (1992).

Shulman (1987) proposed a typology of teacher knowledge called the **Teacher Knowledge Base (TKB)**. Day and Conklin (1992) adopted Shulman's theory in two dimensions. The first dimension focused on the knowledge base that the learners required to learn. The second dimension is the ways in which this knowledge is taught to the learners. The adoption of Shulman's theory led Day and Conklin to understand and conceptualize teacher knowledge, related to ESL teachers, as comprised of three components: **content knowledge (CK)**, **pedagogic content knowledge (PCK)** and **pedagogic knowledge (PK)**

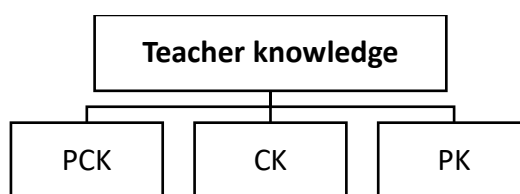


Figure 6. Teacher Knowledge (adapted from Day & Conklin, 1992, p.40)

CK has been defined by Shulman (1986, p.9) as that which “refers to the amount and organisation of knowledge *per se* in the mind of the teacher”. Content knowledge refers to what the teacher in the classroom has to know about the subject if he or she is going to teach it (Ball & McDiarmid, 1989). For Shulman (1986) content can be the subject theory, the subject ideas, the subject concepts, and beliefs related to the subject. Content knowledge is thus the subject matter. In the case of English teaching, the content knowledge is about what the English teacher will teach in the classroom (Day & Conklin, 1992). It includes knowledge related to the subject of English such as English grammar, English vocabulary, and English idioms. The required content knowledge of English is not fixed for all students (Moats & Foorman, 2003). For example, CK for elementary students will not be the same as CK for high school students. Also, CK is not the same for all the levels of English classes: the content for the beginner level will not be similar to that of an advanced level.

The CK of the language may also differ depending on the demands of the language teaching methodology. The CK for Grammar Translation Method may highlight written discourse and demand grammar rules. Audio-Lingual CK may highlight spoken discourse and demand mistake-free pronunciation and intonation. In the Communicative approach, the content of spoken and written discourse that existed in these two previous methods remains the same;

the difference is with the demands of this approach – meaningful language use based on contextual appropriateness of the language (M. Canale, 2014).

In summary, on one level, Grammar Translation, Audio-Lingual and the Communicative approach are similar in CK as all concern the teaching of the English language. However, on another level, they are different, in terms of what they highlight and what they demand. This similarity and these differences all shape the related features of their respective language pedagogies which become apparent in Pedagogic Content Knowledge.

PCK, according to Shulman (1987, p.8), is “an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction.” Shulman (1986, p.9) explains what PCK involves:

for the most regularly taught topics in one's subject area, the most useful forms of representation of those ideas, the most powerful analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations, and demonstrations – in a word, the ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others

PCK is a crucial component that the teacher needs in order to present CK effectively, to know how to help the students' access and understand CK. This means that CK alone is not enough as it needs the application of particular understandings (Shulman, 1986). In other words, PCK is the knowledge of how a teacher teaches content knowledge for the students in ways that make the particular CK understandable for them.

In regard to language teaching, Day and Conklin (1992) stated that PCK is about how to present the CK of English to overcome the difficulties that students may have when they try to learn this subject. PCK involves complex aspects of professional knowledge such as knowledge of teaching techniques, curriculum knowledge, knowledge of students and their learning processes and of the learning difficulties that may affect these processes. All this knowledge is essential in order to make the subject accessible for the students.

The PCK is different in each teaching English method. In the Grammar Translation method, PCK involves the CK related to written discourse such as knowledge of teaching techniques for grammar, curriculum, and students learning processes to make the content accessible to the students. The PCK clear in GTM depends on written prescribed language, the teacher may retain L1 to make L2 accessible. Similarly, for the Audio-Lingual method, PCK involves different knowledge related to spoken discourse as it involves knowledge of how to build automaticity to access the language. Both GTM and ALM use planned and

prescribed knowledge. On the other hand, Communicative Language Teaching has a different PCK as it is more complex. This complexity in PCK is because Communicative Language Teaching is an approach with broad principles rather than a specific detailed method such as the previous methods. These principles include authenticity and the generation of meaningful language. Unlike the Grammar Translation and Audio-Lingual methods, the PCK of Communicative Language Teaching uses unplanned and undescribed CK to make it accessible in a productive rather than a reproductive way and requires contextual appropriateness. In other words, the PCK of Communicative Language Teaching is more demanding linguistically.

In summary, PCK involves different aspects of professional knowledge to make the CK accessible to the learners. Because CK is different in each pedagogy, the PCK used to make the CK accessible is also different. PCK is important knowledge that teachers need. PCK is a layer that carries the knowledge required to access another layer of CK. However, the required knowledge to access CK may need other wider knowledge that is not limited to the specific language pedagogy but shared with others in the same institutional setting, which is called PK.

According to Day (1991, p.40), **PK** is “knowledge of generic teaching strategies, beliefs and practices, regardless of the focus of the subject matter”. In other words, PK is general knowledge that teachers across different subject fields share. It is about how to teach effectively. This knowledge includes how the students learn, how they progress with learning, how to achieve the learning aims, and how to assess this learning in order to match the learning with the aims. This knowledge may also include how to teach pairs, how to teach groups, what the classroom set-up for an effective learning environment should look like, how the teacher and the students interact, how to teach large classes and manage the classroom, and how to teach in a particular teaching style as well as the knowledge of teaching techniques that relate to them.

3.3.1 Pedagogic nexus

PK is a deep knowledge of how the general schooling process works. In this regard, Hufton and Elliott analyse how the Russian schools work in a set of phenomena that has been called the **pedagogic nexus** (Hufton & Elliott, 2000). “The pedagogic nexus is “a set of linked, interactive and mutually reinforcing influences on pupils’ motivation to learn within and because of the schooling process” (Hufton & Elliott, 2000, p.117). This concept refers cultural to beliefs, practices and expectations that impact on how the pedagogy works and

the process of how the students engage. The pedagogic nexus involves elements of convention related to how the schooling process looks like in terms of articulation of a national curriculum, intergenerational continuity, home school relations, readiness of starting school, school continuity, lessons, assessment and memorisation (Hufton & Elliott, 2000). The national articulation curriculum is an official prescribed curriculum that framed the pedagogy that the teacher can access to it. It involves frames aspects such as the contents of the pedagogy, the sequence and the goals of the curriculum and how these goals can be reached. Intergenerational continuity is another component of the nexus that involves sharing common experience of the different generations such as what learning looks like, how the students are progressing and their behaviour and what good students look like. This element may be aligned with the national curriculum or may clash with it – as the national curriculum may ask things that are not necessarily aligned with the intergenerational continuity. Home-school relations is another element of nexus which can be seen, for example, through the students' progression reports that that sent to their parents stating what they have gained and what is missing in their educational achievement. Readiness of starting school is another element of nexus. It refers to the age that the students start schooling including preschool and this directs what type of knowledge is required to be ready to start schooling. The school continuity element refers to the continuity of student's progression over the time in school. The usual case in this element is the students have their same classmates who move together from one stage to another but do not necessarily have the same abilities. These movements have transition age phases which may raise challenges when there are different abilities among the students.

Another element of the nexus relates to lessons. It involves expectations of the number of the lessons per day, what to teach in these lessons, how to and when to enter the classroom, where to sit, how the students follow the lesson sequences, how the students behave during the lesson. If the lesson is not aligned with these expectations, there could be a feeling of discomfort. Assessment is another important element of the pedagogic nexus. It involves expectations of how the assessment of student learning during the lesson and after, how to mark the answers for summative and formative exams, how the teacher comments on the homework – and also involves reporting the students' progression. Memorisation expectation is an important aspect of assessment. It refers to the role memorisation plays in assessment and whether or not it leads to achievement or whether the memorisation itself is the goal. The pedagogic nexus plays an important role in terms of the general cultural influence on the PK, shaping and directing the processing of pedagogic practice.

3.3.2 Teacher beliefs

As discussed above, the Saudi pedagogic nexus under study has a centralized education system with specific sequence and subjects the teacher is required to follow, within a hierarchical strict classroom environment where students are expected to be quiet and interact only when given permission. The Saudi concept of a good student relates to those expected to have memorised the material when it comes to the exams. Another element, on an individual level, that may influence the schooling process and the actual pedagogy practice is teachers' beliefs – defined as “an individual's judgement of the truth or falsity of a proposition” (Pajares1992, p.316). Borg (2017) states that these beliefs refer to what teachers think to be best practice in pedagogy related to student learning and what content is important to use in class and to include in textbooks. Such beliefs about pedagogy may be conscious or unconscious.

Teachers' beliefs play an important role in pedagogic practice. First, teachers' beliefs may influence the dominance of a specific pedagogy in the practice of an actual setting. This influence may be seen in decisions regarding what type of teaching is suitable and effective for learning, how the student should learn, how they access the textbook and especially in how which these aspects of pedagogy appear in the actual practice of teachers. This impact is strong, as Borg (2017) also clarifies, when beliefs act as a filter. For example, teachers' beliefs may filter the use of textbooks, in terms of choice of textbook and choice of material in a chosen textbook to be used in class. These choices made by the teacher through the filter may allow content that reflects values that they believe in and filter out what they do not believe in. Teachers' beliefs can play a role in teachers' resistance to official policy or guidelines in teacher education or curriculum direction in terms of what and how the teachers are required to teach. Teachers' beliefs can have great impact when it comes to actual practice. If teacher education is not aligned with what teachers believe in, in terms of their views on good practice in teaching, the teacher may practice instead what they *do* believe in. However, teachers' beliefs themselves are complicated processes and there may be a distinction between these beliefs and how these beliefs are enacted in their pedagogic practice. On one hand, this distinction can result from clashes between teachers' beliefs and other beliefs. In this way, Borg argues that teachers' beliefs may have “tension” between them. The tension may appear when there is a “weight” in the belief as its location is “more central” in the teachers' belief system as distinct from other beliefs in a more “peripheral” location (Borg, 2017, p.77). These weighty beliefs dominate peripheral beliefs. On the other hand, there may be an integrative relationship between teachers' practice and teachers' beliefs as the latter may shape the former as well as *vice-versa*. These beliefs may come as

a result of teachers' experience in practice which in turn is directed by their beliefs. Therefore, the formation of teachers' beliefs is a complex and ongoing process. Furthermore, because teachers' beliefs are unobservable, it may be difficult to distinguish them from the teachers' actual practice in an actual setting. As Borg discusses, belief is a problematic concept because it is difficult to distinguish the belief being expressed from belief in practice – as well as to distinguish practice that is carried out but not believed in from that which is also believed in. For all these reasons, it is difficult to distinguish between belief and practice. This research will be concerned with the match or mismatch between expressed belief and belief-in-action by performed practice, interpreted by observation.

In summary, PK is the deep general knowledge and skills needed to make CK accessible to the students. Such required knowledge and skills include classroom management knowledge, students and teacher interactions, and learning theories that are not necessarily limited to a specific subject. Pedagogic nexus and teachers' belief are presented in PK but more tailored in order to make CK accessible. They are presented in different layers: one in the general pedagogic cultural layer, and the other in the individual layer. Nexus and teachers' belief play a role in PK as a filter to shape and direct pedagogic practice and the schooling process. Teachers' beliefs and nexus are not necessarily aligned with each other.

3.4 Bernstein – pedagogic discourse

This section discusses elements of Bernstein's theory, in particular his concepts of classification and framing (Figure 8), message systems (Figure 9), pedagogic discourse (Figure 10), and rules (Figure 11), as the main elements (see Figure 12 for how all these fit together). I discuss the three message systems in any pedagogic process as well as his distinctions between instructional and regulative discourse, collection and integrated codes, and also his concepts of visible and invisible pedagogy as particularly relevant to this study.

Basil Bernstein developed his theory of pedagogic discourse in the 1960s in the emerging field of the sociology of education. The theory aims to explain how knowledge is transmitted in the pedagogic process. His theory is based on two main concepts: Classification (C) and framing (F).

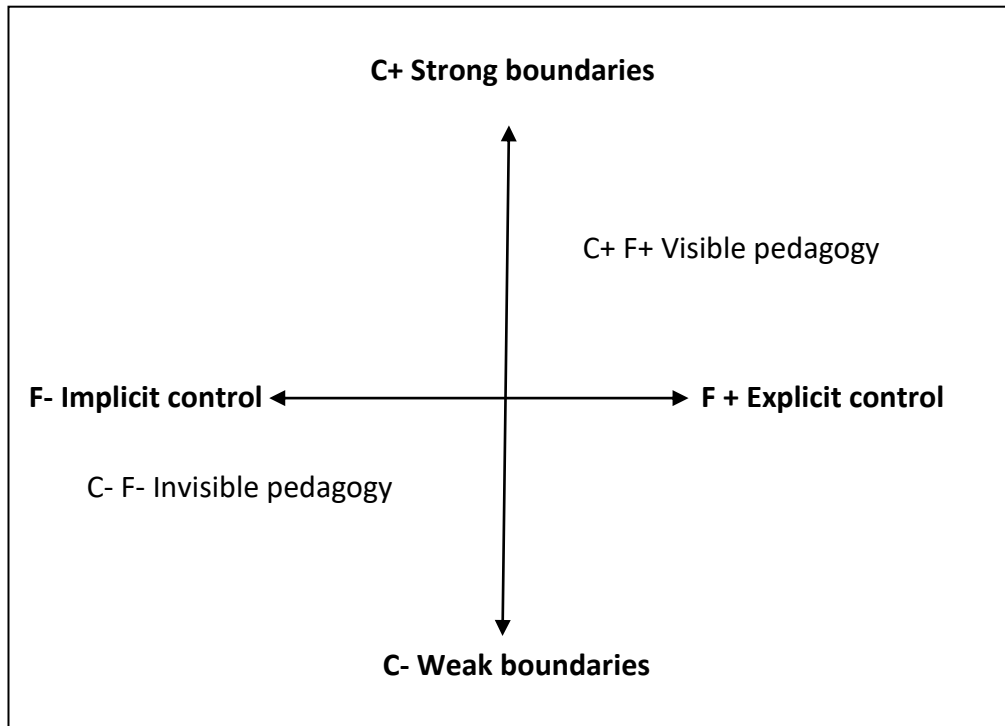


Figure 7. Classification and framing (adapted from Bernstein, 1990, p.205)

Classification is defined by Bernstein (1990, p.205) as “the degree of boundary maintenance between contents”. The classification is the line between the knowledge areas or the subject areas. Thus C describes the degree of how much this subject or content is classified and specialised and therefore separated from other subjects or contents. The concept of C refers to how knowledge is organised. According to Bernstein (2000, p.6) classification “carries the message of power”. Power because is invested in the boundaries in between knowledges. Classification, further, “is the strength of insulation that creates a space” (Bernstein, 1990, p.23). Classification may be weaker or stronger according to the separation or “space” between these knowledges because this space represents the power to decide which knowledge is classified, which is not, and which knowledge can be accessed by which group.

Classification may be stronger or weaker, which Bernstein represented as C+ and C- respectively. It is C+ when the subject or the content is highly classified or highly specialised. C+ means that the subjects or the contents are distinct from other contents and other subjects. In the English teaching field, C+ may have specific requirements. These requirements may include specialist teachers who teach with specialised textbooks that present the content as separate from that of any other subjects, with specialised teaching methodologies to transmit the knowledge from the knower to the acquirers. Therefore, C+ may require its own curricular space and own classrooms to transmit its knowledge.

On the other hand, C- refers to the boundary or separation between contents or subjects that is weak. C- means that knowledge is less specialised and more commonsense. C- may not require the teacher to be as specialised but to be capable of transmitting subject knowledge that may be close to another, to their students as everyday knowledge. Therefore, C- may not require its own space, own textbooks and own materials. C in curriculum is understood as a continuum rather than a fixed state. Over time, it could go from C+ to C-, from C+ to very C+, or from C- to very C - and *vice versa*.

Framing refers to the social relationships among teachers and students in regard to the transmission of knowledge. It is a concept that describes the degree of control the students or the teacher have over the knowledge in terms of choosing the sequence of the curriculum or the subject. F refers to who makes decisions as to what is relevant and what is not. Framing is divided into two types: **stronger framing (F+)** and **weaker framing (F-)**. With F+, the teacher has more control over the students and the pedagogy. The freedom of the students to control curricular knowledge is limited. The teacher has the upper hand in the teaching process as the decision maker to decide what knowledge to transmit or not. The students, on the other hand, have the lower hand in the class, and their freedom is limited as they do not decide what to learn or how the learning is transmitted. The teacher exerts control to manage the entire lesson sequence. The students have to follow the teacher's guidance. This means that the lesson is highly structured. In other words, F+ is teacher-centred. The students in F+ are doing what they have been told, they are not making their choices on their learning. This means the lesson is highly structured and there is less chance for the students to contribute to how the lesson goes.

However, students in F+ are not necessarily passive. The students may be active learners in a highly structured lesson when they are paying the attention to the guidance and the structure of the lesson and working on the activities and the exercise that have been given by the teacher.

With F- on the other hand, the schooling process has different features in terms of how the knowledge is transmitted. In F- settings the students have greater freedom to decide what knowledge to acquire and how. The students have more control over the learning selections and the relations with the teacher tend to be more egalitarian. In other words, F- means more learner-centred. It can be said that F- represents a relationship between the teacher and the students in which the students can initiate questions, topics, participate and, most importantly, take risks. Similar to the continuum feature of C, F is not a fixed point but rather

there is a different degree of weakness of framing. It could go from F- to F+, from F- to F+, from F+ to very F+ or F- to very F- and *vice versa* during the lesson.

From his concepts of C and F, Bernstein (1990) described two types of pedagogies: **visible** and **invisible** pedagogy. Visible pedagogy has features such as the students being restricted from deciding the sequence of the lesson and the teacher having more explicit control in the classroom. The lesson tends to be organised in a hierarchical construction as the social relations are in terms of how the knowledge is top down from the teacher to the students with an explicit lesson sequence. The main source of knowledge for the students is the teacher whose main source of knowledge is from the textbooks which have clear criteria on what counts as learning. Visible pedagogy with F+ and C+ thus refers to more traditional methods when pedagogy is teacher-centred.

On the other hand, invisible pedagogy has different pedagogic features. The students' role is less restricted as they have more freedom to decide the content and sequence of the lesson. The lesson is not structured in a hierarchy but with a more horizontal structure as the relations between the teachers, the students are more egalitarian. The lesson sequence and the learning criteria are implicit. The main source of knowledge is not just the teacher as the students may use personal experience to learn. Invisible pedagogy tends more towards being student-centred. This means the social relations in invisible pedagogy appear more relaxed than in visible pedagogy, It can be expressed as C- and F- pedagogy.

These two types of pedagogy exercise control but in different ways. In visible pedagogy it is exercised in F+ the teacher has explicit control over the content of the knowledge. In invisible pedagogy the teacher still exercises control over the content but not in a visible way, as the teacher is still the one who sets up student-centred activities, offering individual guidance. Thus in the CLT approach, the teacher may seem to have less control but the control nevertheless exists in terms of directing student activity during class time which means it is exercised within an invisible pedagogy. Invisible pedagogy is complex as it has many aspects working simultaneously. These include student progression (which is not so clear for students), arranging context by the teacher, as well as multiple and implicit learning criteria for content knowledge and knowledge goals.

On the other hand, visible pedagogy has what invisible pedagogy is missing: "clear criteria", "clear sequence" and "delicate measurement procedures" (Bernstein, 2003, p.120). Both the teacher and the students are aware of the assessment criteria, and the teacher may find it easier to control the classroom because the teacher and the students have clarity on what

counts as good to learn. Therefore, visible pedagogy is more measurable. The teacher and the students know what has been accomplished and what still has not been accomplished. Moreover, clear criteria can be translated into grades for summative and formative assessment. The evaluation of visible pedagogy can match knowledge objectives because both of them are explicit and measurable. In other words, visible pedagogy is a type of pedagogy that can be tested and measured. The delicate measurement procedure is a tool to help both teacher and students as both can follow step by step the sequence of the knowledge. These two elements make visible pedagogy less problematic when it comes to evaluation. Visible pedagogy may be aligned more with traditional pedagogies such as GTM and ALM than with CLT. This is because these pedagogies have C+ and F+ with clearer sequence and sensitive measurement procedures.

These advantages are not seen in invisible pedagogy: the sequence is implicit and constructed as the students construct the learning with each other. This means the assessment criteria may not be clear for the students in terms of what is classified as good to learn and what is not and this is also difficult for the teacher to measure. Moreover, the students may not realise their progression because the criteria are implicit. This all makes learning more difficult to measure and evaluate. This difficulty may depend on the clarity of the criteria, the content and the learning expectations and these vary between traditional pedagogies and CLT. In other words, different pedagogies have different learning processes which bring own their own strength and weaknesses.

In summary, in Bernstein's model, classification (C+-) refers to how the knowledge is organised. Framing (F+-) is used to describe how this knowledge is transmitted based on the social relationships between the students and the teacher, which result in differences in who has control over the activities and the content. Different teaching methodologies may realize them differently.

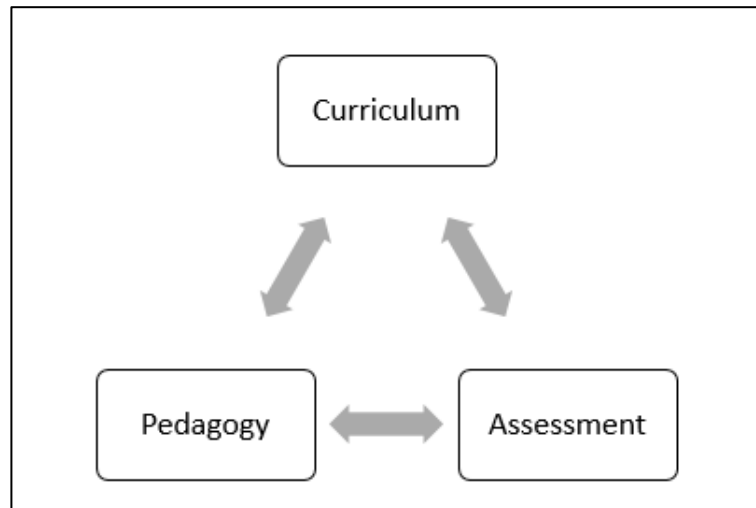


Figure 8. Message Systems (adapted from Bernstein, 2003, p.77)

In his theory, Bernstein developed his concept of **message systems** exploring how knowledge works in the schooling process: “formal educational knowledge can be considered to be realized through three message systems: curriculum, pedagogy and evaluation” (Bernstein, 2003, p.77). The three message systems concept is about the type of knowledge that is taught, how this knowledge is transmitted to the students, and more importantly how to evaluate and test the knowledge. These three elements of message systems are the basic machinery of education that shapes the pedagogic practice in term of C and F. These elements work together with a system that directs and affects the knowledge that is being used in any type of educational setting.

Curriculum for Bernstein concerns knowledge, authority and validity: “Curriculum defines what counts as valid knowledge” (Bernstein, 2003, p.77). The curriculum has a distributive rule. This rule refers to the regulation of knowledge according to social class, to the power in the society, and to the decisions of who gets access to any selection of the knowledge, what knowledge is to be transmitted and what knowledge is to be blocked. This means that there is a dominant group that has the decision-making power to decide how knowledge will be distributed.

In terms of pedagogy, Bernstein defined **Pedagogic Discourse (PD)** as “a principle for appropriating other discourses and bringing them into a special relation with each other for their selective transmission and acquisition” (Bernstein, 1990, p.181). PD involves analysis of the knowledge that is transmitted in complicated social relations between the learners and the teacher, to understand what type of knowledge is transmitted and how this knowledge is transmitted.

$$\text{Pedagogic discourse (PD)} = \frac{\text{Instructional discourse (ID), the what}}{\text{Regulative discourse (RD), the how}}$$

Figure 9. Pedagogic Discourse (adapted from Bernstein, 2000, p.13)

For Bernstein, PD has two elements which are **instructional discourse (ID)** and **regulative discourse (RD)** to analyse knowledge (see Figure 10). The concept of instructional discourse refers to the knowledge element of the pedagogic discourse; for example, the numbers 1-10 in English. Regulative discourse concerns how ID is to be transmitted and is organised: such as the social order, how to behave when giving or receiving knowledge, and how to interact with others during the learning process. In terms of pedagogic discourse, ID refers to the “what”; RD refers to the “how”. ID could be related to the teachers’ Content Knowledge (CK); RD could be related to their Pedagogic Knowledge (PK) and Pedagogic Content Knowledge (PCK).

The third message system is the **Assessment** (also referred to as **Evaluation**). Assessment is defined as: “what counts as a valid realization of this knowledge” (Bernstein, 2003, p.77). Assessment refers to knowledge that counts as learning. Assessment works with curriculum and pedagogy together as components of the pedagogy process. However, assessment is understood to be very powerful compared to the other two elements. Assessment can powerfully influence the curriculum and pedagogy that precedes it. Assessment should work in alignment with the other two message systems.

These three message systems are the components of the **Pedagogic Device**. The PD has three types of rules: distributive, recontextualising and evaluative (Bernstein, 2000).

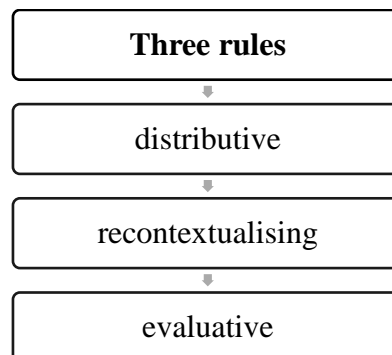


Figure 10. Three Rules (adapted from Bernstein, 2000, p.28)

These components work together in hierarchal relation and cannot work alone:

These rules themselves stand in a particular relationship to each other. That is, these rules are hierarchically related, in the sense that recontextualising rules are derived from the distributive rules, and evaluative rules are derived from the recontextualising rules. There is a necessary interrelationship between these rules, and there are also power relationships between them. (Bernstein, 2000, p.28)

The distributive rule is defined in terms of regulation and specialisation: “the function of the distributive rules is to regulate the power, social groups, forms of consciousness and practice” and it “specialises forms of knowledge, forms of consciousness and social groups” (Bernstein, 2000, p.28). Distributive rules refer to the selection of knowledge for a specific group. It means that there is a decision about what kind of knowledge is made accessible, and what is made not accessible. According to Bernstein, there is the thinkable and unthinkable. The thinkable refers to what exists in the actual pedagogic practice, while the unthinkable refers to what does not but could potentially. The thinkable is legitimated during the schooling process. The distributive rule is thus related to the selection of knowledge to be included in the curriculum. To relate this to my research, with the distributive rules of SK of the curriculum, there is a decision that has been made that the students needed to gain some degree of communicative competence so there is a push to make it available to all the students.

Recontextualisation generally refers to the practice of putting something into a new context but for Bernstein this process has a particular meaning as it is governed by specific rules. Recontextualising rules are responsible for deciding what knowledge to include and what to exclude in the actual pedagogic practice. There are two types and agents of recontextualising in this theory: the official recontextualizing field (ORF) of “specialized departments and sub-agencies of the State and local educational authorities together with their research and system of inspectors” (Bernstein, 1990, p.192) and the pedagogic recontextualizing field (PRF) referring to “pedagogues in schools and colleges, and departments of education, specialised journals, private research foundations” (Bernstein, 2000, p.30). Bernstein continues: “If the PRF can have an effect on pedagogic discourse independently of the ORF, then there is some autonomy *and* struggle over pedagogic discourse and its practices” (Bernstein, 2000, p.33). The official recontextualizing field (ORF) accounts for official pedagogy and its legitimacy. The PRF accounts for recontextualisation that occurs unofficially as the official curriculum or policy is enacted by a chain of actors.

For this research, I am interested in the slippage between the ORF recontextualization (the textbooks and teacher’s books) and the PRF teachers’ enactments in the classroom. The concept of recontextualization allows for the understanding of how the ORF version is not necessarily what happens. These two types of recontextualisation shape and influence the pedagogic practice in terms of both what (ID) knowledge to transmit and how (RD). In the process of recontextualization, there is always what Bernstein names the “potential discursive gap” (Bernstein, 2000, p.30) which is “a space in which ideology can play” (p. 32). For my study, this gap highlights how different language teaching approaches, and other teacher knowledges or beliefs can shape actual practices. Different societies have different cultural traditions, and different actors bring different experience, beliefs and preferences. These different features affect what knowledge is ultimately selected and how this knowledge is made accessible through its recontextualization.

Lastly, **evaluative rules** “Evaluation condenses into itself the pedagogic code and its C and F procedures, and the relationships of power and control that have produced these procedures” (Bernstein, 2000, p.18). He added that “evaluation condenses the meaning of the whole device” (Bernstein, 2000, p.36). This rule is responsible for determining what knowledge counts as valid and what does not.

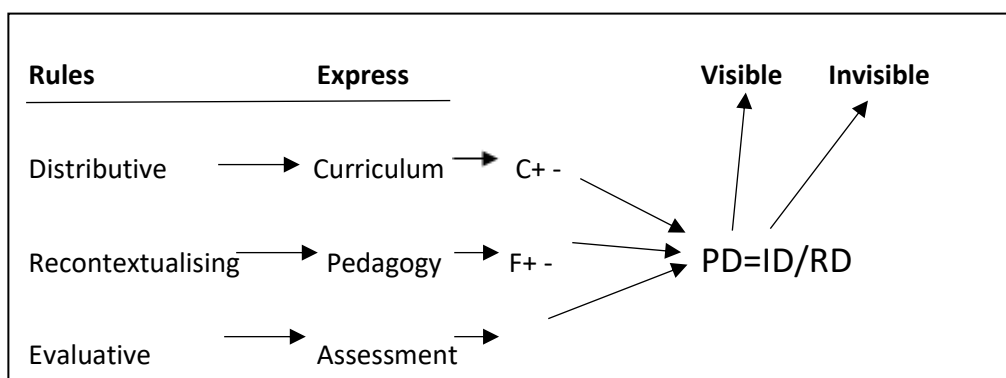


Figure 11. Pedagogic device (adapted from Bernstein, 2000)

In Bernstein’s theory, these elements do not work separately, but together to comprise the process of the Pedagogic Device. In this process there are three rules and the three message systems to express them: distributive (curriculum), recontextualising (pedagogy) and evaluative (assessment). The distributive rule expressing the curriculum means that the curriculum does not present unthinkable knowledge but rather presents thinkable knowledge in order to decide which group has access to which knowledge. The recontextualising rule is responsible for deciding how knowledge is to be presented in what pedagogy.

Recontextualisation is expressed in the pedagogy; evaluative rules are expressed in the assessment. In the curriculum, C accounts for what knowledge counts as valid and framing accounts for what kind of pedagogy is valid. The mechanism of pedagogic discourse involves both the ID (the what) and RD (the how) of the pedagogic discourse, that is, what knowledge to transmit and how to transmit this knowledge. Bernstein distinguished between visible and invisible pedagogies. The assessment is the outcome of the entire process. Assessment *condenses* this process to express what counts as learning and what does not. In this process when the assessment is not aligned with the pedagogy and the curriculum, the pedagogy implementation may fail to deliver the desired curriculum. The assessment mechanism should include suitable strategies to assess what the curriculum and pedagogy express. If there is no alignment between assessment, curriculum and pedagogy, the messages to learners get confused.

3.6 Overview of theoretical framework

This chapter has presented the theoretical framework of the thesis, focusing on the development of communicative competence in general, and CLT in particular, then exploring other concepts that may explain challenges to its implementation. Three broad groups of theories are used to develop different aspects of the research problem: language learning, teachers' professional knowledge, and the differences between pedagogies. Another theory relates to both of the last two groups to inform the empirical analysis of interactions in the second language classroom.

First are theories to understand language learning and thus second language pedagogies. Within this group there are those concerning linguistic theory such as Chomsky's universal grammar and Hymes' perspective on the appropriateness of the language used as a response to Chomsky. Hymes developed the concept of communicative competence (CC), which underpins CLT. In turn, Cummins' concepts of BICS and CALP are used to characterise the kind of language produced in the classroom, making evident the high usage of everyday language (BICS) that is typically encouraged in CLT. Canale and Swain developed the grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic components of CC which can be identified in CLT.

While each particular pedagogy may demand different knowledge of the teachers, this must sit alongside other contributing forms of professional knowledge. Therefore, **the second group of theory** relates to categories of teacher knowledge, in particular Shulman's concepts of pedagogic knowledge (PK), content knowledge (CK) and pedagogic content knowledge

(PCK). These three categories of teacher knowledge may be possessed by teachers in varying amounts and proportions; thus they are useful to understand the range and combination of different knowledges that teachers use in their practice. PK, CK and PCK all play an important role in the pedagogic nexus (Hufton & Elliott, 2000) which concerns expectations of how the schooling process works as well as teachers' beliefs (Borg, 2017).

The third group of theoretical resources is used to compare and contrast different pedagogies, and so understand how pedagogy, curriculum and assessment necessarily interact. I use Bernstein's concepts of regulative discourse, instructional discourse, classification and framing, to understand the different versions of 'how' and 'what' to teach that distinguish invisible pedagogy (C-, F-) from visible pedagogy (C+, F+). These concepts are helpful to explore the type of pedagogic practices that typically exist in the Saudi setting and how they differ from those favoured by CLT. Highlighting this difference is helpful in exploring challenges to full implementation.

Traditional pedagogies such as GTM and ALM demand different approaches to curriculum, pedagogy and assessment. In GTM, the curriculum may foreground grammar as valid knowledge whereas ALM may consider grammar and pronunciation as equally valid. However, when it comes to CLT, with a more invisible mode of pedagogy, what counts as valid knowledge is not as clear as in these traditional pedagogies because it involves broader and less explicit principles.

To explain what kind of pedagogy the teachers were actually using and how this related to the official CLT curriculum, I use Bernstein's concept of recontextualisation, which explains how practice in the pedagogic recontextualisation field (PRF) may differ from the practice recommended by the official recontextualisation field (ORF). Bernstein's 'three message system' (pedagogy, curriculum and assessment) focuses on how these three components interact through their alignment or misalignment to shape any pedagogic setting. This may raise questions to explore such as whether or not the assessment in the study setting is aligned with the other two message systems.

Finally, I used Walsh's theory to clarify the modes and features of teacher-student and student-student interactions observed in the four case study classes, when teachers are using the officially CLT-based textbooks, and how these reflect CLT or other second language pedagogies.

Chapter 4: Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This research explores the challenges associated with implementing Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in the Saudi Arabian educational context. The main research question is:

1. How does communicative language teaching (CLT) fit into the pedagogic culture of Saudi Arabian schools?

This main question is approached through four sub-questions:

1. How do Saudi textbooks reflect CLT principles?
2. What do teachers understand about CLT?
3. What are the challenges and constraints with regard to implementing (CLT)?
4. What advantages or disadvantages do teachers and students associate with CLT?

This chapter justifies the selection of research design employed with clarification of the research interpretivist paradigm and overall design as a case study. Then follows discussion on transcription and translation and the pilot study. Then there is a focus on data generating and analysis: textbook analysis, interviews and classroom observations. Finally there is consideration of ethics.

4.2 Paradigms

A research design has to include a philosophical framework that drives the research in terms of how to view the world (Crotty, 1998). This framework chooses an understanding of reality from among different perspectives. This philosophical understanding of the reality of the world and how to know the world is called a research paradigm, defined as:

A paradigm may be viewed as a set of basic beliefs (or metaphysics) that deals with ultimates or first principles. It represents a worldview that defines, for its holder, the nature of the "world," the individual's place in it, and the range of possible relationships to that world and its parts. (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p.108)

The paradigm involves two elements which are ontology and epistemology. Ontology is defined by Crotty (1998) as "the study of being" (p. 10). It refers to the nature of reality: whether it is universal or multiple where different individuals might have different views

about reality. On the other hand, epistemology is “the study of knowledge” (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p.10). Epistemology refers to how phenomena can be known. It involves questions of how the knower can comprehend reality.

There are two common philosophical paradigms used in social studies, positivism and interpretivism, with different associated views on ontology and epistemology. These two paradigms are different in terms of views of what reality is and how this reality can be known (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

Guba and Lincoln (1994) describe positivism as treating knowledge as if there were one universal truth controlled by the laws of nature. Positivism tends to observe and measure empirical (scientifically observed and measured) phenomena. Ontologically, in positivism, the knowledge is considered to be out there waiting to be discovered (Crotty, 1998). The truth for positivists is out there as an objective fact that is independent of individual actors’ or researchers’ perception (Meyer & Ogden, 2010). This means that the truth exists out there regardless of how the individual views this truth or what they think about it. Epistemologically, in positivism, as the truth is universal and already exists out there, it can be known by discovering the laws of nature. Positivism requires suitable rules to discover this truth in terms of discovering what can be seen and what can be measured. This means that the truth that can be stated positively is only what is measurable and observable. The discovered knowledge is understood to be applicable universally because it assumes that truth is universal (Myers, 2008). Because truth is assumed to be universal from the positivist stance, this type of paradigm offers accesses to truth that is limited to what can people measure and observe, and not beyond this.

The interpretivism paradigm is different from positivism both ontologically and epistemologically. Ontologically, reality in interpretivism does not exist as singular. Reality is multiple and diverse. It is multiple because people understand reality differently. This means that different individuals hold different perspectives (Myers, 2008). Unlike positivism, the reality in interpretivism is subjective rather than objective. Subjective means that reality is what individuals understand, what individuals think and believe it to be. In other words, the reality that matters is not out there but is in individuals’ minds and what individuals perceive through their own eyes and other senses. According to Myers, reality in this paradigm is socially constructed. This means that reality is constructed through individuals’ experience, values, beliefs and attitudes.

Epistemologically, access to this reality is “only through social constructions such as language, consciousness, shared meanings, and instruments” (Myers, 2008, p.38). As the nature of reality ontologically in this paradigm is subjective, interpretivism in research highlights participants’ experience, their points of view and values to access or represent their perspective on reality. In addition, this stance considers the researcher’s own views and his or her experience to interpret this reality, so interpretivism sees reality as an interpreted social phenomenon. The interpretation requires the researcher to explore how people behave, how they act and what their attitudes and perceptions are, in their lived worlds (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Interpretivism is used for explorations into what the world looks like from individuals’ explanations and views. To access these individuals’ views and perspectives, the interpretivist researcher needs to talk to the individuals, not just observe them (Scotland, 2012). The interpretivist researcher must understand the individuals’ lived world from both what they explain and how they behave. The highlight is on the individuals’ perceptions, beliefs, understanding, meaning, experiences, views, attitudes and values. What interpretivism offers is a view of the lived world through individuals’ eyes (Archer, Bhaskar, Collier, Lawson & Norrie, 1998). These lived world meanings offer the interpretivist researcher understandings of a complex social phenomenon that is shared by people but understood differently.

This research aims to explore understandings about CLT that are affected by people’s experiences. These understandings are unobservable as they are in their minds and so have to be understood through what the participants describe. Therefore, this research seeks to explore this social phenomenon through the participants’ eyes by letting them describe their lived world of enacting CLT in Saudi Arabia. The study will explore the descriptions of the participants of CLT, their experiences with CLT and what CLT means from their point of view. Moreover, this research aims to explore and interpret participants’ views and experiences of interactions in the CLT classroom. Therefore, I have chosen interpretivism as the research paradigm. The reasons to choose interpretivism is that there will be no necessary and single truth about CLT implementation. Different individuals will carry different beliefs and understandings about it.

4.3 Methods overview

The previous section has discussed the philosophical paradigm of this research and the chosen stance as interpretivist. This research uses case study design to explore the

phenomena in the chosen context. Each case study will incorporate textbook analysis, interviews and classroom observations.

4.3.1 Case study

The case study is “an empirical method that investigates a contemporary phenomenon (the ‘case’) in depth” (Yin, 2009, p.18). It is a deep exploration of a specific phenomenon. This specific phenomenon can be a person, place or organisation in its lived context. Its lived context means that the context is involved with people. There are three different case study types, according to Stake: intrinsic; instrumental; and collective (Stake, 1995). For the intrinsic case, as Stake clarified, “we are interested in it, not because by studying it we learn about other cases or about some general problem, but because we need to learn about that particular case” (p. 3). The intrinsic case is when the researcher has an interest in a specific case because it is unique. The instrumental case is “to accomplishing something other than understanding this particular teacher” (p. 3). The goal to understand is not the case itself but the case is a tool to understand another thing than the case itself. This other thing can be another case or can be something else. To designate something as a collective case is “to select cases which are typical or representative of other cases” (p. 4). The collective case can be seen as multiple linked case studies used to explore a social specific phenomenon. The specific phenomenon can be a person, place or organisation. This means there is a choice for the researcher in terms of whether the case is singular or multiple.

In this research, the case is not intrinsic because the sampling is not unique. I have not chosen the most unique or the best teachers of English to explore how CLT is implemented. The teachers in this research are not distinguished from other teachers in Saudi Arabia. This research has aspects of collective and aspects of instrumental case study. It has the former aspects because there are multiple linked cases that share the same contexts to explore and interpret these social phenomena. The words and observed practice of the four participant teachers of English may be seen as linked cases of how they interpret CLT pedagogy. At the same time, this research has aspects of the latter because there are theories and cases to understand wider phenomena. This research has a theoretical framework which is used to explore and understand CLT enactment in SA. These four cases are instrumental in terms of the understanding of the bigger research question which is how CLT fits into the pedagogic culture of SA.

Stake further discusses what the case is: “the study of particularity and the complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances” (p. xi). The

case works as parts in what Stake called a “bounded system” (Stake, 1995, p.2). These bounded systems, which we can think of as cells or bubbles, are separated from each other, and each bubble has its own features. These bubbles to be explored each exist within the bounded system within a closed boundary. What is outside of the bubble is ignored. In other words, for Stake there are no flows from inside or outside across the boundary. The nature of the boundary in Stake’s concept of case study is closed. However, Stake’s perspective is from the 90s when the idea of globalisation was not as widespread as today. Globalisation has created the recognition of globalisation flows: inside and outside of boundaries and the idea of social phenomena being bounded is not common anymore as there is a growing recognition of flows in social science as a result of this globalisation awareness (Appadurai, 1990). This has an impact on the nature of the case study as it is no longer thought of as working in a bounded system. As Yin argues about case study, it is “an empirical method that investigates a contemporary phenomenon (the ‘case’) in depth and within its real-world context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident” (Yin, 2009, p.18).

The difference between these two concepts is the boundary between the context and the phenomena. From Stake’s perspective, this boundary is impermeable: nothing can get through. This means that to understand the case, it has to be bounded from other cases or from its context. However, from Yin’s perspective, the boundary is permeable: flows come in and go out, so the case is not isolated from these interactions. These flows can be between the case and other cases or between the case and its wider context. For Yin, if there are multiple cases, the boundary between one case and another case will not exist. This is because the case cannot be understood as working alone and isolated from the wider context and other cases.

For this research, I have four cases which involved four Saudi teachers and their students. The aim is to understand particularly how these cases interpret CLT. Each case may have its own thinking and own filter, own beliefs and own interpretation of CLT. In this sense, these cases are bounded however not as bounded as bubbles. This because these cases (the teachers and the students) share the same schools, the same timetable, and the same ideas of how schooling works with other teachers and students from the same school. Moreover, the school itself shares the same centralised educational system with other schools as they are under the Ministry of Education of Saudi Arabia. On another level, CLT implementation in these cases can be seen as part of the flows of globalisation. CLT is a global ideology shared with the rest of the world. In other words, there are flows across the cases. These flows are

between the cases themselves and between the cases and others locally and globally. So these cases are not either completely joined nor completely separate (Appadurai, 1990).

Yin (2009) said the strength of the case study is “its ability to deal with a full variety of evidence” (p. 11). The use of different sources can be used to understand a specific case deeply. This is because there are different kinds of evidence coming from different directions that converge like crossing lines and that can be used to explore a specific phenomenon. In order to understand the implementation of the enactment of CLT, I use these multiple sources of evidence, which are interviews, classroom observation and textbook analysis, to understand this study case.

4.3.1.1 Samples

The participants were four teachers and eight students from the same school, all male and all of Saudi nationality and ethnicity. I chose all the teachers in this school. For this fieldwork there were four cases, each case was planned to include one teacher and his students. However, only two cases have students. This is because I had not received permission and, therefore, I had to be pragmatic and accept that two cases would have teachers and students and two only teachers. As this research is using a case study design, the sampled cases have to be “typical or representative of other cases” (Stake, 1995, p.4). My study was with Saudi teachers and Saudi students in a Saudi school. The participants were typical as they would likely not be different from other teachers and other students in other Saudi schools, because of the centralised educational system. They were also typical in that they had the same textbook series and same departmental objectives.

4.3.2 Interviews

4.3.2.1 *Type of interview*

The interview is helpful for the researcher as this tool enables the generation of data from individuals or a group in a personal manner. The interview in research is “qualitative research technique that involves conducting intensive individual interviews with a small number of respondents to explore their perspectives on a particular idea, program, or situation” (Boyce & Neale, 2006, p.3). Another definition is “the purpose of obtaining descriptions of the life world of the interviewee in order to interpret the meaning of the described phenomena” (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015, p.3). It means that there is interaction between the researcher and participant or participants to generate understanding. This can be done through spoken form such as in person and by phone or it can be in non-spoken interview such as online interview. This interaction with purpose which is to let the

participant or the participants open up topics relevant to the research question. Berg (2004, p.66) describes it as: a “conversation with a purpose”.

From the interpretivism stance, the interview is, as Kvale (1996) says: to “understand the world from the subjects’ points of view, to unfold the meaning of people’s experiences, to uncover their lived world prior scientific explanation” (p. 1). This understanding emerges by giving the participants the freedom to speak of their world and to talk about their own experiences in their own terms. Kvale explains more about the type of knowledge that the interviewer is looking for in order to “obtain descriptions of the life world of the interviewee” (p. 7). The interview in the interpretivist paradigm may seek such descriptions in general to provide context around specific phenomenon of interest. The interview is typically concerned with “how” rather than “why” (Brinkmann, 2018, p.578). From an interpretivist stance, the researcher is looking to explore understandings of CLT pedagogy in Saudi Arabian schools from the participants’ points of view. The research seeks participants’ descriptions, their stories and their own experiences of CLT in their particular lived world rather than general explanations of what CLT is and how it works.

Interviews are different in terms of how much they are structured (Kvale, 1996). Usually, they are divided into three types which are structured, unstructured, and semi-structured (Wilson, 2014). The semi-structured interview is defined by Brinkmann and Kvale (2015, p.6) as “an interview to obtain descriptions of the life world of the interviewee to interpret the meaning of the described phenomena”. This type of interview has a particular purpose that the researcher seeks to pursue and comes logically between unstructured and structured interviews, with features of both. Like the structured interview, it has format questions pre-planned by the researcher that address the researcher’s agenda but it gives more space to ask the participants questions beyond the prepared format – if this is needed and they come up in the mind of the researcher during the interview. In other words, a semi-structured interview may have the same questions prepared as a structured interview, but the interviewer can modify these questions, and add or remove questions or even whole themes depending on what comes up during the interview process.

I chose this type of interview because I already had knowledge about CLT and about Saudi pedagogy, so the interviews were not just exploratory – as could be the case in an unstructured interview – but there needed to be more exploration of this information. Semi-structured interview was useful to me as an interviewer as I knew there was knowledge not yet explored but that this knowledge was not so specific or defined as would fit with a structured interview. Choosing semi-structured interview, I was able to use open-ended as

well as closed questions (See Appendix C) which were useful for me as the researcher to generate data that could not be gained from observation (Wilson, 2014, pp. 27-28). The main advantage for me of the semi-structured type of interview was to enable me to ask the participants specific questions about their experience of CLT implementation. This type of interview also allowed some space and flexibility for the participants to express their opinions more freely and to add what they wish about the phenomena that they considered relevant to the topic even I had not prepared specific questions on this. Moreover, I have an agenda that directs my research data generation of knowledge from the interviewees. This agenda requires formatted questions before the interview. At the same time, this data generation involves complex meanings, feelings and emotions and this requires giving space to the interviewees to express their lived world. Therefore, the semi-structured interview has been chosen as the best type to use with the teachers and students as its purpose is to understand the pedagogic and cultural factors that appear to have led to a failure in CLT implementation in the Saudi Arabian setting.

The format of the questions in this research are divided into three domains which are descriptions that relate to English teaching and descriptions about what CLT looks like, descriptions of the difficulties that come with CLT and clarification about the classroom observations. The first domain focuses on descriptions of the teaching of English. These use questions such as to explore about the teaching approach. The second domain is aimed to explore how the participants interpret and understand CLT. This domain aims to explore the participants understand about CLT. The third domain is to explore and understand by asking about the observed teaching.

4.3.2.2 Role of interviewer and co-construction

During the interview, I see my role as “traveller interviewer” rather than “miner interviewer”. Kvale (1996) differentiates between these types of interviewers’ roles. The miner interviewer assumes that the interviewee has the required knowledge which is out there waiting for the interviewer to extract, like valuable minerals (interviewee’s information). In other words, for the miner, the knowledge is out there to be discovered. The traveller approach to the interview is different ontologically and epistemologically, as the assumption is not that the knowledge is out there just waiting to be discovered. Instead, the traveller interviewer is like someone who is on a journey and, throughout this journey, there will be unknown places and unknown people. The traveller may use a map in this journey for guidance (interview themes) to locate some targeted locations.

On my journey of exploration, I am both an outsider and an insider to some extent: an insider because I conducted my interviews with people with whom I share a language, a nationality and a cultural background. However, even with these people I could be considered to some extent an outsider, depending on the distance in the relationship that I co-created with them. A clear example of this is the language used to speak to one another, in terms of choice of standard Arabic or shared regional dialect (Saudi Arabia has 5 main dialects: *Shamali* – Northern; *Janobi* – Southern; *Sharqi* – Eastern; *Garbi* – Western; and *Najdi* – Central) and also the distance set up by the choice of language used to refer to the other person. For example, whereas I would call an elderly gentleman *Ammi* (“my uncle”) if a member of my family or tribe (and *Ya Am*, “the uncle”, if not), to refer to a man of my age, there are three options: my name (for friends); *Abu* [the name of my son] for people who know my family; and *Ustad* (“Sir”). I reflect in Section 10.1.1 on how these choices of language and difference in tone (formal or informal) affected the distance in my relationships with the teachers and impacted on the data generation. Garton & Copland (2010, p.533) comment on this co-construction of meaning:

“It has been recognized that interviews cannot be seen as objective accounts of the interviewee’s reality, but rather, should be viewed as an interactional event in which interviewer and interviewee jointly construct meaning.”

In the same Section (10.1.1) I reflect on how this kind of co-construction can happen not only during a single interview but also as part of a series of interactions (Mann, 2016, p.224) between the researcher and the participants. This series may include formal interviews and observations but also more informal interactions, such as (in my case) coffee breaks in the staffroom that happen throughout the process of data generation.

Shared knowledge and experience was useful when I interviewed the teachers because we share the above insider cultural knowledge and understanding as well our studies of teacher education in universities, especially those who graduated 10 years ago or more. However, I do not share their experience of the implementation of this pedagogy in Saudi Arabia because I never taught or observed teaching there. For the students, this shared knowledge and experience is much less because they do not share my teacher education or my experience of being an adult. Because of this situation, I decided to use naïve questions (Block, 1993). This means that even as an insider this type of question (see Appendix C) can keep a certain distance between me and the participants to avoid me making any assumptions based on our shared knowledge and experience.

In the traveller approach to the interview, the traveller interacts with different people who may not be known to the traveller. During this interaction with local people, the traveller asks and listens to local stories and experiences. As the knowledge is seen through these locals' eyes, it may be new – or not – for the traveller but it will change some of the presumed knowledge because this interaction between the traveller and the local people has a dimension of conversation which may impact on the traveller's presumed knowledge because this dimension has a thinking process as a result of these interactions.

Therefore, being a neutral interviewer is a difficult task to do in the interview and some researchers feel that this stance is “largely mythical” (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.696). They continue: “the interviewer is a person, historically and contextually located, carrying unavoidable conscious and unconscious motives, desires, feelings, and biases—hardly a neutral tool” (p. 696).

However, this can be avoided by the type of questions the interviewer asks. Using naïve questions, the researcher role is that of a traveller assuming that the participants are unknown people, the school is unknown country. Using such questions to invite these participants to share their experience, attitudes and beliefs regarding implementation of CLT, I make sure to be explicit that there are no right or wrong answers and I am not there to judge them but only for research.

In order to facilitate this kind of trust, I first focussed on building rapport. When I arrived at the school, I was first escorted to the office of the school leader by the janitor; I showed the school leader the approval from the Ministry and he welcomed me. We remained in his office, had Arabic coffee and made small talk (“side talk” in Arabic). This process was necessary with regard to cultural practices; it was important not to hurry these introductions and to first gain his trust. It would not have been appropriate to immediately ask to be introduced to the teachers. After some time, I asked if it would be possible to introduce me to the teachers. He provided me with their phone numbers. It is quite normal in the Saudi context to pass on other people's phone numbers without first asking them if it is assumed they will not mind. This cultural setting expects and demands a specific kind of interaction in terms of how to approach others. I called the teachers one by one on different days. In the first week, I did not conduct any interviews or observations. Instead, I sat in the staffroom with the teachers and talked to them, attempting to build rapport with the teachers and gain their trust. Through this stage, I was able to gain knowledge of the kind of practices at work in the school. Seeming to do nothing other than making small talk during that time, I listened and observed what was happening in the school.

I audio recorded the interviews. In the interview, I depended on the recording and did not take any notes in order to focus on the participants as it was a semi-structured interview and I could ask for clarification if things were not clear.

Issues with interviewing children

Another issue that had to be considered was interviewing children in the focus group. Copland and Donaghue (2019, p.271) highlight the challenges with generating data with this and other vulnerable groups:

Stricter and tighter ethical protocols around data gathering and legal mandates around data storage have made it almost impossible to collect spoken language representation from some user groups (for example, children or vulnerable adults). These protocols are for the protection of individuals and are to be welcomed but they have brought a new reality to many interested in the compilation of spoken data. Having said that, where access is relatively straightforward, we have seen a growth, and a resultant discernible integration of the findings from spoken language research into materials development.

A further issue is highlighted by Reusser and Pauli (2015, p.914) is that “coconstruction can be seen as (asymmetrical) adult–child interaction”. I understood why, when interviewing children, Dewayani talks about the need for “an appropriate approach, given the character of the community and their cultural beliefs” but also how this approach was “confined by procedures of research ethics” and that “the human subject protection protocol required me to introduce myself as a researcher on the first visit” and I had the same reaction when I did: “I felt the distance grow between us” (all, Dewayani, 2015, p.124). I felt it was important to have the perspective of the students as well as the teachers and, as a teacher and a father of young children, I was familiar with what Dewayani (2015, p.117) names, “the diverse modes of children’s language diversity”, and agree with her (2015, p.117) that “schools should provide a nurturing space for children to develop their communicative competence”.

As a Saudi citizen, I was aware of cultural concerns about children talking to adults who are not members of the family: that nothing should be said or asked that might be immoral, embarrassing, regarding the personal life of the child or the family; that the child’s education should not be affected; that the stranger should not touch the child and should never be alone with the child in an enclosed space. Of course, these concerns were shared by the Ethics Committee of my university that had granted me approval (see Section 4.3.8) and were facilitated by the student interviews taking place in the office of the Deputy Head, when I

was sitting behind a desk, with the students on the other side, with another member of staff present and the door open. I felt that this formal setting, in a place of authority in the school, had a negative effect on the data generation as it produced shyness. As Fargas Malet et al. (2010, p.6) point out, in such a setting, children may perceive the researcher as another teacher and feel “pressured to give the ‘right’ answers to the research questions” (see Appendix J). I discuss this and another issue, regarding teachers acting as gatekeepers for focus group recruitment, in Section 10.1.1. as part of my final reflection and in Section 10.8.2 as a limitation.

4.3.3 Transcription and translation

I asked the teachers to choose what language they wanted to speak and all the teachers preferred Arabic. For the students, they are at a low level of English so Arabic is the language that can help to express their ideas (Panayiotou, 2004). Therefore, all the interviews were conducted in Arabic and transcribed in Arabic from the audio record and then translated into English from the transcription. This section will justify the approach to transcription and translation.

Transcription “involves capturing who said in what manner (e.g. prosody, pause, voice quality), to whom, under what circumstances (e.g. setting, activity, participants characteristics and relationships to one another” (Edwards, 1995, p.20). It involves transferring a medium of speech into a different medium which is a text format. The mode of transcription is either manually, by the researcher or by hiring someone else, or by using technology. Doing it manually and doing it by myself has given me consistency with all the data from all the participants as I was able to make sure that all the data were transcribed in the same way. Another reason to do it manually is that I decided to be close to what the participants said and immersed in their experience. This has given me a chance to explore the deep meaning and understanding of what they said. The date I transcribed is *verbatim* because I want to catch everything has been said. To make the transcription readable, and capture the meaning, I used both round (...) and square [...] brackets as well as inverted commas “...” for parenthesis:

- [...] for gloss to interpret Arabic words that are untranslatable.
- (...) to explain non-verbal communication such as laughter or clapping.
- “...” to write the exact words in Arabic.

I listen to the entire audio and relistened to make sure not to lose anything from the data. I also had to decide when and how to use capitalisation, and other forms of punctuation such as commas and full stops because I changed to written mode from spoken mode.

Translation may be seen as “rendering the meaning of text into another language in the way the author intended the text” (Newmark, 1988, p.5). There is a text, an author and two languages. The relations between these components are described by Eco (2013) as a negotiation relation. Eco’s concept involves negotiation between two texts: one is the original and the other the translated text. The original text comes with its culture and language usage and structure with this culture. On the other hand, there is a translation text which needs attention to make it readable for those readers who have a different culture, different language usage and structure. Therefore, the translator has to “know a lot of things, most of them independent of mere grammatical competence” (Eco, 2013, p.17). The translator has to be aware of how the two languages work within their contexts.

Between the original and the translated text, there are two strategies of access which are exoticizing and familiarising. Exoticizing “serves to document in the target language the communication which a source text contains” (Nord, 2006, p.81). It may mean that the translator will translate word for word, as is often done in older translations of sacred scripture which sound strange today. The other strategy is familiarising:

Thus, the Spanish translation scholar Dora Sales Salvador, writing in 2004, suggests that “in the contradictory yet complementary dialectic between exoticising (foreignizing) and familiarising (domesticating), the ideal solution would be to find a medium term, an in-between space, respecting otherness but able to transmit and communicate to the target culture” (Rollason, 2006, p.4)

Taking this advice, the translator has the options of focussing on the denotation or the connotation of a word or phrase. Denotation “refers to the fact that many words stand for objects, events or processes, and they, therefore, have a denotative meaning” (Mott, 2011, p.78). Mott continues: explaining that connotations are “much vaguer than denotations, they are often subjective, may vary from one generation to another, and are also culture-bound” (p. 79). Denotation refers to the simple meaning of the words and it has more literal equivalence. Connotation refers to what is associated with the words and that is linked with their historical and cultural background.

Eco (2013) added that an issue to be considered in translation is author intention: “to establish exactly what the author said is an interesting problem” (p. 3). Here the strategy of

exoticizing may be used to establish what the source text said literally. It is more likely that this can be done by equivalent words. The other issue is “when a given expression has a connotative force it must keep the same force in translation, even at the cost of accepting changes in denotation” (p. 63). Here the access to the meaning of the text is by connotation as words with the same force do not necessarily have to have the same denotation but may be different words with the same meaning. An example is *Shari’a*, the Arabic word for *law*, which literally means way or access to water (as that has ancient regulations) and usually translated *Islamic law*. In English, to use the connotations of something natural and helpful for the people, the term Bedouin common law or even Bedouin by-laws might come closer to the force of *Shari’a* when used by an Arabic speaker even if the translation is not literally exact.

For this research, I have two options to access the meaning of the text of the interview verbatim. The first is familiarising which is to make the text more readable but less Arabic. The second is exoticizing which is making it more Arabic but less readable. I choose to use one or the other, depending on what is in the text spoken by the participants. I use familiarising to make it more readable but, on other occasions, I exoticise for the words that require force. Some words and phrases are untranslatable. Those I write as spoken and try to explain the meaning.

4.3.4 Checking the research instruments

There were two parts to the process of checking the research instruments. No data was stored or used for the research. Firstly, with help from my supervisor, I was able to undertake three trial classroom observations of adult students at an English language centre in Glasgow. I wrote notes by hand during these observations using the theoretical framework to focus on what was happening in the classroom and how the lesson was being taught. There were some differences between these lessons and those I would observe in Saudi. In Glasgow, the three teachers were native speakers teaching adult international students on a Pre-Sessional English course. However, these observations helped me familiarise myself with paying attention to the lesson phases, especially in regard to how the aspects of CLT including how L2 was used and how the teacher and the students interact with each other.

Secondly, having established an initial set of the kind of questions to ask at interview, and translated them into Arabic, I then wanted to try them out to observe if the interviewees would understand them in context and also to make sure that there were no negative connotations of the questions. Accordingly, I asked a friend from Saudi who had experience

as an English teacher and was in Scotland also studying for a Ph.D. to informally act out the role of an interviewee. I explained the purpose of the checking process and that I would not be using any of the data generated as the process was only to improve the suitability of the questions. This process was very interesting for me as I was surprised to learn that some of the questions may perhaps have sounded a little judgmental. On receiving this feedback, I thanked my friend for being so helpful and revised the questions to cut out any sense that I was judging the teachers. I decided to avoid the word “why”, as in “why did you...?” and to replace it with something gentler, such as “can you tell me about..?” or “I was interested in...” or even “what, in your opinion makes a good...?” so this checking process made me feel more confident about establishing and maintaining good rapport with the teacher respondents in Saudi.

4.3.5 Classroom observation

Observation for research involves not only looking at things but looking at things in a systematic way, and it gives the researcher the opportunity to “examine our assumption, to challenge them and offer alternative viewpoints” (Simpson & Tuson, 2003, p.3). Observation is helpful for the researcher who wants to understand and interpret a social phenomenon as it gives access to the participants’ views of the lived world. It provides “live” data and the real world of the participants to explore (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2013, p.396). This gives access to data that is not possible to access from the interview because the observation has the element as the participants are interacting in a real live social setting. The observation provides access to live data to observe how the participants interact, how they communicate verbally and non-verbally and how they behave and act in a certain social setting.

Observation is categorised as structured, semi-structured and unstructured. Semi-structured observation is when the researcher has “an agenda of issues but will gather data to illuminate these issues in a far less predetermined or systematic manner” (Cohen et al., 2013, p.397). In this type of observation, the researcher knows what is looking but it is open for other things as well. It is not tied to categories but, although it allows some space to explore, and the attention to some points can be justified. This type can involve both interpretivism and positivism depending on the researcher’s stance. This means the semi-structured does have some structure but there may be an interest in other things beyond the structure.

The semi-structured type is the choice of this research as it fits with looking for a specific issue in the phenomena under study. This is because there is a research question that guides

this research and I know what I am looking for: how the practice of teachers and the experience of the students in class fits into the CLT principles. The structure will explore the instructional discourse, the regulative discourse and the alignment with CLT principles. However, there is the possibility that some related issues may emerge during the observation which needs to allow some space for this.

The role of the researcher in observation the phenomena may be divided into participant and non-participant. The participant “observers engage in the very activities they set out to observe” (Cohen et al., 2013, p.258). Cohen adds that this “is a researcher who takes on an insider role in the group being studied, and maybe who does not even declare that he or she is a researcher” (p. 404). The participant-observer act as a member of the group, community, or people of the study. This participation may or may not be declared. When it is declared, the researcher can use some recording by video or audio but if the participation is not declared this is not an option. The non-declaring participant has to depend on the human capacity of memory. This type of observation has the advantage of allowing the researcher close access to the participants. This may involve accessing the deep meaning of the participants' behaviour: not just how the participants behave but also the rules behind their behaviour. This can be accessed when observing and asking them certain questions while acting as one of them.

Non-participant observers, on the other hand, “stand aloof from the group activities they are investigating and eschew group membership – no great difficulty” (Cohen et al., 2013, p.295):

The best illustration of the non-participant observer role is perhaps the case of the researcher sitting at the back of a classroom coding up every three seconds the verbal exchanges between teacher and pupils by means of a structured set of observational categories (Cohen et al., 2013, p.259)

For this study, participant observation is not an option for different reasons. The first reason is that, due to ethical issues, I am not allowed to observe the participants without permission from the relevant parties. The second is that my research involves teachers and students in Saudi classroom and being a participant would mean that I to be either a teacher or a student. This would be difficult if I was a student due to the different age between the researcher and the student, so it is not appropriate. In terms of the teacher, it is due to the hierarchical centralised Ministry of Education and this is not an option they offer. More importantly, my research is looking for the enactment of CLT which involves the teachers and the students

using CLT. This means being non-participant fits my role as an observer as it requires the students and teacher teaching and studying naturally in a normal setting. Therefore, the non-participant observer role will be used in this research. There is a risk that being non-participant in terms of the possibility of causing some inconvenience to the participants (Aubusson Peter, 2007; Borich, 2016). This is possible during my observation as the teachers may feel or think I am there to judge their pedagogic practice. For this, I reduce this possibility by assuring the participants that I am not there to judge and that this is observation for research purposes only. It is important to gain the trust of the teachers and assure them that the researcher is not to criticise nor improve their pedagogy, but simply to observe it. The choice of the type of observation depends on what the researcher wants to know, which is derived from the research questions (DeWalt & DeWalt, 2002).

4.3.5.1 Fieldwork and Fieldnotes

With my supervisors, I discussed the possibility of ethnographic field research but we decided instead that a case study design was better, for various reasons. These include: the overall methodological approach is deductive, as the research starts from an established theoretical framework used to analyse the data; the focus was on the four cases, especially on their similarities and differences in the same pedagogic context; and lastly because, although I am a “native” of the country and even the region under study, I was not a participant observer and I only had ethical permission from my university and the Saudi Ministry of Education to be at the school for a few weeks, not to spend years on a long ethnographic study there. (This time constraint is mentioned as a limitation in Section 10.8.1.)

Even so, there are some things that these different approaches to fieldwork can have in common. One is the use of fieldnotes. “Fieldnotes are central to ethnography”, as Copland (2018, p.251) notes and further explains:

Fieldnotes are constructed accounts over time. When the researcher is observing at the research site, he/she will generally find it difficult to make full notes. Often, it is not possible to make any notes at all in which case the researcher must rely on memory. (Copland, 2018, p.253)

This process of using fieldnotes in the field is described by Bridges-Rhoads (2017, p.646) as helping the researcher to think differently:

The notes generally happen like this: I leave the office. I go to the field. I write fieldnotes. I return to the office. I write more fieldnotes. I read. I write more fieldnotes. And somehow in the midst of it all, I start to think differently.

My fieldwork was not outside in a field but inside sitting in a back corner of a comfortable classroom, with plenty of light and a desk to work at. I found it easier to make notes by hand and then type them up later, listening to the audio recording several times in the process of analysis (see section 4.3.6). I have a very good visual memory so, later, when I was listening and relistening to the audio recording, and making notes on that (see Appendices G & H), I could “see” the scene in the classroom; however, as an *aide memoire*, during observation I also noted down the position of the teacher, the students and the furniture in the classroom, the number and attention level of the students, the tone of voice of the teacher, and so on (see Appendix F). I wrote these notes in English, as that was the language of the theories I had in my head, so this choice fitted in with the deductive approach. When I typed them up, I used grammar correction software to check for grammar and spelling errors and even this process of correction was another opportunity to think about what I had written. All of these steps helped me to think differently, and I comment in detail about this in the Researcher Final Reflection in Section 10.1.1 and also the cultural reasons why I had to delete some phrases from these notes as a limitation in Section 10.8.1.

4.3.6 The analysis

I used thematic analysis to analyse the data. Braun and Clarke (2006, p.79) define thematic analysis as “a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data”. Braun and Clarke identify two approaches to thematic analysis: deductive and inductive. The deductive approach “tends to be driven by the researcher’s theoretical or analytic interest in the area and is thus more explicitly analyst-driven” (p. 84). The inductive approach, on the other hand, is “a process of coding the data without trying to fit it into a pre-existing coding frame, or the researcher’s analytic preconceptions” (p. 83). This means that in the deductive approach there are themes set before analysing the data, while in the inductive approach the themes are taken from the data. For my research, I used the deductive approach because there were theories and research questions guiding the textbook analysis as well as the questions put to the interviewees. At the same time, some data was added from the participants that went beyond the questions I asked but was related to it, so I created some further themes while analysing the data.

Braun and Clarke (2006) identify six steps in thematic analysis: becoming familiar with the data; generating code; searching for themes; reviewing these themes; defining the themes; and finally writing a report about them. Familiarisation is when researchers read the entire data. Braun and Clarke note that it is important to read before starting coding, to search for meaning in the data. I read the data more than once to search for the meaning and to look for the patterns in what the participants said. Transcription gave me a chance to become familiar with the data. The next step entails generating codes. I made a list of codes for what was being said. As I used the deductive approach, the list was prepared before analysis. However, things not in the list but that were related and interesting were added during the analysis. The third step involved searching for themes. Braun and Clarke clarify that there are no fixed rules about what makes a theme. The process is very flexible. Essentially, what makes a theme is its significance to the research questions. During this phase, I searched for the meaning and the patterns in the data to make a list of the themes related to my research questions and linked them to what the participants said. Some subthemes emerged from the themes, mainly with regard to distinguishing between data from the students and the teachers.

Table 5, on the next page, uses criteria adapted from Walsh (2011) and Bernstein (1990) because these are the two theorists used most in the analysis of the pedagogy embedded in the textbooks and in the classroom interactions. Walsh discusses interaction in the classroom between the student and the teacher, and the language they use, as the heart of the classroom discourse related to the pedagogic goals. One of the areas he explores is: initiation, student response and teacher feedback (IRF). Walsh employs language of interaction in this element as instruction (I) from the teacher, to which the students respond (R), and then there is feedback (F) that corrects the student response. The table refers to the regulative discourse (RD) which Bernstein (1990) sees as operating, transmitting and embedding the instructional discourse (ID) that sees as the key component of pedagogic discourse (PD) (See Chapter Three).

Table 5: Criteria from Walsh and Bernstein

| Criteria | Explanation |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| IRF | Teacher initiation, student response, teacher feedback. |
| Speech modification | Deliberate variations to the voice by the teacher as a way to aid student understanding and attention levels. This also helps with modelling the target language for students. |
| Signalling | Signalling changes and shifts in direction in interactions involved in learning or in its organisation. |
| Pausing | Leaving spaces in the classroom, often for the sake of classroom management or to provide space for learning and understanding. |
| Turn taking | Which turns are held, passed, taken or given. |
| Elicitation | Methods used by teachers to get students to respond. This usually involves asking questions. |
| Content feedback | Mimics real-world context by engaging in near-natural conversation using personal not predefined reactions to student comments. |
| Managing the topic | Natural or subtle maintenance of conversation focus on a particular topic. |
| Repair | Addressing student errors. |
| Seeking clarification | The need for teachers to be active listeners, constantly reaffirming, questioning and clarifying learner contributions. |
| Overlaps and interruptions | Work to support and aid the conversation in its flow rather than forming any kind of disruption. Provide signals to the speaker that they have been understood as well as supporting continuation. |
| Teacher learner echo | Teacher repeats what the student has said for the benefit of the class. This works to ensure the entire class is included in the conversation and everyone's understanding progresses together. |
| Summarising | Providing a summary of the lesson either so far or that is to come. Can work to reinforce points and understanding. |

Synthesised from Walsh (2011, p.214)

4.3.7 Textbook analysis

Textbook analysis is useful to explore what textbook the teachers used, what it suggests for classroom use, and how teachers used it in their actual pedagogy (Chien & Young, 2007). In this research, there are two uses of textbook analysis. The first is an analysis of one sample unit and the second is a comparison with the teacher cases in each chapter of analysis. The sample unit to be analysed was chosen randomly because all units have the same structure in terms of the numbers of the lessons and activities, and the skills each lesson covers. The reason to focus on one unit was to explore how the scaffolding supports the student from the beginning until the end of the unit. The second use is for analysis of the lesson taught in each case, in order to understand what official pedagogy is suggested and to what extent and how it is used by each teacher. The textbook is used because it is a core element in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) setting (Sheldon, 1988). L. Newton and Newton (2002) add that it can be further used by the teacher as a main source to plan their lessons. As it explained in Chapter One, the textbooks are provided by the Ministry of Education of Saudi Arabia, so it is important to explore what kind of pedagogy is being promoted. The way to analyse the textbooks is by focussing on the elements of CLT based on my understanding of this approach. This analysis is on three levels concerning course content, user requirement and implied pedagogy (Littlejohn, 1998). This analysis is helpful to explore what the activities are and what the pedagogy suggested is and what the specific aims are and how there are to be accomplished (Tomlinson, 2012). For my research, it is analysed based on specific criteria that enable me to explore all the activities from the same perspective.

Tomlinson (2012) suggested that there was “the obvious but important point is that there can be no one model framework for the evaluation of materials; the framework used must be determined by the reasons, objectives, and circumstances of the evaluation” (p. 11). Cunningsworth (1995) added, “it is important to limit the number of criteria used and the number of questions asked to manageable proportions”. As this research is to explore how the Saudi textbooks reflect CLT principles, they use criteria based on CLT principles. The reason is to understand what overall pedagogy is being promoted, with what aims and how to accomplish these aims.

4.3.8 Ethical considerations

There is cultural awareness that needs to be considered to approach any setting (Byram, 1998). The research protocol to approach the participants suggests a specific way of talking and interaction that is appropriate to the context’s setting. Therefore, I had to consider how to approach and relate to the participants in this research. In order to approach the school

leader, I had to apply to receive ethical approval from University of Glasgow and also the Saudi Ministry of Education. In Saudi culture (as in other cultures) it is normal to approach the superior as a gatekeeper so approval from the Ministry gained me the trust of the school leader, who in turn provided access to the teachers. With these approvals in place, I also gained their trust. The English teachers then gave me their informed consent to observe and interview their classes by reading the Plain Language Statement (See Appendix A) and signing the Consent Form (See Appendix B), both written plainly in English. The teachers also distributed the Consent Forms, translated into Arabic, to the parents, as advised by the school leader.

The interviews involved four teachers all aged well over 21 years, and two groups of four students all between 12-16 years old. Their parents gave their informed consent and I made sure the parents and the students knew that they were totally free to withdraw at any time. I explained the research in Arabic in a simple way so that the children could understand and stressed that there would be total confidentiality. The parents and the students were informed what the data will be used for.

I made sure make sure the interview questions were clear. No question was on a sensitive issue and I assured the participants that there were no right or wrong answers. I avoided making comments that may have seemed judgmental or critical of the participants in the interviews or in the classroom observations. The participants were informed that they could withdraw at any time without providing an explanation and they were offered the opportunity to check transcripts. In case of any distress, I was prepared to stop the interview and to remind the participants that they did not have to answer any question, and were free to withdraw at any stage. In this case, I would have asked for advice from the student advisor who works in the school.

As a citizen of Saudi Arabia, I was familiar with the location, and culture. The site of the research site is a public institution and not isolated. There were regular meetings with my supervisors via Zoom and e-mails to monitor the project at every stage.

The research data was in electronic form and stored on my personal and approved drive on the University of Glasgow system via VPN logon with password protection. This data should be kept for the requisite 10 years after the research is completed, then destroyed.

Chapter 5: Textbook analysis

5.1 Introduction

The Saudi Arabian Ministry of Education (2002) has established communicative language teaching (CLT) as the basis for the English language curriculum in schools, as discussed in Chapter One. This means that there is a push towards a certain kind of pedagogy. As the SA educational system is centralised and hierarchical, an analysis of officially prescribed textbooks is useful to discover what kind of pedagogy is recommended as the textbooks represent the official version of the curriculum, reflecting what is called the official recontextualization field (ORF) (see Chapter Three). This chapter analyses one unit from a Saudi English language textbook that is used in the middle school in the first semester of grade 9 (when the students are aged 14). The middle school grade has been chosen for this analysis because these students have been studying English for five years. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume there will be more opportunities for communication and a more comprehensive coverage of aspects of communicative competence by this point. At this stage, the textbook (comprising the student's book, workbook and teacher's book) used is *Lift Off 6*. This widely-used textbook has been chosen for analysis as it should help to compare the official curriculum with the actual pedagogic practice of the cases which use a very similar series. In this textbook, all the units have the same number of lessons and activities, and they are presented in the same way. Unit 2 (see Appendix D-1) is typical of the units in the textbook. This chapter's analysis focuses on whether and how Saudi textbooks reflect CLT principles.

5.2 The textbook

The textbook may be described as a type of curricular and pedagogic resource that a teacher uses in the classroom to facilitate students' learning (Awasthi, 2006), or simply a textual resource. Awasthi argues that a textbook provides a broad pattern of how learning in the curricular area should proceed. It plays a role in some contexts as curricular and pedagogic guidance and maps the learning sequence. In the context of a highly centralised educational system, the language textbook may be considered the "visible heart of any English Language Teaching (ELT) programme" (Sheldon, 1988, p.237), central to the activities of both the teacher and the students. In a strongly framed pedagogic setting such as Saudi Arabia, the textbook may be considered an essential element of teaching and learning, which is used in multiple ways:

as an effective resource for self-directed learning, an effective source of presentation of materials, a source of ideas and activities, and a reference source for students, a syllabus where they reflect predetermined language objectives, and support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain confidence. (Cunningsworth, 1995, p.52)

More generally, a language textbook aims “to facilitate the learning of a language” (Tomlinson, 2012, p.2). It also serves to review what has been learned and, for both the teacher and the students, the textbook may be used to assess the learning process (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994). This means the textbook has the power to communicate what pedagogy is being promoted. In this current research, the textbook plays a crucial role in learning as it is, officially, the authoritative source that enables students to practice the exercises and activities (Cunningsworth, 1995). It determines what knowledge is made accessible and what pedagogy is associated with the activities. In terms of classification, the curricular knowledge associated with the textbook can be stronger (C+) or weaker (C-) depending on how much separation there is between the sequenced activities or the exercises, and how much separation there is between the curricular knowledge and knowledge in the students’ everyday world (Bernstein, 1990). Through the activities and exercises the textbook determines how the knowledge is to be transmitted and shapes the nature of interaction between students and teacher. The textbook can establish how much freedom is to be given to the students in the activities. When the textbook gives greater freedom of expression to the students it is associated with weaker framing (F-) and when it limits freedom it suggests stronger framing (F+) (Bernstein, 1990). It is also essential to know what kind of assessment is used in the textbook because the assessment can pull the pedagogy and curriculum after it based on their alignment (see Chapter Three for discussion of assessment and C and F). Above all, the textbook is regarded as the outcome of the official recontextualization field (ORF).

The textbook, especially when used according to the guidance in the teacher’s book, provides a plan for the teacher to follow. Therefore, the students and teachers may follow a predictable and manageable sequence of knowledge acquisition as a standard for both the teachers and students. This predictable knowledge, on one level, can be central for teachers and students to use as a standard for what skills are needed, how to gain these skills and how to evaluate them. This is all made explicit in the teacher’s book. It provides a kind of knowledge with recommendations on how the knowledge is regulated by promoting certain kinds of interactions between the students and the teachers with decisions made on how the lessons

and the activities are to be sequenced and organised. However, this ready-made pedagogy may equally have a negative impact on the teachers' pedagogic practice. It could be seen as de-professionalising. There is a power in textbooks that is not just related to convenience. The ready-made textbook may not necessarily limit the teachers' freedom over what and how to teach, however, there may not be much opportunity for the teacher to devise his or her own techniques, content and approaches. Usually, these textbooks come with suggestions and advice on what activities should be practised within the given time, such that the teacher is placed under the time pressure of finishing the official plan of the textbook. However, the implied timetable of the textbook may not exactly match what the teachers can actually achieve in class.

As mentioned in Chapter One, the Saudi Arabian Ministry of Education has decided to promote CLT in the classroom. The English curriculum as expressed in the textbooks and teacher's books is very centralised with very detailed guidance for every activity and recommendations on how to assess the English level of the students. The choice and style of textbook, therefore, represents the decisions of the ministry in selecting the type of knowledge to include in these textbooks. In Saudi Arabia, the use of English textbooks is typically understood to control all aspects of the pedagogic practice and is associated with the authority of F++ pedagogy. Therefore, analysis of the textbook is helpful to exploring the officially promoted pedagogy.

5.3 Criteria for textbook analysis

The focus of the analysis in this chapter is to judge the fit between the activities in an officially prescribed textbook and the principles of CLT, upon which the officially prescribed curriculum is based. It is driven by the research question: How do Saudi textbooks reflect CLT principles? The theoretical framework developed in previous chapters is used to analyse a sample unit from this textbook for teaching and learning English, using explicit criteria to explore how the official curriculum and endorsed pedagogy reflect CLT principles. These pragmatic criteria are not necessarily specific to CLT. This process also involves analysing the nature of the pedagogic designs embedded in the content of the textbook, its appearance, the sequence of the lessons, and the nature of the activities and exercises – with particular attention to what type of pedagogy the textbook is promoting. The analysis uses the criteria shown in Table 6, below, as evidence of the CLT approach:

Table 6: Textbook Analysis Criteria

| Criteria | Definition |
|------------------------------------|--|
| Authentic language | Spoken or written language for genuine communication (Nunan (1999) |
| Meaningful activities | Using the language functionally for more engagement to apply it meaningfully (Richards & Rodgers, 2014) |
| Scaffolding | Building support where needed (Kane, 2010) |
| Personalised | Use of language that involves the students talking about themselves or about things that relate to them and their interests (Harmer, 2012) |
| Information gap | Some of the information is with one party and the rest is with another party so they need to engage in exchange to fill the gap (Ellis, 2003) |
| Fluency | “Natural language use occurring when a speaker engages in meaningful interaction and maintains comprehensible and ongoing communication despite limitations in his or her communicative competence” (Richards, 2006, p.14) |
| Accuracy | “The learner’s use of grammar, vocabulary and phonology, and the extent to which this is free from mistakes” (Parrott, 1993, p.64) |
| Linguistic complexity | “[t]he extent to which the language produced in performing a task is elaborate and varied” (Ellis, 2003, p.340) |
| Degree of freedom for the students | Based on the framing, either stronger (F+) or weaker (F-) (Bernstein, 1990) |
| Classification | Specialist subject knowledge, either stronger (C+) or weaker (C-) (Bernstein, 1990) |

The authenticity criterion (as discussed in section 2.3.3) refers to opportunities to use language in authentic and authentic-like contexts of input and output in the classroom which mimic real life. An example might be questions and answers about pets. The second criterion is the meaningful aspect. This is when there is the opportunity for students to use L2 functionally, for example in greeting each other. Scaffolding is a useful criterion as it focuses on how activities, lessons and units are built and support each other. An example of this is when a teaching point is reinforced by being presented and practised in various ways, such as the present perfect tense being highlighted in a reading text then being modelled in a written gap-fill conversation then being used in freer oral practice. The personalised criterion refers to use of language that is personal to the speaker, for example talking about their own family. The criterion for information gap highlights when two students have difference

pieces of information and they must work together to fill this gap. An example of this is when two students are given different prompt cards with limited information in a role-played job interview and must communicate in order to share all this information. The goal setting criterion refers to the expected outcome of the activity, lesson or unit. An example would be the students being able to make polite requests. The criteria for accuracy and fluency are useful to observe how they are balanced in the textbooks because the CLT approach encourages the teacher to take care about this. An example would be when the textbooks advise allowing students to speak freely with minimal correction or when, on the other hand, it focuses on the correct form. Linguistic complexity is useful as a criterion to determine how much the teaching point is cognitively demanding. An example would be the difference in complexity between teaching simple greetings and teaching the order of adverbial clauses. Lastly, the criterion of degree of freedom highlights the space given to the students for their choice in activities, for example when are allowed to decide for themselves how to answer the question “what did you do yesterday?” in a role-play.

5.4 Analysis of the textbook

This section describes the textbook to be analysed. The analysis of the textbook takes place on three levels: “What is there”; “What is required of users”; “What is implied (Littlejohn, 1998). The first level considers the textbook as a publication, with its subdivision and sequence of learner materials. The second looks at content in terms of: “What is the learner required to do?” and with whom. The last level investigates what underpins this; this is related to the activity’s aims, how it is selected and sequenced as well as the roles of the teacher, students and the materials (Littlejohn, 1998, p.181). Littlejohn states that this approach can be applied when the textbook is used as a pedagogic device, which is applicable to this study. The analysis will thus begin by exploring the textbook as a publication. This includes what the textbook looks like, the number of units and activities and the number of pages. I will then move on to the second level, which entails exploring the learner requirements. In order to do this in depth, one sample unit is considered. The last level of analysis focusses on how it is meant to be taught and what connection this has with the official pedagogy of CLT.

The textbook analysed here is called *Lift Off 6* and it is published in 2016 by Macmillan Education, a global academic publisher. It has been produced specifically for the Saudi market. This textbook is part of the *Lift Off* textbooks series 1-6, with one book for each semester. *Lift Off 6* is used for the second semester of the third year of middle school. This

textbook has a package that comprises a student's book or textbook, a workbook, a teacher's book and a CD with listening and speaking activities. The textbook comprises the primary materials used in the classroom by both the teacher and students. The workbook matches the student textbook. The teacher's book advises never to teach the workbook first; it should come second after the textbook. The workbook is designed for students to practise what is learned in the student textbook and it has extra exercises that may be given for homework in order to consolidate learning. The listening activities include CD recordings of "native" English speakers, as indicated by their American accents, with the stated aim of acting as a model for the students to produce "natural English" (*Lift Off 6*, p.2) through imitation and repetition. The teacher's book provides an overview of the student's book and the planned sequence of classes (see Appendix E-1 for the book's table of contents). It goes into much detail about how each unit, lesson and activity should be presented. In terms of the Common European Framework of Reference, this textbook is from level A2 to B1.

The textbook used for students combines the student's book and the workbook, which, combined, covers 163 pages. The textbook is designed with attractive colours and pictures. It has a list of units and lessons, each with a title and description of what it aims to teach. The next page presents a verb list with Arabic translations for each verb. This verb list is used in the activities. At the end of the textbook, there is an English-Arabic dictionary for the new vocabulary that the students are presumed to need at this level of English in middle school. The use of Arabic language is limited to these translation lists. Adil (2020) demonstrates that there may be a strategic role for translation in CLT implementation in the classroom (see section 3.2.5) and its use is not limited to the Grammar Translation Method.

The textbook has ten units, each with three lessons and then one lesson at the end to review the previous three, called "Saudi Review". Each lesson has activities designated with the letters A to G. The number of activities in each lesson is usually between five and seven, except for a few lessons with eight or nine activities. The teacher's book gives a formula to work out how to cover all ten units in the semester (see Appendix E-2): the number of weeks (four lessons each week) divided by ten. The teacher's book recommends covering all the units but, if this is not possible, it recommends dropping the Saudi review lessons as they are not classified as "core material" but otherwise it is suggested that all lessons should all be covered during the semester. After Units 1 to 5, there is an assessment with marks out of 50 to measure the progress of the students. The assessments cover grammar, vocabulary, listening, reading and writing. Similarly, after Units 6 to 10, there is a summative assessment

to measure the students' progress out of 50 marks covering the same spread of skills. This means the students can look ahead to the assessment.

The content in the activities is drawn from different sources, such as adapted online articles with pictures showing communicative scenarios. All the examples are illustrated, and the full unit can also be found in Appendix D1, with the respective teacher's book section in Appendix E-3). The majority of these are taken from Saudi Arabian culture and most of the images present a conservative image of that culture. This can be seen in the presentation of women in the text and images, which are traditionally modest in terms of clothing and behaviour. They wear the *abaya*, a traditional full black cloak that covers the entire body, with the *hijab* (either a one-piece *shayla* that shows the face or a two-piece *niqab* that does not show the face); only the hands and face appear. The behaviour of the women in the text and images also presents the women as traditionally modest. This can be seen in the interaction of the women and their gaze when they interact: the women shown do not look at or talk to an adult male stranger. These images also do not show women looking at the reader of the textbook. In the textbook, none of the Saudi women is in a picture with a man, except for the very few pictures presenting them accompanied by an adult male from the same family. The following images are examples: As seen in Figure 13 below, two young women, wearing an *abaya* and *shayla*, sit side by side looking at a computer screen with the words "Saudi Stars" on it (*Lift Off 6*, Unit 2, Lesson 1, Activity A, Postcards, p.12).



Figure 13. Lesson 1 - Saudi Stars - Activity A

Figure 14, below, shows a similar pair, in conversation, sitting opposite each other with a shopping bag on the table, with their faces partially turned away from the reader (*Lift Off 6*, Unit 3, Lesson 2, Activity A, Speaking, Ask and Answer, Different Ways of Shopping, p.24).



Figure 14. Lesson 2 - Different ways of shopping - Activity A

On the other hand, Saudi men, young and old, may be presented separately or talking to other men. In most of the pictures of Saudi men, they wear the white *thoub* (the traditional Saudi long garment for men). Some pictures present more casual dress with Saudi men wearing sports clothes. In the pictures, the male figures' gaze is different from the women's. In many of the pictures, men are looking directly at the reader. This is clear in the examples of photos from this textbook in Figures 19 and 26, below.

This difference in representation stems from the strict Saudi gender ideology explained in Chapter One. The images of men and women are presented differently in deference to the Saudi cultural setting. There is, however, some interaction shown between men and women of different nationalities, as the following examples show. The cartoon comic strip of eight images about "Juliane" (see Figure 15, below) shows a 17-year-old White teenager with brown hair wearing a torn green shirt and tan trousers, in Peru (*Lift Off 6*, Unit 2, Lesson 3, Activity E, Listening, p.18). Three of the images show her with boys or men.



Figure 15. Lesson 3 - An amazing story - Activity A

A previous cartoon comic strip of four images about “Juliane” (before her adventure in Peru) is similar (see Figure 21, below) and beside this is an image of a blonde White teenager smiling beside a map of South America (*Lift Off 6*, Unit 2, Lesson 3, Activity A, Reading and Speaking, An Amazing Story, p.18).

The more global images are limited to scenarios that do not conflict with the conservative Saudi images. There are interactions between men and women in the international images, such as in the above activities. However, the number of such images is far less than the number of Saudi images in the textbook. The above examples of the textbook presentation show how the ORF plays a role in recontextualising English learning to fit with Saudi culture by reducing the degree of English being perceived to be a risk of a threat (see Chapter Two). Therefore, the ORF created a version of English instruction that does not conflict with wider society. This can be seen as an instance of the overall aim of the Ministry of Education (2002) of English teaching that reinforces Islam as discussed in Chapter One.

The goal of teaching informing this book is to learn English as a foreign language. The book encourages the teacher to use English in the classroom and provides classroom language verbs to help the teacher direct the students to use the book, such as “read”, “write”, “look” and “listen”. There are accompanying gestures/cues illustrated in the teacher’s book to support these English instructions (see Appendix E-3). This is of interest in terms of making CLT work at the early stage of language competence, providing teachers with simple words and supporting gestures. At this early stage, it can be helpful for the student to relate these words to gestures, providing a real-world, though simplified and limited, use of the language.

The three lessons in each unit cover functions, grammar, vocabulary, language skills, study skills and independent learning. However, there is no indication in the teacher’s book how much time each lesson should take. All the lessons except the “Saudi Review” have a section called “Language Help” that relates to the grammar sections to show how the language is used in terms of structure and grammar. The teacher’s book provides very detailed guidance on how to teach each lesson (see Appendix E-1 and E-3). The textbook uses a similar structure across all the units and lessons. For this reason, I have chosen one unit as a representative sample of the curriculum and pedagogy recommended across the entire program. Unit 2 (see Appendix D-1 and Appendix E-3) is titled “Achievements, Ambitions, Adventures”. This unit has three lessons, each with five to seven activities. Each activity is categorised under reading, speaking, listening, grammar or vocabulary. Although each of these lessons is presumed to correspond with one daily class, that may not happen in practice.

The activities in the lessons are now analysed in terms of the three levels discussed above – “What is there”; “What is required of users”; “What is implied” (Littlejohn, 1998, p.181). In addition, the concluding section sums up this analysis with reference to the principles of CLT and the theoretical framework of the research laid out in Chapter Three. Although the lessons vary, there are some characteristics which occur frequently: the progress of the activities is generally from input using receptive skills for meaning then moving to a focus on language, with greater freedom. Grammar is taught both explicitly and implicitly.

5.4.1 Lesson 1 - Under the Sea (seven activities)

The title of Lesson One is “Under the Sea”. At the start, an illustrated box (see Figure 16, below) shows the same two young women, wearing an *Abaya* and *Shayla*, sitting on either side of a computer with a picture of a ship on it commenting on the reading comprehension about James Cameron, which contains two images of undersea technology (*Lift Off 6*, Unit 2, Lesson 1, Activity A, Reading, James Cameron, Saudi Stars, p.14).

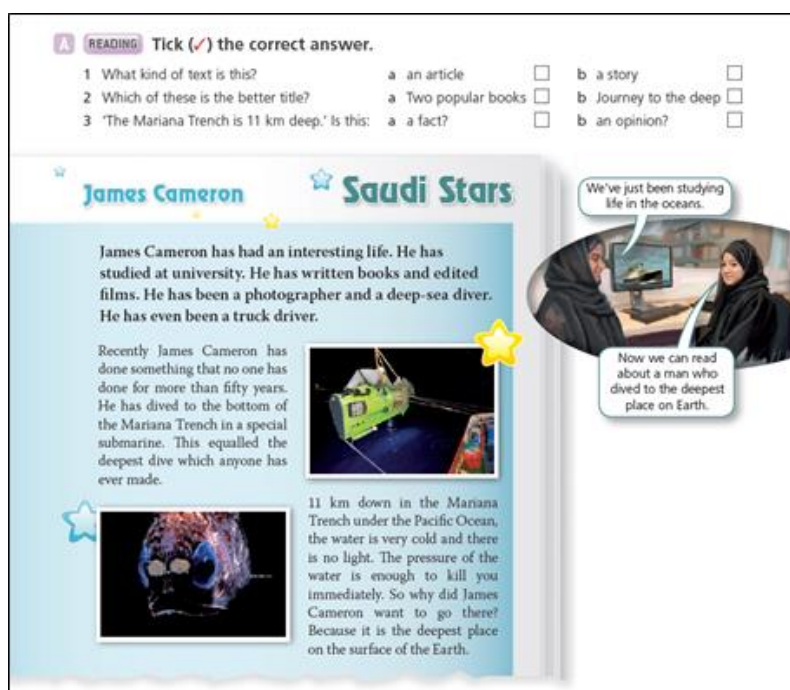


Figure 16: Lesson 1 - Saudi Stars - Under the Sea - Activity A

L1 Activity A involves reading. This activity comprises a short factual text with some photographic illustrations and associated questions where teachers are asked to get the students to choose options. The classification is C- because there is no technical knowledge. This activity presents the topic with a general focus, anticipating a more specific focus in the next activities. Some items of vocabulary are given in the teacher’s book, which could be used to introduce the reading, although there are no instructions for this. The three questions have different aims in terms of comprehension strategies: the first concerns language in

context as it asks the students to identify the text genre; the second is about discourse competence as it asks the student to choose a suitable title, which requires them to demonstrate their understanding; and the third emphasises relevant linguistic skill as it requires the students to undertake a meta-comprehension task to draw the distinction between fact and opinion in the text. The questions can be answered without reading the entire text. The recommendations in the teacher's book (see Appendix E-3) to sequence this activity are bulleted below:

- Discuss the two pictures within the *Saudi Stars* frame (do not read the text or give any help yet).
- Read the speech bubbles and then answer the questions.
- Students read the text silently and tick the correct answers.
- Use voting cards to check answers with the class. Ask for reasons for their choices. (1 James Cameron is a real person; it is written in the present perfect not the simple past. 2 It isn't about the films, it's about the director's trip. 3 The use of "is" rather than, for example "I think"; it is information which can be checked.)

The **Aim** of this activity, given in the teacher's book, is "to practise differentiating between text types; to introduce vocabulary". To accomplish this goal, the teacher's book has the above scaffolding of this activity built on sequence. This activity can be described as being scaffolded, with no information gap and being less communicative than predictive (Brown, 2014) with authentic-like text. It is a F+ activity, as is usual for receptive (reading and listening) rather than productive (speaking and listening) skills, as the students are limited to choosing from answers given rather than using their answers. It is a scaffolded activity because it is built from general to specific. It begins by familiarising the students with the topic, then the teacher reads the bubbles, and then the students read silently, ticking the correct answers. The teacher then provides the answers and explicitly explains the grammar and present perfect use, finally giving an example of the use of this grammar. The text is taken from a journal with real people talking, but it has been modified to be suited to the student level, so it is authentic-like because it mimics real life. It is less meaningful because there is no space for the students to use the language functionally. This activity has no information gap as the answers are in the text and the students work individually. The only potential from the communicative respect is in the voting cards and in the instruction to "check answers". Students may draw their answers from their resources to accomplish this requirement so this can involve student reasoning, which is mentioned in the teacher's book.

The activity is very controlled as the question sequences and explicit answers are already known by the teacher using F+ that limits the use of language.

L1 Activity B involves reading and speaking; the instructions are: “Work in pairs. Ask and answer.” The questions are listed below.

1. Where has James Cameron studied?
2. What other job has James Cameron had?
3. What has James Cameron done recently?
4. How did he travel there?
5. What is it like 11 km under the sea?
6. Why did he go?

This activity has literal comprehension questions to answer from the text. The **Aim** of this activity is “to practise describing experiences, events and past activities”. To accomplish this goal there is a sequence, bulleted below (see Appendix E-3):

- In pairs, students discuss the best answers to the questions. Prompt them to answer in detail.
- Students swap partners and ask and answer the questions in turn.
- Choose pairs to share their work with the class.
- Deal with any vocabulary or grammar problems.

This activity is a memory activity with F+ and some aspects of authenticity (see discussion on authenticity in Chapter Two). It is predictive, with no information gap, as the information is found in the text of the previous activity. It is scaffolded with sequence-building reflected in the teacher’s book from the previous reading activity with the emphasis on more productive speaking skills. There is an automatic aspect as the teacher’s book recommends swapping partners, asking the same questions and answers and then choosing students to read aloud as a model. It is less meaningful as there is no communication generation. The students do not engage with the language functionally: they only ask and answer about the text in the bubbles. It is C- because there is no technical knowledge used. It is F+ because the students can only ask and answer certain questions from the text. It is authentic because there is a discussion about using real language in pairs. This activity balances accuracy and fluency, moving from an emphasis on fluency to having a greater accuracy by correcting errors with grammar and vocabulary, as recommended by the teacher’s book at the end of the activity. These kinds of recommendations on how the knowledge should be regulated

raise the question of whether the teachers adhere closely to the recommended pedagogy and how the students respond to their actual practice. This question is explored in the classroom in actual settings in the four case studies below.

L1 Activity C aims to practice listening for specific information. It involves notetaking while listening to a text on the same topic as above. The instructions are: “Complete the table about James Cameron.” The text of the table, shown alongside a photo of a middle-aged White man with white hair, wearing a blue shirt and brown suit jacket, is below in Table 7.

Table 7: Lesson 1 Activity C – gap filling

| Year | What happened |
|--------------------|--|
| 1954 | James Cameron ¹ <u>was born</u> |
| ² _____ | his family moved to the United States. |
| 1974 | James Cameron left ³ _____. |
| 1977 | James Cameron got a job in a ⁴ _____. |
| ⁵ _____ | James Cameron went to the Mariana Trench. |

This activity entails filling out information linked to dates from the person’s biography. It has two columns, one for the year and the second for the events that took place. There is missing information in these two columns that the students are required to complete. The **Aim** of this activity is “listening for specific information”. To accomplish this goal, there is a sequence, bulleted below (see Appendix E-3):

- Read the table. Establish that column 1 needs dates and column 2 needs nouns.
- Say *Listen and read*. Play track 6. Students follow in their books.
- Say *Listen and answer*. Play track 6 again. Students complete the table.
- Say *Listen and check*. Play track 6 again. Students check their answers.
- Use voting cards to check answers with the class.
- Deal with any problems.

This activity is authentic-like because it lists facts about real people, but it has been modified to use simplified language. This is a meaningful activity because there is engagement with the function of the language: describing two people with a context of a sequential and logical story about a person that draws on the appropriate language level. This activity is F+ as it is required to follow the teacher’s guidance on the sequenced activity with explicit language suggested to control the classroom, such as “read”, “listen and read”, “listen and answer”

and “listen and check” with no freedom for the students to use the input language – as this activity is based on a receptive skill (listening). It is C- because there is no technical knowledge used. It is scaffolded by being built on the previous activity and also as the teacher plays each recording three times in a different way. The first time the teacher says “listen and read”; the second time, “listen and answer”; and the last time, “listen and check”. This activity has an aspect of input with exposure to the language. It is accuracy orientated as the focus is on the past simple tense and draws on the correct form by first showing an example. The only information gap in this activity is between the students and the recording they are listening to, rather than between each student and a paired partner or between them and the teacher. Although there is no meaning that used the language functionally to communicate, it provides the students with a resource that they can draw on in the next activity, which is more communicative.

L1 Activity D involves practicing past tense by asking and answering. The instructions are: work in pairs; ask and answer questions about James Cameron. The example questions and answers, in speech bubbles, are reproduced below in Figure 17:

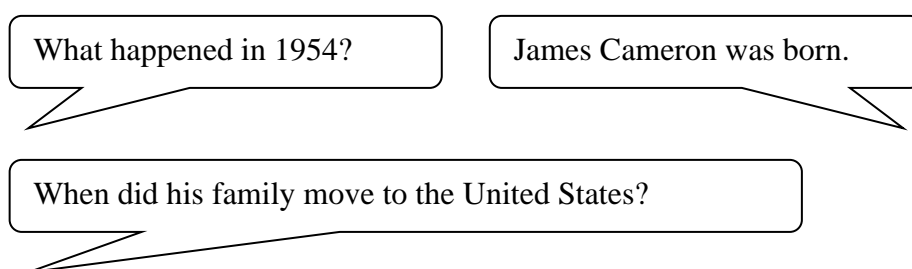


Figure 17: Lesson 1 Activity D - speech bubbles

This activity is a memory activity about the previous activity to communicate asking and answering about events from the previous record. The **Aim** of this activity is “to practise asking and answering questions about past events and activities; to promote fluency”. The sequence of this activity is bulleted below (see Appendix E-3):

- Read the speech bubbles with the class. Highlight the two question forms (*What happened in .../When did ...*)
- Elicit both forms for question 2.
- Students work in pairs, taking turns to ask both forms of questions. Monitor and support but don't interrupt.
- Choose pairs to demonstrate to the class. Revise any common grammar errors.

This activity is relatively communicative, F+ and fluency orientated, with less complexity in terms of the language to use. It entails asking and answering with specific information

and is authentic-like because there is a discussion that mimics real life, and is meaningful because is engagement with the function of language related to past experiences. This F+ does not hinder the potential for space of use of L2. There are communicative aspects between students in the opportunity to ask and answer and the instructions to the teacher are balance between fluency and accuracy. At the end it became C+ because there is technical knowledge by the teacher to explain the errors. This activity is scaffolded from the previous activity and as the students are required to use the resources from there. This activity involves memory practice as the students are required to memorise what was in the recording.

L1 Activity E involves grammar, with the following instructions: answer these questions in your notebook; tell us about yourself. The questions, and one model answer, are listed below.

1. What is the most beautiful place you have ever been to?
2. Who is the most interesting person you have ever met?
3. What is the highest town you have ever travelled to?
4. What is the most frightening dream you have ever dreamt?

1. The most beautiful place I have been to is ... because ...

This is a grammar activity in which the students are required to ask and answer four questions. There is a sample in the same activity that the students can see. The **Aim** of this activity is outlined in the teacher's book as "to practice using the present perfect". To accomplish the activity a sequence is given, bulleted below (see Appendix E-3):

- Read the questions and the sample answer.
- Elicit two or three sample answers (highlight the need to give reasons).
- Students write their own answers in their notebooks. For example, The most beautiful place which I have been to is Scotland. It is because there is a lot of green.

In this activity the students to engage functionally with the language in context to "write their own answers" (new ideas); it is about the students' own experiences, so it is meaningful, authentic in context and personalised. The activity is F+ as the students are required to use a specific structure and to follow the sample provided. It is linguistically complex because this tense does not exist in Arabic and is C+ because there is a technical knowledge to explain grammar. It is scaffolded because it uses a sequence to build the activity. It is communicative because it is suited to the students' level and there is space to express personal ideas within it. The possible information gap in this activity is between the students and the teacher asking

them for their own sample answers. This activity is accuracy orientated as it is focused on how to use grammar by exhibiting the correct sample to follow.

L1 Activity F involves pronunciation. The instructions are: listen and copy the intonation. The **Aim** of this is accurate pronunciation and the students would then be expected to work on this. The sequence for accomplishing this goal is bulleted below (see Appendix E-3):

- Say *Listen. Does the second speaker sound interested or bored?* Play the first exchange of track 7 once or twice until the students can answer. (*Interested*)
- Explain that it's the intonation that makes her sound interested.
- Play the exchange again, showing the falling intonation on *met* and *really* with your hands. Students repeat, also using their hands.
- Play the track all the way through, pausing to allow students to repeat.
- Play again, pausing after each speaker for students to speak before the second speaker. Then play the second speaker so students can compare.
- Students practice in pairs (write prompts on the board). Monitor.
- Choose pairs to demonstrate to the class.

This activity is F+ as there is no space for the students to use the language freely; the aim is only to familiarise themselves with the intonation and pattern words to distinguish between sounds; the teacher's book tells them to ask "does the second speaker sound interested or bored?". It is not personalised and there is no authenticity. There is an appropriate level as there is basic dialogue to familiarise the students with how English sounds. It is C+ because there is technical knowledge explain related to where the stress falls. There is scaffolding from listening, then explaining, then playing again, then the students practice in pairs and finally demonstrate to the class. There is no information gap in the activity as there is no gap that the students need to fill. There is an aspect of automaticity of learning, as they are asked to listen to the recording many times and repeat it.

L1 Activity G involves speaking and working in pairs, with the instructions listed below.

1. Look at the article and table about James Cameron and prepare to interview him.
2. Take the parts of an interviewer and James Cameron.

This activity is a roleplay activity as it requires the students to be the interviewer or the person interviewed, using the information from the table. The **Aim** of this activity is "to promote fluency; to practise describing the past". The sequence of this activity is bulleted below (see Appendix E-3):

- In pairs, students prepare a list of questions for James Cameron.
- Students change partners and take the parts of James and an interviewer.
- Students change partners again and take the opposite role.
- Monitor but don't interrupt. Deal with any common or major problems, but don't correct/highlight mistakes which don't obscure meaning.
- Choose pairs to demonstrate to the class. Vote for the best performance.

This activity is more meaningful than the previous activity as the students interact functionally in the interview with a list of questions that they prepare about experiences, events and activities beyond the text. It is authentic as the students use real language in context. It is C- because there is no specialist knowledge needed here. It is less F+ because the students are free to choose what questions to ask and therefore the answers will be less predictable and more productive. It has an information gap as there are questions but no answers and the students are required to listen to their partners to answer the questions. The scaffolding supporting this activity means that the students prepare a list of questions, then choose a role, then swap roles and then the teacher supports the ending by choosing pairs to demonstrate to the class. It is fluency oriented as it asks teachers not to hinder the meaning being communicated.

5.4.2 Lesson 2 - Plans for the future (seven activities, as in Lesson 1)

L2 Activity A involves reading. The questions and instructions are below, in Figures 18 and 19: "Are the sentences below true (T) or false (F)?"

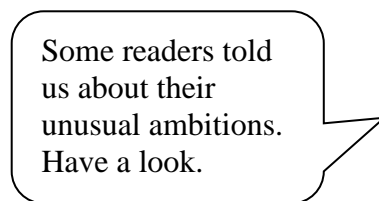


Figure 18: Lesson 2 Activity A - true or false

The image shows a smiling boy wearing jeans, a pink t-shirt and a cycle helmet, holding his bicycle and looking at the reader (see Figure 19, below) and below that a boy wearing a red t-shirt and black shorts cycling in the desert. Beside this is the text of a letter beginning "Dear Marhaba", and signed "Waleed" (*Lift Off 6*, Unit 2, Lesson 2, Activity A, Reading, Plans for the Future, Marhaba, Unusual Ambitions, p.16). The **Aim** of this reading activity is to emphasise the how to use the phrase "going to".

LESSON 2 Plans for the future

A READING Are the sentences below true (T) or false (F)?

Some readers told us about their unusual ambitions. Have a look.

Dear Marhaba,

I want to tell you about my ambition. As a Saudi, I want to ride for the Saudi cycling team at the Olympic® Games. I am good at riding. I've raced bikes for more than five years. I won a gold medal in a race for young cyclists at the Saudi Cycling Championships last year.

Now, I plan to become an Olympic® cyclist. It won't be easy. I'm going to have to do more training. I cycle five hours a week at the moment but I'll need to increase this to ten or fifteen hours a week. I'll also get help from a special cycling trainer.

I'll have to work very hard to achieve my ambition. And if I can't achieve it and I'm not good enough to cycle at the Olympics®, well, I won't give up riding. I enjoy it very much.

Waleed

Figure 19: Lesson 2 - Plans for the Future - Activity A

This activity is not authentic because the text is not real and there is no use of real language in context. It is not meaningful because there is no engagement with the use of L2 functionally and there is no information gap. Also, it is very F+ because it is very controlled and the students simply can answer true or false.

L2 Activity B is a reading comprehension activity, with scaffolding, involving pairwork, beginning earlier than it does in Lesson 1. Instructions, and an example, are given below:

Work in pairs. Correct the false statements and say five facts about Waleed.

1. Waleed is Saudi.
2. He wants to run in the Olympic Games.
3. He's ridden a bike for a year.
4. He took part in the Cycling Championships.
5. He trains for ten hours a week.
6. A trainer is going to help Waleed.

Waleed wants to ride a bike at the Olympic Games.

Figure 20: Lesson 2 Activity B – correcting statements

The **Aim** of this activity is “to revise the future with going to; to revise first conditional sentences”. This activity has some sentences with wrong information; in order to complete the activity, the students have to communicate and work together to correct these sentences. This activity scaffolded from the previous activity. There is no meaningful functional engagement with L2 beyond correcting sentences. It is F+ because it very controlled, they only do what they asked to. It is C- because there is nothing technical knowledge in it. It is personalised, as it presents a Saudi boy and it is relevant to the students. It is not authentic because there is no real text or real language use in context.

L2 Activity C, listening comprehension, requires the students to fill in the gaps as the teacher plays the recording. The questions are below in Figure 21.

- What’s ¹ _____ Salma?
Why do you want to ² _____ ?
³ _____ achieve your ambition of going into space?
⁴ _____ do if you can’t go into space?

Figure 21: Lesson 2 Activity C – gap filling

The **Aim** is “to practice asking questions about plans and intentions for the future”. This activity is accompanied by a picture of a space rocket launch. (*Lift Off 6*, Unit 2, Lesson 2, Activity C, Listening, Plans for the Future, Marhaba, Unusual ambitions, p.17). It is scaffolded as it is built on the previous activity. This activity is receptive with exposure to L2. It is not authentic as there is no real L2 in context. It is not meaningful as there is no engagement for L2 functionally. It is very F+ as they have to do what they are asked. It is personalised as there are Saudi examples. It is C- as there is no specialist knowledge in it.

L2 Activity D is also listening comprehension, building on the previous activity, which only requires reordering. The instructions are given below:

Listen again and number these sentences in the correct order. [There are boxes at the end of each sentence, to be numbered.]

- a. Salma has dreamed of going into space for a long time.
- b. Salma wants to be the first Saudi female in space.
- c. Salma will try and save money for a ticket.
- d. Salma has always wanted to see the stars from space.

Companies are developing rockets to take people into space. Activity D in turn is a receptive listening practice developing on from the previous listening activity, but this one only requires reordering. The **Aim** of this activity is “to practise listening to specific information”.

To accomplish this goal the teacher's book recommends the sequence bulleted below (see Appendix E-3):

- Read the table. Establish that column 1 needs dates and column 2 needs nouns.
- Say *Listen and read*. Play track 6. Students follow in their books.
- Say *Listen and answer*. Play track 6 again. Students complete the table.
- Say *Listen and check*. Play track 6 again. Students check their answers.
- Use voting cards to check answers with the class.
- Deal with any problems.

This activity is primarily focused on form. The communicative aspect is receptive rather than productive. This activity provides exposure to language with a context that aims to give the students enough receptive input from listening to use later more productively in the next activity focusing on speaking. It is a meaningful activity as it is about dialogue in context from a logical story about a girl in real life. It focuses on meaning as, without understanding, the sentences cannot be reordered. It is scaffolded by being built on the previous activity. It is a F+ activity as the students listen to the dialogue for a specific purpose – to reorder the sentences, and it is personalised as it is a dialogue about two Saudi celebrities who are familiar to the students. The teacher's book notes that this activity is accuracy orientated, but this is implicit rather than explicit. There is some correcting of order, and teachers may draw attention to the grammar used in the dialogue so it became C+ as there is specialist knowledge by the teacher to explain the grammar.

L2 Activity E involves speaking. Instructions are given below; “Work in pairs.”

1. Interview Waleed about his ambition.
2. Interview Salma about her ambition.

Similar to Activity D in Lesson 1, this is a speaking role play activity associated with the general requirement of asking the partner about future plans. The **Aim** of this activity in the teacher's book is “to practise asking and answering questions about future plans; to promote fluency”. To accomplish this, the teachers are given a sequence, bulleted below (see Appendix E-3).

- Divide the class in half. In pairs, one half of the class prepares questions for Waleed, the other for Salma.
- Pairs split up and find a new partner from the other group. With their new partner, they take the parts of interviewer and Waleed/ Salma. Students ask and answer their questions, then swap roles and repeat.

- Monitor and support. Choose pairs to share their work. Vote on the best interview.

This activity is scaffolded as it is built to use the L2 from the previous activity. It is authentic as it allows the students to use real L2 in context. It has more freedom so weaker framing (F-) because it is a free activity as the students can use any language resource that is available for them to express ideas about their personal plans in L2, not only what is in the text. So the students are to reproduce the pattern from a resource to make meaning that is personalised because it is about them. It has an information gap element as the students are required to work in pairs to find out their partner’s answers. It is fluency oriented because they are required to interview each other and it focuses on the function of the language to communicate rather than the form. The teacher, as suggested in the teacher’s book, should “monitor and support”; this gives the teacher implicit control over the activity. However, there is no guidance in the teacher’s book on how much time it has to take. This activity has the potential to be a very free activity, but this depends on how it set up in the classroom in actual practice. It is C- because there is no specialist knowledge but more common sense.

L2 Activity F involves grammar. Instructions and text are given below in Figure 22, below.

What ideas can help people to achieve these ambitions?

Write two sentences with *will* for each ambition.

| |
|---|
| <p>do well at school</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I’ll read a lot and use the internet. 2. I’ll revise well before exams. |
|---|

| |
|--|
| <p>do well at school help poor people have lots of friends be fit and healthy learn another language visit interesting places</p> |
|--|

Figure 22: Lesson 2 Activity F – writing sentences

Similar to Activity E in the previous lesson, this activity has a grammar focus: the use of “will” (I’ll, he’ll etc.) in writing sentences. It also has a linguistics feature as it has a box with phrases in, to help with writing. The **Aim** of this activity as in the teacher’s book is “to consolidate the future use of will” and to accomplish this goal the sequence is given, as below (see Appendix E-3):

- Read the six ambitions and the sample answer. Highlight the use of *will ...* in the example.
- Elicit some examples of ways to achieve each ambition.
- Students complete the task and check their answers with a partner. Support.
- Choose individuals to read their plans to the class. Discuss. Does the class agree these ideas would be helpful?

Answers: *Students own answers using “I’m going to”*

In this activity, even though there is no direct communication between students except during the discussion of answers at the end of the activity, when the students have to check their answers with their partners, there is a communicative element as the students use the language to generate meaning. It is meaningful as it is about the students expressing their ideas about helping to achieve ambitions as well as about themselves. It is personalised because it is about the students themselves. This activity is accuracy oriented because they are asked to use “will” to manipulate the form in sentences and it is scaffolded built on the previous one and it is F+ because it is controlled by the teacher. It has an information gap element because the students have to do the activity and they do not know each other’s answer beforehand. It is C- because it is more commonsense knowledge and there is no specialist knowledge in it.

L2 Activity G has a vocabulary focus. This activity asks the students to write the vocabulary from the box, below in Figure 23, in alphabetical order. This type of activity was not included in lesson 1 and here is consolidating the written form of the language.

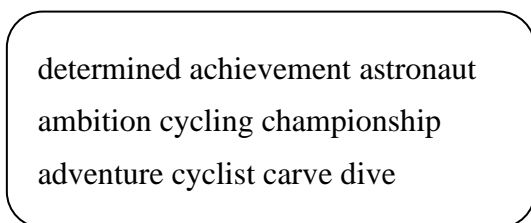


Figure 23: Lesson 2 Activity G – writing vocabulary

The **Aim** of this activity is “revising alphabetical order”; the sequence is bulleted below (see Appendix E-3):

- Have a competition. In small groups, students put the words in alphabetical order. Only one student in each group should write. He/she should not be able to see the words. The others (using books) have to decide the order and help the writer with

spelling. The first group with all the words correctly spelled and (neatly) written in the correct order is the winner.

- Tell the students to close their books. Write *tailor* and *craft* on the board. Elicit that *craft* comes before *tailor* in alphabetical order because *c* comes before *t*.
- Add *car*. Elicit that when the first letter is the same, alphabetical order depends on the second letter (and so on).
- Add *care*. Elicit that longer words come after shorter words.

This lesson is F+, scaffolded, accuracy orientated and cognitively demanding as the students do not have the English alphabet as a reference; it is less communicative but with an information gap. In comparison to Lesson 1, the scaffolding in this lesson has been directed through reading, speaking and listening, to return to speaking and then grammar within the same input focus, then ending with writing. This is accuracy orientated as the focus of the vocabulary is on spelling and this is emphasised by neatness being outlined as a target for the students. This activity has an information gap because the students have to listen to one another to write and find the correct spelling in the correct order. This activity is highly cognitively demanding as the students are required to pay attention to the script of the words and the sequence in order to learn about the language and to write with the correct spelling. It is made further cognitively demanding because it has no situational context (in this activity particularly). The level of the vocabulary is beyond the students (as the students are at the intermediate level). Some of the vocabulary is less frequently used, such as “astronaut” and “crave”, whilst some is more frequently used, such as “cycling”, “cyclist” and “dive”. The fact that this complex vocabulary is embedded in different activities means this activity still has meaning because it is used several times in context. It is C+ because there is technical knowledge needed about the alphabetic order of L2. The students may indeed learn the meaning by doing the activity. This final activity is very graded and scaffolded as it seems to promote the output afterwards as the teacher’s book explicitly states the need to revise after sufficient exposure to the language through the previous activities; this means it is very controlled and developed from the other activities. The freedom in this activity is very limited as the requirement is just to write in the correct alphabetical sequence. However, there may still be a chance of a communicative aspect because the students are to check their answers in groups. This depends on how it is practised in the actual setting and what language they use to check their answers.

5.4.3 Lesson 3 - An amazing story (four activities)

L3 Activity A involves reading and speaking. This more meaningful activity has pictures with speech bubbles about a story from South America presented in the pictures (See Figure 24, below).



Figure 24: Lesson 3 - An amazing story - Activity A

The instructions and description of the four boxes in the cartoon comic strip and photo are given below.

Look at the pictures.

Ask and answer the questions.

[Box A] “Do you like school here in Peru?” Young girl with brown hair in blue shirt and brown jeans to older woman with darker brown hair, dressed similarly but with a scarf, outside a building named *Escuela*.

[Box B] “What time are we meeting Dad?” Same, inside the school, two men in grey suits front of them.

[Box C] “The weather is terrible” Same, looking out of an aeroplane window.

[Box D] “I was wearing my seatbelt.” Same young girl, in torn clothes, in aeroplane seat up a tree.

The accompanying photo (See Figure 24, above) is of a smiling blonde young woman in a red top, beside a map of South America: “We have an amazing story from South America this week.” (*Lift Off 6*, Unit 2, Lesson 3, Activity E, Reading and speaking, An amazing story, p.18). The **Aim** is “to promote fluency; to introduce the topic”. The students are required to look at the questions in the yellow box and guess the answers from the pictures.

1. Where did this story take place?
2. Who was waiting to meet them?

3. What was the weather like?
4. What happened at the end of the story?

This activity is taken from outside of Saudi Arabia and can be considered alongside the overall aims of the Ministry of Education (see Chapter One); it shows how this English textbook is also being used as a tool to encourage the Saudi students to accept others by familiarising them with difference. This activity promotes fluency over accuracy as the students have to express their ideas about the story the pictures tell. It is thus communicative as the students have to respond and communicate to work out the meaning, because there is engagement to use L2 functionally to talk about the story. It is F- compared to the previous lesson and C- because it more commonsense knowledge.

L3 Activity B involves reading and the goal is to revisit the past progressive and the past simple. The instructions are:

“Now read the story. Were you right?”

The text is titled, “Saudi Stars: Alone in the jungle” and tells the story of “Juliane”. This activity reflects continuity with the previous activity, which introduced the reading; now the students check whether what they answered was correct or not. The **Aim** is “to revise use of the past progressive and the past simple”. This activity is scaffolded because it has a question from the previous activity that should be answered after reading. It is accuracy oriented because the questions in the activity aim to encourage the students to use the past and the past progressive tenses, thereby teaching grammar inductively by encouraging students to use it in their answers. It is F+ because it is a very controlled activity. This activity has meaning and but not authentic because it is was not real and there is no real use of L2 in context. It implicitly focuses on form. It is C- because there is no technical knowledge.

L3 Activity C involves listening and speaking. The instructions are: “Repeat paragraph 2.” The **Aim** of this activity is “to practice pronunciation, stress and intonation”. The sequence suggested is bulleted below (see Appendix E-3):

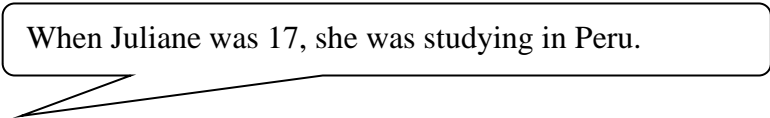
- Say *Look at paragraph 2. Listen and repeat.* Play track 9. Students read and repeat. Monitor pronunciation, stress and intonation. Repeat as necessary.
- Choose a few students to read the paragraph aloud. The class can use their voting cards to choose the best speaker, or award marks.

This activity is scaffolded from the previous activity as, here, some sense is given to the words and the story for the students. The teacher’s book suggests letting the students read

the previous activity, then the teacher plays the recording and they are asked to monitor the pronunciation. It is C- because there no specialist knowledge needed but more common sense. This activity is F+ as it asks the students to listen and repeat and there is no free of use of the language. It is meaningful because what they are listening to is a conversation between two people talking about their experience on a plane and alone in the jungle. It is not authentic because the characters are not real people, nor is it personalised because the people involved are not Saudi Arabian. This activity is accuracy oriented as the teachers are asked to monitor how the students pronounce and whether they correctly stress the words.

L3 Activity D has a grammar focus on the same text, with speaking. Instructions are: “Work in pairs, Make complete sentences.” Sentences and a model answer are given below in Figure 25.

1. ... was studying in Peru.
2. ... who was working in Pucallpa.
3. While Juliane and her mother ...
4. ... which crashed into the jungle.
5. ... was wearing a seat belt when ...
6. ... survived her fall.
7. ... broke a bone, cut her ...
8. ... tried to find her mother.



When Juliane was 17, she was studying in Peru.

Figure 25: Lesson 3 Activity D – gap filling

This activity is balanced between accuracy and fluency as it has a grammar focus on the same text and involves speaking. The **Aim** of this activity is to teach the past simple, past progressive and relative clauses. This activity is scaffolded from the previous one. The way of teaching these grammar rules is implicit. The sentences that are used in this activity then apply these rules. It is F+ because the students have only to do what is asked. It is C- because there is no classified knowledge in it but only practicing the grammar.

5.4.4 Lesson 4 - Saudi Review (four activities)

L4 Activity A involves pronunciation (the Saudi Review follows L3 so can be considered L4). The instructions are: “Put a * on the syllable with the most stress and count the number of syllables.”



Figure 26: Lesson 4 - Saudi Review - Activity A

The accompanying picture (see Figure 26, above) shows a young man with dark gelled hair, wearing a white shirt (which may be a *thoub*) smiling directly at the reader (*Lift Off 6*, Unit 2, Saudi Review, Activity A, Pronunciation, p.20) who says in a speech bubble: “In words with two or more syllables, one syllable has more stress.” The table for the activity, under *Marhaba*, on the Topics tab (the others are Home, Stories, Inspiration, Readers, News) under Grammar (the others are Saudi Arabia, Wildlife, Natural Gas, Rapa Nui) is given below in Table 8.

Table 8: Lesson 4 Activity A - stress & syllables

| Which is the syllable with the most stress? | How many syllables? | Which is the syllable with the most stress? | How many syllables? |
|---|---------------------|---|---------------------|
| a ambition | <u>3</u> | b achieve | — |
| c biology | — | d submarine | — |
| e shoulder | — | f survive | — |
| g championship | — | h astronaut | — |

The **Aim** of this activity is “to practise counting syllables and identifying stress”. The sequence given is (see Appendix E-3):

- Students work in pairs to complete the exercise. Do not help.
- Don’t check answers yet

This activity is about pronunciation as the students are asked to understand the correct syllables and word stress. It is C+ because it is less about common sense and needs a

specialist teacher to explain. This activity is not meaningful because the vocabulary is out of context, and it is not authentic. It is personalised because it is about Saudi examples. There are some aspects of information gap in this activity as the students are asked to work in pairs; they may have different answers and so need to communicate to complete the task. It is accuracy oriented as the students are required to achieve correct pronunciation of the words although the teachers are asked not to correct the answers in this activity. This activity is linguistically complex because the syllable analysis of English words is not familiar to non-native speakers and differs from the analysis used in the Arabic language. This activity is F+ because the students are required only to listen and write the syllable count in these words and there is no opportunity in this to use the language in free practice.

L4 Activity B involves listening, with the instruction is “Check your work”. This activity **Aims** “to practise identifying syllables and stress when listening”. The sequence is (see Appendix E-3):

- Say Listen and check. Play track 11. Students check their work in
- pairs.
- Repeat as necessary. Monitor and note problems.
- Choose students to give their answers. Ask the class to agree or
- Disagree

This activity is scaffolded from the previous one. This activity is C+ because there is specialised subject knowledge in it. It is F+ as the students only listen and check their answers, less meaningful because the words are out of context, it is not authentic, with no information gap as everything is on the tape; it is linguistically complex because of the syllable counting. This activity is less communicative as there is limited potential to talk to each other; the only interaction involves checking the answers and this is limited to checking with no discussion.

L4 Activity C involves vocabulary. The instructions are: “Copy this into your notebook. Complete with words from the box. The words are given below in Figure 27.

cycle dive lightning ocean Peru
rain Saudi Arabia storm stream
submarine truck United States

- 1 Saudi Arabia
- 2 _____
- 4 _____
- 5 _____

Figure 27: Lesson 4 Activity C – vocabulary

This activity is about putting vocabulary in the right category there is no potential to talk to each other. The **Aim** is “to practice pronunciation, stress and intonation”. The task is less meaningful because there is no engagement to use L2 functionally. It is not authentic because the text is not real. It is not personalised and there is no information gap as they only copy the words from the activity. It is C- because there is no specialist knowledge in it. There is scaffolding in this activity in that the vocabulary comes from the previous lessons, however there are no sequences. It is very F+ as the degree of freedom is limited because it is only about completing the task.

L4 Activity D involves grammar.

The **Aim** of this activity is: “to compare the use and formation of the past simple and present perfect tenses”. The sequence of this is given in the teachers’ book (see Appendix E-3):

- Read the Grammar Study box as a class.
- Elicit examples. Give prompts if necessary
- Help with any problems

This activity is heavily accuracy-orientated because it is about the usage of present perfect and past simple. It is very C+ because there is technical grammar needed to be explained. There is scaffolding in this activity in that the grammar comes from the previous lessons, however there are no sequences This activity is cognitively demanding because it is complex linguistically as it involves understanding the rules of these two verb tenses. It requires an understanding of these tenses and using them in the task. These tenses are different from anything in the Arabic language, which makes this activity more complex and difficult, it is not meaningful because there is no engagement to use L2. It is a F+ activity as, based on the teacher’s book, it is about how to use grammar correctly.

In summary, various criteria were used to analyse the degree or possible use of communicative aspects. These included the degree of freedom, complexity, authenticity, meaningfulness, structure, accuracy and fluency and information gap. Table 9, over the page, summarises the results of this analysis using these criteria.

Table 9: Summary of Criteria in Lessons 1-4 Activities A-F

| Criteria | Lesson 1 | Lesson 2 | Lesson 3 | Lesson 4 |
|---|--|--|--|--|
| Authentic language | A, B, C, D, E, G | E | - | - |
| Meaningful activities | C, D, E, G | D, E, F, G | A, B | - |
| Scaffolding | A, B, C, D, E, F, G | B, C, D, E, F, G | B, C, D | B, C, D |
| Personalised | E | B, C, D, E, F | C | A |
| Information gap | C, D, E, G | E, F, G | - | A |
| Fluency | B, D, G, D | E | A, D | - |
| Accuracy | B, C, D, E, F | D, F, G | A, C, D | A, D |
| Linguistic complexity | D, E | G | - | A, B, D |
| Degree of freedom for the students | A(F+), B(F+) C(F+), D(F+) F(F+), G(F+) | A(F+), B(F+) C(F+), D(F+) E(F-), F(F+), G(F+) | A(F-), B(F+) C(F+), D(F+) | A(F+), B(F+) C(F+), D(F+) |
| Classification | A(C-), B(C-) C(C-), D(C+) E(C+), F(C-), G(C-) | A(C-), B(C-) C(C-), E(C-) D(C-), F(C-), G(C+) | A(C-), B(C-) C(C-), D(C-) | A(C+), B(C+) C(C-), D(C+) |

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter has analysed one unit from a standard middle school ELT textbook used to teach students aged 14 years old. The textbook is provided by the SA Ministry of Education and every teacher must complete the textbook within the suggested time. The unit contains four lessons, each using the same pattern of different activities. Each activity has an aim to be achieved that is outlined in the teacher’s book with very detailed instructions on how to teach this. The different activities foster different skills, such as speaking, listening, reading and writing. The first three lessons were similar in that they taught new topics and activities; the fourth lesson, which is the Saudi review, involved revising the previous lessons with more emphasis on a Saudi identity and Saudi examples to use the language.

As can be seen from Table 9, authentic language was noted mostly in lesson 1, “Under the Sea”, which introduces the unit with a real-life story. The activity in that lesson which has no authentic language is based on pronunciation. The opportunity for authentic use of language in lesson 2, “Plans for the future”, happens in an interview activity which is one of only two in the four lessons with weaker framing. Lesson 3, “An amazing story”, and Lesson 4, “Saudi Review” have no student-student interactive activities using productive skills

freely. Three lessons have some activities providing opportunities to use language meaningfully, the Review lesson being the exception. Almost all activities form part of the scaffolding of each of the lessons. Lesson 2 has the most personalised activities as it is based on personal plans. Lesson 3 is the only one not to have an information gap, as the students always all have the same information available to them. About one third of the 22 activities focus on fluency while about two thirds focus on accuracy, with some overlap – so it is clear where the emphasis lies. There is little linguistic complexity, and almost all is in the Review lesson, but at this stage that should be appropriate. The other activity with weaker framing involves student-student speaking interaction using (relatively) open questions. As could be expected, all five activities of linguistic complexity involve specialist subject knowledge.

In general, the textbook was found to be communicative but very controlled, with mostly very strong framing in each lesson but with a decrease in the strength of the framing in a very few activities which provided the possibility to use the language more communicatively in context. Overall, the content of each lesson was scaffolded so the students are exposed to the relevant language points and given opportunities to use it in various types of activities. There were many personalised and meaningful activities related to real life language, as well as aspects of authenticity and resources used from real life. Overall, the lessons provided the potential to use a communicative language teaching approach, but the typical hierarchical relations between Saudi teachers and students might make this difficult. The typical CLT role of the teacher is to facilitate, but there is so much detail and control within these lessons, and time is limited, so in the end it risks becoming more about practicing what is being taught than using the target language to communicate meaningfully. It is useful to explore how this textbook is used in actual classroom practice as the pedagogy suggested by the teacher's book may not be the same as that of the teachers using it. The next four chapters will be on the four case studies of English teachers and their practice and draw on interviews and classroom observations to understand how the four cases enacted the CLT-informed pedagogy suggested by their textbook.

Chapter 6: Fahad Case

6.1 Introduction

This first case study chapter focuses on Fahad's class, considering the classroom observation and the interviews with him and his students in relation to his communicative language teaching (CLT) implementation. The aim of this chapter is to explore the class textbook and teacher's book and Fahad's pedagogy, alongside his views and those of his students in relation to the pedagogy. Fahad's pedagogy was generally marked by stronger framing (F+) and weaker classification (C-). This chapter considers the instructional and regulative discourse of the case, the elements of CLT and the usage of L1 and L2 in the classroom in order to explore how well Fahad's teaching aligned with CLT principles. This exploration is informed by the theoretical framework of the research.

6.2 Classroom experience

At the time of the observation, Fahad was 33 years old. Unlike the other three teachers considered in this work, he has a degree in English Language and Literature (Translation) with no education component. He took a short course in education at a Saudi public university. He also took a General English as a Second Language course for a few months in the US. In nine years of teaching English in the same school, Fahad has not experienced any changes as the new curriculum came in before he started teaching.

Fahad's class was large, typical of many classrooms in public schools. It had 30 tables, reflecting the usual number of students. However, only 22 students attended during my observation, which probably means some students were absent. All the students were male and approximately 14 years old (this is an all-boys school with only male teachers, based on the country's strict gender segregation policy discussed in Chapter One). Most of the tables looked old; there was graffiti on both the tables and the backs of the chairs. Some broken tables were kept in a corner. The tables were arranged individually in five rows, each student behind his colleague with a space in between. The students sat facing the teacher, and there was a one metre space between the rows. The desks were not bolted to the floor so there was the potential to change the desk arrangement to suit group or pair work if desired. The classroom had very large windows that were high and out of reach; the room was very light as there were no curtains. The classroom had no air conditioning, and only two fans. On the day of the observation, the classroom was very hot and the fans were not working. The class began at 9 am. There was no carpet on the floor and a lot of dust in the room.

There was no means of playing the cassette tapes that accompanied the textbook. The classroom was very quiet and the class generally involved Fahad talking and the students listening. He stood in the same place for most of the class. The classroom was controlled by Fahad. The students seemed to talk only when Fahad asked for a response. He chose who answered. Fahad's approach also generally did not engage the entire class, but only a few students. He seemed to be focusing on the same students, probably the high achievers. This may lead to a false image of generalised success in the class and it could also mean that he was limiting the activities to achievable ones. The students were responsive as they followed Fahad's instructions. Overall, the structure of the lesson was hierarchical; Fahad was in control and his students followed. The class was entirely sequenced by Fahad in terms of how the lesson was structured and this pattern seemed to be well established in this classroom. This hierarchical relationship is not ideally suited to the CLT approach as it is less flexible; for example, speakers were nominated by Fahad, he decided how long the student participated for and when the engagement ended. An ideal CLT approach tends to be less hierarchical, to give more space to the students' learning and more freedom to use L2 to communicate.

6.3 Textbook and teacher's book

This section will explore the textbook and teacher's book guidelines for Fahad's lesson with a view to finding what kind of pedagogy they suggest. To do so, I will use the regulative discourse (RD) and instructional discourse (ID) of Bernstein (1990). RD is used to explore how the guidelines suggested the lesson be run, while ID is about the content or the topic presented. This section will then explore the alignment between this suggested lesson and CLT principles.

Fahad was teaching the third grade in middle school. He was using *Full Blast 5* (Module 1, "Teen Trends", lesson C) (see Appendix D-2 and E-4). This textbook series is very similar to *Lift Off* and both are used widely in Saudi Arabia. The lesson title was "Be Creative". The ID was about arts and crafts. This RD entailed six activities. In relation to Cummins (1979) BICS and CALP theory, the topic was focused on BICS language as it was about arts and crafts. BICS refers to the language used in everyday scenarios, while CALP is limited to specific academic use. BICS can be aligned with CLT's meaningfulness aspect, which encourages the students to familiarise themselves with everyday use of L2.

In the textbook, the lesson was divided into six activities based around the topic. The first was a "warm up", asking the students to look at the pictures and discuss them in L2 (English).

The teacher's book suggested letting the students guess the topic that would be talked about. The aim of this activity was to introduce the topic. The RD of this activity was to draw the students' attention to the title, to elicit the students' answers and start the discussion using L2. There was to be space for the students to talk, but this was limited to guessing what the topic was and discussing it. This is strongly framed (F+) because the teacher should retain control over the sequence of this activity. In terms of classification (C), the lesson guidelines in the teacher's book and in the textbook were C- as there was no classified knowledge to be explained (Bernstein, 2000). As discussed in Chapter Three, C is about the degree to which there is a boundary between the knowledge being taught and the students' own lives. When the knowledge being taught is specialised, C+, when it is less specialised and more related to everyday topics, it is C-. In this section, there was no specialised knowledge that the students needed to understand as they were simply to look at the picture and talk about it in L2. The discussion was authentic as it was about communicating about arts and crafts and predicting the topic which was unknown. As Nunan (1999) explains, authenticity requires genuine communication in the dialogue. It was meaningful as there were pictures encouraging the students to guess and to talk in L2. The activity was also personalised as these arts and crafts are drawn from Saudi culture. It was more fluency orientated as they were to discuss meaning rather than form.

The second activity was about reading, with questions to answer about what kinds of arts and crafts were shown. It aimed to let the students practice using L2, to present the structure and the vocabulary as well as the functions in context, and to familiarise the students with the main ideas of the text. This activity also involved playing a recording, which the students were to follow in their textbook. The teacher's book suggested eliciting answers without correcting. This activity had F+ as there was a controlled activity with the teacher in charge of the sequence; however, there may be potential for freedom at the end when it asked the teacher to initiate a discussion in L2. It was C- because the boundary between the students' world and the activity was weak as there were no technical or difficult concepts to be explained. This activity was meaningful because the activity was drawn from the context with pictures; it is authentic as there is an opportunity for real communication. There was no information gap as the answers were in the activities.

The third activity was vocabulary, with some items taken from the previous activities. The students were asked to use the informal phrases expressing likes and dislikes in the sentences and add their own meaning to express their likes and dislikes. The RD of this activity was to read the phrases and guess the meaning. After the teacher provided some help, the students

were to do the activity individually and then the class checked the answers together. This activity was F+ as it was a controlled activity with limited space for the students to use L2 freely beyond using “like” and “dislike”. The classification was C- because no specialist knowledge was involved.

The fourth activity was about grammar, using “any”, “no” and “every”, encouraging the students to use these words in context. The RD of this activity entailed the teacher first the grammar and asking the students to use the words they had learned in their examples. This activity was very F+ because the teacher controlled the sequence entirely. There was also C+ because this activity was about rules, making reference to technical concepts. The activity was accuracy focused as it was about grammar and it was also less meaningful and authentic than the previous activities because it outlined rules without an opportunity for real communication.

The fifth activity involved listening to a recording of an informal conversation on the topic of arts and crafts, with questions to answer. This activity was very F+; there was no space for the students to use L2 beyond listening and controlled output. They were only required to listen and answer questions. The exercise was C- because there was no specialist knowledge required.

The last activity focused on writing, divided into exercises A and B. The students were to design a plan for an informal letter. For this part, the students were to work in pairs to do the task. In section B, the teacher’s book suggested asking them to read the advertisement and then use the plan from section A to write an email. Finally, the teacher should choose some students to read their writing to the rest of the class. This activity had the weakest F in this lesson even though the sequence was controlled by the teacher, as the students had the freedom to write using L2 and their own examples. It was C- because the boundary between the ID and the students’ lives was weak and there were no difficult concepts or specialised knowledge in this activity. This was all in BICS as it developed language for every day and not for academic purposes. This activity was personalised, with space to produce meaningful use of L2.

This section has discussed the lesson outlined in the teacher’s book and textbook for Fahad’s class. In general, it comprised five activities regulated with F+ and C-. This lesson was scaffolded with controlled activities with limited space in most of the activities, except the last one, when the students were given more freedom. The suggested lesson was balanced between accuracy and fluency and it was relatively personalised. It was controlled, but with

moments for the students to use L2 with their own meaning. In general, therefore, this was a communicative lesson because overall the lesson was providing space to use L2 and, especially in the last activity, to create their own meaning. It focused on BICS so the students could communicate meaningfully to produce the language; when grammar was the focus it suggested explaining grammar through the examples.

6.4 Fahad's classroom - observations

In this section, I describe Fahad's lesson to explore the types of interactions and teaching that took place in Fahad's actual class. To do so, I will use Walsh (2011) "lesson modes" (see Chapter Three), which include managerial, classroom context, skills and systems and materials mode. These modes will be used to draw out the lesson phases and the data in this section will be extracts from Fahad's lesson observation, as well as the interviews with Fahad.

6.4.1 Lesson summary

In the lesson I observed, Fahad worked through the textbook lesson, covering the first three activities in a 45-minute period. He began in L2, asking the students to open the textbook and nominating one student to read the title. For the first activity, he nominated students to read the questions and asked in L2 for translations and answers. For the second activity, he also nominated students to read for the class and corrected their reading and pronunciation. He referred to the images in the textbook. He continued to use the same pattern of reading and translating, asking questions focusing on translating in initiation, student response and teacher feedback (IRF) chains, as exemplified below. Then, still in the same activity, he moved to asking them to answer questions for the class, with Fahad correcting the students' answers if they were wrong semantically. Finally, he moved to the third activity, which was the vocabulary section about likes and dislikes. He read the question and asked for translations. He translated the questions and asked them to do the activity individually.

The observed lesson was based on a highly routinised and tightly controlled teacher-centred regulative discourse, Fahad's entrance signalled the beginning of the lesson. There was a strong sense of an established routine as the students seemed to know their role without being asked. They opened their textbooks as Fahad paused, waiting for them. He was clearly in charge. The pedagogy was also F+ as the teacher had full control of the lesson content, sequence and pacing (Bernstein, 2000).

6.4.2 Lesson phases

This section will describe the phases of the lesson using Walsh's (2012) four modes. These modes comprise managerial mode, referring to teaching involving the management or organising of the classroom; materials mode, which refers to L2 usage and the goals when the material is the centre of the task; skills and systems mode, which relates the context to the system of using L2 to practice; and classroom context mode, which refers to the expression of feelings, views and attitudes in L2 (see Chapter Three).

Overall, Fahad mostly used "initiation response and feedback" (IRF) in materials mode in his classroom (Walsh, 2011, p.76). As the examples below show, Fahad initiated questions (I), the students answered these questions (R), and then Fahad gave feedback (F) by either repairing errors or by confirming the correct answers based on the textbook material. As can be seen in the extracts, sometimes feedback (F) on a student response can also function as initiation (I) which invites another response:

Extract 6.1

Fahad: Second question, *next question. Yes Rabah please?* **I**

S1: *Are they popular in your country?* **R**

Fahad: *Thank you so much, are they popular in your country, pay attention, are they, are they popular in your country, what does popular mean?* **F/I**

S2: *Popular means famous.* **R**

Fahad: Yes, very good, *popular means famous, famous, popular means famous.* **F**

Fahad: Ok now we have the box... (F. Obs.)

Fahad sometimes repeated the questions, as in the example above. In his IRF patterns, he not only asked for what the textbook asked for, but also for translations of the words. The F move often included learner echo, as in the above extract. The students responded with the answer and then the teacher gave feedback on this answer and used teacher-learner echo to ensure the other students heard the answer. Fahad linked series of IRF with lots of signalling and managed turn-taking with words such as "ok" or phrases such as "next question" in L2. At other times, when this signalling was longer, it was done in L1, such as: "Here, brothers,

we have words in the box, who will read these words? Ha? Ha?” (F. Obs.). However, as this IRF remained in materials mode, he was not following the phases the teacher’s book suggested. The teacher’s book essentially suggested that the classroom context mode should be used as it said to let the students use L2 to guess the topic and discuss it.

The following showed how Fahad repaired in the lesson. Repair refers to a form of correcting, but it is also wider than correcting; it does not necessarily involve replacing the wrong answer so much as giving treatment for the wrong answer as a way to resolve it. There are four types of repair: self-initiated and self-repair; self-initiated and other-repair; other-initiated and self-repair; and other-initiated and other-repair (Seedhouse, 2004). In this context, the “other” is a different person from the student who answered the question.

Extract 6.2

Fahad: Here the last one we have if you look, look at the picture *in the left hand* in the introduction *look at the picture* shabab [lads], you see the picture, you see the picture? This is Darren from Manchester, ok? (reading) *My name’s Darren and my dream is to become a professional, professional*, does anyone know what *professional* means? **I**

S1: Excellent. **R**

Fahad: Excellent, but it has a different meaning, when I say you are *professional* what does mean? [reinforcing the student’s answer while looking for the one he wants] **F/I**

S1: Helping. [Fahad ignores this wrong answer] **R**

Fahad: Professional is good at something... professional carpenter, professional carpenter, carpenter, carrrr...penter. What does mean carpenter from the picture? **F/I**

S2: Rocks. **R**

Fahad: What?

S1: Rocks.

Fahad: Look at the picture, *look at the picture*. [Use of material – textbook – he doesn’t say no, simply redirects the child’s attention] **I**

Second student: Wood. **R**

Fahad: Ok wood, what about wood? [Aspects of scaffolding, building up to the desired answer] **F/I**

S3: Equal. **R**

Fahad: No. [Direct no] No, it is not equal, ok lads... take a look at the picture [using materials, directing attention], what is he doing in the picture? **F/I**

S1: Carve. **R**

Fahad: Do you see the picture as carving? **F/I**

Student: Cutting? **R**

Fahad: What do we call that? **F/I**

S2: A person who cuts wood. **R**

S4: Carpenter. **R**

Fahad: Yes, carpenter, correct... ok... (F. Obs.) **F**

As highlighted by the annotations in the above example, Fahad indicated and stopped wrong answers. The student initiated and Fahad repairs by recruiting “other-repair”. In this extract, one of the students initiated repair when he said “professional”; another student tried to give an answer to repair, and then Fahad gave the second one space to “self-repair”. Fahad also repaired a wrong translation by giving a correct translation and he provided positive feedback when he said “Excellent”. Fahad was systematic in his repair in these IRF chains. He first read, then asked for the correct translation; if he got a correct translation from the students, he would move on to the next point, and if not he would repeat the word and keep asking until one of the students gave the correct response, and so on. This systematic repair limited the potential communicativeness in Fahad’s case (which I will discuss further in a later section).

The following IRF sequence showed systematic repair, mainly focusing on repair to find the correct translations. Fahad thereby limited his pedagogy by directing the students towards a specific role: giving correct responses to his initiations of questions, or finding the correct repair based on his directions:

Extract 6.3

Fahad: Ok... next... second picture here, right hand at the beginning young men ha ha... anyone wants to read? Yes [S4], can you read, yes. **I**

(S4 reads in a low voice – inaudible – for a minute) **R**

Fahad: *Thank you, very good, now...* (increases his volume) Ok students now we take these words line by line together. The first line young men. (Fahad reads the first line) *I love making rugs. What is meant by making rugs?* Anyone know what does this mean? *Making rugs* ha? *Make, make.* **F/I**

S4: (inaudible) **R**

Fahad: Make, making rugs... look at the picture, look at the picture, see the picture young men...ha? Yes [S1]. **F**

S1: Carve.

Fahad: Carve? Does the picture refer to carving? **I**

S5: Make carpets. **R**

Fahad: Ok... very good. You see, she is making... *making, making, making, make, making...* **F**

S2: Carpets.

Fahad: Carpets, yes very good (reading again) *My grandmother, grandmother... who is grandmother?* **I**

S2: My grandmother. **R**

Fahad: Excellent (carries on reading) My grandmother is into rug making, into rug making, pay attention to the words. My grandmother is into rug making, what does it mean into rug making? **F**

S6: Making carpets.

Fahad: She is interested, *into*, she is involved in the field...interested...ok... (F. Obs.)

The above extract showed the use of both managerial and materials mode. Fahad used signalling to manage the class, such as “*next*” and he got their attention by increasing his volume. In this, it seemed that Fahad is using managerial mode to manage the activity in stages; in each stage, there was IRF. The movement between stages was when there is a correct R or repair by Fahad, signalling that they can move onto the next stage. It could be argued that in this way they remain in their comfort zone; it is clear where the activity is going and what direction it will go in.

6.4.3 The instructional/regulative discourse

The lesson outlined in the textbook/ teacher’s book (and discussed above as F+ and C-) did not align with Fahad’s pedagogy, which was observed to be F+ in terms of the RD, with C+ of the content. Fahad’s teaching was very systematic and uniform with limited freedom and little opportunity for the students to use L2. Fahad kept tight control of the pedagogy using IRF interactions; he was focused on translation from L2 to L1 and the notion of correctness, as will be outlined below.

For Fahad, the correct response was when he got the correct translation and pronunciation. Fahad’s regulative discourse (RD) (Bernstein, 1990) was predominantly translation and

most of the extracts from his instructional discourse (ID) are translation orientated. In his RD he used IRF chains to initiate these correct translations and pronunciations. He discussed this approach in the second interview:

Extract 6.4

Yes, this is the way I learned when I was at university studying translation before I became a teacher. This way does not exist in the current textbook. I think this is missing in the current textbook and it should exist. I believe strongly in translation. Translations are the basis of learning any language. I think that to learn English you have to learn how to translate because then you will have the meaning in the two languages for the students. I think translation is as important as pronunciation. The students must know what the words mean to pronounce the words correctly. Knowing the meaning of the words lets the students know how they work in sentences and lets them use them correctly when they speak. (F. Int. 2)

The above extract shows Fahad making explicit reference to his preferred pedagogy, suggesting that his pedagogy was aligned with his teacher education in terms of what he learned at university. Even though Fahad said that he applied this pedagogy at the students' level, he is here showing that these beliefs nonetheless have an impact on his pedagogy in terms of what he emphasised, which is pronunciation. What he learned is thus having an impact on what he teaches. His reference to "knowing the meanings" illustrates that there was scaffolding until they speak and that translation, for Fahad, allows them to learn how to speak.

Fahad maintained his control of the sequence for the entire lesson with signalling and turn-taking. He controlled who could participate and who could not. Signalling was the main feature of the F+ he practiced; he directed the sequence of the lesson with clear and short phrases and most of the time only with one word. As many of the extracts in the above section show, there was close control of student participation. He was explicit in his control of the process of the lesson. Fahad not only reshaped the RD of the textbook but also added to the content of the textbook to fit his own pedagogy. The content in the ID focused on grammar rules and patterns, which Fahad sometimes extended with additional materials. The students mentioned that Fahad would bring in handouts to explain grammar and supplement the textbook material (Student Focus Group 2). In this way, Fahad overwrote how the textbook content was to be used with his recontextualization (Bernstein, 2000).

In Fahad's C+ pedagogy, he presented himself as the authority in charge of the specialised knowledge, highlighted by his explanations of grammar and focus on translation. This knowledge was transmitted to the students through F+ routines. As Fahad was in charge, he was the one who chose what was relevant and what was not. He was the controller of the lesson process, while the students followed. In (F. Int. 2), he outlined his ideal pedagogy: "I think memorisation is the best way to learn English. I called this self-learning. Self-learning is very important because the students here have the motivation to learn." (F. Int.2) Despite his naming this "self-learning", memorisation tends to be teacher-driven rather than student-driven: in Fahad's pedagogy he is the one who decides what to memorise. A memorisation pedagogy generally aligns with the features of the traditional Saudi pedagogy (see Chapter One), which is characterised by strongly hierarchical relations between student and teacher and a visible pedagogy (Bernstein, 1990).

In summary, Fahad's pedagogy was different from the one the teacher's book suggested. While the teacher's book varied the F and C, in Fahad's pedagogy he used the same F+ throughout the lesson with IRF chains seeking repair of wrong translations and pronunciation, a method that aligns with his teacher education. Generally, Fahad remained in materials and managerial mode. The teacher's book suggested a more communicative pedagogy, while Fahad's pedagogy enacted a F+ visible pedagogy (Bernstein, 1990). This visible pedagogy engages explicit control (as will be discussed in the L1/L2 section below). The teacher's book lesson was controlled communicative, while Fahad's was controlled non-communicative, as will be explored further in the following section.

6.5 CLT in the lesson

This section analyses the extent to which CLT is exemplified in Fahad's classroom practice. This will explore the degree of freedom, fluency and accuracy, meaningfulness, authenticity, production and scaffolding. The data used in this section will be Fahad's lesson transcript and his interviews.

Many of the suggested activities pushed towards a communicative pedagogy practice, as noted above, from the warm-up, reading, vocabulary and grammar to the writing activity. For example, the warm-up involved a communicative aspect in its production of the use of L2 to communicate and discuss what the topic was, as in the following example:

Extract 6.5

Fahad: Come on young men, together, the title of the lesson we have now. Who will read the title? Who wants to read, oh young men, who wants to read? *Yes. Mohamed?*

S3: *Be creative.*

Fahad: Thank you so much.

Fahad: *Be creative, be creative*, the title of our lesson today young men, *be creative*. Ok young men, be creative, now we have the first exercise, *discuss now*, discussion, *we have two questions here, who wants to read the first question?* First question young men, who will read for us? First question. *Yes Turki please?*

S1: (in a quiet voice): *Which of these...*

Fahad: *Speak loudly please.*

S5: *Which of these arts and crafts are you familiar with?*

Fahad: *Thank you.* (F. Obs.)

In this example, Fahad narrowed the opportunity for communicative uses of L2 by asking the students to read aloud instead of engaging in discussion. This converted the pedagogy to a translation and correction-orientated one. Fahad was in control of the sequence and he reduced the communicative potential of the textbook tasks by not using the pair work suggested by the teacher's book and thus replacing the student-student interaction with teacher-student interaction. The space he offered only lets the students find the correct answer or the correct translation. This point is also discussed in the lesson phases section with regard to his use of IRFs (see Extract 6.2). This resulted in narrowing communicative pedagogy activities from being communicative to being more in line with the traditional pedagogy. The students' role was to respond in the restricted spaces his questions allowed – to provide the correct translation with no space to use L2 to communicate. Fahad therefore reshaped the pedagogy recommended by the teacher's book to be less communicative and more accuracy than fluency orientated.

Fahad suggested that using group work was not practical as the students wouldn't know what to do. When linking to the kind of interactions Fahad seemed to prefer, which were predominantly IRF patterns, it is notable that this was always Fahad-student-Fahad. This

clashed with the ideal of group work, based on student-student interaction. Group work would reduce Fahad's control and even let the students control their own learning. For Fahad, the teacher should be in control of every aspect and the students lack the ability to work independently:

Extract 6.6

One of the important skills is grammar. Some students make mistakes in grammar and do not know the grammar rules. Some students do not take risks. Therefore, the students do not use the language, which means it requires the teacher to supervise them more. The teacher needs to work harder because these students are afraid to make mistakes. The students alone cannot work because it is too difficult for them. The students cannot work unless there are guidelines provided for the students. (F. Int. 1)

In this way, Fahad's pedagogy often seemed better aligned with the GTM pedagogy than CLT. In the above, Fahad also expressed his belief that prioritising grammar is essential to language learning. This prioritisation of grammar required control with more guidance, as he mentioned his need to supervise the students, thereby engaging a visible pedagogy (see the ID and RD section above) (Bernstein, 2000). He mentioned the need to supervise the students, thereby providing more guidance within a controlled pedagogy. Interestingly, the students also noted a preference for this emphasis on grammar in my focus group with them, commenting that Fahad's focus on grammar is "excellent" (see Appendix J: Focus Group 2).

The hierarchical relations focusing on accuracy and grammar in Fahad's case meant there was a tension between Fahad's role and the requirement in a communicative pedagogy to encourage risk taking. The teacher's book and textbook encouraged risk taking by balancing between accuracy and fluency. Fahad, however, was much more accuracy orientated. He outlined how translation and correctness were the main points of attention:

Extract 6.7

The student translates by using a dictionary, translates any words from the recording to help the student to understand this recording or video. Then the teacher can challenge the students to complete the task. The teacher gives them marks for the correct answers (F. Int. 1)

Fahad also commented that “when I use translations, I’m creating a relaxed environment for the students” (F. Int. 2). As suggested by the student comment noted above, this close control of the students’ learning thereby allows Fahad and his students to remain in their comfort zone. It could therefore be suggested that a lack of teacher control could be felt as a threat to that. This translation pedagogy seemed to allow them to stay in this safe zone, where they were mainly using L1, which is far from a communicative approach.

When I asked Fahad about the communicative approach, he replied:

Extract 6.8

I’m not sure about this concept. I have not heard about it, but if I’m correct, communicative is stimulation and communication between people. One communicates with others. In teaching, what I can say is that communicative means that the students are able to use listening programmes. That they can listen to news channels. Also, be able to watch any English videos on YouTube. I think these are ways to communicate in English. You can get new words, new information. It can also involve communicating with others to access electronic schools, the students can chat online, apps on mobiles, these can provide communications that are easy to access even from home. (F. Int. 1)

In this excerpt, Fahad explained that he understood CLT as the ability to use and understand L2. He gave examples of this as when the students listen and understand. CLT for Fahad is the performance and ability to communicate in social interaction and thus focused on BICS Cummins (1979) and communication between students. Fahad further understood this method as the students learning by doing. The L2 acquisition is achieved by listening to meaningful L2 within context. Based on his understanding, the students would learn independently in a CLT system, which suggests communicative teaching is achieved by removing the role of the teacher as the source of the language and deriving the meaning from context (see Extract 6.3). This may obviously clash with his preference for a controlled and traditional pedagogy. For Fahad, the CLT principle is also limited to the production of L2 from speaking and listening skills. The other skills, such as reading and writing, are not mentioned directly but he did mention social media, which will engage with BICS reading and writing.

Fahad mentioned a number of concerns about a communicative pedagogy; among these, the time pressures he faces and the sense that this approach may be unsuited to his students. Time was a major concern for Fahad:

Extract 6.9

Time is very important for me. I need to use the lesson time from the beginning until the end of the lesson. I need to use this time to explain and to translate and do not have enough time for them. Do not forget, the students need time to break from time to time during the lesson. I sometimes give the students five minutes so they do not get bored. The requirement to do group and pair work in the teacher's book is impossible. (F. Int. 2)

Fahad thus noted reservations and frustrations with the curriculum, outlining tasks that he considered "impossible" to achieve in the time available. This is very reflective of the power dynamic between the teacher and the official requirements, where the textbook and teacher's book outlined a series of tasks to be achieved in a communicative, but not necessarily an efficient, way and the overall system pushes him to achieve all of this in 45 minutes. In the extract above, Fahad seemed to reflect his frustrations that the requirements from the textbook, the way he perceived his role and the way the school system. In general, perceived his role do not match.

Fahad also suggested that the new pedagogy was not well suited to the students' level. He mentioned that "I can't teach in English, because they are weak" (F. Int. 2), referring to the low English level of the students who were themselves reluctant to use English as the main language in the classroom: "they feel better when they use Arabic" (F. Int. 2). Again, in this his concern is to remain in the safe zone rather than taking risks. This compares to the usual pedagogy that the students were used to. It could be understood that Arabic is suitable for dealing with the time pressures because it can speed up the lesson.

Fahad reflected very strong reservations about the communicative teacher's book's advice and therefore the suggested pedagogy. His perception was that it was both unrealistic and unfair to expect the teachers to be able to achieve this level of work. The barriers were the time and the arrangements. Fahad generally preferred controlled accuracy and discouragement of risk taking, which is not aligned with a communicative approach.

6.6 Use of L1/L2

This section will explore the use of Arabic (L1) and English (L2) in Fahad's class. To do so, I will use Shulman (1987) and Bernstein (1990) visible and invisible pedagogy. The data used in this section will be the interviews and the classroom transcript. In terms of how Fahad and his students used L1 (Arabic) and L2 (English), the students mainly spoke in L1

and only rarely spoke in L2. Their usage of L2 was restricted to responding to the teacher's questions. They mainly repeated L2 vocabulary from the textbook, as can be seen from Excerpt 6.2 above, where the student reads "*be creative*" from the textbook. The students were observed to only use L2 when Fahad initiated a question. They went no further than that. As explained in Chapter Four, use of English is indicated by italics, the other words were spoken in Arabic.

When they interacted with Fahad, the students generally used L1 in his Pedagogic Content Knowledge (PCK) to access the Content Knowledge (CK) (Shulman, 1987). Fahad used both L1 and L2 to direct the classroom learning. L1 was used to explain and summarise: "So these words lads, make up the lesson that we are having today and the title is *be creative, be creative, be creative.*" (F. Obs.). L1 was used much more extensively than L2. He used L2 for signalling and directing turn taking (as discussed above in this chapter): "*speak up*", "*next*" and "*who wants to read?*" (F. Obs.). This usage of L2 to manage the classroom behaviour could be understood as emerging from Pedagogic Knowledge (PK) because it plays the same role of managing the students' learning (Shulman, 1987). The different PK of other teachers applied L2 rather than L1. Fahad used L1 to manage the sequence and indicate movement to the next exercise: "*anyone wants to read? Yes [S1], can you read? Yes.*" (F. Obs.).

Extract 6.10

Fahad: Of course, this *craft* he does it in his *free time* in time of...?

S3: Free time.

Fahad: Excellent, *very good*.

Fahad: *Ok...* (pause) ... *next, third line*, third line lads (Fahad carries on reading the paragraph) *I make vases, bowls and paint them with bright colour* (pause) *one day I hope...* you see? [asking] *one day...?* (F. Obs.)

In this extract, L1 and L2 (the English and Arabic words for "free time") are used interchangeably to enforce Fahad's translator and clarifier role. Fahad used both L1 and L2 in sequences for translations. He used L1 in his PCK to clarify and access the content in L2 with translation and clarify the meaning in L1. He typically used L2 to provide feedback and L1 for confirming the correct translation. When he wanted to draw the students' attention, he shifted to L1 and he generally used L1 to hold the attention of the students: "pay

attention”. The use of L2 was often repetitive and done to reinforce vocabulary and pronunciation, as in the following extract:

Extract 6.11

Fahad: Here brothers we have words in the box, who will read these words? Ha? Ha?

S4: *Poetry*.

Fahad: *Poetry, very good, poetry poetry poetry, ok next...?*

S2: *Patchwork*. (F. Obs.)

Here Fahad used teacher-learner echo to focus on pronunciation. By repeating “*poetry*”, Fahad used a drilling pedagogy as a learning process, rather than the context that is provided by the textbook. Fahad was thus modelling the correct pronunciation of L2. This drilling in L2 maintains the hierarchical relations and interactions between Fahad and his students. In this way, Fahad generated memorisable and testable knowledge of L2, thus prioritising accuracy over fluency. In the above extract, the use of L2 is limited. For most of the lesson, the students’ L2 was limited to reading out loud when Fahad asked them to do so, and then he would correct these limited expressions.

Both Fahad and his students expressed reservations about too much use of L2 in the classroom. When asked in (F. Int. 2), Fahad said:

Extract 6.12

I can’t teach everything in English. The students will not understand anything if I teach in English because they are not ready and are not good enough at English to understand English. I want them to understand the lesson better and Arabic has helped me to do that. The students would be shocked if I did the entire lesson in English. How can I use English with them if they do not understand English? (F. Int. 2)

When Fahad outlined his beliefs about teaching, he expressed clear reservations about the requirement to use more L2 in the class: “I can’t teach everything in English”. The above extract reflects both his PCK and his knowledge of the students. Here Fahad used his experience to justify his understanding of how to enable and foster the students’ understanding. His professional beliefs reflect a clear position that L1 is better in this regard.

He suggested that L2 should be used in a limited way and that L2 should not be used too much for his students and classroom. This could be related to another comment he made that CLT pushes teachers to use sophisticated L2 to communicate with students and this is not suitable for low level students. In his opinion, this may lead to “shock” if they do not comprehend such complex L2. The extract above suggests that Fahad equated usage of lots of L2 with “teaching everything in English”, without referring to any understanding of the strategies and principles involved. His perception of how the two languages should be used suggested that L1 was to be used to make the students understand. This also relates to the visible pedagogy of Bernstein (1990): visible control of learning using L1 is explicit as opposed to the apparent lack of control of letting the students use more L2.

The students commented on Fahad’s use of L2:

S3: He talks in Arabic most of the time; the teacher explains everything in Arabic, he only uses English when he reads some sentences or words this is good for us
(Student Focus Group 2)

The students aligned with Fahad’s preference for guidance and a controlling (visible) pedagogy using L1 to explain and clarify. The students’ opinions on L1 use aligned with the L1 usage of Fahad in his PCK.

In general, in Fahad’s case L1 and L2 use is different in terms of the amount and the function. L1 was used much more than L2. L1 was prioritised in the PCK to access the CK and used to clarify and explain. L2 was used for reading and thus regarded as a classroom transcript; L2 was also used interchangeably with L1 to enforce Fahad’s control of the classroom.

6.7 Assessable practices

This section will discuss the role of the assessment in Fahad’s pedagogy practice and how Fahad’s pedagogy is impacted by the assessment. It will discuss the alignment between the three message system of Fahad’s pedagogy, curriculum and assessment (Bernstein, 1990). The data used in this section includes interviews with Fahad and his students. Fahad’s assessment followed the formal assessment system, with summative exams at the end of each term. Every term there are two term exams each worth 10 marks and a final exam worth 40 marks. Fahad’s assessments tested the students’ grammar; it was also supplemented by some external activities he selected.

Fahad assessed his students by giving them specific activities to memorise and some external papers not from the textbook, as the students noted. Fahad showed awareness of the role his assessment played in the interviews, noting that it provided “motivation to learn” (F. Int. 2). His awareness of the need to test the students and motivate them through testing and mark-scoring was supported to some degree by the students’ comments.

Extract 6.13

The teacher gives them marks for the correct answers. I think this helps because it gives the students the motivation to learn English. It even makes the students participate who do not want to (F. Int. 1)

Extract 6.14

When I warned him that he would lose marks, he became more active and he contributed to the last activity. I need to have the full attention of my students because I’m responsible for them. I cannot let them not understand my lesson; if this student failed at the end of the year, I’d be responsible because I did not do my job if I let him sleep in my lesson (F. Int. 2)

The above extracts show how marks have a strong impact on Fahad’s class. Assessment worked to direct students’ learning by forming a punishment, when not contribute, and a reward, when given, thereby increasing the level of student participation. The second extract shows how passing the exam has become the goal for Fahad and failure will not only be the failure of the student, but also that of Fahad. This suggests that Fahad and his students are in alignment on what goal to follow, as the following extract emphasises:

Extract 6.15

S1 yes yes...the exams from the book. But the teacher added some grammar that is not in the book, he said it is important. I remember Mr Fahad told us to memorise them and he will add them to the exam. And the grammar we answered in the classroom, we will have it in the exam. Also, the activities we do in the classroom, and he brings them to the exam (Student Focus Group 2)

As above, memorisation is used as a testing mechanism, which aligns what with what Fahad’s pedagogy is working towards. This means there is a memorisation pedagogy and he then assesses this memorisation. This links to his comment that:

Extract 6.16

when there is an English lab, the students can draw on flash memory. The students can memorise the recording. I always advise the students to memorise English. It is better to memorise any English recording, for example for two weeks or a month, and know how the context of this recording is much better than memorising everyday words...The recording will have many sentences with its context, but they have to memorise it by heart (F. Int. 1)

When linking to the memorisation assessment orientation, Fahad explains that he wants an English lab so they can work more intensively on this memorisation, which seemed to align with the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM).

Once Fahad gives the students these papers to be memorised before the exams, both the students and Fahad know what they will be tested on and they work on passing this in the summative assessment. In relation to the three message system, they are thereby memorising in order to pass. The impact of assessment is thus that the memorisation itself becomes the goal of learning rather than a way of learning.

Other types of assessment included formative assessment, such as quizzes:

Extract 6.17

S4: It is writing that we have to memorise and write. The teacher selects some sections and he examines us. The quizzes we memorise and answer. The activities at the end of each unit we memorise and do in the class (Student Focus Group 2)

The above extract suggests that what is considered learning in writing is what they memorise and then write. This emphasises the previous point about the impact of assessment in Fahad's classroom. Here the pedagogy is working towards testable memorised writing.

The above showed that in the three message system, assessment and pedagogy are far removed from the curriculum. The curriculum suggests a communicative pedagogy, while Fahad uses a memorisation assessment. This assessment orientation pushes Fahad to use his pedagogy to assess what he considers to be learning. Since his pedagogy involved learning to pass exams by memorising grammar and sentences, what is considered learning in Fahad's pedagogy is thus different from what is considered learning in the curriculum. There will

thus be tension between what is considered as learning to be assessed in the communicative pedagogy and Fahad's actual pedagogy.

The official pedagogy counts performing communication as learning based on the goals outlined by the lesson guide, while Fahad considered the ability to translate and know the grammar as learning. This affected Fahad's pedagogy as he ended up being driven by assessment; the focus, as mentioned in previous sections, was a different RD from what the lesson guide suggested. The lesson guide suggested different degrees of F in different activities, ending with F- in the last activity when it reduced control and gave the students more control over their learning to use L2.

In summary, assessment was powerful in Fahad's teaching and it had an impact on both the pedagogy and curriculum. His assessment determined and affected his pedagogy so he filtered the curriculum to assess what the students had memorised from selected aspects of the class. This diverged from what the teacher's book lesson aimed to achieve. Fahad was driven to match his pedagogy with his assessment, which ultimately created a gap between these two and the curriculum.

6.8 Conclusion

Overall, the lesson Fahad taught, based on the textbook and the teacher's book, should have been C- because the content was not specialised and it was about arts and crafts. In terms of F, this was generally meant to be F+, becoming weaker towards the end of the class. In general, the class comprised controlled input and controlled output. Overall, the lesson in the textbook and the teacher's book was communicative. In terms of Fahad's actual pedagogy, this was not communicative because there was no space for the students to use L2 to communicate. Even Fahad's use of L2 was limited to reading the questions in the activities and asking for translations. He made no authentic or meaningful use of L2 with the students. Fahad did not do the CLT activities in the textbook, such as pair work and most of the lesson was limited to IRF chains, which restricted the interaction between Fahad and his students.

In terms of his CLT understanding, he suggested that CLT entails strong use of L2 and the students learn independently. Such an understating of CLT would be impossible to implement in the Saudi context due to the Saudi system of learning. Fahad was also assessment- (or mark-) orientated and his assessment focus affected his pedagogy and curriculum, pushing it to be testable. The hierarchical relations between Fahad and his

students generated manageable and assessable “visible” learning that fitted their ideas of learning a language. For Fahad, there was potential difficulty in applying the officially recommended pedagogy that requires a different type of RD, with no teacher control as all the students learn independently.

Chapter 7: Talal Case

7.1 Introduction

This second case study chapter focuses on Talal's case in relation to his communicative language teaching (CLT) implementation. It explores the textbook, teacher's book and Talal's pedagogy, alongside his views and those of his students about the pedagogy, considering the instructional and regulative discourse of the case, exploring the elements of CLT in this, and then the usage of L1 and L2 in order to understand how these aligned with CLT principles. In sum, compared to Fahad's case, Talal's reflected equally strong framing (F+) and strong classification (C+), with limited room for the students to experiment, but the general environment of the classroom was more relaxed. This chapter begins by describing the classroom, then it explores the textbook activities alongside the teacher's book. This is followed by an exploration of the pedagogy. It ends with a discussion of the assessment with and overall conclusions on Talal's case.

7.2 Classroom experience

Talal was 35 years old at the time of the observation. He is a graduate of a public university with a degree in education, as discussed in Chapter One. Talal studied English for approximately one year in Canada. He has been teaching English for 11 years. Therefore, he did not experience the pedagogy change as a teacher from the previous pedagogy to the new curriculum of Saudi Arabia. All the students were male based on the gender segregation of all schools in Saudi Arabia (explained in Chapter One). The age of the students was approximately 13 years old. Talal's classroom was large. It had 30 tables and only two students were absent from the class I observed, higher than the average attendance. The tables were arranged to face the front of the classroom, where Talal was located. As in the case of Fahad, this very formal layout of the classroom and the structure of the relationship between Talal and his students is not ideal for CLT requirements. Based on the layout alone, the classroom relationship was hierarchical, while CLT calls for a less hierarchical structure.

This section will provide a general overview of the classroom in Talal's case. This was a relatively relaxed class in which the students seemed to be happy and the teacher was comfortable in his role. The space of the classroom itself was relatively limited and sparse, as with Fahad's case. There was no means of playing the cassette tapes that accompanied the textbook. For most of the lesson, Talal was standing at his table facing the students while he was teaching. The students actively participated in the class either in response to Talal

looking at them or, if they raised their hand, they were given permission to talk. Consequently, the number of students who actually participated was low. Only five students were chosen by Talal to answer. The rest of the students were quiet, but their attention seemed to be held by Talal as the students were mostly looking at Talal and following his instructions.

7.3 Textbook and teacher's book

This section uses the same theoretical framework as in the previous case to consider how well the pedagogy suggested by the teacher's book guidelines aligned with the CLT principles.

Talal was teaching the first grade in middle school and therefore using the *Full Blast 1* textbook (Module 1, "Hello", Lesson 3) (see Appendix D-3 and E-5). The ID outlined for this lesson, "Numbers", was English vocabulary for the numbers 0 to 9, 10 to 100 and 110, 300 and 1,000, and their pronunciation. In terms of the RD, which, as Bernstein (2003) notes, is about how the ID is presented and regulated, the lesson was divided into five activities, which are discussed in more detail below.

The first activity suggested listening and repeating. The teacher's book outlined the goal of presenting numbers 0-9 in L2. In this activity, the teacher's book suggested beginning by asking the students to look at the picture and tell them what it was in L2. The desired answer was "smartphone". Then the teacher's book suggested asking the students if they knew the numbers in L2. It suggested playing a recording (that was not available, so instead Fahad read out the numbers), then asking the students to follow the recording by reading the numbers silently in their textbook. After that, the teacher was to play the recording a second time, but with pauses for the students to repeat the numbers aloud. In terms of the RD and how this activity was regulated, this activity was carefully scaffolded with controlled activities, with very little freedom for the students to use L2 to make their own meanings. This space was given when asking about their knowledge of numbers and at the beginning of this activity when asking about the pictures, but with controlled answers. This textbook activity was thus F+ with the teacher in control of the sequence. This would also involve C+ because there was a strong boundary between the world outside the classroom and the vocabulary being used with no context or connection to the students' lives (Bernstein, 2003).

The goal of the second activity was to let the students practise saying numbers in L2. This activity had F- and C-. The RD structure of this activity asked the students to work in pairs.

The teacher's book text began by suggesting the teacher draw the students' attention to speech bubbles in the textbook to develop their understanding of the activity. It then clarified in turn how each of the numbers should be read in L2. It also suggested that the teacher should clarify how to pronounce "zero", focusing on the "oh" sound. Then the teacher was to choose one student to act out a student-student dialogue with him, showing them how to work in pairs. Finally, the students were to work in pairs while the teacher was to go around the students providing help where it was needed. In terms of RD, this activity had F- and C-. There was more freedom in this compared to the previous activity because there was an opportunity for the students to use L2 in a personalised and meaningful context as they were to exchange their phone numbers in pairs. However, this activity was still controlled because the students were to repeat a controlled dialogue.

As with activity one, the third activity focused on the pronunciation of numbers, listening to recordings and repeating the numbers back to the teacher. Again, this was controlled and hierarchical with a focus on modelling. There was a F+ and C- with no meaningful function unlike the previous activity. The teacher's book suggested reading the numbers 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90 and 100 one at a time and slowly. It then suggested writing the numbers on the whiteboard and asking the students what the word was in L2, telling them the answer afterwards. It suggested clarifying to the students that 31-39 are formed in the same way as 21-29. Then the teacher was to clarify the difference between 13 and 30, 14 and 40, 15 and 50. As with activity three, activity four required the teachers to introduce numbers, read them out from the textbook, play recordings and elicit the students to write them on the whiteboard. The focus here was numbers 100, 200, 300 and up to 1,000 and how these are formed. The features of this activity were much the same as those of activity three.

The last activity involved talk in pairs. The goal was to practise using L2, asking and answering questions about their age. It was a controlled practice activity, and this activity's RD structure was for the teacher to present a model question and answer to show them how to ask and answer. The teacher's book encouraged the teacher to go around and help where necessary. This activity was personalised as the students were to ask and answer about one another's age. This reflected more F- and C- because there was reduced control and more room for the students to use L2 relatively freely as they asked and answered about their age. The teacher's book outlined the need to give help where necessary suggested that control was still present but it was secondary. There was weaker classification (C-) as the boundary between the textbook and their world was removed. Compared to the other activities, this one was more related to the students' lives and it provided them with context.

In summary, this section has discussed the lesson outlined in the teacher's book and the textbook that Talal used to teach, exploring what it suggested. The ID was numbers, while the RD involved regulating these activities with C+ and F+. This was scaffolded with very controlled activities. The suggested class involved the controlled presentation of numbers and use of these numbers in a controlled dialogue. The end of the class was relatively F- and C-. In general, the pedagogy suggested by the teacher's book and the textbook for this lesson was less communicative than the one Fahad taught, however this may be expected in a lesson focussed on numbers.

7.4 Talal's classroom - observations

7.4.1 Lesson phases

This section will describe the observed lesson to explore the type of interaction and teaching that took place between Talal and his students. To do so, this section will use Walsh (2011) "lesson modes", which he divides into four main types: managerial, classroom context, skills and systems, and materials mode (see Chapter Three for more information). These will be used to unpack the lesson phases. The data will include extracts from the lesson observation, along with the interviews undertaken with Talal.

Talal used the textbook throughout the lesson. He began by explaining that the lesson was about numbers and outlining the vocabulary for numbers 1-12. Then he called for imitation from the students and summarised how they should pronounce the numbers. He then moved to English vocabulary for numbers 13-19, explaining the rule for the "teens" by referring to the textbook and asking them to memorise these numbers. He moved on to present the rules for 20-90 and went over this using the whiteboard, using echo and repetition to teach these "rules". Talal then distributed an additional worksheet that was not from the textbook. This included an activity using numbers 1-9 to create larger numbers. He asked the students to look at numbers 13 to 19 and wrote these numbers on the whiteboard. He asked them to write "teen" next to each number on the worksheet. Then he talked about 20 to 90, explaining the rule for "ty" added as a suffix to these numbers to create the larger number. He referred to the whiteboard with translations of the numbers and then he added "hundred" to the numbers 1-9, engaging the same system he used to develop the "teens".

The students were then referred to their notebooks for a pair work activity. Talal asked them to work in pairs but didn't provide any guidance on how to arrange the classroom to do so. When Talal said "*in pairs* shabab [lads]", the students repeatedly asked "how", and Talal's response involved giving more clarification on how to do the activity, but not more guidance

on practically how to do pair work. This seemed to suggest that the students were not familiar with pair work. Therefore, the pair work did not happen and Talal moved past this. Talal then asked the students to copy from the board, reading out their answers. Finally, the class ended with a teacher monologue about how to learn effectively that regulated the behaviour of the students.

Based on Walsh (2011) categories discussed in Chapter Three, Talal began in materials mode (using short phrases in English to read from the textbook) such as “*page 5*” and “*today we have numbers*”. He then moved into switching between managerial and materials mode, with brief moments in skills and systems mode to explain the “rules” for numbers. He initiated movement between these modes with the use of words such as “*next*” and “*ok*”. He also spent most of the lesson teaching using initiation response and feedback (IRF) patterns and had to continually regulate and remind the students to focus throughout the lesson.

Extract 7.1

Talal: *Who can count? ...who can count from 1-12?* **I**

S1: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10. **R**

Talal: Excellent. **F**

Extract 7.2

TALAL: *One million, two million, three million.* Now what you have written over there in the textbook. *A hundred means 100, thousand means 1,000.* **I**

S1: Write it next to it? (word next to number) **R**

S2: Where? where? **R**

Talal: You see at the bottom, see them at the bottom. **R/I**

S3: Do we have to memorise it teacher? **I**

Talal: This one. (answering where to write) **R**

S2: Where is it teacher? **R**

Talal: A hundred means 100. **I**

S4: Where is it in the textbook? **R**

Talal: The fourth from the bottom. You have to write at as important **R**

S5 (telling S2): It is under 90. **R**

Talal: Yes yes. *A hundred means 100. Thousand means 1,000.* Clear? **F**

S2 (talking to S5): the next one where?... (students talk to each other). (Tal. Obs.)

The above two extracts reflect a large portion of Talal’s class, with the use of IRF and materials/ managerial mode to regulate and manage the classroom. Talal asks questions

about the material that the students respond to, or, as in the second extract, the students ask questions about how to do certain activities.

In between the many IRF patterns that Talal used, there were switches to managerial mode. Managerial mode often involved the use of signalling words such as “*next*” and “*okay*” in L2 or “looking for someone else” in L1.

Talal tended to correct the wrong pronunciation of numbers or repeated reference to the rules to encourage the correct pronunciation of numbers. This situated Talal as the authority of correct pronunciations and he repeatedly modelled the correct pronunciations of the numbers.

Extract 7.3

TALAL: *Who will read the whole numbers? Who can read the entire numbers that your colleague read it now? Ha? Listen to your colleague.* **I**

S: Three ten.. four.. three... **R**

TALAL: Thirteen..thirteen **F**

S: Three. This? **R**

TALAL: Yes but the pronunciation is *thirteen*. **F**

S: Their tain, four tain (students laugh), five tain six tain seven tain **I**

TALAL: *Eighteen, nineteen* (the student imitates TALAL) **R**

Within these IRFs chains, there was thus a steady focus on the correctness of pronunciation and the students’ attempts were often followed up with repair by Talal. The repair was direct. As above, as soon as the student pronounced a number wrongly Talal would immediately provide the correct version.

Talal moved into skills and systems mode occasionally in order to explain the “rules” for the numbers and to provide explanations for learning “from 1-12”, and “*from 20 till 90 we have another rule*”. For 100-1,000 he used the whiteboard to explain:

Extract 7.4

...okay now. If you see here in the whiteboard here *hundred and thousand*. *Hundred* means 100. Means 100. *Thousand* means 1,000. *Thousand* means 1,000. One comes and asks how to see *100, 200, 300*. This is so easy you only add a number and add *hundred*. For example, 100 *one-hundred*, 200 *two-hundred*, *three-hundred*, *four-hundred*, *five hundred* (students start to imitate

after five hundred). In this way, it is similar to *thousand* which is 1,000. When it comes to 1,000 you say *one-thousand, two-thousand, three-thousand, four-thousand, five thousand*. (students imitate) Clear?) (Tal. Obs.)

The above extract shows that there was a very strong focus on slowly outlining the rules with example and repetition. For example, here outlining the number formation of the “hundreds”. In this way, he presented a simple point and reinforced it through repetition. The extract above also shows that there was often an overlap between skills and systems mode and materials mode. Talal was discussing the rules for the numbers and adding suffixes at the same time as referring to learning based on the textbook, which is situated in materials mode. According to Walsh (2013), these modes are not always strict but they illustrate the fluidity of L2 teaching and represent how most classrooms run.

There was one final major shift in the lesson towards the end Talal moved entirely into managerial mode, moving away from engaging the students in ID of expressing numbers in English, and instead, he lectured the students on how to learn:

Extract 7.5

S1: teacher I want to learn things not letters and numbers.

Talal: Did you listen to your colleague? You did not? Your friend asked how to learn things not letters and numbers. Now I want to ask you a question. Can you live in a house without walls?

...There are skills in English like listening, speaking, reading and writing - all of these skills are required, all of them. when they are available for you as information, they give you a beautiful picture and you will be able to speak with others. However, when one is missing, there will be defect. It is like you are living in a house but without walls. It is house but without walls. A house missing what is required. (Tal. Obs.)

This was a change of direction influenced by a student’s question, leading Talal to provide an explanation of his pedagogy, as discussed above. There is a clear focus on building knowledge that develops on existing knowledge, which is reflective of his focus on rules and the repetition of simple points of learning. This academic focus could be seen as an emphasis on CALP over BICS.

This phase took much longer compared to other phases in the lesson. This final phase was also conducted in L1 and had a high level of attention from the students. The above extract

reflects the dominance of managerial mode, with the conclusion of the lesson providing an explanation of the importance of the four mentioned skills. The extract shows that Talal's model for learning involved building skills to use the language. This is not well aligned with CLT, which encourages experimenting as part of learning.

7.4.2 The instructional/regulative discourse

This section discusses instructional discourse (ID) and regulative discourse (RD) and the elements of C+- and F+-. These elements are based on Bernstein's (1990) theory, as discussed in Chapter Three. Talal was teaching the ID of numbers using F+ and C. In this section, this approach is compared to the pedagogy suggested by the teacher's book.

Talal used F+ and there were strongly hierarchical relations between Talal and his students. He had a strong degree of control over the sequence of the learning and also controlled the pace of the students, as in Extracts 7.1 and 7.2. Talal slightly reshaped the official RD (curriculum) into his own form. He emphasised the C+ and F+ of the ID and RD in the interaction among the different actors in the classroom. Talal moved the suggested more participatory approach (pair work) into a more hierarchical interaction by limiting the time given to this section and thus changing student-student interaction to teacher-student exchanges.

Extract 7.6

Talal: *Ok. Now move to the notebook section. Notebook section. Page seventy-five. Page 75. Hurry up, quickly. Now every two work together. In pairs shabab [lads], in pairs. Every two together. Every two together to help each other.*

S1: Where I go teacher?

Students: [indistinct]

Talal: Ha... this exercise is to help...

Students: [indistinct]

S2: How teacher?

Talal: The exercise... ha ok. This exercise, what is asked for is to bring the required number. This required number, where to get it? From the same page.

S3: How teacher? (Tal. Obs.)

Following this exchange, the students had not rearranged themselves to work in pairs and they continued looking at their textbook individually. While the pair work was minimised, given less than two minutes overall, it is important to note that even the pair work suggested

in the textbook was very controlled, with the teacher closely monitoring the progress of the students.

In terms of C, Talal made C stronger. Where the official pedagogy promoted by the textbook suggested linking the knowledge to the students' world and their personal experience, Talal transmitted the vocabulary for the numbers with rules on how to learn them. This explicit outlining of rules on how to form and say the numbers was not suggested by the teacher's book. He also asked them to memorise these rules and numbers, as in Extract 7.6 below. Talal made the knowledge more specialised with rules for wording numbers, for example, in his reference to "ty" and "teen" and the similar format for -hundred and -thousand discussed in the section above. Talal emphasised more classified knowledge, adding memorisation into the pedagogy to acquire this knowledge, which was not suggested by the teacher's book.

Extract 7.7

Talal: *From 13 to 19 we have another rule we have another rule for this or... we have rule from 1-12. We have memorised [this], but from 13-19 has another way. Look at the way...*

Talal: Do you have the paper? ... is it with you?

S: (indistinct)

Talal: If you see guys here... if you recognise... (Talal distributes external paper). As you see you have numbers which are from 13 to 19. What you need to do is you have to underline the numbers in this (he is looking at the whiteboard). Then write next to each number *teen*. You add to it *teen*... (Tal. Obs.)

In his interview, Talal explained this decision as follows:

Extract 7.8

This is the use of Arabic in explaining English. When I explain to them in this method, I explain to them and put a circle or a net that facilitates delivering the information much more than what exists in the book. The information exists in the book, but there are no helping tools. By using this method in explanation on the whiteboard, it facilitates and gives it – there is no God but Allah – the words *teen... ty* come in general *suffix* in English comes in general in English. This is very helpful to me in delivering the information through reading the numbers (Tal. Int.2)

Talal constituted the learning as C+ with a strong boundary between L2 and the students' world. Similar to Fahad, he chose to supplement the recommended pedagogy because of what he believed to be missing in the RD recommended in the textbook. This, he suggested, required him to add in more "helping tools". These rules that he added were not in the textbook or the teacher's book. This could be interpreted as Talal addressing what he regarded as failings in the textbook and the teacher's book, adding what he considered necessary for learning.

Talal slightly recontextualised the teacher's book by emphasising or even adding to some RD and removing other areas. Even though he closely followed the teacher's book, there was more emphasis on some of the suggested RD, such as distinguishing between the formation of the numbers. He engaged a slower pace for explaining than was suggested in the teacher's book, such as in Extract 7.7. The teacher's book suggested clarifying how to form the numbers, Talal emphasised the explanation part by slowly outlining the rules. He then added memorising that was not suggested by the teacher's book, as in Extract 7.7, where Talal asks the students after he explains the "ty rule" to memorise it. He added translation pedagogy that was not suggested by the teacher's book. This is shown in Extract 7.2. He translated the numbers when he read out the numbers from L2 to L1. There was also an emphasis on memorising to pass the test, which will be discussed further below.

This way of Talal RD of his teaching could be seen when he mentioned his experience abroad in Canada. Talal used an example of how a student when she failed three times by in English. He when sat with her "explained the grammar to them and they passed the exam" (assessment will be discuss later) this he saw his pedagogy better Canadian one.

To summarise, Talal's teaching and the teacher's book suggestions were generally similar with C+ and F+. However, at the end of Talal's lesson he continued the same degree of controlling pedagogy, while the teacher's book suggested providing more opportunities for movement into a slightly weaker pedagogy. In summary, Talal's lesson was generally in between managerial and materials mode, with some skills and systems mode but missing use of classroom context mode. Talal followed the teacher's book closely but placed more emphasis on C and F. There was no room for the students to take risks and Talal's role mainly involved correcting and explaining rules, often using repetition. I will explore the alignment between these approaches and the communicative pedagogy in the following section.

7.5 CLT in the lesson

This section will analyse the ways in which the communicative approach shown in the classroom. This will involve exploring the BICS, the degree of the freedom given to the students, their fluency and accuracy, the authenticity and meaning, and how much productive or predictive activity and scaffolding was used. These terms will form the basis by which to analyse Talal's communicativeness in this section.

In the observation of Talal's class, there were limited examples of communicativeness. This seemed to have been reduced because of his focus on accuracy over fluency. Even with a lesson on numbers, a balance between fluency and accuracy is possible. However, Talal seemed generally to have limited understanding of a communicative classroom as one that makes space for mistakes and does not allow a focus on correctness to disrupt the students' flow. This is discussed below in the section on CLT, and exemplified in the following example:

Extract 7.9

Talal: Ok you (...) read it.

S: Two zero...

Talal: *Twenty*

S: Three twenty.

Talal: Thirty... forty

S: *Forty...five tee, six tee, seven tee, nine tee...* (another student next to him says it before him and he just imitates)

Talal: Eighty, ninety

S: I swear to god it is very easy.

The focus on accuracy over fluency in the above extract seems to undermine the communicative approach. Talal's strong emphasis on the students' pronunciation of numbers means they are often corrected by Talal when they pronounce numbers incorrectly, or before they have found their way to the correct pronunciation, which disrupts the communicativeness of the class. There is notably a friendly tone and relaxed atmosphere in this example between Talal and his students, unlike Fahad's classroom. While both classrooms were very hierarchical in their relations, the friendliness of Talal's classroom could reshape the hierarchical relation to take a more horizontal form between the teacher and his students. This could in theory allow the students to be more comfortable,

encouraging them to take risks, which would align with a CLT approach. However, this did not occur.

The other element that may reduce the communicativeness of a classroom is a lack of authenticity or meaning. Authenticity and meaningfulness in CLT were discussed in Chapter One. There was a missed opportunity for authentic or meaningful communication in Talal's class. As noted above, even though Talal's classroom was not significantly different from the one suggested by the teacher's book, it is interesting that he minimised the most communicative moments suggested in the class. This was illustrated when Talal did not follow the suggested activity of letting the students ask and give their phone or home numbers in the second activity and telling their age in the fourth activity. These points marked the potential for a moment of meaningful use of numbers in a more personalised manner, but Talal replaced them with rules to apply without providing any context for the use of L2, as is shown in Extract 7.6 and Extract 7.7. As noted above, he also replaced the pair work with external worksheets. The activities he retained required the students to work on their own, as in the example in Extract 7.7.

When asked about his approach in the first interview, Talal explained this as follows:

Extract 7.10

Gradation. Gradation in information. Gradation in stairs. For example, now the alphabet of English is the base of teaching when I start with them in the beginning, with pronunciation of letters. I pronounce each letter in turn. After that I start in the second step, what is it? Avoiding mistakes in mixing up the pronunciation of the letters, for example, some letters like *C* and *S*, *G* and *J*, *C* and *K*, after that I go to the differentiation between the capital and small letters. In this way I see that there is smoothness and the time will be sufficient and you will get the students understand the information more quickly and this will save you time. This matter is the gradation from downstairs to upstairs. (Tal. Int.1)

The extract above outlines Talal's reasoning for the lack of communicativeness in his classroom. His main reason relates to his preference for scaffolded learning. The phrase "start with them in the beginning" reveals Talal's understanding of what learning language constitutes. For him, learning a language has to follow a rational sequence. He mentions "gradation" several times. This shows as a low tolerance for student mistakes and he even mentioned the need for "avoiding mistakes".

A communicative approach still requires a degree of correctness and word formation, along with using the language communicatively. However, for Talal CLT was inappropriate for his students and his approach enabled him to teach at a pace that he considered CLT not to offer. Fahad also noted this belief that CLT was a kind of unsupported and slow approach.

Talal's PCK and attitude towards a communicative pedagogy was aligned with his students' preferences:

Extract 7.11

S3: I love the way the teacher... because he explains everything in Arabic and often gives a re-explanation more than once and this makes the textbook easier, I love the teacher when he explains everything ... (Student Focus Group 1)

Another student also noted his support for Talal's pedagogy:

Extract 7.12

S2: I prefer the teacher to explain the grammar step by step because I do not find that the textbook the teacher helps us in this, but sometimes I do not know the grammar. I like him to explain to me in Arabic (Student Focus Group 1)

The above extracts from the students align with Talal's RD preference, illustrating their shared preference for C+ and F+ knowledge with the teacher in charge to do the explaining step by step, providing scaffolding and explaining. The extracts above suggest that for both Talal and his students, their focus is on understanding rather than using the language. Talal explained everything and there was no space for the experimenting that a communicative approach would suggest. This could be interpreted by considering the pedagogic nexus (Hufton & Elliott, 2000), which relates to people's expectations of learning. Talal and his students reflect the Saudi pedagogic nexus, which is very F+. This could make CLT approach more challenging for them because the suggestion for the language classroom is very different from the rest of the system.

However, it is also important to consider here the comment by one student in Extract 7.5 discussed above, "Teacher I want to learn things not letters and numbers". This is interesting here, suggesting that not all the students are happy with this very structured pedagogy and there may be more will for experimenting than the comments from the students would suggest.

In summary, Talal's classroom was not aligned with the CLT approach. In Talal's case, there was much focus on accuracy over fluency. Talal's pedagogy focused on word formation and pronunciation. Talal's case thus reflected a predictive pedagogy rather than productive, which was not aligned with the CLT productive suggestions. In Talal's case, the pedagogy was focused on correction of pronunciation and word formation, not pushing towards using L2. Talal and his students generally preferred F+ and C+, which is different from what a CLT approach suggests. The next section will further discuss this use of L1 and L2 in the classroom.

7.6 Use of L1/L2

7.6.1 Language being elicited/modelled

This section discusses the use of Arabic (L1) and English (L2) in Talal's case. To explore this use I will use Shulman (1987) concept of teacher knowledge and Bernstein (2003) visible and invisible pedagogy. The data is drawn from the interviews with Talal.

Based on Shulman's theories of teacher knowledge discussed in Chapter Three, Talal used L1 as the basis of his pedagogic content knowledge (PCK) to better convey content knowledge or information, to teach L2. In general, Talal's use of English focused on academic and linguistic correctness with no context involved throughout the lesson. When he used L2, in the observed lesson, it was mainly text read from the textbook and related to grammar rules or instructions in the textbook. He used little English to engage students in the classroom. Rather, he used L1 for classroom management and some English words to praise the students such as "*excellent*". He sometimes used L2 in managerial mode, but this was usually limited to short utterances such as: "*quickly... quickly...*". This could be interpreted as a degree of authentic use of L2 by Talal within the classroom context. However, these limited usages of L2 were also followed immediately with translation in L1. In this way, Talal pushed towards a visible pedagogy.

I asked Talal about his limited use of L2 in the interviews, especially the second interview, and he provided extensive reasoning for this decision, often reasons that were comparable to those of Fahad:

Extract 7.13

I have to speak in Arabic to let them understand the lesson. I use Arabic as an assisting factor to get the student to understand the information and explain the idea. It is also suitable to the student because not everything in English is suitable

to the student. I use some expressions in order to be on both sides. If you observed them, you will watch that they are from primary or preparatory schools. The student is coming from primary school so I consider this method as most suitable to the student. In my opinion, I consider it as helpful. (Tal. Int.2)

Talal reasons that he uses limited L1 because of the students' low proficiency. His mention of "stairs" can be compared to his use of scaffolded learning discussed in the section above. For him, these "stairs" ensure better accuracy and better fluency. Therefore, correcting mistakes before reaching the next step. The metaphor of "stairs" could again suggest that Talal views language learning as a slow and logical process of developing stages. This "gradated" approach (Extract 7.10) would suggest Talal was using predictive knowledge of CLT rather than productive knowledge. This predictive knowledge seems to be focused on accuracy over fluency because he mentioned that the content knowledge (CK) (Shulman, 1987) required was letters and pronunciation, while the pedagogic content knowledge (PCK) necessary was scaffolding. Although scaffolding is used in CLT, this emphasis on accuracy before taking the next step may not align well with the principles of CLT, especially in terms of the encouragement of the use of L2 and learning by using of L2. However, this does also raise the question of whether students on a higher step would continue with the same visible pedagogy.

7.6.2 Distance between L1 and L2

Talal referred to the significant difference between the two languages that needs to be bridged. It could be interpreted from the previous extracts that the use of L1 and the visible pedagogy was designed to create a bridge between the two languages. Consideration of the gap between Arabic and English in this regard is interesting. For Talal, therefore, another reason for such extensive L1 use was the different features of L1 and L2, which again reflects his teacher's beliefs.

Extract 7.14

Arabic is different from English as Arabic runs from right to left and English from left to right. The brain is entirely structured from right to left so how to change the brain to change the brain the basis has to be before. This is very difficult for children they will not understand the differences (Tal. Int.2)

In summary, most of the lesson was in L1 and very little in L2. L1 was used to manage and instruct, while L2 was used to support management with words or short phrases, but almost always followed by translations. L2 use was for reading out and correcting. Such intensive

use of L1 and limited use of L2 may stop the teacher from facilitating risk-taking or meaning-making by the students because they know the translations are coming. Therefore, the students do not have to search for the L2 meaning.

The above sections have explored two elements of the three message system: curriculum and pedagogy. The next section will explore the final element by considering the way in which the focus on assessment structured the pedagogy.

7.7 Assessable practices

This section will explore the assessment practice in Talal's case. The theory used is the three message system of Bernstein (2003). The data is drawn from the interviews with Talal and the students.

Talal's classroom was assessed with the use of some external papers taken from the textbook: "I give my students exams from the textbook I print some activities". This learning for assessment was an ever-present consideration for both the teacher and the students. Talal focused on assessment of memorisation of grammar and vocabulary. Talal chose some activities from the workbook to assess the students. He chose some of the activities and the students were required to memorise the necessary information.

Extract 7.15

Can you talk more of these questions and answers?

S1: Yes... the teacher helps us in the tests, gives us papers, we memorise them and when we come to the tests, we will get good grades.

S4: Yes only papers to memorise. It is some words or sentences we memorise.

Can you explain more?

S1: Such as sentences, words, questions or activities... (Student Focus Group 1)

Talal's use of a non-communicative pedagogy that focused on grammar and vocabulary has an impact on the assessment. The memorisation of grammar and vocabulary is aligned with what he assessed the students on. Bernstein (1990) three message system involves pedagogy, curriculum and assessment. This can be understood as impacting the classroom in two ways. The first is that it is memorisation-focused and strong C and F are what count as valid transmission in the pedagogy and thus the learning. In Talal's case, the assessment was focused on memorisation of the numbers. This was not aligned with what the curriculum suggested, but it was aligned with Talal's pedagogy. Talal mentioned that memorisation

would be required for the exams and this aligned with what the students said: that they would be tested on memorising. The pedagogy from the message system was aligned with Talal pedagogy by using this recontextualising rule.

Another way of understanding this is that the assessment itself is feeding back into Talal's pedagogy. The pedagogy is narrowed to what is memorisable in order for it to be testable, which may lead to a non-communicative pedagogy. Therefore, a non-communicative assessment can be seen to be feeding back though into the classroom practice. In this way, there is a mismatch between the curriculum, pedagogy and assessment.

The students outlined their approach to exams and reflected this focus:

Extract 7.16

S4: I think English only in our study is what the teacher gives us. He only gives us papers before exams and we memorise and pass. We do not learn.

What do you mean you do not learn?

S4: We only save some papers before the exams, two or three pages and pass...

(Student Focus Group 1)

In relation to Bernstein's three message system, the previous extract shows that what counts as valid realisation has become what is memorisable from a few papers. This learning can be understood as "passing exams" and the focus on passing the exam could create a different direction, moving away from the curriculum towards the memorisable pedagogy of Talal. This focus on memorisation had a strong impact on what constituted learning, as Talal explained in Extract 7.7.

Talal's lesson was assessment orientated. Talal worked on what had the potential to be valid realisation, emphasising what counts as predictable learning and he emphasised the need "To not surprise them [the students] in the exams". Talal noted that you "explain the grammar to them and they pass the exam". For him, learning consisted of grammar learning and valid realisation of learning was reflected in knowledge of grammar.

The extracts above from Talal and his students show that assessment played a very powerful role in their classroom. In Talal's case, there was no alignment between the three message system of Bernstein. Talal assessed the realisation of memorisable and predictable learning. This orientation had an impact on Talal's pedagogy as what counted as learning was considered to be what matched with the assessment. However, the curriculum as presented in the textbook was not aligned with Talal's assessment and his pedagogy. Therefore, Talal

brought in replacement activities and reshaped the pedagogy of the curriculum to match his assessment. The test came from the notebook, but Talal's pedagogy was what the students were tested on.

In summary, this section has discussed the assessment practice in Talal's case. It shows that there was a mismatch between the curriculum and assessment, but the assessment matched Talal's pedagogy. The mechanism between the three message systems was affected by the assessment orientation, which led Talal to focus on memorisable knowledge.

7.8 Conclusion

In conclusion (as observed and discussed in section 7.2) Talal's classroom was relaxed, but still hierarchical in the relations between this teacher and his students. Talal closely followed the teacher's book and the F+ and C+ of both of them reflected a controlled pedagogy. However, the difference was that the teacher's book began by presenting numbers but then gradually moved from a very C+ and very F+ to C- and F-. At the end it made space for use of L2. Talal, on the other hand, maintained C+ and very F+ with patterns of IRF throughout the class. Talal slightly recontextualised the teacher's book by emphasising the rules that he believed to be important from developing knowledge. Talal recontextualised the moments at the end of the lesson where there was an opportunity for more communicative learning, instead, his students did an individual worksheet. The teacher's book lesson was not communicative except at the end, but Talal's was less so. Talal's pedagogy was accuracy-focused and memorisation orientated.

Chapter 8: Ali Case

8.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on Ali's case in relation to his use of communicative language teaching (CLT). To do so, it explores the textbook/ teacher's book and this pedagogical instructional and regulative discourse to consider in the suggested lesson. It then explores Ali's actual pedagogy and his instructional and regulative discourse along with his use of L1 and L2 to compare this with what the teacher's book and the textbook suggested in order to understand in what way Ali's case is communicative. Ali's class was generally very strongly framed (F+) and the lesson was weakly classified (C-). Ali's use of L1 was intensive and he made very limited use of L2, focusing on reading and translation. Ali's students also made limited use of L2.

8.2 Classroom experience

Ali is the oldest teacher of the four. He was in his late 40s at the time of the observation. He graduated from a public school and is a graduate of a public university in Saudi Arabia. Ali has a bachelor's degree in translation. His degree did not qualify him to teach and so he later gained a one year diploma in education in order to do so. At the time of the observation, he had been teaching English for 17 years and, therefore, unlike Fahad, he had experienced the curriculum change. Ali's education background was similar to that of Fahad as both did their initial degree in translation. However, Ali worked as a translator first, unlike Fahad who went straight into teaching. Ali also spent two years in Canada, where he earned his diploma in teaching English. As part of this diploma, he studied language teaching methodologies.

Both Fahad and Ali studied abroad and had the same qualification. Ali and Fahad's background in translation may impact their knowledge of their selves because their teacher background becomes part of their identity. As Byram (1998) argued, their studying abroad may also impact their knowledge of others. Between their education at home and abroad they may have developed intercultural and interpreting skills. This suggests there will be differences in terms of interpreting and relating between themselves and others. Ali may have greater knowledge of others and himself because he studied abroad longer. Ali presented good skills in interpreting and relating (which will be discussed further below) when he mentioned the students' needs, his students and his teaching methodology when compared to other places.

Ali's students were all approximately 14 years old. The classroom was large with around 30 tables. There were six students absent, leaving a class of 24 students. The tables were arranged in rows facing the front of the classroom, where Ali was located. This layout was very formal and the classroom relation between Ali and his students was similarly formal and hierarchical. There was no means of playing the cassette tapes that accompanied the textbook. The space for students to contribute was very limited as the students had to follow Ali's instructions throughout the lesson. There was no talking beyond what Ali allowed. Ali spent most of the class standing and sometimes walked around the room while he was teaching. He seemed comfortable in his role. Ali was calm but strict. On the other hand, his students were quieter than those in the other classes. The students looked at the teacher for most of the time and he seemed to be holding their attention. When the students wanted to participate, they raised their hand. As I observed, they were apparently expected not to talk or participate without permission from Ali. The students who participated were thus nominated by Ali and these generally only included the few sitting at the front. This kind of layout and format does not fit well with the CLT requirements that would suggest a more horizontal power structure. Considering this through the lens of Walsh (2013) theory, the time allocated to teacher talk was notably much higher than the time for students' talking (even more so than in the other cases). This pattern which is discussed further in the CLT section.

8.3 Textbook and teacher's book

This section uses the same theoretical framework as the other cases to consider the alignment of the pedagogy suggested by the teacher's book guidelines with CLT principles.

Ali was teaching third grade in middle school and, like Fahad, using the *Blast Off 5* textbook, also teaching Module 1, "Teen Trends", but Lesson A at the time of observation. The topic, "Let's Meet Up" (see Appendix D-4 and E-6) and was about friends talking on mobile phones. There were four activities in the lesson which included reading, grammar, listening and speaking.

The first activity, involving reading, was divided into sections A, B, C and D. The RD of section A involved two steps: asking the students to read the questions individually and then ask questions to other student partners to create a discussion. This section was weakly framed (F-) and weakly classified (C-) as there was limited control by the teacher in students' reading and discussing, with significant freedom for the students to talk about themselves.

There was also an intentionally weak boundary between these questions and their lives. The content involved talking about their daily experiences.

Activity A, Section B provided pictures and text of two people talking on the phone. It aimed to model how to structure a dialogue, and to exemplify the value and function of such dialogue. The textbook suggested that the class look at the dialogue, asking the students what they think about it and then asking them to listen to it, finally checking their answers, and reading it again. The RD of this activity was more F+; although there was no sequence suggested in the teacher's book, there was in the textbook. This was a controlled activity with a controlled sequence, more controlled than A. There were, however, some elements of C- from the pictures, with phones and pictures of the bedroom. This activity was meaningful because there was some purposeful context, but it was no opportunity for authentic communication. It focused on modelling how the language functions.

In Section C, the goal was to familiarise the students with aspects of the conversation in L2. The RD of this sequence was to ask the students to match phrases with their meanings and then check this. Finally, Section D aimed to ask students to identify specific information from the dialogue. The students were to do the activity individually and then the answers were to be checked in class. In general, this activity was designed as F+ as there was suggested sequencing and control by the teacher.

The second activity was on grammar. The goal was to present new uses of present simple and present progressive tenses. The RD of this activity was to first provide an example, then check the students' previous knowledge about this grammar and finally to present a second example. Then students were to be chosen to offer an example using this grammar, this was to be written on the board and then their attention drawn to the note explaining the particular use of stative verbs (that they do not take progressive tenses). Then they were referred to page 64 for the relevant grammar rules. Lastly, the students were to do the activity individually. This activity was F+ and C-. The sequence and control suggested the teacher was firmly in charge and there was a weaker boundary with the introduction of grammatical rules and terms to use in examples. There were no specialised concepts used that needed to be explained by the teacher. The grammar was treated out of context for most of the activity, while the activity was focused on grammatical accuracy. It was less meaningful because there was no purposeful context, and there was no opportunity for authentic communication.

The third activity in Section C was on listening. The goal of this activity was to allow the students to listen to an example dialogue and practice providing specific information from

their comprehension of the text. The listening was on a dialogue about sport. The RD involved asking the students to look at the picture of the dialogue context and noting what it is about. The teacher's book suggested accepting all answers in L2. Then, it suggested reading the sentences and checking the students' understanding. The teacher was to play the recording to let the students do the activity individually, and then share the answers with the whole class. This activity had controlled input. At the start, there was a degree of freedom to talk about what they thought and what the pictures showed and there was to be no correcting at this stage. The remaining stages were more F+. The idea of accepting all answers could be interpreted as pushing towards an approach that is more tolerant of the students' mistakes in the interests of communicative effort. This may potentially increase the space for the students to engage with the meaning with less focus on accuracy.

The last activity in Section D was on speaking. This activity encouraged discussion about everyday plans. The goal of this activity was to apply what had been learned in the lesson. According to the teacher's book, the students were asked to read the ideas in the box, then the teacher should explain how to use them. One student should be chosen to act out the dialogue as an example, then they were to work in pairs. This activity had F- and C-. It was the freest, most communicative activity suggested in this lesson. This activity could be interpreted as offering the greatest space for the students to use L2 more creatively and authentically. It pushed towards reducing the control of the teacher and increasing students' autonomy in their learning. This activity had been carefully scaffolded from the previous controlled input thus moving from F+ to F- and from C+ to C-.

In summary, this section has discussed the lesson as outlined in the teacher's book and the textbook to explore what kind of pedagogy was being suggested for Ali's class. Overall, the ID was about meeting with friends, while the RD involved activities that scaffolded relevant language points, gradually moving from F+ with controlled input, to F-, until the last activity when there was much more freedom to use L2 to discuss their daily lives. In terms of classification (C), this also moved from C+ to C-, starting with a strong boundary between the students' lives and moving to the final activity where the boundary between the content and the students' lives was weaker. It was suggested that the teacher should be in control, but there was some space made for the students to use L2 to attempt controlled output following controlled input. The last activity was relatively F- compared to the rest of the activities as it provided more freedom to use L2 to create meanings. Overall, the lesson suggested by the teacher's book and textbook was controlled but worked towards a communicative exercise, with a careful balance between accuracy and fluency.

8.4 Ali's classroom - observations

This section describes Ali's classroom and explore his interaction with the students. The analysis in this section uses Walsh (2011) "lesson modes" to unpack Ali's lesson (see Chapter Three). In this section, I consider both observations of Ali's lesson and the interviews undertaken with him before and after the observed class. Ali's class was marked by a visible pedagogy and F+ (Bernstein, 1990). The interviews provided his reasoning for this approach.

8.4.1 Lesson summary

Ali's focus for this lesson was on reading and pronunciation. Ali began by exchanging greetings with the students, asked who was absent in the last lesson then reviewed the homework and absences from the last week. He then moved to lecturing about the importance of preparing homework and revising. He asked the students to open their books and move to the main lesson. He began this part by reviewing the previous lesson, then introduced the lesson for the day. He lectured them more about revising, then got the students to read the material for the first activity silently but told them to move their lips while reading (to compare the sounds), emphasising the importance of accurate pronunciation. He then called on a few students to read out loud, while correcting any pronunciation errors. He asked them to imitate his reading twice, then again noted the importance of reading "correctly" in order to pass (exams).

Ali stopped the students intermittently and explained the "sound rules". He frequently asked them to imitate him and to "translate" selected words in their notebook. He continued for the rest of the activity with this process of reading, translating and correcting pronunciation, with teacher interruptions for explanations of "rules" as well as for corrections. At the end of reading the passage he asked if anyone had any questions but nobody responded and he mentioned that there would be a pop quiz on this lesson in their next class. This activity focused entirely on reading and writing the textbook passage. He asked them to memorise the passage, then asked for the next round of reading the same passage. He then moved to reading silently for 10 minutes, then nominated one student to read, then another. These readings again involved teacher interruptions for corrections of pronunciation and grammar mistakes. The last student to read was held up as an example to the rest of the class. He ended by mentioning the quiz again and the need for accuracy.

As described above, Ali's class focused entirely on the first activity in the lesson, meaning he did not progress to some of the more communicative parts of lesson suggested by the

teacher's book. He also drew a lot more out of these early activities than was suggested, frequently breaking down words and writing explanations of how to pronounce words on the board. He repeatedly got the students to read the passage, telling them, "If you manage to read successfully, you will be successful [pass the exam]".

8.4.2 Lesson phases

Like Fahad, Ali began in managerial mode and then shifted into skills and systems mode and strategy, with a focus on pronunciation and breaking down understanding. He had a particularly strong focus on how to spell and pronounce words. Throughout the class, he made relatively limited explicit use of managerial mode, which suggests he had strongly established routines with this class. The greetings were all in Arabic and, indeed, this high level of implicit control meant there was a lack of opportunity for managerial mode to be expressed through the use of L2.

The following extract is taken from Ali's initial lecture to the students:

Extract 8.1

...guys this week is a serious starting point. Absence and attendance is a serious starting point this week that includes lesson, tests and homework. Pay attention to us. As I said last week, whoever wants to improve his level must start from today. What did we say yesterday or last week? There are two matters which we must start with. Whoever wants to be distinguished must prepare the lesson previously and secondly, must revise the previous lesson ten or fifteen minutes inside the class. It is very simple not only for English, but also for all subjects. This is for the person who wants to be distinguished, they must do this. (Ali is opening his books) The problem is that the student will forget his lessons if they don't study them except tomorrow morning in the school (A. Obs)

The above extract shows that in some ways Ali's managerial mode differed from that of Fahad. He tended to adopt a longer, more lecturing mode of address compared to the other teacher. This kind of lecturing mode was only observed at the end of Talal's lesson, however, Ali used it throughout his entire class. This longer lecturing form of managerial mode did not allow for the short L2 phrases that Fahad used. In Extract 8.1 Ali defined what he considered to be good student and effective learning at the start of the lesson. He described a formula for learning that he teaches them: "must revise the previous lesson ten or fifteen minutes inside the class". A lot of Ali's teaching revolved around this idea of how to learn

rather than learning in itself. The instruction outlined in the following extract was given emphasis throughout the class.

Extract 8.2

Ali: Why do you put your finger on the word?

S1: To make it clear.

Ali: In order to increase your attention on pronouncing the word. Hold the pen and write down your notes. We would like to write notes relating to the reading (A. Obs)

In the above extract, Ali is in managerial mode, where he is not only managing the classroom, but also the way the students learn. He referred to this technique of following the text being read out with their finger as to how to learn pronunciation. The interaction in this mode involved extended teacher turns with a large amount of teacher talking. If we compare the amount of time that Ali talked for and the amount that the students talked in this class, it is clear that Ali was talking for a large majority of the time. Most of Ali's talking time was focused on reading and writing, because, as he noted explicitly in an interview, writing "is very important" and "they need it [reading] more than any other thing". Ali has thus clearly deferred speaking skills to a less important position.

In addition to his lecturing mode, there were IRF chains in Ali's materials mode.

Extract 8.3

Ali: What is the first line?**I**

Student: *Hello*. **R**

Ali: The first line is *hello*, what is next? This word is Ali, what is next?

F/I

S1: *Hi*.

Ali: Hi. What is the first letter? Don't you know the first letter?**I**

S2: Errr **R**

Ali: What is the second letter? **I**

S1: *O* **R**

Ali: The first letter is *H*, after that *O*, then *W*. How can you pronounce the letter *H*? Sha no it is pronounced *how*. The students on the left, what did you get to?

What is the first letter of the second word? What is it? **F/I**

S2: *H* **R**

Ali: Then? How is *H* pronounced in the word? Haa and the letter after it is *O*.

F/I

S3: *O* **R**

Ali: That is correct, HO. Is the letter after it W or M? How is W pronounced in the word? Waw, so the whole word is pronounced haw, *how* **F**

The above extract is reflective of the interaction features (Walsh, 2011) that Ali made the most use of. Ali initiated a question, “what is the first line”, then the students responded to this question by reading “*hi*”. Then he used turn completion by reading “*hi*” when the students did not continue. This was followed by a referential question to carry on focusing their attention on the activity using materials mode – “this word is Ali, what is next”. When one student read it incorrectly, Ali immediately repaired the answer by clarifying the letters of the word to correct any wrong sounds, words and phrases. Ali’s feedback showed an intolerance for mistakes. He did not provide extended wait times to let the students explore and search for meaning.

The last line of Extract 8.3 could be considered through the perspective of cultural understanding of ICC of Byram et al. (2002); they note that the understanding of one aspect of an accent is often regarded as the correct version. Similarly, it was notable that for Ali, much more than in the other cases, there was a clear right and wrong accent, which may be the reason for the lack of classroom context mode. Classroom context mode would have provided more space for the students to use L2 to express themselves.

The following extract further illustrates the emphasis on correctness in Ali’s class.

Extract 8.4

Student: Ali do you wake to.

Ali: Want not wait

S3: Comee

Ali: Is that E at the end pronounced?

S1: No.

Ali: Come (correcting the student’s mistake)

Student: Sorry I am a but.

Ali: Bit

Student: A bit bosy

Ali: Busy

(Student carries on reading)

Ali: Who can complete. Yes, Omar go ahead.

S4: I fin...

Ali: I finished (A. Obs)

The above extract illustrates the dominance of direct repair in Ali's pedagogy, with constant repair of the students' incorrect reading of the word. Ali focused on repairing the sound through teacher interruption, interrupting every time the student read wrongly or took too long. This again reinforces the last line of the previous extract, where he was attempting to fit the students' English-speaking into a very specific form. He repaired every mistake, and notably these all related to the pronunciation of the word. There was little to no space for the students to experiment. This can be interpreted as intensive repair and a kind of skills and system approach that was focused on sound, which involved removing the passage from its communicative context and using it to serve his own focus. Ali's method was thus clearly focused on accuracy over fluency.

His further engagement in skills and systems mode involved further explanations of the following kind:

Extract 8.5

Ali: Translate it because later on we will base a rule on it. What did Ali say? He said, *I finished*, what is the shaa sound? There is no shaa in English, but if the two letters (s+h) get together, they shall pronounce shaa. How is it pronounced?
(A. Obs)

The character of this skills and systems mode was focused on translations and correct pronunciation, breaking down words to build up the language. This approach is not aligned with CLT aspects of learning meaningfully and communicatively as this approach involved taking L2 out of its context and in that way reducing the attention to meaning. This approach could be considered to align more with the GTM, with its characteristics of translation and L2 out of context (see Chapter One). In his second Interview, Ali mentioned that:

Extract 8.6

I want him to pay attention to his mistakes. I don't get him disappointed, I encourage him. I give them the plan. Read this passage with yourself and after a while I read it. In the second stage, I read for him and tell him to concentrate and put his finger on the word in order to increase his concentration (A. Int.2)

The above extract shows Ali's conscious emphasis on mistakes as learning opportunities. A lot of Ali's modelling of mechanisms by which to learn become mechanisms to ensure accuracy.

Related to this point, there was another moment where Ali dealt with mistakes:

Extract 8.7

Ali: There is something strange with "tonight" here, what do we have in this word quickly guys?

S1: The G

Ali: What about the G? The "G" letter is not pronounced.

...

We must know that there are some letters that are not pronounced. Put a small X by the G. The small X to help you to know letter that is not pronounced (A. Obs)

Extract 8.8

S4: Finished the work yesterday, why I will be doing it tonight

Ali: The letter G that has an X under it is not pronounced (A. Obs)

In Extracts 8.8, Ali outlined a mechanism for learning – placing an X under silent letters. A few minutes later, a student pronounced a silent letter and Ali reminded the student to put across under the silent letter. Ali seemed to have limited patience for students who didn't learn in exactly the way he prescribed. As he noted at another point in the class in the class: "stick to the steps that I said to you".

In summary, Ali's lesson moved between materials, managerial and skills and systems mode. This use of skills and systems mode involved correcting nearly all mistakes and translating words out of context. Managerial mode was used to cue reading turns and to explain how to learn. There was a lack of classroom context in Ali's classroom, however, which seemed to be aligned with Ali's lesson being far from communicative. Compared to Fahad's class, Ali's class made greater use of skills and systems mode to break down words and correct sounds with a focus on rules on how to pronounce sounds.

8.4.3 The instructional and regulative discourses

This section will explore the instructional discourse (ID) and regulative discourse (RD) in classroom by considering the elements of C+- and F+- based on Bernstein (1990) theory.

This section aims to compare Ali's actual pedagogy with the approach suggested by the teacher's book /textbook.

As Extract 8.1 above illustrates, Ali used very C+ and very F+ for most of the class. With regard to C, the knowledge Ali taught was specialised with a strong boundary between the students' lifeworld and the content of Ali's lesson: primarily the correct pronunciation of words. This is despite the fact that the text was about a dialogue between friends. For example, in his instruction on how to break words into syllables, such as "yesterday" to "yes, ter and day", Ali's version of the instructional discourse had the effect of creating a very strong boundary between the students' lives and possible meanings and the words in the text became increasingly meaningless.

Extract 8.9

Ali: *Finished mine yesterday. Yesterday is a long word, how can we read it? Quickly guys, I won't write these words again. How to divide these words or how to pronounce these words consisting of nine or ten letters.*

S1: Into three

Ali: We can divide them as much as we can read, but not more than three letters, do not forget. Yes ter day. How many divisions?

All students: Three

Ali: There are three divisions. What is the meaning of *yesterday*? It means the day before. Good (A. Obs)

With regard to the students' degrees of freedom or control in the classroom, this was very limited; Ali controlled the entire sequence. Thus, the observed lesson was F+. He was in charge of who read and who spoke when. Ali dominated for the full sequence of the lesson. Considering the teacher guide, it can be interpreted that Ali's class did not engage in the suggested activities, but instead applied his preferred approach. He noted in the interview that:

Extract 8.10

If the student does not build on the main basics of grammar, he will not understand in the future or will face problems... The problem in this textbook [is that it] doesn't have grammar (A. Int.1)

The above extract suggests that grammar was the main focus of Ali's approach. He considered grammar as a kind of "foundation building" for the use of English. Perceiving its

communicative approach as a limitation, therefore, Ali used the textbook as a prop to support his ideal approach. In his recontextualization, he changed the suggested RD to his own RD to compensate for the lack of grammar focus in the lesson.

Overall, compared to the lesson suggested by the teacher's book and textbook, Ali's actual pedagogy was very different. The teacher's book lesson suggested scaffolded, controlled and communicative activities with a balance between accuracy and fluency. There was much more freedom in this than in Ali's actual approach. In the teacher's book, the lesson was divided into four scaffolded activities, while Ali limited the lesson to one. The teacher's book attempted to balance accuracy and fluency, while Ali focused on accuracy over fluency. Ali did not follow the RD of the teacher's book but instead used his RD with heavy use of translations, correcting all mistakes. His RD involved breaking down words, causing them to lose contextual meaning and the loss of the textbook and teacher's book's sequence. Ali's focus on reading and writing meant there was no attention given to encouraging communication as all spoken English involved reading from the textbook.

8.5 CLT in the lesson

This section explores to what degree there was a communicative approach in Ali's lesson based on the degree of freedom given to the students, the accuracy and fluency balance, productiveness, meaningfulness and authenticity and how the class was scaffolded (Brown (2014). To do so I will use the transcript of Ali's lesson and his interviews.

Ali's pedagogy was often lacking meaningfulness, as noted above, and as Extract 8.9 illustrated clearly in the section above. Ali divided and broke down words as one of his main methods of instruction. This approach risks a loss of meaning because it takes the words out of the text's context and even removes their meaning from them by dividing them into parts. Ali did not provide the suggested space for potential communication, such as discussing the picture. There was also no space for the students to search for meaning. There was a very low tolerance for mistakes and a strong focus on accuracy. He did not encourage the students to use L2 to talk or communicate with other students in L2, despite the topic of the unit. When considering this approach alongside the CLT approach, it was not aligned with CLT's attention to meaningfulness in a communicative context.

However, occasionally, in the IRF chains, Ali did encourage the students to search for the correct meaning to some degree.

Extract 8.11

Ali: Here it is, *some..thing*. So what is the meaning of *something*? What is the meaning of *some*? **I**

S2: *Some* **R**

Ali: They are two words meaning some of the thing. After it there is a question mark. *May be... May be... May be come around my house?* What is the meaning of *house* here? **F/I**

S5: Maybe it comes... **R**

Ali: No... no... (responding to two students) yes Thamer? **F/I**

Ali: The word *house*, what does it mean? The word *house* means home. **I** (A. Obs.)

The above extract, however, also provides another example of how potential communicativeness became less communicative. Despite allowing the students to search for meaning to some degree, he also used this moment to break down the words, focusing on word division and translation to L1. Therefore, he changed the potentially meaningful activity to limited meaningful instruction.

Ali also engaged to some degree with the aims of meaningfulness in communicative practice, noting that:

Extract 8.12

In Arabic...or in the students' culture, if there is a cultural ... I present it culturally. ... I mean when I explain the grammar I use some examples from Saudi culture such as local names... and... some famous people in Saudi Arabia... (A. Int.1)

This could be interpreted in view of the intercultural communicative competence of Byram et al. (2002). In that theory, knowledge (*savior*) of another's background and culture as well as one's own culture is necessary, creating knowledge of one's self and others. There was an element of skills of interacting and relating between the two, with openness about others as well as skills in interpreting the culture. In Ali's case he reflected an understanding and awareness of his own culture. He mentioned the need for the use of L1 based on Saudi culture. Not only did Ali present good awareness of Saudi culture, but also of others. In between the Saudi pedagogic culture and recommended CLT approach, Ali reflected skills in relating his teaching with Saudi culture, highlighting the need or usefulness of

meaningfulness in this regard. However, this was not reflected in the use of discovery and interaction because he did not implement them in his classroom practice.

Like Fahad, Ali brought in external material to teach the grammar rules that he wanted to convey:

Extract 8.13

Past simple and present simple... I bring papers other than the textbook and copy and distribute them and I also test them. I test them....a pop quiz... for the students...I test them about the grammar. I present this grammar to them in detailed explanations (A. Int.1)

This practice reflected Ali's reservations about the current curriculum, which were similar to the reservations that Fahad also expressed. It is interesting that both applied the same response: using external supplementary materials to support their own preferred ID.

Extract 8.14

In the external papers I use to explain for them, bring for them a rule of grammar, the explained ones. I find many of these in the internet. I print them out for them. If they are understood 100% I go back to the activity (A. Int.1)

Ali reasoned his supplementing of the curriculum as follows:

Extract 8.15

The students need to know the grammar as there is no time if they have exams. When (the textbook) only presents the grammar in sentences how should I explain to the students... it is a very bad mistake (A. Int.1)

The reasons he focused on were "time" and "exams", arguing that these grammar points provided suitable ways and priorities to fit into the allocated time and meet the requirements for the scheduled exams. This focus on exams will be discussed further below but it is interesting to note here that these are the same problems that Fahad mentioned. This focus and constraint can be related to the pedagogic nexus of Hufton and Elliott (2000) and the students and teachers' expectations of what will be in the exams. The testing system in this Saudi pedagogic nexus thereby seemed to hinder actual learning in preference for what is testable (which will be discussed further below).

Both within Ali's lesson and in the interviews, there was also a clear focus on scaffolded learning.

Extract 8.16

Today, we have a reading lesson. How can we improve reading? Stick to the steps that I said to you, what are these steps? What shall we do now? today, we have a new lesson (A. Obs.)

Extract 8.17

There is no sequence. There is no whole package that is studied well with its own examples. Before, I remember in the past, the textbooks have grammar and even each grammar has two activities. Different skills inside the two activities, all these two activities about the grammar... but now they are not available. Now they are integrated and mixed in messy way (A.Int.1)

There was clearly scaffolding provided in the teacher's book in terms of learning elements in the lesson that would allow the students to be supported in the activity when the class became more communicative. However, Ali's scaffolding or "sequence" mainly focused on building accuracy and grammar. This could be interpreted as an emphasis on CALP. The previous extract shows that he was emphasising grammatical competence as the basic competence over fluency. He mentioned that a lack of grammar will create difficulty in using L2. However, Ali removed the later parts, meaning that the reduced sequence became less communicative and did not benefit from the scaffolded series of activities. His class did not progress to become more communicative as the teacher's book suggested.

When asked what he understood by CLT he emphasised the role of the teacher "who makes the idea easier", which suggests that he was not familiar with CLT principles or its reframing of language learning. This high level of student dependence on the teacher was visible throughout the observation. This could be related to Ali's pedagogy telling the students very explicitly how and what to learn. Within Ali's professional practice, grammar was the key element and it was the role of the teacher to explain how and what to learn:

Extract 8.18

It includes explaining the grammar, explaining the grammar. There must be a teacher who communicates with the student for explaining the grammar. This is a communication between the two ... The teacher makes the idea easier. The student alone will be tired (A. Int.1)

His assessment of CLT was essentially that it was too difficult for this level of student. He also noted that it is “very exhausting”, suggesting it requires more effort than the traditional pedagogy:

Extract 8.18

But this method is too hard... is hard, especially in the first grades in teaching the English Language, which middle grade is considered. It is very hard and very exhausting (A. Int.1)

Ali’s pedagogy was comprehension focused and he repeatedly emphasised the need to “explain” points to the students. “The explanation may be is clear for me but as for the student... I think that the student is lost.” When asked about the new textbook, Ali expressed strong reservations about its presentation, noting that “there are small pieces here and there”.

Ali expressed a high degree of discomfort with the textbook and its embedded communicative approach. This was also clear from his pedagogic approach in the classroom. His pedagogy was traditional and entailed explicit instructions, while a communicative approach could be considered as more process-oriented. He noted concern at instances when “they [the students] didn’t know what the rule is” and clearly preferred explicit presentation of grammar and pronunciation “rules”, thus shifting the ID to a more C+ ID of language rules.

8.6 L1 and L2 use in the classroom

This section explores the usage of Arabic (L1) and English (L2) in Ali’s class. To do so, I will use Shulman (1987) theory of teacher knowledge and Bernstein (2003) visible and invisible pedagogy. The data will be drawn from interviews and observation. As noted above, for most of the class, Ali limited any flow of conversation by correcting the students’ mistakes. As such, there was no space for the students to experiment with L2 or any fluidity in the use of L2: “Now Abdullah you can start reading. Listen to the reading from Abdullah. It is natural to commit mistakes, but it is unnatural to repeat the same mistake committed by your colleague because I responded and corrected him.” Ali also tended to use Arabic in the classroom for all talk except when reading L2 text from the textbook. He explained his reasons in his first interview:

Extract 8.19

I will speak in Arabic. ... I use the method based on policies of the curriculum, although, to be honest, I am opposed to the methods in the textbook and the sequence of the ideas, a lot, especially this current curriculum. The previous curriculum or the curriculum taught before it probably, was the best of, best curriculum, which I taught for nine years. (A. Int.1)

Based on Shulman's theory (discussed in Chapter Three), Ali used L1 as the PCK to teach CK. He expressed his reservations about the use of L2 in the pedagogy, noting that he does not agree with the teacher's book, which encourages the use of L2 as much as possible. He seemed to be suggesting here that he is following the previous curriculum, which aligned with his PCK.

His reasons for his strong belief in the usage of L1 to teach L2 were as follows:

Extract 8.20

I certainly depend on participation with the students greatly ... In the middle grade, three quarters of my speech must be in Arabic language... I tried to speak half of my speech, fifty fifty, in English language, but I couldn't ... as I had to translate. I don't depend on leaving a space to the student to understand (by himself), as if the student doesn't understand directly from the teacher, I think that he will not work hard himself to understand and learn anything... even translate the concepts [vocabulary]. I must translate (A. Int.1)

This extract shows Ali's inflexibility in terms of increasing the amount of use of L2. He seemed to be suggesting that, in lower levels, speaking mostly in L2 did not work with these students. However, it is worth considering how much practice this is based on. Ali's perspective on the usage of L2 was similar to that of Fahad. They both seemed to base their teaching on a set of beliefs about what will and will not work and about how speaking in L2 is meant to be done in a communicative approach.

There is a close relationship between teacher beliefs, teacher background and teacher practice (Borg (2017)). Although this study is only considering beliefs that the teachers state and those that can be deduced by the researcher (see Chapter Three on teacher beliefs). Ali explicitly outlined his beliefs about using L2 and L1, as in Extracts 8.9 and 8.10. The two extracts show how Ali used L1 and L2. In Extract 8.9 he noted the need to use a lot of L1 and in Extract 8.10 he highlighted that when L2 is used it then has to be translated. When

linking these beliefs with Ali's background (translation), this suggests they had a strong impact on Ali's pedagogic practice. He is teaching the way he himself learned when he was a student. His background as a translator also seems to be having an impact when considering the intensive translation that he believes is necessary. In this regard, both Ali and Fahad's background may have impacted on their beliefs about speaking in L2, as they firmly maintained the idea that this approach would not work for their students. Perhaps the competence that Ali was teaching was that suited to becoming a translator.

Another point to consider is the clash between the pedagogic nexus of Saudi Arabia and the expectations of students' learning, and the ideal CLT use of L2 in the textbook and the teacher's book. In Ali's case translation informs his PCK to make the subject accessible and to make it memorable for exams, which will be discussed in the next section.

8.7 Assessment practices

This section explores the assessment practices in Ali's class using the three message system of Bernstein (1990). The data will be drawn from the interviews with Ali and his classroom observation.

Ali's lesson was explicitly focused on preparing the students for assessment, given that he made frequent reference to "success" in his talk with students, by which he meant passing exams: "Whoever reads correctly will guarantee success", "no one will pass except those who read correctly. The one who reads correctly will pass." He mentioned tests explicitly and outlined ways to pass these tests that often related to the mechanisms and his "rules":

Extract 8.21

You know, this year, many students failed because they were very bad in reading. I told them several times to learn reading and gave them lessons several times, but there was no good result. Finally, I had to fail him. He went to the second section of the exam after he tried to read. Now, the first step is to focus on reading with me. If you manage to read correctly, you will be successful (A. Obs.)

In Extract 8.11 Ali outlines his criteria for how to pass by reading correctly. He explained how to pass, giving an example of a failed student as a warning, suggesting that incorrect reading will result in a fail. This can be related to Ali's actual pedagogy practice:

Extract 8.22

...the most important skill which I concentrate on is reading. It is a basic matter, especially in the prep stage. They need it more than any other thing (A. Int.1)

Extract 8.6 and 8.11 show that reading is at the heart of Ali's language learning. His references to "success" do not mean success in learning to communicate in English, but rather success in passing exams. Thus Ali's understanding of student success is passing the exams and that of CLT is allowing the students learn L2 to communicate are significantly different. Ali's pedagogy was using memorisation and translation to achieve what he aimed for, which was accurate reading.

In Ali's case, there was use of formative and summative assessments. Both kinds of assessment targeted marks for 'correct' reading in particular. Ali inspired his students to "correct reading" with the mention of marks. He explained how to get marks and regularly motivated the students by making reference to the assessment:

Extract 8.23

The student who does not know this information shall write it down on the page because you must write notes on the page of the passage that you read, not in the notebook because you must see it when you revise (A. Obs.)

Extract 8.24

there are nearly five marks. In the class, there is a test in the first month and in the second month. In the first month, we take three or four passages. I identify five marks for them. by the end of the month, I record the marks of the first month and divide and multiply the four marks (A. Int.2)

Ali also regularly made explicit comparisons between students as a way to encourage and inspire them.

Extract 8.25

I want all of you boys to read like Thamer. Thamer and Abdullah will get full marks.", Ok, boys, we have Samer. Today, the boys who read, Samer, Abdullah and Khalid will get full marks (A. Obs.)

He discussed this approach in an interview:

Extract 8.26

In the next lesson, if the other students read correctly, they will get full marks. They will read with me and say that they took full marks with Mr Ali. The student will be pleased with that. I must encourage and distinguish them. I never ignore them by just thanking them. I write the full marks that they took today (A. Obs.)

By considering Bernstein (1990) three message system, relating to curriculum, pedagogy and assessment, it can be understood that assessment can powerfully direct the focus during the lesson, influencing the pedagogy (RD) and what counts as the curriculum (ID). In terms of the authority and validity of knowledge asserted in the distributive rule of Bernstein (2003), Ali selected specific reading to include in order to transmit the knowledge. This is shown in Extract 8.13 where he selects words and sentences and asked the students to write them down to revise later. In terms of evaluative rules, he was responsible for what counted as learning. In Ali's case, he encouraged memorising texts for the formative and summative assessments. Ali distributed specific knowledge to his students. The evaluative rule in Ali's case was very different from the intended curriculum as suggested in the teacher's book. What counted as learning in Ali's pedagogy was memorising, while in the curriculum the assessment involved performing after controlled practice in the lesson. Given that it was Ali who would assess the students, this mode of assessment was very powerful and pushed the pedagogy towards what Ali counted as learning. The memorising assessment thus has an impact on what and how Ali taught. This also impacted the recontextualising as Ali selected specific aspects to transfer and his own pedagogy, informed by his own preferences and PCK, became very different from the lesson guide.

8.8 Conclusion

The lesson guide and the textbook were generally C- and F- in this case. The C was generally C- as there was no specialist content; instead, the content related to daily life and the grammar did not make use of technical concepts. The suggested class went from F+ to F- until the end, providing the most freedom to use L2. Ali's actual pedagogy had a very F+, however. There was no space for the students to use L2 or to have control over their learning. Ali's pedagogy was not communicative and he was very teacher-centred, focusing on accuracy and translation over fluency and meaning. Ali almost entirely used L1 throughout his lesson was in it and use of L2 was limited to reading. Ali did not follow the lesson scaffolding and he only did one activity in the entire time of the lesson. Ali used IRFs in L1. There was no pair work or space for the students to use L2.

Ali was not familiar with CLT concept and he mentioned that CLT is difficult, exhausting and not suitable for low level students. He suggested it has no clear sequence and not enough focus on grammar. CLT clashed with Ali's perceived role, which was highly focused on accuracy and learning to pass exams. In terms of L1 and L2, while CLT encourages heavy use of L2 to communicate meaningfully, in this class L2 use was limited to reading and translations and there was no space for the students to formulate L2. The use of L2 was also out of context and made technical by breaking it down. This different RD and PCK drove Ali to be far from a CLT approach. In relation to the three message system, future assessment had a very strong impact on his pedagogy and curriculum as both the assessment and Ali's class focused on accuracy and modelling a successful learner. Ali's pedagogy was entirely focused on pronunciation to meet assessment goals.

Chapter 9: Tariq Case

9.1 Introduction

This fourth case study chapter focuses on Tariq's case in relation to his use of communicative language teaching (CLT). To do so, it explores the textbook/ teacher's book, with its instructional and regulative discourse to consider the CLT in the suggested lesson. It then addressed Tariq's pedagogy in the actual classroom, his instructional and regulative discourse and his usage of L1 and L2 to compare this with what in the textbook and the teacher's book suggests in order to understand to what degree Tariq's case is communicative. Tariq's class had generally stronger framing (F+) and weaker classification (C-). Tariq used a lot of L2 to talk to the students, but the level of student response in L2 was much lower.

9.2 Classroom experience

Tariq is the youngest teacher of the four. He was 30 years old at the time of the observation. Tariq is a graduate of a public university with a degree in English language teaching. This degree was sufficient for him to go straight into teaching (see Chapter One). Tariq has been teaching in the school for less than five years and he has only taught in this school. Therefore, similar to Talal and Fahad, he has not experienced the change to the new curriculum in Saudi Arabia in his teaching career. Of the four teachers, Tariq was the only one who said he did not mind whether we spoke in English or Arabic in the interview. While we decided to conduct the interview in Arabic, during the interview, he continually switched between Arabic and English. This will emerge throughout this chapter. This is reflective of how confident Tariq was in his English and this confidence seems to have affected his teaching as he used English much more in his class than the other three teachers.

The students in this class were 14-year-old boys. The class was relatively small. The means of playing the cassette tapes that accompanied the textbook was provided by Tariq himself by using his own tape recorder. There were 25 tables and 20 students in the observed class. Although the tables were all arranged, as in the other cases, facing the front of the class where Tariq was located, the dynamic between Tariq and his students was very friendly and the class was less strict and generally more informal than that of the other teachers. The children raised their hands to participate, but they also called "teacher teacher" in L1, many students spoke at the same time and Tariq did not seem to mind the noise. He often called the students "*sir*" in L2 and he brought in sweets for the students. There was a lot of laughter in the class. Tariq was confident and the relationship between him and his students seemed

very relaxed. The class in general was much louder than the other classrooms. The number of students who were interacting with Tariq overall throughout the class was relatively larger than in the other classes. Most of the students were interested and active.

This kind of relaxed and friendly environment may provide the potential to create the less hierarchical structure that CLT requires. When compared with Fahad, Talal and Ali's classes, Tariq's class tended to be relaxed and informal, which has the potential for students to talk more freely. However, in Tariq's class the students still generally only spoke when designated by the teacher. Therefore Tariq's was actually quite similar to the other classes as the students needed permission to talk, which will be discussed later in the chapter.

Unlike Fahad who has experience abroad, Tariq, similar to Talal, was educated entirely in Saudi Arabia. If we compare Tariq with the teachers who studied abroad, this could perhaps suggest that the different learning may have impacted the teacher's pedagogy in an unexpected way. Tariq and Fahad did not study abroad, while Talal and Ali did. In one anecdote, Ali mentioned that his pedagogy worked better than the Canadian teacher's method with Saudi students he encountered when living abroad. However, Tariq immersed himself in American culture through forms of media. This immersion seemed to have a stronger impact when compared to the teachers who studied abroad, who, in some ways, seemed to have their belief in the traditional pedagogy reinforced while studying abroad.

9.3 Textbook and teacher's book

This section uses the same theoretical framework as the three previous cases to consider the alignment of the pedagogy suggested by the teacher's book guidelines with CLT principles.

Tariq was teaching the second grade in middle school. He was teaching *Full Blast 3* (Module 1, "Hello", Lesson C). The lesson topic was entitled "My Style" (see Appendix D-5 and E-7). This focus suggests an emphasis on an informal use of language, aligning with the basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) discussed by Cummins (1979). The topic was more conversational than academic and could provide the students with language for everyday use. BICS is opposed to the more formal cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) in Cummins' work. There were three elements of BICS that were notable. The first is that the content of the lesson was vocabulary related to clothes and accessories, so informal language. Second, the lesson entailed a dialogue between two people about their clothes and accessories, which is again related to everyday language. Third, there was context embedded reflected in the listening dialogue between the two and communicating about something

relevant to the everyday. This was therefore more fluency than accuracy oriented. The lesson was about communication and using L2 to communicate. In terms of grammar, it focused on the present progressive and present simple, but this was within context to practice the use of L2. With regard to the RD, the lesson was divided into five activities, discussed in detail below.

The first activity called “vocabulary” suggested listening and repeating. The teacher’s book outlined the goal of presenting clothes and accessories. It suggested asking the students to name the items they already know in L2. Then it suggested that the teacher ask the students to name each picture in L2. Finally, the teacher was to help the students with unknown words by relating these words to a context. It suggested playing a recording and asking the students to repeat what they heard. The recording listed items of casual wear clothes, such as a jumper and shirt, as well as more traditional Saudi wear, such as an *abaya* and *thoub*. This activity ended by suggesting talking to the students and asking them which of these items they have. The aim of this activity was to present vocabulary for clothes and accessories, which is aligned with the meaningfulness and authenticity of the CLT approach. The RD of this activity was a scaffolded sequence with controlled input and little space for use of L2, which was limited to reading and repeating. This activity was F+ and C- as the teacher controlled the sequence, but the items listed in L2 were related to their lives, such as a *thoub*, which they will wear regularly.

The second activity was divided into three sections: A, B and C. A involved reading and the goal of this activity was to let the students predict dialogue, consider the dialogue structure and vocabulary and its function within a context. The teacher was to clarify unknown words at the end of the reading, and then instigate pair work and acting out the dialogue. Section B also involved reading and answering, with the aim of getting the students to practise finding specific information. This section did not have an information gap because the answers were in the dialogue. Section C was about reading dialogue and choosing answers, with the aim of getting the students to practise with verbal and visual prompts. The first two of these three were F+ and C-. This was F+ because the sequence depended on teacher control. It was C- because there was nothing technical in the learning, which focused on speaking about clothes and accessories. There was no opportunity for authentic communication, but the language was meaningful. It was meaningful because there was context: there was a dialogue about clothes and accessories and the questions and answers were embedded in the context of the dialogue.

Section C was more F- and C- than the previous two. This section gave more freedom to the students to use their own language to describe the pictures and to choose a correct answer. There were no correct answers and students were simply asked to share their answers with the class. This section was also meaningful and allowed them to use the language more productively. Across the three exercises, there was a clear sense of scaffolding: A predicted the context, B presented the function and structure of the language and C ended with practicing it using the material from the previous two sections to describe clothes.

The third activity focused on grammar. The goal of this activity was to teach the present progressive, to let the students distinguish between present simple and present progressive and use this grammar in context. The teacher was asked to refer to the grammar table in the first part to explain the present progressive, to discuss the formation and to note time expressions using the present progressive; the students were directed to an exercise. The second section, focusing on present simple and present progressive, suggested using example questions that related to the students' world, then asking the students when to use these tenses to elicit the students' answers and refer them to the second table of grammar, then let the students do the activity individually. This section was F+ and C-. It was F+ because the controlled sequence allowed no room for the students to be in charge of their learning. In terms of C, there was no classified concept of terms, and the lesson only involved distinguishing the grammar of present progressive and present simple as well as the time expressions. This section was accuracy focused. It had some personalised suggestions and was also personalised and meaningful as they talked and wrote about themselves.

The last activity had two sections: speaking and writing. The goal of the first was to let the students practise using the structure, function and vocabulary presented in the lesson. This involved the students working in pairs or small groups and the teacher was asked to walk around to provide help where necessary. The goal of the second section was to write a paragraph about clothes in L2. They were to be given time to write the paragraph and then some students should be chosen to read theirs. This activity had F- and C- as there was space for the students to discuss their clothes, reflecting personalisation and suggesting that the boundary between the activity and their lives was weak. This activity was scaffolded from the previous activities. It built on the learning of vocabulary, function, structure and the form related to clothes and accessories. It was used to create controlled output following the controlled input of the previous activities.

In summary, generally, the class outlined in the textbook and teacher's book was relatively similar to those of Ali and Fahad and more communicative than that of Talal. This because

Tariq's lesson had an element of focus on using L2 to communicate. The class was also scaffolded with input and output at the end to support L2 in practice. The teacher's book suggested a slow input of knowledge in L2, scaffolding and building towards a more challenging and less F+ activity at the end.

9.4 Tariq's classroom - observations

This section describes Tariq's lesson. To do so, this section will use Walsh (2011) theory to explore the interactions and "lesson modes", which include managerial, classroom context, skills and systems and materials mode to unpack Tariq's lesson (see Chapter Three). The data used in this section includes extracts from Tariq's lesson and interviews. Tariq's lesson had a visible pedagogy and a large amount of managerial mode in L2. There was limited space given to the students in the classroom context. The lesson mainly moved between materials and managerial mode.

9.5 Lesson summary

Tariq conversed with the students throughout the class and often spoke to them in L2. He began greeting them in L1, then in L2 and then discussed the absences and homework from the previous week, providing feedback in L2 to selected students in addition to his written notes. The students were gathered close to Tariq's seat at this point. They then moved to their seats and to the activities after Tariq asked them to open the textbook. He joked in L2 with the students and then played the recording for them twice, consulting them about whether they needed to hear it again. The next time he played the recording the students imitated it. He then read vocabulary from the activity randomly and asked the students to pronounce the words after him, nominating students to speak. When one of the students did not answer he played the recording a third time. He asked them to underline specific words.

Tariq then moved onto the second activity, which was about grammar, as discussed above. He skipped sections B and C, which included pair work, and started the next activity, which was also focused on grammar. Skipping sections B and C had the impact of losing the scaffolding being developed by the textbook and cutting out the sections where the students spoke in L2. Tariq presented the form of present progressive by using examples the students knew. He then explained the difference between present simple and present progressive. They worked on the activity as a class and he nominated students to answer. Tariq encouraged correct answers with marks and sweets. Finally, he moved to the fourth activity, which was listening. He started this with an explanation in L2 about the dialogue. He then played the recording twice. The activity involved discussions about what to wear. After

further explanation, they did this final activity as a class, this time with no nominating and the students answering together. During this lesson, he interacted with the students in L2 and L1, switching but not translating and he gave feedback verbally in L2.

9.6 Lesson phases

Based on Walsh (2011), as discussed in Chapter Three, Tariq began in managerial mode, discussing the homework, and then moving into setting up and establishing the mechanism for the lesson:

Extract 9.1

Tariq: Ok let's start with homework. Who did the homework? Just hold on a second guys, hold on.

Students: (Indistinct)

Tariq: Did you do it yourself? *Ok group 1 your homework.* (Tariq gathers the students' homework) (Tar. Obs)

Extract 9.2

Tariq: Ok guys, open your books page twelve yes sir

Students: (Indistinct)

(Tariq plays the audio)

Tariq: Ok just hold on a second one, two, thirteen I think. Ok here we go, you ready guys? Here we go... one more?

(Tariq replays the audio and the students imitate the audio)

Tariq: One more or one is enough? Here we go (Tar. Obs)

The above extracts reflect the use of managerial and materials mode. In Extract 9.1 Tariq is in managerial mode; he uses signalling in L2 "*Ok let's start with homework*" to organise the handing over of the students' homework. In Extract 9.2, he uses managerial mode to switch by using the transitional marker, "*Ok guys, open your books page twelve*" to enter materials mode, and then, "*Ok just hold on a second ... Ok here we go... you ready guys?*". In managerial mode he used a friendly and informal interaction, organising handing back the homework using explicit instructions in L2. The above extract illustrates that Tariq was nonetheless teacher-centred as he controlled the sequence of the classroom.

In this materials mode, Tariq also used techniques to elicit the participation of the students, often scaffolding by providing the vocabulary, and then giving the students encouragement to find the words in the textbook matching the sound. He used IRF in this mode:

Extract 9.3

- Tariq: Ok here we go, Rashidy shall I start? The word jumper. **I**
- S1: Jumper **R**
- Tariq: *Yesss* **F**
- Tariq: Ok here we go with Emad, Emad the word boat. **I**
- S2: Boat **R**
- (Students indistinct)
- Tariq: Ok let's go with Almotairy the word tracksuit. **F**
- (Silence)
- Tariq: *It starts with T*. What do you think? Ok another word, *the word earring*. **I**
- Students: teacher, teacher teacher(Students indistinct) **R**
- Tariq: We asked Je'efen, he answered correctly for the group. *Ok, we will jump to the next*. **F** (Tar. Obs)

The above extract shows Tariq in materials mode, with an example of an IRF chain. In this mode Tariq initiated responses to the activity by nominating students, and then the response was followed with feedback. In Tariq's F there is an indirect repair of the student's response. The repair does not involve correcting immediately or saying whether they are wrong but instead giving more space to think with a pause providing space to find the answer. When there is no response, he elicits the answer by giving the first letter, but not the full word. When he says "We asked Je'efen, he answered correctly for the group", it seems to have been answered correctly, although this is not clear from the recording. This could be understood as there being a degree of correct answer orientation, but less so than in the other cases because he is only saying let's listen. This may be a correcting answer that could be understood more as encouragement than learning L2 in itself.

Tariq made regular use of materials mode and applied interactive IRF chains to search for meaning along with the students. The number of students interacting and responding to Tariq's initiation was much larger compared to the other three classes. There were many student responses in these IRF chains, as in the following:

Extract 9.4

- Tariq: Because this verb expresses a habit. Imagine that someone hates. (Tariq laughs) Ok he hates it. Do you understand the meaning? **I**
- Ss: Teacher... teacher... **R**
- Tariq: He hates, yes. He thinking? **I**

S2: He think **R**
 Tariq: *No* **F**
 S1: He is think **R**
 Tariq: *No* **F**
 S1: He think **R**
 Tariq: *No* **F**
 S3: He is think **R**
 Tariq: *No* **F**
 S1: He is thinking **R**
 S4: He thinks **R**
 Tariq: “yes” **F**
 Tariq: “he thinks” thinking now cannot what do you do at home? Well, I hating now **F** (Tar. Obs)

The above extract provides an example of the regular IRF patterns that Tariq used. Here, the I is when he initiates a question “Do you understand the meaning... *He hates, yes. He thinking?*”; then the R is when the student responds to that question by saying “*He think*”; then Tariq’s F is when he repairs the answer by saying “no”. Tariq does not correct the wrong answer, but instead continues the chain, providing more space to find the correct answer. There is different repair and, importantly, repair is wider than correction. While correcting involves replacing the wrong answer with the correct one, repair entails giving the wrong answer treatment (Seedhouse, 2004). The repair is initiated by Tariq and the students compete the repair. This continues as another student gives the wrong R, “*He is think*”, and Tariq continues waiting and encouraging them to find the correct R until one student replies with the correct R, when Tariq responds “yes”, closing the IRF chain. Tariq thus uses repair by treating the wrong answer, calling on different students and allowing the correct answer to be presented by other students. Thus, the R involves recruiting another student to repair. In comparison to Walsh, this is still very teacher-centred because it is limited to teacher-student-teacher-student-teacher patterns rather than teacher-student-student-student. This is interesting as it is far from the lesson pedagogy recommended by the teacher’s book with ideal interaction on the one hand, but it is reflective of the actual interaction possible with a large number of students. The ideal communicative interaction in the lesson guide will also clash with Tariq’s teacher-centred approach.

There were frequent and often subtle shifts into skills and systems mode as Tariq focused more on accuracy than fluency. This mode relates to describing how to use the form and

structure of L2, as well as to the skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening; the mode generally places emphasis on the teacher as an explainer.

Extract 9.5

Tariq: *No, there is no wrong; you are all right. Ok, number three: kid usually, a habit go ... goes...going*". "Cave" is singular... *yes goes, he goes to the state park after school, but today...Today...* **I**

S5: *he visiting...* **R**

Tariq: *he visiting?* we had to add auxiliary verb? **F/I**

Ss *teacher...teacher...teacher*

S3: *he is visiting ...* **R**

Tariq: *he is visiting, yes...he is visiting, yes, Mashalla, some of are concentrating and some are not... people here the best and the other will be inshalla, Listen guys to number 4: my uncle and aunt. my uncle and aunt. Live or lives?* **F/I**

S6: *what does mean?* **R**

Tariq: *Have you seen anyone continue living? Never.. and my aunt. So the verb live does not express a habit...Ok, they they the both live* (Tar. Obs)
F

The above extract shows how Tariq used skills and systems mode to explain grammar by integrating this explanation into the class and involving the students in this interaction. As discussed in Chapter Three, there are four types of repair: self-initiated and self-repair, self-initiated and other-repair, other-initiated and self-repair and other-initiated and other-repair (Seedhouse, 2004). Here a student self-initiates and the students and Tariq complete the repair (self-repair), after which Tariq explains the rule for this grammar and encourages more repair.

Tariq involved the students by interacting with them in the IRF chains. Before he entered into skills and systems mode he used managerial mode to signal this shift when he said "*Ok, number three*". In this way, he is between materials and skills and systems mode because this is an activity in the textbook. This extract also shows that Tariq was briefly adopting an explainer role. Tariq used an extended teacher turn here to explain the rule for verbs with examples. When compared with Extract 9.4, the above extract shows more tolerance of student mistakes when he says, "there is no wrong; you are all right", in comparison to simply saying "no" until the students got the correct answer.

Moving to skills and systems mode to explain the answer, he also uses display questions where he creates space for the students to find the right answer. This could be interpreted as Tariq establishing in his practice a sense that being wrong is not bad. Therefore, Tariq was tolerant of mistakes in this lesson. However, it is notable that he did not accept mistakes, only he was simply more tolerant compared to the other teachers, giving them space to find the answer, but still with a focus on correctness.

9.7 The instructional and regulative discourse

This section will discuss the RD and ID of Tariq's classroom, considering elements of C+- and F+- by using Bernstein (1990) theory, as discussed in Chapter Three. This will be used to compare the actual pedagogy of Tariq with the pedagogy suggested by the teacher's book and textbook.

Overall, Tariq's tone and manner regulated the classroom in a relaxed way and he maintained his authority in a friendly tone using frequent expressions in L2. He shifted regularly to encourage the students to interact and participate. The relaxed tone allowed him to build rapport and encouragement. For example, he used expressions in L2 such as "yes sir", "let's go with" and "what do you think". These phrases are not reflective of the usual tone used between teachers and students in Saudi Arabia. The comment "yes sir" is very casual and reverses the standard dynamic between student and teacher. Similarly, teachers do not usually ask students their opinions or seem to consult them in the ways suggested by the latter two extracts above. He also had sweets that he gave to the children, which created a more relaxed classroom environment. This was interspersed with maintenance of authority in a friendly tone, pulling back students who were not paying attention. "And here we go and the people in there! Some people are sleepy, sleeping guys."

Extract 9.6

Tariq: *Ok group four come in here Ajamy do you do it good way, the crazy way or? Badr good way or crazy way? Or bad answers?*

Guys, please cover your books. Thank you, I like your glasses, your glasses are look like mine.

S7: Teacher will you give us extra mark for that in the final?

Tariq: No, I will give you in the first and the second months exams only? You do not want? *Ok guys* who did not do his homework? (Tar. Obs)

The above extract shows Tariq's RD. Tariq's RD was both different and similar to that of the other teachers. He had a generally relaxed and informal manner; however, in terms of the level of control, he was similar to the other three teachers. Importantly, Tariq had the same F+ in his classroom because he was the one who nominated the students to participate, selected the activities and was in control of the sequence of the activity. Tariq was in charge of most of the lesson, maintaining F+, as can be seen from Extracts 9.1, 9.2 and 9.3, where he is managing the classroom and controlling the activity sequence.

Tariq explained this informal manner in his RD as:

Extract 9.7

I make him laugh, when student laughed, he understands; if he laughed and felt that the teacher has no attention, they know. By the way I can switch like crazy with them. The spontaneous teacher is often the dominant teacher (Tar. Int.2)

The above extract reflects both the tone and, more subtly, the power dynamic in Tariq's class. This extract suggests that his informal manner is not a necessary result of a relaxed classroom environment, but instead his purpose. His informal manner becomes a tool to increase and maintain his level of control to approach the ID for the students, ensuring they pay attention. Overall, this is reflective of his visible pedagogy, working to increase and maintain the level of control that is implicit in the F+ of his RD.

9.5 CLT in the lesson

This section will analyse the communicative approach in Tariq's classroom. The areas that will be explored in particular are degree of freedom, fluency and accuracy, meaningfulness, authenticity, production and scaffolding. The data in this section will be Tariq's lesson transcript and his interviews.

In general, Tariq's case does reflect some elements of a communicative approach. Tariq himself used a large amount of L2 to communicate with the students in context. There was meaningfulness and authenticity in Tariq's lesson. Tariq used examples from the Saudi context, such as when he provided the example of Jeddah and Madinah cities. In terms of authenticity, Tariq himself was communicating with authentic language in the class, such as when he made a comment about the student's glasses, and when talking informally in L2. There was a balance between accuracy and fluency.

Nonetheless, Tariq applied a visible pedagogy. The students were relaxed, but no freer to speak than in the other classes. This type of relaxed class could potentially result in the students using L2 productively, but in this example, they seemed to have little freedom to use L2 to communicate with Tariq or each other. As mentioned above, Tariq missed out the two sections that required the students to communicate with each other using pair work. Even though Tariq was practicing the same level of control as the other teachers, however, there was potential to be more communicative because there was much more risk-taking, which could allow the students to be freer to use L2 communicatively. Ultimately, Tariq still closely controlled the students' learning. The extracts above and the IRF chains show that the teacher has close control over the students. He decided who would participate by nominating students to speak.

The extract below shows that the extensive use of IRF can be understood as entailing some degree of a communicative approach:

Extract 9.8

Tariq: *Mr Saab you good? Number one: Omar is not watching, yah yah you deserve mark yeah yeah give him a hand yes, he deserves it* (the students are clapping)
number two: he is listening to the radio. He... is... listening he is listening right now. He is listening to the radio the he says to you he hate tennis he hates do you think.. he is hating? so he heats **I**

S6: *he is heats* **R**

Tariq: Because this verb expresses a habit. Imagine that someone hates; (Tariq laughs) Ok he hates it. Do you understand the meaning? **F**

Ss: teacher...teacher... *hates* **R**

Tariq: *He hates, yes* **F**

Tariq: *he thinking?* **I**

S3: *he think* **R**

He then in the next quite showe that he shifted to skills and system mode.

Tariq: Yes, yes, *mashalla... What are the boys... what are the boys doing in the garden right now? now what are the boys doing in the garden right now?* **I**

Tariq: *they are... I*

S9: *they... R*

Tariq: *they... are playing football (students imitate Tariq) good... F*

Tariq: *they are playing football every... I*

S2: *day R*

Tariq: The verb after it changed, it says that they are playing every Thursday, the verb changed, so it expresses habit, Ok? *they are playing...yes F* (Tar. Obs)

The above extract shows how this use of IRF can reflect a level of communicativeness. Tariq interacts with the students in L2 and the interaction is given context, therefore it has an element of meaningfulness. It is meaningful because they are asking and answering to complete the activity. This is despite the fact that the interactions are limited to teacher-student-teacher.

The extract below in turn reflects Tariq's lack of understanding of CLT:

Extract 9.9

Well, I haven't had a course in it, I do not know about it; I only know that I should make them "active", and I am sure that it would make me exert a great effort; it shouldn't be like that, I should save my effort for them. So I think that I do it well; I don't think that I do communicative teaching, or what is exactly required (Tar. Int.1)

Tariq understands that CLT (or at least the current pedagogy) requires 'great effort' on his part to make the students 'active'. If we consider this word – 'active' – alongside the earlier sections on the lesson phases and RD and ID sections, it is notable that a large number of the students participated in this class compared to the other classes. It could be argued, then, that by 'active' he means participation. Nonetheless, Tariq noted a lack of understanding of the CLT concept generally, suggesting, like the other teachers, that there was a lack of CLT understanding in his teacher knowledge. He had not been taught about the CLT concept. Tariq further seems to suggest that he is not a communicative teacher, even though he has little knowledge of it, perhaps suggesting he cannot practice a method he has no knowledge of.

Speaking further about his own approach in the interviews, the comment below shows how he considered accuracy as a step in scaffolding towards longer phrases:

Extract 9.10

The vocabulary, how to build the vocabulary and later the phrases, which you should build in a strong manner. You must build their vocabulary, because it is the thing that builds the rest of the language, and the second thing is to convince them on the importance of the language... (Tar. Int.1)

Thus, even though Tariq's methods seem different, here, similar to the other three teachers, he places a strong emphasis on vocabulary, markedly similar to Ali's preferred approach. However, he does not mention grammar like the other teachers. When linked to CLT this may align with the production of L2. As Tariq notes, they build this on a vocabulary. This suggests a push towards a pedagogy with a more meaningful language. Tariq's understanding of what is meaningful may also relate to what he means by "important". Is it important for everyday use, instrumental for jobs, or to pass exams?

When asked what he thought about the current curriculum, Tariq responded that:

Extract 9.11

The pros are it's good and useful which make them love to study the language, but the cons it needs technical support, there should devices that support it (Tar. Int.1)

The above extract shows that CLT is not enough; it has to be supported with technology. This issue was also raised by Fahad. Notably, Tariq brought his own audio player to this class, while Fahad read the recording out himself. However, a CLT approach itself doesn't necessarily require technology as it is possible to teach CLT without technology. Notably, also similar to Fahad, Tariq noted the difficulties of achieving this pedagogy in the allotted time.

One thing in particular that distinguished Tariq's classroom from that of the other teachers was the level of authenticity.

Extract 9.12

The activities.... Listening is important in addition to that I speak English "*from the beginning to end*" and I speak about some personal, like personal experience, personal stories (Tar. Int.1)

This aligns with the meaningfulness required of a CLT approach: using examples that are familiar to the students. The above extract shows that Tariq is linked his use of English to what was outside or beyond the classroom. He noted that “I speak sometimes about my travels”.

Tariq’s classroom reflects some elements of a communicative approach. In particular, it is meaningful. This meaning emerges in two ways: the examples that Tariq uses from the Saudi context to familiarise the students with the form and the language itself that Tariq uses in context. There is also a strong sense of authenticity in this class as Tariq jokes and uses informal L2 language to talk about real events and places. While Tariq explained points using examples, there was a much less strict focus on accuracy over fluency than in the other cases. However, this does not mean that the students were necessarily learning communicatively or using L2 communicatively, especially as the students were not using L2 to communicate. Notably, the two sections that included pair work were missed out.

9.6 L1/L2 use in the classroom

This section explores the use of Arabic (L1) and English (L2) in Tariq’s class. I will use the theory of Shulman (1987) and Bernstein (1990) visible and invisible pedagogy. The data will include the interviews and the observation. As mentioned above, Tariq used a lot of L2 and, in general, Tariq used L2 in an informal way. He chatted and joked with the students. However, the IRF patterns he used were similar to the traditional approach and this reflected a visible pedagogy that was teacher-centred and controlled.

The extract below reflects Tariq’s teacher beliefs – that teachers need to be very well educated, particularly in a globalised world.

Extract 9.13

I mean that you will have students who are born and educated abroad, in USA schools for example, so, if your language is weak, you will not be able to do something, you will be not qualified for them, and the students would prove your failure in front of them, it is a shame. ... Some teachers can't talk in English; if the teacher is not able to talk in English, how can he teach it for others? He knows basic grammar... (Tar. Int.1)

This suggests that Tariq was in some ways very different from the other teachers. All the other three teachers were restrained in their L2 use. Tariq, on the other hand, views the use

of L2 as essential. When linking this with his classroom, however, while Tariq spoke a lot in L2, his students did not form any phrases in L2. The above reflects that teacher talk in L2 is a main element of Tariq's PCK. For him, teaching English successfully requires talking to the students.

However, despite the large amount of L2 required in his PCK, there is a difficulty with this, as he explained:

Extract 9.14

The activities.... Listening is important in addition to that I speak English “*from the beginning to end*” and *I speak about some personal, like personal experience, personal stories, I speak with simplified English*” *The first three weeks it's a problem every year.*” The first three weeks we have problems like – Teacher, we know nothing about English and we do not listen to English; I tell them that it is ok and I go on.... After three weeks they find that they understand and that they have fixed language stock; they all play Bubg Game and Fortnite, so they have repertoire; they know that “*up*” means over, and “*down*” means below, so they understand by 30% and increase gradually (Tar. Int.2)

The above extract reflects Tariq dealing with a lack of comprehension of L2 that the other teachers all noted as a reason for not speaking in L2. All of the others suggested that L2 use in conversation was not suitable for their students. However, there was little suggestion that they had tried this approach in their classrooms. Tariq noted how he tries to push past this resistance that the other teachers found. His method here is to speak in a personalised and simplified L2. He notes the difficulties that may occur and how they can be resolved by using resources from outside and further exposure to L2.

The next extract shows how Tariq uses L2 without losing the students; this supports his preference for a PCK involving using a large amount of L2:

Extract 9.15

While using English you should use your pictures to support the words new pattern, because they are not listening, they are looking at you, when you use your hands, your body, face pictures, any one of these it will support what you about to say (Tar. Int.2)

Tariq thus used teaching resources to maintain the students' attention. The above extract supports Tariq's PCK use of L2 without losing the students. This does reflect that he understands that a large amount of L2 has the potential to lose the students' interest.

Tariq, however, also commented that 'The most important thing for me is to make him [the student] read well. This is very similar to Ali's approach to what to focus on. Even though Tariq used a lot of L2, therefore, his goal seems to be the same as Ali. Thus, despite his extensive L2 use, Tariq's ultimate method was not significantly different from that of the other teachers. This is mainly because he did not encourage the students to use L2 as much as he himself used it. Even though he chatted and joked with them, there was no evidence that he asked or paused to encourage them to talk in L2.

In summary, Tariq seems ideologically predisposed to support a communicative use of L2. He strongly believed in the use of L2 as essential in his PCK. He was not far from the traditional

9.7 Assessable practices

This section discusses the role of assessment in Tariq's pedagogy, how Tariq assesses his students and the alignment of the assessment with the other two message systems (pedagogy and curriculum). I will thus consider the three message system of Bernstein (1990) and the data will be extracted from the two interviews with Tariq.

Tariq's classroom was assessed based on the textbook:

Extract 9.16

I evaluate them based on the examinations. I make a test every two periods; the first period has two units or only one unit, the second period is the same, because the book has four units, the most important is to make a final test on the four units; an easy test because I made the students do their home work, they would answer 9 to 10 homework (Tar. Int.1)

Tariq followed the formal system of assessment: giving the students two exams per term and a final exam at the end of term. The two term-time exams assess the students on the two units, while the final exam assesses the four units altogether. Tariq assessment's was based on the textbook activities. He took this directly from the textbook. The homework tasks are also where the exams will come from. There are 20 marks for the two exams, 10 for participation and 30 marks for the final exam, amounting to 50 in total.

The following extract is about the role of the evaluation:

Extract 9.17

With regard to evaluation, I evaluate them based on the examinations. I make a test every two periods; the first period has two units or only one unit, the second period is the same, because the book has four units, the most important is to make a final test on the four units; an easy test because I made the students do their homework, they would answer 9 to 10 homework, so they find that the exam is easy to answer, but I should not make the exam too difficult for them (Tar. Int.1)

The above extract shows that the students' learning was monitored by tests. This means that assessment has a strong impact on Tariq's pedagogy and curriculum, thereby affecting what he teaches and how. Even if Tariq uses a communicative approach, the written tests select activities from the four units. From what I saw of Tariq's sample exams, most of them were focused on grammar and vocabulary. Such assessment limits aspects of L2 use, directing the students to focus on what counts as learning, which will be grammar and vocabulary in the classroom.

Therefore, the assessment pulled Tariq's pedagogy from being communicative to being limited to aspects of L2. He mentioned that testing played a strong role in his classes. Tariq placed emphasis on using marks to motivate the students, in a similar way to the other three teachers. He also used sweets to motivate the students: *"Hey guys, I have some candy for the good guys, good stuff right here, you need some?"*. Interestingly, the sweets were given for the correct answers. The sweets thus motivate correct answers rather than attempts, playing a similar role to marks in his class and that of the other three teachers. Using sweets to reward correct answers may undermine what he believed in (that they needed to learn L2 for their everyday lives or jobs). This approach thereby becomes more about persuasion rather than fostering genuine learning. Similar to the other teachers, Tariq thus prioritised correctness over experimenting, which aligns with the educational history of Saudi Arabia.

When linking the form of reward and the previous extract, it could be suggested that in Tariq's case tests are a significant form of motivation.

Extract 9.18

I know that I have to check the homework, but I have no time now to check 50 home assignments. I aim to teach them how to write, to benefit from the homework, because they go to the exam and copy; my goal is to copy and to open the book. The

book is not something forbidden, when they go out the class they throw it down, no, I need you to have the book all the time and to bind it, because at the end of every term exam, the student get an additional mark for binding the book, as at the end of the year, the book would be torn out due to repeated use for the home assignment. So the language should not be something strange or odd, open the book and read English daily (Tar. Int.1)

Here he notes how the marks have an impact on his pedagogy. In referring to the exam and copying, he means memorising, for which the students will get additional marks. This suggests that the focus on marks affected the pedagogy. Assessment thus has a strong impact on his pedagogy. Even though Tariq doesn't always have time to check the homework, it nonetheless has a strong impact on his assessment as the exams and homework interact with each other. Homework is the first layer of conveying what counts as learning and exams are the final layer of this. Both were drawn from the textbook.

When linked to the three message system of curriculum, pedagogy and assessment, Tariq's assessment and pedagogy were most aligned with the curriculum. The textbook was communicative. Tariq was using four units from the textbook and limited aspects from these four units – vocabulary and grammar – to test. What was in the homework is also in the exams and thus Tariq shifted the communicative curriculum from being communicative to being more memorisable, similar to the other teachers.

There is a different perspective regarding assessment in his interviews, however.

Extract 9.19

it doesn't matter the place from which you can learn, what matters is to learn and to be convinced that it is an important job, something that you need in your life (Tar. Int.1)

This shows a larger awareness of the role of L2 in the students' lives, shifting the focus from assessment to students' goals for learning in their real lives. When linking this to Tariq's pedagogy, this can be seen in his teacher talk in L2. However, this did not extend to the impact of the pedagogy on the students.

In relation to Bernstein's three message system, the previous extracts show the strong role of assessment in Tariq pedagogy. There was a mismatch in mechanism of the three message system. This because in Tariq's pedagogy, there was a lack of communicative practice by the students themselves. Tariq avoided exercises involving pair work practice and students

communicating. Therefore, Tariq's pedagogy was not entirely aligned with the curriculum. The assessment being limited to aspects of the four units that are assessable may also pull it back to writing and reading only because there was no oral or listening assessment in the school.

Tariq's awareness was aligned with the goals of CLT as being meaningful using the language more productively. His assessment awareness pedagogy was reflected on his pedagogy:

Extract 9.19

My teaching method is based on listening as a mainstay. I have to make sure that they break the listening barrier. It is the point on which I focus a lot; I don't ask *outstanding things* from them, no; I only ask them to listen, as my job as a middle school teacher is to break the barrier between him and English by saying: my dear student, English is easy. The second thing is to connect him with what surrounding him (Tar. Int.1)

9.8 Conclusion

Overall, Tariq's lesson was C- because it was about clothes and accessories and even the grammar was explained in an accessible way. The textbook was F+, with scaffolding to support the move from controlled input to controlled output. There were places where the F became weaker, providing more space to use L2 by the students. Overall, the textbook and teacher's book suggested a communicative lesson. Tariq's pedagogy was communicative in some ways, with meaningful examples and informal and authentic use of L2, but most of the teaching involved using IRF patterns in a controlled manner. There was also no space given to the students to use L2 and the two activities involving student-student L2 creation in pair work and the final activity writing and speaking in L2 were not included. The IRF chains were controlled with only space to find the correct answers.

In terms of Tariq's understanding of CLT, he noted that it required more effort and participation. While noting that he had not learned this method, his account aligned with the main goal of CLT being meaningful use of L2 when he mentioned the students' need to learn to use L2 meaningfully in the everyday or in future jobs. Nonetheless, Tariq's class was teacher-centred with no space for students to use L2 communicatively and he was assessment oriented. CLT in Tariq's case still didn't quite align with his orientation to correctness and his role as an explainer. He also noted that more time is required to be communicative. In terms of L1 and L2 usage, a CLT PCK would encourage both students and teacher to use

L2, while in Tariq's case L2 usage was limited to Tariq. CLT also suggests an invisible pedagogy, while Tariq's was visible. This meant that Tariq's class was closer to the traditional approach. In relation to the three message system, the focus on assessment drove Tariq's pedagogy from being communicative to focus more on what was to be tested, which was taken from limited units from the textbook and a number of homework exercises.

Chapter 10: Discussion and Conclusion

10.1 Introduction

The reform of the education system in Saudi Arabia since 2004 has encouraged a shift in the way English as a second language is taught in the Kingdom, with policies increasingly promoting a more communicative approach to teaching English based on communicative language teaching (CLT) principles. However, as discussed in Chapter One, the CLT approach has not been as successful as might have been expected and therefore there is a drive to understand why. CLT was originally developed in a Western context, one that is very different from the Saudi context. These differences extend to the set of historical habits and local assumptions that have been conceptualised as the pedagogic nexus by Hufton and Elliott (2000), which operates differently in different settings. Therefore, this research has explored how CLT is fitting into the pedagogic culture of Saudi Arabia by considering the practice and views of four middle school teachers as case studies.

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss and conclude the entire thesis. This is done by first discussing the findings, comparing and contrasting the four cases in relation to CLT implementation in context of the literature reviewed and theoretical framework. The discussion starts with CLT in theory and moves on to the challenges of implementing CLT in practice in the Saudi context. Then there is a focus on how these challenges lead to CLT being recontextualised. I then discuss the theoretical and methodological contributions in turn. The chapter concludes by answering the research questions, outlining practical implications, considering limitations and suggesting future research possibilities.

10.1.1 Researcher final personal reflection

As mentioned in Chapter one, before undertaking the fieldwork, I was quite uncritically in favour of the implementation of CLT in Saudi Arabia and felt that perhaps the teachers were not doing enough to ensure its success. For example, in my first interview at the school, with Talal, one of the case study teachers, my assumption was that the main issue of failure of CLT was because of the low level of English of the teachers and their misunderstanding of CLT (see Appendix G). As highlighted by Garton & Copland (2010) and their work on co-construction (see Section 4.3.2 of this thesis), generation of data can be affected by relationship. In this first interview with Talal, there were “conceptual and emotional tensions” (Mann, 2016, p.226): conversation was less engaged than with the others, the chemistry was low, there was a barrier between me and him. As we both called each other

Ustad (“Sir”) the conversation was too formal, and sometimes he tried to make me happy by using very standard Arabic, rather than the Najdi dialect we share (as we come from the same Central Region of Saudi Arabia). Even so, at the time I was thinking very badly about translation in the English class but when Talal explained how translation helped in this situation, he convinced me that it was helpful. Something else that happened with Talal was perhaps also the result of too much distance between us. When he was talking, for a long time, at the end of the second interview about “essential love”, I did not really understand what he meant and I did not question him about it as I felt it was not related to my research questions:

I like always to allow my students to benefited from a higher environment which is more comprehensive than the student’s book. This never comes except in the essential love. [...] We studied it in *language acquisition*. When you love the language you learn, there are the essential love and the external love. The essential love is when you as a student try to acquire a language and have essential love for the language. In this case, your environment will not only be the book, the faculty or the school, but in the contrary it will branch out. Your information will be greater than the person who has external love only because the content with the person who has external love is so weak, as he is only with the curriculum and the faculty. (Tal. Int.2)

However, I did listen when, in the student focus group on the same day and after the classroom observation, a student highlighted the same point (about internal and external motivation) and also reinforced his teacher’s point about the benefit of translation (see Extract 7.11, Section 7.5 & Appendix J: Focus Group 1). After a further two weeks of observing classes and interviewing teachers, by the time I did my last interview, with Tariq, my attitude had changed. In a much more relaxed tone, I joked at first with Tariq to make him relax. It was much less formal as we were using each other’s first names (not “Sir”). There was more chemistry between us and my tone was more engaged; I felt more interested. With Tariq I did not interrupt as much as with Talal. I had not noted in my observation notes (see Appendix F) that, although Tariq’s style was still hierarchical, he used a very warm and engaging tone in the classroom and he seemed to have a very good rapport with his students. However, after the interview, and then the focus group, when I listened to the audio recording again, I noticed this clearly (see Appendix H). Also, Tariq convinced me that teachers’ low level of English was not the reason that he faced the same problems of CLT implementation as the other teachers, as he was very fluent in English.

This is an example of how, when I paid attention to cultural expectations (about engaged and warm professional relationships), the quality of the data generation increased. In regard to the interviews with students, the insight of Reusser and Pauli (2015), discussed in Section 4.3.2.2, about the asymmetrical nature of adult-child relationships may explain the constraint I felt in these interviews. Another issue was the wording of some of the prepared questions for the students (see Appendix C). Although, generally, these were simpler than for the teachers, the question “How would you improve the textbook design?” elicited no meaningful response and perhaps using one of the more creative “range of activities and techniques” that Fargas Malet et al. (2010, p.8) recommend for younger focus groups may have helped them to answer this question. As a father and a teacher who has always had good relationships with children, I did not realise how much out of their comfort zone the students being interviewed might feel. As the youngest of the students were aged 14, they were not little children. In fact, that was the upper end of the age group (11-14) that I had taught in schools. However, my relationship as a father or as a class teacher was very different from my role as a researcher coming from a university in a foreign land and I realised that my lack of a warm relationship with the students had a limiting effect on the data generated (see Appendix J). In contrast, the insight about motivation I mention in the quote immediately above, first expressed by a teacher and reinforced by a student, shows that even in a situation of strict control and hierarchy, teacher-student relationships can be warm and can facilitate learning.

Similarly, when I saw how challenging the job of these teachers was, with time constraints and the amount of students, as well as the impact of exams on teaching, my view changed. I realised that the reality is so different from the theory and that what works in one context may not work in another – because you cannot ask someone to be different from their society and pedagogic culture. My view is that there is a need to involve the Saudi teachers and students to design a curriculum that works for them, because they are the experts. I feel that this insight has made me a more reflective and empathetic researcher, which has come through experience, as van Hilten highlights:

Reflection involves learning from experience, by thinking over the experience and evaluating it. Reflective practice is the process of learning from experience through some form of reflection. Reflective practice can only be built through experience. [...] As well, reflexivity recognizes importance of context and the co-construction of knowledge in interviews. (van Hilten, 2018, p.121, ellipsis mine).

Cultural considerations affected the fieldwork. In Saudi culture, appearances are very important. So, it would be very unusual to reproduce messy handwriting, with English grammar and spelling uncorrected, in a formal piece of work such as a thesis. This would be considered shameful, as if an adult was acting like a child. Also, for speed, I used the real names of the teachers, not their pseudonyms. Therefore, it seemed natural to me to type up and correct the spelling and grammar of my fieldnotes and then shred the original pages. These typed notes (see Appendix F) became part of the analysis and were integrated into the text of my thesis; as I was not doing ethnographic research, I saw no reason to keep them in their original handwritten state. Another consideration is that, in this process, any phrases in my notes I may have written about students momentarily lacking attention in class or teachers on occasion using a harsh tone had to be deleted. Nowadays, with everything online, it is very possible that one of my participants (student or teacher) could someday read this thesis. Therefore, it would not be appropriate to include anything shameful, especially as I developed more sympathy for the situation of the teachers as the research progressed. Although all ethical considerations about privacy were maintained, Mann (2016, p.237) highlights the risk of “deductive disclosure” and also admits erasing the “problematic part” (Mann, 2016, p.232) of transcripts, as I had to do with my published notes. Even so, this lack of supporting complete raw data is noted as a limitation in Section 10.8.2.

10.2 CLT in theory

The conceptualisations discussed in previous chapters help explain theoretically why the new curriculum was difficult to implement as intended. Even though the four cases aligned with the textbook used, in some aspects, there were gaps between CLT in theory and CLT in practice across the four cases. CLT in theory involves different modes of interactions that the teachers, to varying degrees, did not consider suitable or practical.

10.2.1 Demands of GTM and ALM and CLT

CLT makes different professional demands from the previous GTM approach. GTM focuses on written discourse and an instructional discourse of grammar rules, and so demands pedagogic content knowledge of techniques to teach these. Examples of GTM practice were most evident in Ali’s case. CLT is also different in pedagogic content knowledge from ALM, which emphasises drills and memorisation, practices that were most strongly evident in Fahad’s case. ALM prioritises spoken discourse, moving from modelled, to controlled, then free practice. ALM builds automaticity to avoid mistakes and it values “native speaker” pronunciation and intonation. CLT, on the other hand, demands more communicative

competence: the ability to use language appropriately in relevant and meaningful social contexts. CLT may thus prioritise different aspects of Content Knowledge (CK), Pedagogic Content Knowledge (PCK) and Pedagogic Knowledge (PK) compared to the other methods, but this does not mean that CLT and the other two methods are completely distinct.

For example, CLT also values accuracy and GTM highlights meaning, which is required to translate. Similarly, ALM builds towards meaningful communication through automaticity. The difference emerges mainly in what each approach prioritises. GTM and ALM entail more detailed steps, while CLT is a more general approach. They each highlight different processes in the PCK and different competence in the CK. The approaches thus differ from each other in terms of what “successful” learning looks like. The CLT approach can be considered more complex because of what counts as successful learning in CLT. Unlike in GTM and ALM, where accuracy is important, mistakes are regarded as part of learning in CLT due to the need to balance fluency and accuracy. Language use in CLT is more generative, and thus less predictable so it also demands different types of assessment.

10.2.2 CLT principles and communicative competence

In terms of the broad principles of CLT, its supporters argue, first, that the CLT classroom should not be limited to achieving grammatical competence; instead, it should cover all the aspects of communicative competence: grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). Second, the learning should involve pragmatism, awareness of the required function and a level of authenticity in the meanings created. Third, the classroom should create a balance between the goals of accuracy and fluency. Fourth, the language should be used productively. Fifth, there should be space given to the students to construct their meaning and, finally, the role of the teacher is that of a facilitator.

10.3 CLT in practice

10.3.1 Non-western and Saudi literature

As discussed in the literature review in Chapter Two, when learning a second language in school, children are no longer drawing on the innate principles of language learning that applied when they acquired their first language (Ellis, 2003). There is much discussion about how people learn second languages and the difference between learning and acquiring a language, with it generally accepted that the learning is a conscious process, while acquiring a language is a more subconscious process (Ellis, 2003). However, the context and the

language itself also plays a role in how it can be learned. In the Saudi context, English is a foreign language and thus the classroom context and its conditions will affect how this language can be learned because there is no exposure to English and little use of English in their lives beyond school. The students are highly reliant on the classroom for English input. This can make CLT difficult to implement as the principles of authenticity and meaningful language use are less clear or attainable for the students and the teachers as they have less exposure to, or reason for, authentic English.

The literature discussing the application of CLT was divided into studies conducted in the non-Western contexts and the Saudi context. In general, the studies in non-Western contexts argued that the difficulties regarding the application of CLT were misunderstanding and professionals' resistance to this method. These issues were linked with reports of a lack of teacher education in CLT. Such studies also suggested that the teachers lacked the ability to implement some precepts of CLT, such as the more relaxed classroom, or that the desired teacher-student relations did not align with the nature of the local context. Another area that reportedly made CLT difficult to implement was the level of student and teacher L2 proficiency, which was also related to the typically large amount of L1 usage over L2 usage in the classes, where CLT would encourage more emphasis on L2 usage. This set of studies further noted practical challenges that made CLT difficult to implement, such as time pressures, class size and lack of resources for implementing CLT. In the Saudi literature, these findings in relation to CLT enactment were very similar in terms of the challenges the studies noted, although there were different challenges in different contexts. Most noted the clash between CLT and the local context in terms of the power dynamic between students and teacher, the lack of resources in the local context and the lack of teacher education related to CLT. Even though these findings from the literature aligned with the four cases in this study, when I explored their textbook and teacher's book, it could be seen that the requirements were not too demanding. Therefore, their unwillingness to adopt a CLT approach could be interpreted as more resistance to the emergent pedagogy rather than any actual mismatch with the local context that stopped them from implementing CLT. In order to understand this resistance to implementing a CLT approach, it is necessary to understand what is behind it. In this regard, it is necessary to bear in mind the finding of Abahussain (2016), which are supported by my findings, that the weak version of CLT is the one that is prevalent in Saudi Arabia and may be the only version known to the teachers.

10.3.2 Teacher knowledge and beliefs

To understand the nature of teachers' knowledge base, Shulman (1987) proposed the theory of teacher knowledges, outlining important distinctions between content knowledge (CK), pedagogic content knowledge (PCK), pedagogic knowledge (PK) and support knowledge (SK). CK relates to the content of the subject being taught specifically, which in this research refers to the teachers' knowledge of L2 and raises questions of whether teachers' previous CK is adequate for the demands of the new CLT curriculum with its more generative use of L2. PCK is about the knowledge of how to present CK and how to teach a particular topic or subject. PCK, therefore, outlines how to access and mobilise CK for student learning. In this research, the curriculum shift to a CLT approach constitutes a significant shift in PCK; that is, in the knowledge of how to teach a second language under this approach. PK in turn refers to knowledge of general teaching strategies, which can be applied across other subjects. This more generic PK will shape and be shaped by teachers' beliefs (Borg, 2017) and can be related to the concept of pedagogic nexus (Hufton & Elliott, 2000), which refers to cultural knowledge about shared social expectations regarding pedagogic culture and processes. In this research, knowledge of the nature of Saudi schools, the education system and its general conditions, such as class size, timetable and assessment practices, are understood to be PK.

The four cases reflected different teachers' beliefs that shaped and influenced the teachers' decisions on what to teach and what to filter. In these four cases, their beliefs and their PK, which is related to other classes in the same school, had an impact on their recontextualising of the ORF's textbook materials from more communicative to less communicative practices. Notably, even though different teachers highlighted different aspects, all of them were similar in that their pedagogy was less communicative than the teacher's book suggested. Thus, local PK and residual pedagogy maintained the resistance to the different hierarchical relations that CLT suggests. PK, as it relates to general knowledge of how to teach, can thus be understood to typically be one of the main reasons that CLT is difficult to implement in Saudi Arabia. CLT makes demands on the teachers and the students that are different from those in other classes in the same school. PCK cannot be independent of PK. There cannot, for example, be a demand to use emergent PCK with different interaction features – such as less hierarchical relations – alongside the existing, dominant PK that values hierarchical relations.

In all cases except that of Tariq, the teachers reported that they were not familiar with CLT. They suggested that CLT means using L2 only in the classroom and they were unfamiliar

with the general principles of CLT. With regard to the former, Fahad suggested that it was not possible to use L2 entirely. Tariq, on the other hand, revealed some relevant PCK knowledge by using L2 meaningfully even though he was otherwise teacher-centred in his pedagogy. For Fahad, CLT meant that teachers have no control, which reflected a lack of understanding that CLT is an invisible pedagogy, in which the teacher has more implicit control. This implicit control means that the CLT teacher still sets the activities and directs the students, but this control doesn't extend to explicit control. Talal suggested that the method entails a lack of sequencing and only using L2. This can be understood as a similar misunderstanding of CLT, assuming that CLT means a lack of control.

The level of understanding of CLT by the four teachers therefore varied. Fahad focused on the ability to use L2 and understand it; Talal understood CLT as lacking scaffolding and sequence. Ali and Tariq both suggested that they were unfamiliar with CLT as a concept as they had no formal teacher education and had not learned about it. However, unlike Ali, Tariq's pedagogy in fact reflected some aspects of CLT, such as authenticity and meaningful L2 use by himself, although he did not give this space to the students. Ali's pedagogy did not reflect CLT principles.

In terms of the relations with the students (framing), Tariq was the most relaxed and used L2 in the most meaningful ways. In his pedagogic communication, however, he was still teacher-centred. Tariq mentioned that what stops teachers from implementing CLT is their language proficiency, suggesting that CLT requires higher language proficiency from the teacher. The other teachers confirmed this belief. Thus, from their perspective, CLT demands additional, more advanced content knowledge (CK) of the target language, not just different pedagogic content knowledge (PCK) about how to teach the language. CLT does not necessarily require a higher level of proficiency compared with other methods (Brown, 2014). Indeed, there is no specific requirement in the CLT principles that suggest the need for higher level L2 skills than other methods and in the cases, the lessons in the textbooks and the teachers' books did not demand a high level of English. The teachers' belief to the contrary could be related to a misunderstanding of CLT, which will be discussed further below. This may also relate to their professional belief that the language by the teacher has to be free of mistakes. For Tariq, high-level language was language that did not involve any grammatical mistakes. Tariq, therefore, recontextualised the recommended pedagogy to be more accuracy-oriented.

For all four teachers, their own experience as learners had impacted on their PCK, that is their knowledge of how language is learnt and their preferred pedagogy. As mentioned

above, of the four, Ali was the most resistant and his experience as a learner who relied on translation led him to resist a pedagogy that was different from his own experience as a learner. The next most resistant was Fahad; his experience as a learner impacted on his pedagogy and his beliefs about what matters in language learning, as he noted in the interviews. His resistance led him to prefer translation, which was different from what the textbook suggested. Tariq and Talal were less resistant. Notably, Talal has some experience as a learner abroad, while Tariq noted that he had immersed himself in American media, which made him similarly less resistant. These histories are less resistant to a PCK that aligns more with the goals of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980) than with achieving grammatical and translation accuracy.

In terms of teachers' knowledges, CLT principles require adjustments in teachers' content knowledge (CK), pedagogic content knowledge (PCK) and pedagogic knowledge (PK). In terms of CK, as discussed above, CLT demands knowledge of more meaningful and nuanced language use based on its contextualised appropriateness. This demands very different language knowledge when compared to the grammar rules of GTM and the drilled patterns of ALM that the teachers may have previously been prepared in. In terms of PCK, CLT stresses broad principles rather than a detailed step-by-step method to achieve its broader understanding of what it means to learn and to competently use a language. CLT principles are concerned with the generation of meaning and use of authentic language, with a balance between achieving accuracy and fluency and a different understanding of how, why and when to correct the students' attempts. PK refers to knowledge of the broad layer of schooling processes, which in this research comprises the Saudi pedagogic nexus that emphasises strict hierarchical relations between teacher and student. CLT, however, promotes less hierarchical relations between teacher and students. Notably, because the new CLT curriculum and pedagogy was implemented through top-down policy, this change did not acknowledge the required changes to the teachers' knowledges. Therefore, this implementation can sit uncomfortably with the experienced teachers' PK of Saudi Arabian contexts.

10.3.3 Bernstein, visible and invisible pedagogies

To understand the dimensions of power and control in the curriculum and pedagogy respectively, Bernstein (1990) developed a theory of pedagogic discourse as a combination of the particular instructional discourse (the 'what' of the curriculum) and the regulative discourse (the 'how' of the pedagogic design). He also proposed the variables of classification (C) and (F) to highlight to what extent knowledge is specialised and to clarify

the level of explicit control exercised by the teacher. The CLT approach typically suggests pedagogy with weaker framing (F-) and weaker classification (C-) in what Bernstein terms an invisible pedagogy. This encourages more student participation, although the teacher still retains implicit control, and a curriculum of C- that is close to the students' life experiences, more commonsense rather than technical or specialised knowledge (for example, in terms of grammar terms and rules). However, even the Saudi textbooks, although communicative in intent, do not attempt to be very F- as its guidance is still carefully controlled and staged. In this sense, the textbooks could be understood to navigate a middle position between the Saudi context, which typically has very F+, and a CLT approach.

Talal's practice was closest to the suggested pedagogy outlined by the teacher's book, while the most different was Ali's. Talal followed the textbook pedagogy in that he followed the sequence that the textbook suggested, but he used more L1 than was suggested in the textbook and he overlooked some of the more communicative activities at the end of the sequence. Fahad demonstrated a very different regulative discourse as he used his own pedagogy and translations in IRF chains that maintained his F+ and did not generate meaning. Fahad explained his choice to overlook the CLT activities, noting that they did not aid him in his goal of supporting the students to pass the exams.

In terms of instructional discourse, the textbooks in the series used in the four cases covered similar topics that were related to students' everyday language and interests. Therefore, there was a focus on the language for the everyday or basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) rather than cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP), or language that expresses cognitive skills, at this middle school stage. In two of the cases, Fahd and Tariq, BICS was emphasised however in the cases of Talal and Ali, it was CALP. The textbook topics were not very specialised or technical, so could be considered C-, except for the grammatical terms were introduced for each lesson in the teacher's book which were C+.

In terms of regulative discourse, the four case studies differed from the recommended RD, retaining much stronger F+, which means that the four cases recontextualised the textbook material, even though the textbook itself had already recontextualised CLT in some ways to be closer to the Saudi context with its stronger. In the four cases, the dominant practice of PCK based on GMT was combined with the residual pedagogy of teacher-centred practice, and the broader PK operating across the school. This led the four cases to recontextualise the RD of the textbook material in ways that fit better with the general PK related to the broader Saudi pedagogic context, thereby making the emergent ideas of CLT very difficult to implement.

10.4 CLT recontextualised

10.4.1 Pedagogic Recontextualization Field (PRF) of CLT

The concept of the pedagogic recontextualising field (PRF) of Bernstein (1990) acknowledges that teachers in their classroom have a degree of freedom in how they interpret and enact the ORF's curriculum, that is, in how they recontextualise the official curriculum in their own classrooms. This degree of freedom can be seen in Ali's recontextualization of the textbook activity which was the most different from the recommended pedagogy, while the other three cases were relatively similar in terms of how much of the learning sequence they skipped. This was mainly the more communicative activities such as group or pair work. This is a significant pattern: while the textbook sequence is building towards these more holistic communicative activities as the goal of the curriculum, the teachers, for the sake of time management or their own professional priorities, chose to overlook them. All such communicative activities were missing from Ali's lesson, but he further removed a large section of the textbook lesson as he only taught one activity in a different pedagogy. Ali thereby recontextualised the textbook as a reading and translation resource as he reworked the lesson to be very different from the pedagogy suggested by the teacher's book in order to suit his different pedagogical content knowledge. His priorities in the observed lesson were limited to reading and pronunciation skills which were different from those of the textbook. All the cases were accuracy-oriented, except for Tariq who was less concerned with the correction of student errors than the others. The strictest on mistakes was Ali, who, along with Fahad and Talal, was very accuracy-oriented. Talal was the one who most followed the teacher's book but he emphasised grammar so he was similar to the other cases in terms of being accuracy-oriented. Overall, the four cases applied different relations from that suggested by the teacher's book as they all recontextualised the curriculum with stronger F that was not aligned with what CLT would emphasise.

There are possible reasons why teachers in the four cases drew pedagogical practices from the residual curriculum and perhaps from PK. Ali was 40, Talal was 35, Fahad was 33 and the youngest was Tariq, who was 30 at the time of the research. Ali is thus the only one who experienced the curriculum change as he started teaching before the new curriculum was implemented in 2004. As noted above, there were variations in the teachers' practices that can be related to their backgrounds and teacher preparation. Of the four cases, there were similarities in the backgrounds of Fahad and Ali. They both had a bachelor of translation qualification and no education component in their degree except the short course required by the Ministry of Education. They also studied short courses abroad in countries that use

English as a first language. Notably, Ali, the oldest and most experienced teacher, was the most resistant to the new curriculum of the four. This can be related to his background and his decisions in the lesson to use what he knows and had learned himself, which was translation. Fahad also used a lot of translation in his pedagogy. Even though Ali and Fahad had some experience abroad, it is clear that their background in translation has impacted on their pedagogy as they were using translation as the RD for language learning. They also both highlighted the importance of translation in their interviews. Talal and Tariq both have bachelor's degrees in education. Notably, their pedagogies did not highlight translation. During the classroom observations, Talal and Tariq both placed emphasis on managing the classroom. Talal was using various techniques to manage the classroom and Tariq used rewards to retain the students' attention. In all four cases, their professional backgrounds thus seemed to emerge as contributing to how they enacted CLT.

Recontextualising assessment

One of the main challenges all the four cases agreed on was that they experienced time constraints and so made the choice in their lessons to drop the later activities which were more communicative. This finding aligned with the studies reported in the literature review, both from the Saudi context and non-western contexts (AL-Garni & Almuhamadi, 2019; Al Asmari, 2015; Chen, 2016; Ntirenganya, 2015). In terms of recontextualising, these teachers were clear on what was dropped to recontextualise the textbook materials as they believed that these later activities consumed valuable time which they felt was better spent on students learning for assessment purposes.

For Fahad, Talal and Ali, the impact of exams and pressure on students to achieve good marks shaped their pedagogy away from a productive communicative pedagogy to one that reproduced activities that matched the exams. For example, Fahad and Talal both selected papers for the students to memorise for exams. This meant that Fahad and Talal narrowed their pedagogy to emphasise what the students could memorise for the exams. Students were clearly presented with the criteria for passing English papers rather than the means for using the language. Ali was even more focused on who could pass very specific criteria, reading in what he deemed to be the correct manner. Tariq had a different understanding of what assessment and learning would look like. He did not select specific papers to memorise but instead used formative assessment from homework that mainly focused on the use of L2. He also noted a desire to assess the language in a way that would help them in real life. In all cases except that of Tariq, the focus on assessment in its existing form made the lessons less communicative.

10.4.2 Walsh - modes and features of interaction

Using the theory of Walsh (2011) in this research highlighted how CLT has implications for its preferred interaction features within the four modes. For example, classroom context focuses on creating opportunities for communicative L2 use; in skills and systems mode CLT aims to balance accuracy and fluency; in managerial mode, the teacher creates opportunities to use L2 in interactions; and materials mode encourages different types of near-authentic text and textbook activities as part of the curriculum. CLT in all four modes prioritises meaning which shapes the features of interactions differently. For example, CLT prioritises interactional features such as repair of meaning, scaffolding to support the students' meaning, and content feedback to prioritise the message in L2 so it could be argued that there is an emphasis on classroom context, balanced with skills and systems mode – although materials and managerial modes are also important. From the analysis, all the cases except Tariq's were largely enacted in skills and systems mode; Tariq was the only one who used the classroom context mode to communicate in L2. Talal was most invested in materials mode as he closely followed the textbook. There was thus a clear difference in the features of interactions across the four case studies. This was most evident in Ali's case as he chose different interactions and modes of learning from those the textbook and teacher's book had suggested.

Across the four case studies, there were two main difficulties reported regarding CLT implementation in the context of Saudi Arabia. The first was that CLT clashed with the traditional methods that the Saudi teacher typically learns in teacher education, and the second related to the type of interaction typical in the Saudi context. The second created difficulties between the CLT pedagogy recommended in the new curriculum materials and the kind of pedagogic interactions observed across the four cases, which indicated strong residual practices aligned with other language teaching approaches. Under CLT principles, scaffolding would prioritise and support the meaning of the learners, to build on and extend learners' talk beyond the textbook material. In GTM the scaffolding emphasis would be more on accomplishing more correct or more elaborate forms and translations of the text. In ALM, the priority could fall on modelling and eliciting more accurate and elaborate spoken language. In the four case studies, there was a clash between the scaffolding recommended by the textbook and what the teachers believed. In their interviews, two teachers mentioned this: Ali regarded scaffolding as working towards better pronunciation and correct reading, while Fahad was more focused on the students achieving correct translations.

In terms of repair, the type of mistakes corrected would differ between CLT, GTM and ALM. In CLT there may be less emphasis on repair that disrupts the flow of communication and repair here would prioritise or clarify the learner's meaning. In GTM the priority would be to repair the learners' mistakes in grammatical form and translation, while the emphasis in ALM repair is on correcting mistakes in the learners' pronunciation. Therefore in both of those methods there is an emphasis on accuracy. Ali and Fahad prioritised repair for grammar and translation attempts, while Talal used repair for mistakes in pronunciation. Tariq was the only one who was observed to repair meaning. All cases except Tariq placed a lot of emphasis on repair that reflected their priorities.

In CLT the emphasis is on responding in the target language and contributing to the flow of L2 communication. In contrast, in GTM, the priority may be on unpacking the message in the textbook when this is being translated. Extended waiting time in CLT might allow the learners space to produce their response in L2, as well as making more accuracy possible. In GTM, the teacher may wait for the learners to reproduce the form or prepare their response; in ALM the waiting may be to allow the student time to recall, prepare and pronounce. Extended waiting time for Ali and Fahad prioritised the elicitation of predictable forms and translation while Talal's use of wait time prioritised pronunciation. Tariq's waiting time encouraged students to reproduce their own unpredictable meanings. Ali, Fahad and Talal's waiting for responses was not aligned with what CLT would emphasise. All three interrupted the flow of the communicative pedagogy suggested by the teacher's book. Tariq's practice also used interruption, but this was more aligned with CLT priorities.

Confirmation checks in GTM would be more about checking the learner's understanding of the form and knowing the translation. In ALM such checks would check the spoken accuracy of the learners. In the cases under study, their confirmation checks differed according to what they were looking for. Ali tended to check learners' understanding through correct reading. Fahad emphasised checking the learners' understanding based on the translation, which aligned more with GTM. Talal checked pronunciation of the numbers, which aligned more with ALM, although this could be considered normal in doing oral work. Tariq repeated the substantive answers from the students from the activities, which aligned more with CLT practice.

As discussed in Section 3.2.8, teacher interruption in CLT emphasises giving enough space to the learners to use their language. The space given to students was limited in all cases but varied in intent. Ali interrupted incorrect reading; Fahad interrupted to correct mistakes in translation; Talal noted wrong pronunciation. In contrast, Tariq interrupted more to generate

and support meaning, practice that aligns with CLT. In their teacher interruptions, for Ali, Fahad and Talal, the priority was thus to interrupt to ensure accuracy, while Tariq prioritised interrupting to extend and convey meaning.

For turn completion in CLT, the emphasis would tend to be on the teacher completing the learner's utterance to maintain the flow of meaningful communication. Form-focused feedback is when the teacher gives feedback on the wording choices not on the message (Walsh, 2006). In CLT the priority remains on meaning; this aspect of interaction is a major part of the GTM pedagogy; in ALM the form is more implicit than explicit. Ali used turn completion for incomplete and incorrect reading, while Talal used it to emphasise pronunciation; Fahad used turn completion for translation purposes, while Tariq used it in L2 for the answers. All four cases relied on extended teacher turns as all of them were teacher-centred in their pedagogy. In display questions, Ali and Fahad prioritised checking by asking for grammar and translation, while Talal used more in regard to intonation. Again, Tariq was the only one who targeted the students' own meaning by engaging with them using meaningful and personalised language. Ali and Fahad gave form-focused feedback high priority, Talal based this on the textbook suggestions and Tariq was the only one who gave grammatical form less priority than meaning.

Based on the above discussion, therefore, it can be noted that CLT in theory prioritises different aspects of interactions from those of the more traditional pedagogies employed in the Saudi context. While all four cases showed very controlled pedagogic practice, they were very teacher-centred and not very communicative, Tariq's class did provide some opportunities to be communicative as he did not often interrupt the flow for correction and there was more space to attend to meaning when the students did the activities.

10.4.3 Kumaravadivelu on postmethod approach

Kumaravadivelu (2001) has argued for a "post-method" approach that takes into account the criteria of "practicality, particularity and possibility" in language pedagogy in opposition to claims of universal methods. "Practicality" relates to the need to make theories practically implementable. From the findings of the current study, CLT was not considered practical by the teachers. This reasoning was reported in all the cases. For example, Fahad explained that CLT required more effort from the teacher. Ali and Fahad said CLT was not practical in terms of time constraints. It could be interpreted that this effective use of time informed their decision to skip the more communicative parts at the end of the lesson sequences. Another example given of an aspect of CLT that reportedly makes it impractical was that CLT in

practice required a higher level of proficiency for both the teachers and the students, as discussed above. This can also be considered to address the “particularity” of these middle years classroom contexts, as the teachers conceded it may be suitable in another classroom context such as at college or university. “Particularity” endorses practice that is relevant to the particular context. For example, Fahad claimed it was not possible to talk in L2 to the students because these students would not understand due to their low level of L2. “Possibility” refers to the need to be aware of power structures and to create a pedagogy that is conscious of these. As noted above, there is mismatch between aspects of CLT and what is deemed possible in the actual Saudi classroom context. Tariq raised a different issue with the conditions of “possibility” related to CLT requiring more resources such as a language lab with audio equipment and headsets. The four cases agreed that some aspects of CLT are useful, in theory. However, in practice, they felt that the strong emphasis on communicative teaching in CLT was not possible. This can be understood from the perspective that CLT was designed by and for the West, then applied to non-Western contexts such as the Saudi context that has a different power structure and different pedagogic nexus. A CLT approach may be not possible without adjustments to fit this particular context.

10.5 Addressing the research sub-questions

10.5.1 RSQ 1: how do Saudi textbooks reflect CLT principles?

The Saudi textbooks were found to be designed with communicative principles in mind. With regard to alignment with CLT principles, the teacher’s book and the textbooks worked towards a communicative pedagogy across a sequence of activities, although, notably, this was a somewhat controlled version of communicative classes. The lesson guidelines and the content of the textbooks were generally strongly framed (F+) with some weaker framing (F-) in the lesson sequence to allow the students to practise using L2 with activities for controlled output; there was also space within these controlled activities to use L2 in pairs or groups.

In terms of how the textbooks were presented, the regulative discourse (RD) of the textbooks was F+ for almost the entirety of the lessons so that the teacher remained in control. There were few F- activities providing space to use L2 more freely. There was scaffolding starting from exposure to L2. The textbooks had aspects of the weak version of CLT, using the traditional order of PPP (discussed above in Section 2.3.5.1), but were very controlled and hierarchical, building from controlled input to encouraging the students to use L2 in related ways. However, in terms of the instructional discourse (ID), the topics were generally relevant to the students’ lives and interests. The greater use of BICS in two of these four

cases thus made the lessons more meaningful. There was also a balance between the goals of fluency and accuracy. The content was related to the students' lives, but the opportunities for language use were not greatly authentic or personalised. In general, while the textbooks seemed to push towards giving the students some space to communicate in L2, when examined closely, the use of L2 was limited to the activities and the students were not free to communicate beyond this. In general, the textbooks were communicative but in a controlled way, despite encouraging some degree of communicative competence.

10.5.2 RSQ 2: what do teachers understand about CLT?

Savignon (1991) highlights that misunderstanding can lead to resistance towards CLT implementation by teachers. This insight reflects the argument of Littlewood (2007) that rejecting CLT can result from a lack of familiarity with it. For Ali, Fahad and Talal, their lack of understanding impacted on the pedagogy being practised that was very different from CLT practice. They practised what they were familiar with: Fahad used translation as his RD; Ali exhibited the most obvious rejection of the CLT approach outlined in the textbook; and, for Talal, his lack of understanding related to CLT's F-. This led to his main concern during the classroom observation – controlling the students – which made him appear less relaxed compared with the other cases. Tariq was the exception in that he said he was not familiar with CLT in the interview, but his actual pedagogy reflected some aspects of the weak version of CLT, although still using the traditional order of PPP, as discussed in Sections 10.3.2 and 10.5.1, above.

These four cases reflect that their lack of familiarity with CLT was reflected in their actual pedagogic practice. This led the four teachers to recontextualise the new curriculum with an approach they were more familiar with based on their own past learning and beliefs about how to teach. In this regard, Bernstein (2000, p.9) notes that “every time a discourse moves, there is space for ideology to play”. In any curriculum change, there will thus be some freedom and space for the teacher to make decisions to apply what they believe matters. For these four cases, the teachers used this space to make decisions about things that matter, which emerged from their own past learning and beliefs.

10.5.3 RSQ 3: what are the challenges and constraints with regard to implementing CLT?

The studies of both Saudi Arabia and other non-Western contexts noted similar findings in relation to the impact of exams. The literature shows that an exam-orientation often impacts and stops CLT from being implemented as it drives the pedagogy to focus on what is testable, as in the studies of Abahussain (2016), Al Asmari (2015) and Farooq (2015) in SA, and

Chen (2016), Mulat (2003), Hassan (2013) and Xue (2009) in other non-Western contexts. There is thus general agreement that the more examinable areas drive the curriculum, ultimately pushing a focus on reading, writing and correctness, rather than communicative competence.

The reasons for this impact can be considered in relation to Bernstein's concept of education as a three message system involving curriculum, pedagogy and evaluation (assessment) and their interaction. The curriculum refers to the knowledge to be taught, as outlined by the Ministry of Education, here expressed in the textbooks, which have their own suggested instructional and regulative discourse. The curriculum they suggest is communicative although more F+ in its pedagogy, discussing topics related to the students' everyday lives and thus C- in its curriculum. These two elements of the three message system are however affected by the third, which is evaluation. In all four cases, evaluation played a significant role, but particularly so for Talal, Fahad and Ali. This meant that these three cases changed the regulative discourse by recontextualising the curriculum through removing, adding and changing what they were to teach and how. This in turn impacted the F and degree of C, pushing the pedagogy away from the suggested more F- and C- communicative lessons. These three cases focused on what the students could memorise for their eventual assessment, which mainly involved reading and writing. Ali pushed this further to create additional criteria about what counts as learning. Tariq's assessment was closer to that designed by the textbook and, even though he was teacher-centred in his practice, he showed awareness of generating meaningful language.

Al Asmari (2015) found that the exam system affected what the teachers chose to focus on and that it limited the teachers in using a CLT pedagogy. Farooq (2015) found that the lack of clarity in terms of how to assess the communicative competence of students drew the teachers to focus on skills that had a clearer, more measurable form, such as grammar and vocabulary. Among the non-Saudi studies, there was found to be general agreement that the more examinable areas were driving the curriculum, creating a focus on reading and writing.

The concept of the three message system helps to explain why the Saudi curriculum and pedagogy has not been generally successful (Bernstein, 2000). Bernstein (2000, p.36) argued that: "Evaluation condenses the meaning of the whole device" because it decides what counts as satisfactory learning, and thus exerts ultimate control over the system. In this regard, although the Saudi Ministry of Education has recontextualised the English language in the textbooks to be controlled and suitable to the Saudi context, there has been no adjustment of the assessment method. This pushed the four teachers to recontextualise their pedagogy to

match what they predicted would be assessed, focusing on the pragmatic need to get the students to pass the exams. Therefore, there were challenges and contradictions in relation to the three message system of a new curriculum and pedagogy but no change in assessment.

10.5.4 RSQ 4: what advantages and disadvantages do the teachers associate with CLT?

It is important to note that there were some positives that emerged from the four cases and these reflected some aspects that may align with a CLT pedagogy. In Tariq's case, he was very relaxed in his interaction with the students. Even though he was teacher-centred, his use of L2 reflected some aspects of CLT practice, as mentioned above. While this was not reflected in giving the same space to the students, the relaxed atmosphere of Tariq's classroom – and the students' eager participation in the activities for the reward of sweets – shows there was some willingness, not only among the teachers but also the students, to get more involved with more communicative pedagogy. Fahad's use of L2 to manage the classroom and to interact reflected similar aspects, with more meaningfulness and authentic use of L2 (as discussed in Chapter Two), showing some potential, particularly if Fahad had tried to give more space to the students to experiment with L2. Of the four, Ali's lesson was the least communicative, but he was following the teacher's book the most closely, which shows that there is a willingness to be communicative if the lesson directs the teacher that way. Perhaps if I had observed another lesson by Talal, it would have shown similar communicative aspects.

The textbook analysis also showed that the Saudi Ministry of Education is very keen to implement CLT. The textbooks had relatively controlled activities with many examples from the Saudi context, suggesting that the ORF is trying to bridge the gap between the more controlled Saudi traditions and the more student-centred pedagogy of CLT with its controlled version of CLT.

10.6 Contribution to the field

10.6.1 Theoretical contribution

This research drew on a number of theoretical resources in order to support the analysis of the case studies and develop the findings. The theories helped develop an understanding of: what language learning involves; the different knowledges in teachers' professional knowledge base; the different dimensions and variables of pedagogy; and how change happens. This framework was developed in response to a gap in the previous studies with regard to the theoretical approaches they applied. None of the non-Western or Saudi studies

reported in the literature review made extensive use of theories to explore the implementation of CLT. In this research, in contrast, a combination of relevant theories have been used to explore and conceptualise the implementation and recontextualization of CLT in the Saudi Arabian context.

This research began with the theory of how people learn languages, the historical range of language teaching and learning approaches and what pedagogic strategies they draw on. It then considered the CLT approach, which is based on the concept of communicative competence. Communicative competence (Hymes (1972) refers to the necessary language knowledge and the ability to use this knowledge to engage in appropriate communication in a social context. The work of Hymes was developed in response to that of Chomsky (1965) whose theory of the innate ability and use of a language assumed an ideal speaker and an ideal context. For Hymes, it was also necessary to consider the concept of appropriateness. Thus, Hymes' theory highlights the importance of how, when and who we are speaking to, and the knowledge required to adapt language appropriately to setting and purpose. CLT is aligned with the goal of building communicative competence.

The teachers' beliefs about CLT requiring a high level of English have a narrow focus on the level of language proficiency but ignore the additional dimensions and criteria of appropriateness that communicative competence requires, in its various grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic and discourse components as defined by Canale and Swain (1980). This wider definition of competence might not be captured in a simple focus on language proficiency. In CLT, the teacher is expected to use L2 in more generative ways rather than a behavioural following of scripted language – the language required is thus more productive and less predictable. Therefore, the teacher should ideally be able to move off the textbook script to follow the students' lead. However, the analysis of the four cases highlights how the teachers typically skipped the more communicative activities.

The theoretical concept of ORF means that the textbook may be read not only as a prescribed teaching sequence designed systemically and revised by experts in the field for teaching the students (Tomlinson, 2012) but also as the product of marketing, commercial interests and cultural bias. Therefore, the prescribed sequence and selection of texts that the teachers and the students follow in the classroom can be seen as forms of power and influence over teachers' work, which can be taken as being "above criticism" (Olson, 1980). This may be especially true for teachers who do not have much experience with the related knowledge, as opposed to expert teachers who have a broader knowledge of the pedagogic recontextualising field (PRF) because the concept of PRF highlights how the teachers with

various knowledges within different pedagogic cultures and conditions can re-shape the ID so that it makes sense for them and the things that are important for them professionally.

As the textbook involves systematic knowledge presentation: the teachers are expected to follow the prescribed sequence of what knowledge to transmit to the students in the classroom. This means that a textbook is a form of power that influences the teachers' practices in the classroom. In this respect, Littlejohn (1998, p.190) describes the textbook as "the most powerful device". Luke, De Castell, and Luke (1983) clarify the source of this textbook power as coming from political power, which is the power of the dominant ruling class (Williams, 1978). The authoritative power that the textbook has does not mean that the textbook is immune to resistance. The textbooks in this research represent the political hegemony in terms of the decision to impose a form of CLT as the dominant practice in the classroom. At the same time, the teachers and students have a history regarding what and how to learn (see Chapter One), which should be understood as a residual influence. These residual scripts may clash with the authoritative textbooks if it tries to move the teachers and the students out of their comfort zones. Discomfort and resistance may emerge if there is a clash between the teachers' beliefs or the teachers' ideologies and what the textbooks recommend (Williams, 1978).

In Saudi Arabia, teachers' beliefs or ideologies stem from a rich history of pedagogic traditions (see Chapter One regarding Kuttab, pedagogy and memorisation). Therefore, there may be rival ideologies relating to practices in the classroom. On one hand, there is the official version with its authority. On the other, there is resistance and recontextualisation filtered through residual ideologies. In the ORF, the official versions of the textbooks select and legitimise certain knowledge and note how this knowledge is to be transmitted. In the PRF, recontextualisation that produces the actual practice in classrooms may filter the official version by making different selections of curricular knowledge and pedagogic designs.

With regard to what language learning involves, Cummins (1979) distinguished two modes of communicative competence: basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) (language used functionally) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) (language for cognitive skills). BICS is context-embedded, which means there is social context in which the language can be used functionally and meaningfully, while CALP is typically context-reduced, which means that the language is not tied to the social context. As noted above, the instructional discourse provided in the textbooks in this study was concerned with cultivating the students' use of BICS, not CALP. Byram and Fleming (1998) proposed an additional

dimension of communicative competence, which relates to the cultural aspect, or the ability to use the language across cultures. This goal was only evident to a limited extent in the curriculum, as the textbooks made an explicit effort to re-connect to, and reinforce, Saudi culture, rather than look towards intercultural competence. However, there was some portrayal of people and situations from other cultures and their difference was made clear. In the observed classes, the teachers tended to always use examples from the Saudi context, so this kind of competence was not highlighted.

In Bernsteinian terms, CLT principles could be understood to construct a different instructional discourse and a different regulative discourse. CLT encourages C- with meaningful and authentic language suited to specific situations, rather than language and knowledge of language that is decontextualised by being generalised and abstract. It encourages F- with more invisible pedagogy. In this mode, when there may appear to be little or no control in the role of the teacher, there is nevertheless a degree of control even though it is not visible as it is the teacher who sets the activities and guides the lesson. The comparison between the textbooks used in the classroom and the four cases of classes and teachers focussed on characterising the instructional and regulative discourses. The content of the textbooks and guidelines in the teacher's book suggested that the instructional discourse was aligned with CLT as the classification was C- with relatively little curricular knowledge that is specialised or technical. The four cases reflected this. With regard to the regulative discourse, the teacher's book guidelines in the four lessons differed in terms of the strength of the F and how this changed across the entire lesson. The teacher's book suggested stronger F initially, but this was designed to change over each lesson towards weaker F, thus creating more communicative space for the students. Nevertheless, in terms of F, the four cases of enacted lessons were all consistently stronger than the teacher's book recommended. This F+ was apparent in all the observed lessons and their teacher-centred pedagogy.

When exploring the teachers' practice more closely, it can be seen that the focus on exams exerts a strong force on the classroom. All four cases mentioned reasoning behind their choices that could be related to the residual and dominant practice of the Saudi pedagogic nexus in the school. Hufton and Elliott (2000) argue that one of the main aspects of the pedagogic nexus is that continuity has a very strong impact on pedagogy. The pedagogies of the four cases all reflect the Saudi nexus and therefore, the dominant teacher-centred pedagogy. The four cases draw their pedagogic practices and beliefs from this. The theory of Walsh (2011) is more specific to this research as it discusses language interactions in the

classroom and proposes four modes (classroom context; managerial; materials; skills and systems modes) and interactional features.

The four cases enacted pedagogies that were different from what CLT demands in theory. Therefore, there was a mismatch between the theory of CLT and its enacted practice in terms of implementation. None of the four cases engaged with the strongly communicative activities even though they were recommended by the textbook. Group work and pair work in this regard were part of the emergent paradigm and not associated with the dominant mode of Saudi pedagogy (see Chapter One). Notably, practices such as group work and pair work tend to be more generative in the learning process, rather than producing the repetition that both the students and teachers were used to. They also reduce the role of the teacher in the classroom and make the classroom relations less hierarchical. Perhaps wary of this, the four teachers recontextualised these activities for their classes through their own professional filters. The ways in which each teacher highlighted different needs and supplemented the curriculum reflected what they considered a lack in CLT.

10.6.2 Methodological contribution

Another gap that emerged from the review of existing literature, especially in relation to studies conducted in Saudi contexts, was related to methodological design as none of the previous studies had used a combination of classroom observations, interviews and textbook analysis to develop a clear and layered picture of how CLT was being interpreted and implemented. This research has aimed to fill this gap by using a richer qualitative methodological design based on this combination. This is important in order to explore the interactions between what pedagogy the textbooks advocate, the teachers' actual pedagogy in the classroom, and what they understand and believe with regard to CLT. Understanding this combination of factors offers a more complex picture of teachers' actual practice, their reasoning for this, and what challenges they are facing in the Saudi context.

This research applied an interpretivist paradigm because it aimed to explore how people understand CLT and how this is impacted by people's professional experiences, knowledge and beliefs. Interpretivism argues that knowledge is subjective rather than objective. For this reason, the methodology aimed to access the participants' knowledge by allowing them to describe their views and their understanding. Interpretivism was also chosen as there will be no single truth about CLT in Saudi Arabia.

This work applied a case study methodology, considering both instrumental and collective aspects of the cases. It applied theories to explore the cases and to understand the bigger

picture of how CLT fits into the pedagogic culture of Saudi Arabia. The study used interviews, classroom observations and textbook analysis to generate data. I undertook interviews with four teachers and some of their students, with two interviews with each teacher. The first interview focused on developing a general understanding of CLT in Saudi Arabia, while the second asked them to explain their choices and practice that had been observed in the classroom observation. The student interviews were performed as focus groups for two teacher/ class cases. Classroom observation was undertaken to explore how the textbooks were used in the classroom, the teachers and the students' practice, and how they interacted with each other. The methodology was designed to explore whether and to what degree the pedagogy was driven by the textbooks based on CLT principles, what the teacher used from these textbooks, how they recontextualised the suggested activities, as well as how they interacted with the students. The interviews provided a space to explore the teachers' thinking and rationales behind their actual classroom practices.

Overall, the research design helped me to explore the enactment of CLT across different dimensions, via interviews, classroom observations and textbook analysis, drawing on different theories to look at different aspects. This helped to create a deeper and clearer picture of how CLT was being enacted within the four case studies.

10.7 Addressing the overarching research question: how does CLT fit into the pedagogic culture of Saudi Arabia?

As discussed in Section 10.3.1, the non-western literature on CLT highlights similar issues to the Saudi studies with the implementation of CLT. This research found these same issues, of cultural appropriacy, misunderstanding of CLT, conflicts over available time and space and concerns about the level of English needed for this approach. The major issue in this research seems to be the lack of alignment with assessment. In all four cases the classroom was strongly impacted by the mode of assessment. In relation to the three message systems of curriculum, pedagogy and assessment (Bernstein, 1990), as noted above, the exams served as a driving force, although the degree to which the exams drove the pedagogies varied, most significantly affecting the practice of Fahad, Talal and Ali. In these three cases, the existence of future exams encouraged a transmissive pedagogy that did not align with the CLT curriculum in what would count as valid knowledge. The teachers arranged their pedagogy in such a way as to teach what would appear on the assessment; therefore, the focus in the classroom became a focus on knowledge that could be memorised.

These three teachers' focus on assessment strongly shaped their pedagogies, which meant that the pedagogy and assessment worked in different ways and towards different goals from that of the curriculum. This had a similar effect on Tariq's pedagogy, but to a lesser degree; in Tariq's classroom assessment played a role, but his pedagogy aligned more with the textbook recommendations. In the other three cases, the pedagogies and assessment were not aligned with the curriculum. This suggests that CLT does not fit easily with the assessment culture of the Saudi Arabian setting. These findings are similar to those of Al Asmari (2015), who found that exams had a very strong impact on what the teachers teach. Farooq (2015) noted that CLT is complex, making it less clear how to assess the students using this approach. The studies in other national settings also found that exams affected the curriculum in terms of how and what to teach. From the literature review and these findings, how teachers themselves were assessed can be understood as contributing to the pedagogic nexus that underpins the dominant mode of pedagogy. The Saudi context is highly exam-focused. Notably, the students' comments also aligned with this exam orientation, which suggests that the power and consensus surrounding the nexus is reinforced not by teachers, making it the dominant mode of pedagogy. In this way the new curriculum and its emergent practices are working against a very different dominant pedagogic culture, as well as residual practices that teachers choose to sustain.

There was a very strong effect in three of the cases in terms of the explicit and implicit pedagogy and what and how to learn in the classroom. For the three cases other than Tariq their pedagogies were driven by exams and marks; for example, Fahad and Talal were clearly affected by the assessment mode as their pedagogies focused on passing and they made reference to what the students could memorise for the exams. Therefore, they were driven to teach what was memorisable and they supplemented the textbook with some papers that the students could memorise for the exams, as highlighted in Extracts 6.15 and 7.11. This also aligned with what the students considered to count as learning: they were concerned with marks as their end goal rather than actually learning or using the language. This consensus between students and teachers about what counts as learning creates a nexus that is difficult to shift.

There is another layer to consider in that CLT is being implemented in a different pedagogic context from the one in which it was created. CLT was, notably, first developed in Western contexts, where the pedagogic culture is characterised by very different features and conditions. This issue of the clash of CLT and the local context is discussed in Chapter 2, citing Holliday (1994) who notes that CLT has its distinct demands of space, materials and

pedagogic practice. The Saudi context has its own expectations of how students should learn, what learning should look like, and what the relationship between teachers and students should be. For example, although the teaching style tends to be hierarchical, as noted in Section 10.1.1, the relationship between the students and the teacher may still be warm. Kumaravadivelu (2006) also highlights other aspects of this clash. The English classroom is not isolated from other classrooms or classes in the same school. Therefore, if CLT is asking for the implementation of a pedagogy that differs from that of other classes, there will be a mismatch between what CLT and the textbooks demand and what the Saudi pedagogic nexus generally demands. This misalignment impacted on the case study teachers' use of the teachers' book as none of the four cases were closely following the guidelines. In Section 10.4.2 I highlight the clash of modes and features of interactions typically used in Saudi classrooms with those favoured by CLT. A specific point raised by Loumbourdi (2018) regards the different attitude in CLT towards mistakes. This difference may be part of the general observed and stated reluctance of the teachers in the four cases to take risks, especially as their content knowledge did not include the sociolinguistic, strategic and discourse elements of communicative competence that underpin the generative language promoted by CLT.

As discussed in Section 2.3.5, CLT is about language to use everyday and how to use it. However, this may clash with the role of the language as, in the experience of the researcher, there is very little proficient use of everyday English in Saudi Arabia. It is used by some adults in specific jobs, in industry and tourism, many Saudi households watch subtitled English language movies and TV shows, and bookshops usually have a small section of books written in English but beyond this it is mainly only used in the classroom. Even in situations where widespread use of English could be expected, among pilgrims to Mecca, what predominates, in the experience of the researcher, is broken English which is just enough to communicate to citizens, merchants and group organisers the basic needs of the pilgrims. This lack of proficient everyday use may push English into being a school subject, only useful for exams and certificates, rather than a means of communication.

10.8 Limitations

10.8.1 Time and Space

Time in the field to do the research

As with any research project, there were practical constraints regarding available time, access to resources and to participants. The data was generated in less than a month due to

the permission granted by the school and the Saudi Ministry of Education. That time included making arrangements for, and conducting, the four classroom observations, the interviews for each teacher, and the student focus groups. The time spent on each case could only cover one lesson and two interviews. Perhaps if more lessons had been observed, a different analysis could have explored the patterns in each teachers' practice. The single lesson I observed for each teacher allowed for more detailed analysis, with the risk that it may reflect one aspect of their pedagogy while they may have intended to employ other strategies at different stages to cover the curriculum. However, it would not have been possible to do such a detailed analysis on a whole week's lessons for each teacher.

One of the limitations of this study is that I generated the data in 2019. From that date until this time of writing, things may have changed in two ways. First, there are some new developments regarding English textbooks by the Ministry of Education. The new ELT coursebook for the same stage is now *SuperGoal 6*, published by McGraw-Hill Education in 2017 but only beginning to be used in Saudi schools in 2021. There is a need to explore the new textbook and its recontextualisations, which this research obviously could not do as it has just come out.

Secondly, Covid-19 restrictions may have impacted teaching practices as classes have been transferred online. These online only classes must be very different from the observed classes in this research. The relations between teacher and students may be very different in terms of hierarchy. This research was not able to explore the implementation of CLT using online technology as this was not in place before this year, 2021.

Space in the thesis to cover all aspects of the research

Another limitation was the selection of one example unit in the textbook used for analysis to explore the alignment between the curriculum, pedagogy and assessment. This could have been done better with all units taught in the observed classes as background for the case studies. This selection was necessary within the constraints of this doctoral study as the methodology used a complex theoretical framework to analyse not only the textbook but also the classroom observations, and interviews with both students and teachers.

10.8.2 Setting and Participants

Particular Setting

The selected school was chosen as representative of public middle schools in small cities in Saudi Arabia in modest neighbourhoods. The school was also for boys, so the research

sample only included male Saudi teachers and students as participants. Due to the culture of strict gender segregation, it was not possible for me as a male researcher to access female teachers or students. This research also undertook analysis of a textbook used at only one level of schooling. These necessary restrictions created a feasible study, but could also be considered a form of limitation. A particular issue was having to conduct the student focus groups in the office of the Deputy Head as I felt that, in this formal setting, the students thought that I was there to assess their level of English and how good their teachers were. Thus, they tended to praise their teachers rather than expressing freely any difficulty they may have had with CLT. The particular cultural impact on the availability of supporting raw data in the form of complete fieldnotes is discussed in Section 10.1.1.

Participant Recruitment

Another limitation regards participant recruitment for the focus groups. There were fewer students available for this than I had hoped because I had to ask for permission and the teachers acted as gatekeepers. These students were selected by the teacher because I had no access to the students directly, due to ethical and cultural reasons. Therefore, I feel that the voices of the students are not so clear or rich in this research because I planned to have four focus groups but I only had access to two groups.

There were also constraints in case study resources. I was not granted access to current or past examination papers. This would have been helpful to explore more deeply the alignment in the three message system with actual exams. What has been explored is what was reported by the teachers and the students: their experience and predictions, not the actual exams. However, in an interpretivist paradigm, these subjective accounts are important to take account of their points of view.

10.9 Future research

10.9.1 Different setting

With its variety of theoretical resources and its practical resonance with other contexts, this project offers a number of possibilities in terms of future possible research. To address the limitation of setting and participants, It would be useful to conduct future research in a larger more cosmopolitan city, in a richer private school, or in a more rural setting, to explore how students' and teachers' different exposure to English may affect pedagogical practices.

To do similar research in a girls' school would also provide an interesting comparison. In order to be sensitive to Saudi culture, the researcher should be female. I would also suggest

a comparative focus on other national settings, similar to or different from Saudi Arabia, to better understand how the local pedagogic nexus makes some reforms more or less possible.

10.9.2 CLT in online classes

The current Covid 19 restrictions have rapidly made online learning very common. Due to gender segregation in Saudi Arabia, this means that teachers only see their students at the beginning of the class, to register their attendance, then the students switch off their videos to prevent any family members being seen. This creates a very different learning experience. Therefore, it may be useful to explore whether and how CLT is being implemented using online classroom technologies.

10.9.3 Linking formative and summative assessment

It would be useful to explore the alignment between formative assessment in the textbooks with summative assessment in school exams. This could be done with access to past summative exams. It would also be productive to explore the pedagogy and curriculum alignment with these formative assessments and summative exams. The access to Ministry of Education school assessment papers would help with this.

Another perspective for future research is historical analysis of how exam papers may have changed over the period of the curriculum development and reform. This would be to see what the focus was, at each time in terms of assessment, and thus how learning a language was understood.

10.9.4 Focus on curriculum and textbook reform

For future research to build on this study, I suggest interviewing those responsible for designing the new curriculum and its development over time. This perspective would be to explore in depth the ORF's intentions and efforts to implement CLT and other language pedagogies in the Saudi context. I suggest also focussing on the ORF goals and design embedded in the new textbook adopted in 2021, and whether this development has brought in a dramatic shift in terms of presenting activities, what kind of pedagogy is being promoted, and how it uses the target language. An interesting aspect would be how globalisation is being presented and what balance there is between Saudi and non-Saudi images and material. Future research might also compare different levels – primary or secondary school – of the new textbook to understand how CLT might be understood and implemented differently over the years.

However, the findings of this research show that only focussing on the textbooks and teacher's books in isolation does not give the whole picture of the recontextualization at work in the wider process of implementation of CLT. Therefore, there could be research on the existence and effectiveness of any changes in Initial Teacher Education and CPD aimed at refreshing teacher knowledge as, without such changes, they might just keep teaching the way they think is best.

10.9.5 Focus on student participants

I suggest research that focuses on students with more time given to gain their trust and so allow them to be more explicit about what they want from language learning. This would entail a changed methodology, that could also use more creative age-appropriate strategies of engagement, and a longer period of data generation.

10.9.6 Focus on teacher education

I suggest research focusing on what kind of teachers' knowledge is promoted in teacher education in universities and colleges across Saudi Arabia. This could be done through document analysis of the curriculum and course materials used in English departments combined with interviewing tutors to better understand what kind of pedagogy they are promoting. The student teachers in their final year could also be interview participants, to explore what sense they make of their learning experiences.

Different generations may have different learning preferences. Therefore, it may be useful to use a quantitative method to access a larger sample with a purposeful sampling of those who graduated in different years under different policies. This could be done by using a survey design to recruit a larger number of graduating and newly qualified teachers as well as more experienced teachers to explore how their past teacher education has impacted on their current pedagogic practice.

10.10 Implications for policy and practice

10.10.1 Recontextualising CLT

Even though the Saudi Ministry of Education has changed the curriculum to improve the quality of teaching and learning of English, this research has shown that there remain many issues to be addressed. The textbooks I have studied here recontextualise the demands of CLT by adapting certain aspects in order to fit better with the Saudi pedagogic nexus but more recontextualising may be needed to close this gap.

CLT could be better implemented by listening to the experience of the teachers about what is possible, what is practical and what is particular to their actual pedagogic practice. I suggest a wider involvement of Saudi teachers to work on this based on these three aspects. Perhaps giving the teachers more space and input to redesign the curriculum might help, because the teachers are very important actors in this process given the process of recontextualization.

10.10.2 Aligning curriculum and assessment

Saudi traditional pedagogy has very F+ and promotes a hierarchical relation in the classroom, and the criterion for success is passing the exams rather than simply learning the language. To achieve the aims of CLT better, there could be greater alignment between the more communicative curriculum and the mode of assessment. One suggestion would be to implement oral assessments and a greater emphasis on fluency not just accuracy in written work.

10.10.3 Initial Teacher Education and Continuing Professional Development

From the interviews and observations, it was clear that CLT makes heavy demands on Saudi teachers by asking them to go against their pedagogic beliefs and existing professional knowledges about English language teaching. It also makes demands of students who experience other subjects in the same classroom with teachers not using such student-centred pedagogies. CLT demands a different pedagogy from the rest of the school and one that is notably different from the Saudi pedagogic culture. Both teachers and students may need to be convinced that such student-centred pedagogy is worth investing in.

The four case study teachers clearly reported that they were unfamiliar with CLT. Therefore, there could be an added focus on building the contributing teacher knowledges and practice. Teacher education could be better aligned with the ORF demands of CLT to focus more on the sociolinguistic, strategic and discourse elements of communicative competence if language teachers are to understand CLT principles and feel competent in their content knowledge. All components of teacher knowledges (see Section 10.3.2) need to be addressed in teacher education. CLT could not only be taught in terms of CK, its principles and its development and difference from other pedagogies such as GTM and ALM, but also in terms of PCK, teaching the specific kind of classroom practice that supports the implementation of CLT. This may be linked to more general PK, such as the skills necessary to use and adapt textbooks. There is also the possibility of promoting greater awareness of the alternative order of PPP as well as the strong version of CLT, with its perhaps more clearly different

and less teacher-centred pedagogy. All of this could be supported by continuing professional development, building on the existing the Experience Program (discussed in Chapter One) which could include incentives for teachers to give more time to English input in order to increase the effectiveness of the implementation of CLT in Saudi Arabia.

10.10.4 Contribution of CLT to ELT in Saudi Arabia

In a “state-of the-art essay”, Kumaravadivelu (2006, p.59) provides the broad context of the theoretical and methodological developments in EFL – as the findings of SLA researchers and the experience of EFL teachers and students have challenged previously accepted ways of thinking about learning and teaching.

We have been awakened to the necessity of making methods-based pedagogies more sensitive to local exigencies, awakened to the opportunity afforded by postmethod pedagogies to help practicing teachers develop their own theory of practice, awakened to the multiplicity of learner identities, awakened to the complexity of teacher beliefs, and awakened to the vitality of macrostructures—social, cultural, political, and historical—that shape and reshape the microstructures of our pedagogic enterprise. (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p.75)

It is in this context of huge global changes that the findings of this thesis are presented. Thornbury (2001, p.391), writing about the “low status” of TEFL, notes two reactions to this perception: an academic model, that emphasises professionalism, and a therapeutic model which he describes as a “concern for personal growth and social hygiene” (Thornbury, 2001, p.394). Critiquing both models, Thornbury proposes a third, dialogic, model:

By (re-)orienting themselves in the direction of their learners, neither as transmitters of language facts nor as healers, but simply as co-participants in the shared classroom culture, teachers may realise that they occupy a privileged space on the frontier between languages, and hence on the frontier between cultures, and that as a result they are uniquely situated to mediate contact through *dialogue*. It is the potential—and the risk—that such dialogue offers that rescues language teaching from the realm of the humdrum (including its blinkered fixation on grammatical form). (Thornbury, 2001, p.394, emphasis original)

This discussion chapter has summarised the research findings detailed in previous chapters, linking them to the reviewed literature, to the theoretical framework and to the textbook analysis and data generated through interviews, focus groups and classroom observations.

The distinct theoretical and methodological contributions of this research have been clarified, the limitations have been admitted, further research recommended and the research questions addressed. All of this discussion, including the sections on personal reflections and implications for educational policy, can be read in the light of the perspectives of Kumaravadivelu (2006) and Thornbury (2001) quoted above.

For CLT to be successfully implemented in Saudi Arabia, it has to provide an answer to the challenges faced by students and teachers of English as a Foreign Language, not another problem. Pedagogy, in order to be useful, has to be particular, practical, and possible (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). That means that the particularity of the culture and educational setting of Saudi Arabia cannot be ignored. The practicalities of resources of time and space, equipment and materials must be taken into consideration along with the possibilities afforded by present opportunities for teacher education and the system of assessment now in place. All of these considerations may change as circumstance change, and Saudi Arabia is currently in a process of change in many ways. However, teachers cannot be expected to implement pedagogy that is presently unrealistic even if it may be useful in a future that none of us can predict. Therefore the interrelated factors driving their recontextualization of CLT, as evidenced and discussed in this thesis, must be understood and taken into account.

Perhaps what Saudi Arabia needs now is first of all a recognition of its rapid development culturally and in terms of educational policy. Teachers and students, and parents, may need time to adjust to this change. The textbook analysis in Chapter 5 highlighted gendered differences of male and female representation however, to some very traditional Muslim parents, it is already a huge change that a Saudi school textbook would contain any images at all. Similarly, while it may be true that the strong version of CLT favours oral fluency, the idea that making mistakes is not a sign of the failure of the learning process, but of successful risk-taking, is for some teachers already another big change. The fixation about grammar as a secure and teachable system that Thornbury (2001) criticises, above, is understandable and so is the belief, asserted by all four case study teachers, that using L1 to teach it saves time. At the same time, there is the genuine desire of the students, expressed in Extract 7.5: “teacher I want to learn things not letters and numbers” (S1).

Thornbury’s dialogic model, based on that of Freire and aligned with the theories of Bruner and Vygotsky, “in which learning is jointly constructed through talk” Thornbury (2001, pp.394-395) may offer a way forward. This is also the way that data is generated in research interviews and it was through a succession of talk with students and a teacher that I recognised the effect on learning of good relationships in the classroom (see Section 10.1.1

above). Out of all four teachers, only one of them, while professing not to understand CLT, had any space for genuine communication in the classroom – and that was one way, from teacher to students. He did this by talking to them, warmly. Saudi pedagogy can be described as hierarchical and controlled but it can also be thought of as paternal, and maternal. There is no question about who has the control, it is always the teacher. However, even within that controlled space, there is some possibility of freedom.

Saudi students may not be ready to be thrown into task-based learning, the deep end of CLT (Thornbury, 1999). The weak form of CLT, even using the traditional order of PPP (present-practice-produce) communicatively may be all they, or their teachers, can cope with. However, even if they are only at the shallow end, this less risky pedagogy may be refreshing if all they are used to is sitting at the side of this pool of knowledge, learning about the target language theoretically or through drills. Finally, they might even start to swim.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Plain Language Statement



University
of Glasgow

College of Social
Sciences
Teachers

Plain Language Statement (Main Study - Teacher)

1. Study title and Researcher Details

Name of the researcher:

Ahmed Olayan R. Alharbi E-mail: [CONFIDENTIAL] Telephone: [CONFIDENTIAL]

First supervisor:

Professor Catherine Doherty E-mail: [CONFIDENTIAL] Telephone: [CONFIDENTIAL]

Second supervisor:

Dr Carole Ann MacDiarmid E-mail: [CONFIDENTIAL] Telephone: [CONFIDENTIAL]

Study title: Implementation of communicative language teaching (CLT) in Saudi Arabian classrooms

2. Invitation

I would like to invite you to take part in this study. Before you decide whether you would like to take a part it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take the time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with me if you wish. Please feel free to ask questions about anything about which you are unclear. If you would like to have more information, please contact me. Please take your time to consider whether you wish to take part.

3. What is the purpose of the study?

My research aims to examine how communicative language teaching (CLT) is implemented in Saudi Arabian middle schools. The research will examine how CLT fits into or rubs against the teaching culture of Saudi Arabia. Moreover, it focuses on examining how textbooks address CLT principles, how the teachers and students understand CLT, what teachers and students understand to be the advantages and disadvantages of using CLT, and how the teachers have learned to teach CLT. The research aims to explore the difficulties that come with CLT for both the teachers and students.

4. Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen because you are an English teacher in a middle school.

5. Do I have to take part?

The taking part in this study is not compulsory. You can choose to participate and you can refuse but your participation will be appreciated and your views will be very important.

6. What will happen to me if I take part?

I would like to observe one of your English classes for 3 to 4 weeks. I would like to audio record your teaching.

I would also like to interview you for 40 to 50 minutes at a time and place convenient for you. The interview will be about ... (general idea of topics). While I am interviewing you, I will audio-record the interview.

7. Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

Any names or personal information will be replaced by a pseudonym. The data will be saved on my personal laptop and transferred to my University of Glasgow computer account, both protected by password. When I have completed my study personal data will be deleted.

I assure you that, as a researcher, I observe confidentiality very strictly.

Please note that assurances on confidentiality will be strictly adhered to unless evidence of wrongdoing or potential harm is uncovered. In such cases the University may be obliged to contact relevant statutory bodies/ agencies.

8. What will happen to the results of the research study?

The data from the observations and interviews will be analysed in my doctoral study and may also be published. I will prepare a summary of the research findings for the participants if interested.

9. Who is organising and funding the research?

Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia Cultural Bureau

10. Who has reviewed the study?

This project has been considered and approved by the Social Sciences/School of Education Research Ethics Committee at the University of Glasgow, UK, and the ... education department.

11. Contact for Further Information

For further information, please contact

Prof. Catherine Doherty E-mail: [CONFIDENTIAL] Tel. [CONFIDENTIAL]

or Dr Carole Ann MacDiarmid E-mail: [CONFIDENTIAL] Tel. [CONFIDENTIAL]

If you have any concerns regarding the conduct of this research project you may contact the College of Social Sciences Ethics Officer, Dr Muir Houston, email: [CONFIDENTIAL]



Participant Information Sheet – pupils/ parents

Enacting communicative language pedagogy in Saudi Arabian classrooms.

Researcher: Mr. Ahmed Alharbi Email: [CONFIDENTIAL]

Supervisors: Professor Catherine Doherty and Dr Carole Ann MacDiarmid

Course: Ph.D. in Education.

You are invited to take part in a study to examine how a special kind of teaching called ‘communicative language teaching’ (CLT) is being used to teach English in a Saudi Arabian middle school. You have been asked because your English class has been chosen for this study with your principal’s and teacher’s permission.

Before you decide if you want to take part, it is important for you to understand why the study is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the information on this page carefully and discuss it with others in the class and your parent/ carer if you wish. Ask me if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether you wish to take part.

What will happen if you take part?

- 1) I would like to observe your English classes for 3 to 4 weeks. This will not affect your grades. I will not ask any questions in the observation, I will only be watching the class and audio-recording it so that I can analyse it later. The observation will be from 40 to 50 minutes for 3 to 4 weeks.
- 2) I would also like to interview some of the students in a group. The interview will take about minutes of your time at school. Your parents would be welcome to observe the interviews. Do not worry, these question will not have any affect your grades. You can answer them or you can refuse to answer any question. That’s no problem. I will ask questions about the textbook, learning English in your class, and what challenges you have in the class. If you or your parent/carers do not want you to participate in the study, you do not have to take part. Even if you do not take part in the interview, you can remain in the classroom observation. If you have agreed to take part and then you change your mind later, just let me know and I will not use your data in my study.

Keeping information confidential (private)

I will keep the data private, saved in my laptop and at the university, both secured by passwords. Your name will not appear in my published research. If you have any concerns during the classroom observation or interview, I may need to tell other people who need to know, to keep you safe.

The results of this study

Once I have collected the information from everyone in this study, I will write what I have learned from this information in my doctoral thesis (it's like a very, very long essay) as this is important to complete my research. This research will be read by other people to mark and give me feedback. I will tell you, as well as the other students, what I have found from you about the textbooks of English and teaching English in your classrooms. I will tell your teachers as well what I have found (but not who told me what). I will destroy the audio recording, the notes that I have written after my study is completed

Review of the study

This study has been reviewed and agreed by the School of Education Ethics Forum, University of Glasgow

Contact for further Information

For further information, please contact:

Prof. Catherine Doherty E-mail: [CONFIDENTIAL] Tel. [CONFIDENTIAL]

or Dr Carole Ann MacDiarmid E-mail: [CONFIDENTIAL] Tel. [CONFIDENTIAL]

If you have any concerns regarding the conduct of this research project you may contact the College of Social Sciences Ethics Officer, Dr Muir Houston, email: [CONFIDENTIAL]

Thank you for reading this! *Mr. Ahmed Alharbi*

Appendix C: Prepared Semi-Structured Interview Questions

Teachers

Interview Questions (teachers)

Your language teaching

1. Tell me about your approach to teaching English?
2. What makes a good lesson?
3. What kind of principles inform your teaching?

Part 1 Understanding of CLT

1. What do you understand about CLT?
2. Can you give examples of CLT?
3. What do teachers have to focus on in the classroom? What is important? What principles do you think exist in the typical CLT classroom?
4. What does CLT language learning look like, feel like, sound like ...
5. How should the students learn by using CLT? (What do they learn)

Part 2 Challenges and constraints with regard to implementing CLT

1. What challenges do you face when you teach by using CLT?
2. How are the students able to learn English by using CLT? What difficulties do you find with the students?

Part 3 Advantages and disadvantages of CLT

1. What advantages do you think CLT brings?
2. What are the disadvantages of CLT?

Accounts of observed practice (for observed teachers)

- I observed that you Could you tell me more about your thinking then?
- I observed that you chose to ... Could you tell me more about your choices/planning?
- I observed that your students Could you tell me more about that?

Students

Interview Questions (students)

Students' understanding of language learning

- How do you learn English?
- What kind of activities do you do in class to learn English?
- What other activities do you think would help you learn English?

When I watched your classes, I noticed that ...

- What did you think about that activity?
- What did you learn through that activity?

How do find the English textbooks that you're learning?

- What kind of tasks are helpful for your learning?
- How would you improve the textbook design?

Challenges

- What challenges have you encountered learning English?
- How would you change your English lessons to improve your learning?

Appendix D: Textbook Extracts

Appendix D-1: *Lift Off 6*, Unit 2

Unit 2 Achievements, ambitions, adventures

LESSON 1

A READING Tick (✓) the correct answer.

- | | | | | |
|--|---------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|
| 1 What kind of text is this? | a an article | <input type="checkbox"/> | b a story | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2 Which of these is the better title? | a Two popular books | <input type="checkbox"/> | b Journey to the deep | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3 'The Mariana Trench is 11 km deep.' Is this: | a a fact? | <input type="checkbox"/> | b an opinion? | <input type="checkbox"/> |

James Cameron Saudi Stars

James Cameron has had an interesting life. He has studied at university. He has written books and edited films. He has been a photographer and a deep-sea diver. He has even been a truck driver.

Recently James Cameron has done something that no one has done for more than fifty years. He has dived to the bottom of the Mariana Trench in a special submarine. This equalled the deepest dive which anyone has ever made.



11 km down in the Mariana Trench under the Pacific Ocean, the water is very cold and there is no light. The pressure of the water is enough to kill you immediately. So why did James Cameron want to go there? Because it is the deepest place on the surface of the Earth.

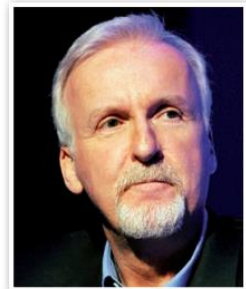


B READING AND SPEAKING Work in pairs. Ask and answer. 👤👤

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 Where has James Cameron studied? | 2 What other job has James Cameron had? |
| 3 What has James Cameron done recently? | 4 What is it like 11 km under the sea? |
| 5 How did he travel there? | 6 Why did he go? |

C LISTENING Complete the table about James Cameron.  Track 6

| Year | What happened |
|--------------------|--|
| 1954 | James Cameron ¹ <u>was born</u> . |
| ² _____ | his family moved to the United States. |
| 1974 | James Cameron left ³ _____. |
| 1977 | James Cameron got a job in a ⁴ _____. |
| ⁵ _____ | James Cameron went to the Mariana Trench. |



D SPEAKING Work in pairs. Ask and answer questions about James Cameron. 

What happened in 1954? **James Cameron was born.**

When did his family move to the United States?

E GRAMMAR Answer these questions in your notebook.

Tell us about yourself.

- 1 What's the most beautiful place you have ever been to?
- 2 Who is the most interesting person you ever have ever met?
- 3 What is the highest town you have ever travelled to?
- 4 What is the most frightening dream you have ever dreamt?



F PRONUNCIATION Listen and copy the intonation.  Track 7

G SPEAKING Work in pairs. 

- 1 Look at the article and table about James Cameron and prepare to interview him.
- 2 Take the parts of an interviewer and James Cameron.

 see Workbook pp94–95

Unit 2 Achievements, ambitions, adventures

LESSON 2 Plans for the future

A READING Are the sentences below true (T) or false (F)?

The screenshot shows a web browser window titled 'Marhaba Website' with the URL 'http://www.kingfaisalschool.org/marhabawebsite'. The website has a red header with the 'Marhaba' logo and navigation links: HOME, TOPICS, STORIES, INSPIRATION, READERS, and NEWS. Below the header is a green banner with the text 'Unusual ambitions' and 'Ambitions • Words'. The main content area features a photo of a young man in a pink shirt and blue helmet standing with a blue bicycle. A speech bubble next to him says: 'Some readers told us about their unusual ambitions. Have a look.' Below the photo is another image of a cyclist riding on a sand dune. To the right of these images is a white text box containing a letter from Waleed:

Dear Marhaba,

I want to tell you about my ambition. As a Saudi, I want to ride for the Saudi cycling team at the Olympic® Games. I am good at riding. I've raced bikes for more than five years. I won a gold medal in a race for young cyclists at the Saudi Cycling Championships last year.

Now, I plan to become an Olympic® cyclist. It won't be easy. I'm going to have to do more training. I cycle five hours a week at the moment but I'll need to increase this to ten or fifteen hours a week. I'll also get help from a special cycling trainer.

I'll have to work very hard to achieve my ambition. And if I can't achieve it and I'm not good enough to cycle at the Olympics®, well, I won't give up riding. I enjoy it very much.

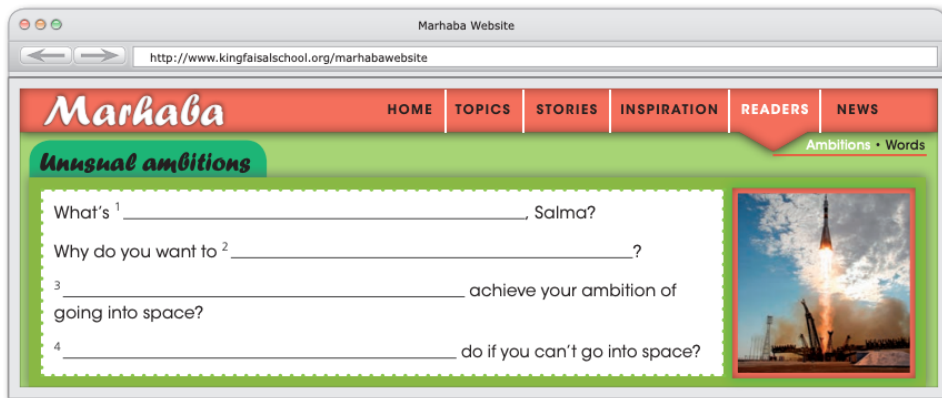
Waleed

B SPEAKING Work in pairs. Correct the false statements and say five facts about Waleed.

- | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------|--|--------------------------|
| 1 Waleed is Saudi. | <input type="checkbox"/> | 2 He wants to run in the Olympic® Games. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3 He's ridden a bike for a year. | <input type="checkbox"/> | 4 He took part in the Cycling Championships. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5 He trains for ten hours a week. | <input type="checkbox"/> | 6 A trainer is going to help Waleed. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Waleed wants to ride a bike at the Olympic Games.

C LISTENING Complete the questions.  Track 8




Marhaba Website
http://www.kingfaisalschool.org/marhabawebsite

Marhaba HOME TOPICS STORIES INSPIRATION READERS NEWS
Ambitions • Words

Unusual ambitions

What's ¹ _____, Salma?
Why do you want to ² _____?
³ _____ achieve your ambition of going into space?
⁴ _____ do if you can't go into space?



D LISTENING Listen again and number these sentences in the correct order.  Track 8

- a Salma has dreamed of going into space for a long time.
- b Salma wants to be the first Saudi female in space.
- c Salma will try and save money for a ticket.
- d Salma has always wanted to see the stars from space.
- e Companies are developing rockets to take people into space.

E SPEAKING Work in pairs. 

- 1 Interview Waleed about his ambition.
- 2 Interview Salma about her ambition.

F GRAMMAR What ideas can help people to achieve these ambitions?
Write two sentences with *will* for each ambition.

do well at school

1 I'll read a lot and use the internet.

2 I'll revise well before my exams.

do well at school
help poor people
have lots of friends
be fit and healthy
learn another language
visit interesting places

G VOCABULARY Write these words in alphabetical order in your notebook.

determined achievement astronaut
ambition cycling championship
adventure cyclist carve dive

 see Workbook pp96–97

Unit 2 • Lesson 2

Unit 2 Achievements, ambitions, adventures

LESSON 3 *An amazing story*

We have an amazing story from South America this week.



A **READING AND SPEAKING** Look at the pictures. Ask and answer the questions. 👤👤

A ESCUELA
Do you like school here in Peru?

B
What time are we meeting Dad?

C
The weather is terrible.

D
I was wearing my seatbelt.

- 1 Where did this story take place?
- 2 Who was waiting to meet them?
- 3 What was the weather like?
- 4 What happened at the end of the story?

B **READING** Now read the story. Were you right?

Saudi Stars: Alone in the jungle

- 1 Juliane Koepcke is German. When she was 17, in 1971, she was studying at a school which was in Lima, Peru in South America. Her parents were doing research there. One January holiday, Juliane and her mother caught a plane to visit her father who was working in the city of Pucallpa at that time.
- 2 While Juliane and her mother were flying, there was a very bad storm. Suddenly lightning hit the plane. At a height of 3,200 metres, the plane broke into pieces and crashed into the jungle below. Juliane found

herself falling to the ground. 'I was in my plane seat and I was wearing my seat belt when I fell,' Juliane remembered. When she reached the ground, she survived her fall. She had a broken bone in her shoulder, a cut to her right arm and a bruise on her right eye.

- 3 When Juliane recovered a little from her fall, she tried to find her mother. She couldn't. She was alone in the jungle. She later learnt her mother and all the other passengers died in the accident.

C **LISTENING AND SPEAKING** Repeat paragraph 2. 🗣️🎧 Track 9

D GRAMMAR AND SPEAKING Work in pairs. Make complete sentences. 

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------------|
| 1 ... was studying in Peru. | 2 ... who was working in Pucallpa. |
| 3 While Juliane and her mother ... | 4 ... which crashed into the jungle. |
| 5 ... was wearing a seat belt when ... | 6 ... survived her fall. |
| 7 ... broke a bone, cut her ... | 8 ... tried to find her mother. |

When Juliane was 17, she was studying in Peru.

E LISTENING Complete the story. Number the pictures in the correct order.  Track 10



F WRITING Copy and complete Juliane's story in your notebook.

When Juliane Koepcke was 17, she was studying ¹.... Her parents were ²... One holiday, Juliane and her mother caught ³... While they were flying, ⁴... The plane ⁵... and Juliane fell ⁶... When she recovered a little from ⁷... she tried ⁸... Juliane ate ⁹... and followed a stream ¹⁰... After nine days she found some men who ¹¹... They took her ¹²... and a plane took her ¹³... When she was better, Juliane went ¹⁴... and studied ¹⁵... In 2011 Juliane wrote ¹⁶....

 see Workbook pp98–99



STUDY TIP

In words with two or more syllables, one syllable has more stress.



A PRONUNCIATION Put a **•** on the syllable with the most stress and count the number of syllables.

Marhaba Website
http://www.kingfaisalschool.org/marhabawebsite

Marhaba HOME TOPICS STORIES INSPIRATION READERS NEWS
Saudi Arabia • Wildlife • Natural Gas • Grammar • Rapa Nui

Syllable stress

| Which is the syllable with the most stress? | How many syllables? | Which is the syllable with the most stress? | How many syllables? |
|---|---------------------|---|---------------------|
| a ambition | 3 | b achieve | — |
| c biology | — | d submarine | — |
| e shoulder | — | f survive | — |
| g championship | — | h astronaut | — |

B LISTENING Check your work. Track 11

C VOCABULARY Copy this into your notebook. Complete with words from the box.

cycle dive lightning ocean Peru
rain Saudi Arabia storm stream
submarine truck United States

1 Saudi Arabia 2 _____ 4 _____ 5 _____

countries

3 _____

transport

6 _____

7 _____ 8 _____ 10 _____ 11 _____

water

9 _____

weather

12 _____

Marhaba Website
http://www.kingfaisalschool.org/marhabawebsite

Markaba HOME TOPICS STORIES INSPIRATION READERS NEWS
Saudi Arabia • Wildlife • Natural Gas • Grammar • Rapa Nui

Grammar Study

| Present perfect | Past simple |
|---|---|
| <p>Grammar has/have + verb + -ed, for example has dived</p> <p>Use</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 For an action which began in the past and affects what is happening now. 2 With words such as <i>since</i>, <i>for</i>, <i>ever</i> and <i>never</i>. | <p>Grammar Verb + -ed, for example <i>asked</i>; or different irregular verbs (e.g. <i>go/went</i>, <i>write/wrote</i>, <i>put/put</i>)</p> <p>Use</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 For an action which started and finished in the past. 2 With words such as: <i>yesterday</i>, <i>(two weeks) ago</i>, <i>last (July)</i>; <i>in + time (1993)</i>; <i>at + time (6 o'clock)</i>; <i>on + time (Sunday)</i>. |

D GRAMMAR Underline the correct form of the verb to complete the article.

Majid Suleiman ¹comes/has come from a small town on the Red Sea coast of Saudi Arabia. He first ²has started/started diving when he was a boy and he ³has dived/dived ever since then. When Majid ⁴has left/left school four years ago, he ⁵has decided/decided to work as a diver. Majid ⁶has studied/studied in diving schools in Jeddah and overseas and he now ⁷works/has worked as a diver in the oil industry. ⁸I enjoy/have enjoyed my job very much. It's a very interesting job.'



Majid at work

E WRITING Write in your notebook.

Write about an unusual or amazing thing which happened to you.
What were you doing at the start of the story?
What unusual or amazing thing happened?
What did you do?
What happened after that?

An unusual story
Last Wednesday I was on my way to ...
Suddenly ...

1c Be creative!

Lesson Link



www.ien.edu.sa

1 Warm-up

Discuss.

- Which of these arts and crafts are you familiar with?
- Are they popular in your country?

pottery patchwork sewing carpentry
jewellery making rug making calligraphy collage



2 Read

A. Look at the pictures below. What kind of arts and crafts do these people like? Listen, read and check your answers.

Talented youths



Hi, I'm Brian and I'm from NYC. I started making pottery at the age of six and I am still a big fan of the craft. I don't want to do anything else in my free time. I make plates, bowls and vases and then paint some of them with bright colours. One day, I hope to sell my work in many countries around the world.

Brian, New York City



I am Sandhya and I love making rugs. My grandmother is into rug making, so I learnt everything there is to know about the craft from her. I am fond of rugs which have nice colours and patterns because I think they create a nice atmosphere in the house. My favourite rugs are the traditional Arabic rugs, which you can find anywhere in the world, because they are very popular. We have a small collection at home. Right now I'm making a beautiful rug with sixteen different colours.

Sandhya, India

My name's Darren and my dream is to become a professional carpenter when I grow up. I'm very enthusiastic about this craft, because I love working with wood. The feeling of creating something with your hands is out of this world. My father is a carpenter, he taught me everything, and I help him out at his shop all the time. When I am older, I want to own a shop, too.

Darren, Manchester

B. Read again and write B for Brian, S for Sandhya or D for Darren.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. One of my parents is doing what I want to do in the future. <input type="radio"/> | 4. I learnt this art from a member of my family. <input type="radio"/> |
| 2. I learnt this craft at a very young age. <input type="radio"/> | 5. I help my father at work. <input type="radio"/> |
| 3. I use colour in my work. <input type="radio"/> | 6. I want to make a business out of my hobby. <input type="radio"/> |

3 Vocabulary

Read the sentences. Which of the phrases in bold mean *like* and which *dislike*? Use these phrases to make your own sentences.

1. Muna is a **big fan** of pottery. She's got a big collection at home.
2. Oliver **can't stand** listening to the news. It gives him a headache.
3. Aisha is **interested** in sewing. She wants to learn how to make her own clothes.
4. Mary is **fond** of chocolate. She sometimes eats a bit too much.
5. Yusef finds magazines **boring**. He rarely reads them.
6. My sister and I are **really into** reading. We've got hundreds of books.

4 Grammar

Some / Any / No / Every and their compounds

- **Someone** must go to the supermarket. We need **some** milk.
- I haven't got **any** new magazines. Is there a newsstand **anywhere** near here?
- There are **no** good games on this computer. So, there's **nothing** to play.
- **Every** student is coming to the meeting. **Everybody's** going to be there.



Circle the correct words.

1. A: I'm worried about my presentation tomorrow. Something / Anything is going to go wrong.
B: Don't worry. Nobody / Nothing will go wrong. Everybody / Everything feels stressed before presentations. You'll be fine.
2. Someone / No one wants to play sports any more. Anyone / Everyone wants to hang out at the shopping centre.
3. A: I can't find my mobile phone nowhere / anywhere. Have you seen it?
B: I tidied up earlier and put everything / everywhere in that box. Have a look there.

Go to pages 142-144 for extra grammar practice.

6 Write

A. Read the plan below. Can you think of a few more phrases for each part?

When you're writing a letter or an email to a new penfriend/e-pal to introduce yourself, follow the plan below.

GREETING

- ▶ Greet the person you're writing to.
 - Dear Abdullah, • Hi Fatima,

OPENING PARAGRAPH

- ▶ Give information about how you found the person's name and address. Use phrases like:
 - I found your name and address in ... magazine.
 - ... gave me your name and address.

MAIN PART (2-3 paragraphs)

- ▶ Give information about yourself (name, age, nationality, appearance, family, where you live, friends, school, interests/hobbies, likes/dislikes).
- ▶ Ask questions to find out about your new penfriend/e-pal.

CLOSING PARAGRAPH

- ▶ Ask the person to write back. Use phrases like:
 - Waiting for your letter/email.
 - That's all about me for now. Write back soon.

SIGNING OFF

- ▶ Use a signature ending and your first name below it.
 - Bye for now, • Best wishes,
 - Saleh Reema

5 Listen

Listen to four people and match them with the arts and crafts they do. There are two extra arts and crafts which you do not need to use.

- | | |
|--------|------------------|
| Eddie | collage |
| Sandra | pottery |
| Tony | carpentry |
| Mandy | rug making |
| | jewellery making |
| | calligraphy |

B. Imagine you saw the following advertisement in a teenage magazine. Write an email to Greg introducing yourself. Follow the plan above.

E-PAL WANTED

My name is Greg and I'm 15 years old. I live in London and I'm into arts and crafts. Please write to: greg99a@mymail.com

Appendix D-3: Full Blast 1, Lesson 3, 'Numbers'

3 Numbers 

A. Listen and repeat.



B. Talk in pairs.

*What's your phone number?
It's 020 78441973.*



NOTE: for telephone numbers:
0 = oh
44 = double four

C. Listen and repeat.

| | |
|------|-------------------|
| 10 | ten |
| 11 | eleven |
| 12 | twelve |
| 13 | thirteen |
| 14 | fourteen |
| 15 | fifteen |
| 16 | sixteen |
| 17 | seventeen |
| 18 | eighteen |
| 19 | nineteen |
| 20 | twenty |
| 21 | twenty-one |
| ... | |
| 30 | thirty |
| ... | |
| 40 | forty |
| ... | |
| 50 | fifty |
| ... | |
| 60 | sixty |
| ... | |
| 70 | seventy |
| ... | |
| 80 | eighty |
| ... | |
| 90 | ninety |
| ... | |
| 100 | a hundred |
| ... | |
| 110 | a hundred and ten |
| ... | |
| 300 | three hundred |
| ... | |
| 1000 | a thousand |

D. Talk in pairs.

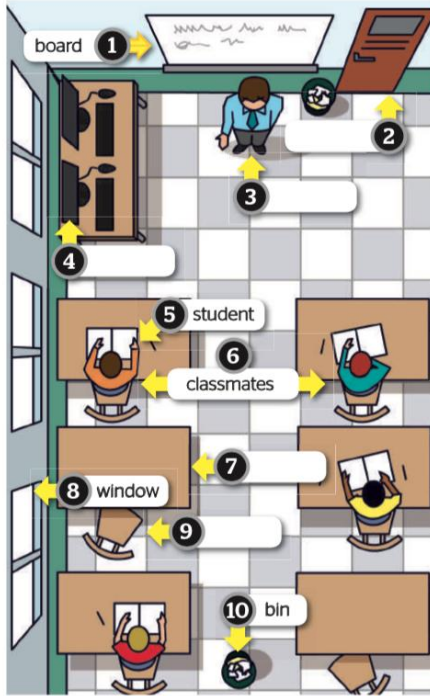
*How old are you?
I'm 13 (years old).*



4 In the classroom

A. Label the picture with the words in the box. Then listen and check your answers.

door chair computer teacher desk



B. Look at the picture above, count and write.

Plurals
a chair → chairs

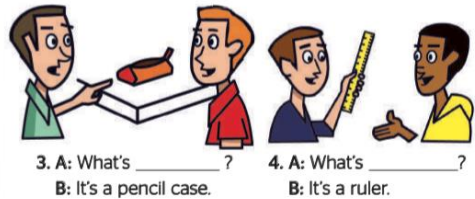
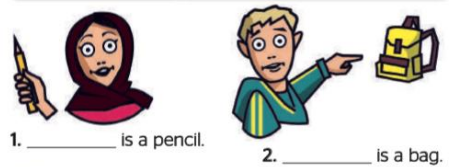
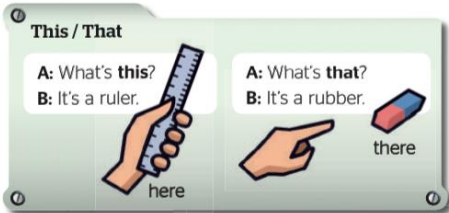
two bins

| | |
|-------|-------|
| _____ | _____ |
| _____ | _____ |
| _____ | _____ |
| _____ | _____ |

C. Look at the pictures below and complete with a or an. Then listen and check your answers.



D. Look at the pictures below and complete with *this* or *that*. Then listen and check your answers.



1a Let's meet up



Read

A. Discuss.

- Do you talk with your friends on the phone a lot?
- What do you talk about?
- Do you think having a mobile helps you make plans when going out?

B. Look at the pictures and guess. What do you think is happening? Listen to the dialogues and check your answers. Then read them out in groups.



Bill Hello, All
All Hi, how's it going?
Bill Fine.
All Do you want to do something? Maybe come round my house or...
Bill Sorry, I'm a bit busy with my ICT project at the moment.
All I finished mine yesterday. What are you doing tonight?
Bill Nothing much, why?
All Let's go to the park. We rarely go there and it's beautiful.
Bill Sure, why not? Let's ring Tom and ask him to come along.
All I can't get hold of him.
Bill What do you mean?
All Well, I called but he isn't answering.
Bill That's strange. Oh well, let me try his landline.

Tom Hello?
Bill Hi Tom, what are you up to?
Tom I'm looking for my mobile.
Bill Now I get it. That's why you aren't answering your phone.
Tom Yeah, I can't find it. I think it's in my brother's car, but he broke his phone so I can't reach him.
Bill You lost your phone and your brother broke his. What are you two like?
Tom I know.
Bill Listen, do you fancy going to the park later tonight?
Tom That would be great. How about asking All?
Bill Yes, he's coming. I just talked to him.
Tom OK, let's meet there at eight o'clock.

C. Look at the expressions 1-6 from the dialogues and match them with the meanings a-f.

- | | |
|------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. How's it going? | a. What's wrong with you? |
| 2. come along | b. contact or find somebody |
| 3. get hold of | c. What are you doing at the moment? |
| 4. What are you up to? | d. How are you? |
| 5. I get it. | e. I understand. |
| 6. What are you like? | f. go somewhere with somebody |



D. Read the dialogues again and write T for True or F for False.

- | | | | |
|---|-----------------------|---|-----------------------|
| 1. All has finished his ICT project. | <input type="radio"/> | 4. All tried to ring Tom on his mobile. | <input type="radio"/> |
| 2. Bill doesn't want to go out later. | <input type="radio"/> | 5. Tom broke his mobile. | <input type="radio"/> |
| 3. The boys don't often go to the park. | <input type="radio"/> | 6. Tom told Bill to meet him at the park. | <input type="radio"/> |

2 Grammar

Present Simple vs Present Progressive

- When my friends **come** round to my house, we usually **play** computer games. But today, we're **playing** football in the garden.
- A: Are you **coming** with us to the stadium tomorrow? The match **starts** at 3.00.
B: No, sorry, I **don't want** to come. I **hate** football.

NOTE STATIVE VERBS (see, like, love, hate, want, need, understand, know, etc.) are **not** usually used in the present progressive.

Complete with the present simple or the present progressive of the verbs in brackets.

- Gavin rarely _____ (use) his computer to surf the Net. He usually _____ (play) computer games. He _____ (play) a basketball game at the moment. He _____ (love) basketball.
- A: Excuse me, Mr Salman. Can you help me with this Maths question? I _____ (not understand) it.
B: In a minute. I _____ (help) Ameer now.
- A: Hasna and I _____ (go) shopping tomorrow. What time _____ that shoe shop on Olaya Street _____ (open)?
B: At 9 o'clock. And it _____ (close) at 5:30.

Go to pages 134-137 for extra grammar practice.

3 Listen

Listen to three dialogues and answer the questions. Choose a or b.

- What is Rob doing on Thursday?
 - He's watching a football match.
 - He's playing in a football match.



- What does Sally need to buy?
 - a jacket
 - shoes

- Why isn't Lee going with Harry?
 - He has other plans.
 - He doesn't like going to the park.



4 Speak

Talk in pairs. Pretend to ring your partner and discuss your plans for today. Use the ideas given and some of the phrases in the boxes.

sports park documentary on TV meal shopping

Do you want to...?
Do you fancy...?
How about...?
Let's...

Sure, why not?
Of course. I'd love to.
Sounds brilliant!
That would be great.
How could I say no?

Hi. How's it going?
Not bad.
What are you up to?
Nothing much.
Do you want to...?

Sorry, I have other plans.
I'm afraid I'm busy.
Maybe some other time.
No, thanks.
I'd like to come but...
I'm afraid I can't make it because...

1c My style

1 Vocabulary

Listen and repeat. Which of these clothes and accessories are for boys, which are for girls and which are unisex?



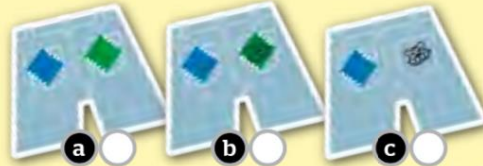
2 Read

A. Look at the picture. What is Bill doing? Listen to the dialogue and check your answers. Then read it out in pairs.

Tom Hey, Bill. What are you doing?
Bill I'm putting a patch on my jeans.
Tom But they're your favourite jeans!
Bill I know.
Tom Erm... You don't usually decorate your own clothes. What's up?
Bill Well, I'm bored of my old clothes, so I'm changing them. Anyway, jeans with patches are in fashion this summer.
Tom I see. What are you doing now?
Bill I'm drawing a tiger on one of the pockets. What do you think?
Tom Well, it doesn't look like a tiger.
Bill You're right. What a mess!
Tom Don't worry. I've got an idea.
Bill What are you looking for?
Tom Just wait...
Bill A patch! Nice one! I can have two. Let's put this green patch here on my ugly tiger and the blue patch on the other pocket.
Tom Do you still want a tiger?
Bill Yes, please draw a tiger for me on the green patch. You're good at it.
Tom Sure. There you go.
Bill Thanks, Tom.



C. Read again and tick the correct picture a, b or c.



B. Read again and answer the questions.

1. What is Bill using to decorate his jeans?
2. Why is Bill making changes to his clothes?
3. What's in fashion this summer?
4. What does Tom want to put on the jeans?
5. Who's good at drawing?

3 Grammar

Present Progressive

| AFFIRMATIVE | NEGATIVE | QUESTIONS |
|------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| I'm drawing | I'm not drawing | Am I drawing? |
| He She's drawing It | He She isn't drawing It | Is he she drawing? it |
| We You're drawing They | We You aren't drawing They | Are we you drawing? they |

TIME EXPRESSIONS

now, at the moment, these days, today, this week/year, etc.

Present Simple vs Present Progressive

| TENSE | USE | EXAMPLE |
|---------------------|---------------------------------|---|
| Present Simple | Everyday activities or routines | <i>Beth usually wears trainers.</i> |
| Present Progressive | Actions happening now | <i>Beth is looking for her sandals at the moment.</i> |
| | Temporary states | <i>Beth is wearing sandals this summer because they are in fashion.</i> |

NOTE STATIVE VERBS (see, like, love, hate, want, think, need, understand, know, etc.) are usually **not** used in the Present Progressive.
I want to buy these earrings. I love them!

Complete with the Present Simple or the Present Progressive of the words in brackets.

- Omar _____ (not watch) the tennis match at the moment. He _____ (listen) to the radio. He _____ (hate) tennis. He _____ (think) it's boring.
- A: What _____ (the boys / do) in the garden?
B: They _____ (play) football. They _____ (play) football every Thursday.
- Keith usually _____ (go) to the skatepark after school, but today he _____ (visit) his grandmother.
- My uncle and aunt _____ (live) in London, but they _____ (stay) with a friend in Paris these days. They _____ (want) to see the city.

Go to pages 137-141 for extra grammar practice.

4 Listen

Listen to two dialogues and answer the questions. Choose picture a, b or c.

TIP! Before you listen, look at the pictures carefully.

- What is the boy wearing?



- What colour is the boy's shirt?



5 Speak & Write

A. Discuss in pairs or small groups.

- What kind of clothes do you usually wear to school?
- What do you wear when you go out with your friends?
- Are your clothes in fashion?
- What's your favourite item of clothing?

B. Use the ideas from activity 5A to write a paragraph about your clothes.

Appendix E: Teacher's Book Extracts

Appendix E-1: Lift Off 6, Teacher's Book, 'Contents'

| Skills | Functions | Grammar |
|---|--|--|
| UNIT 1 HERE AND THERE | | |
| LESSON 1 Old and new pastimes | | |
| Describe people and places in detail; Write a postcard/e-mail; Write straightforward connected texts on familiar topics, by linking a series of shorter discrete elements into a linear sequence | Ask for confirmation/agree and disagree | Questions (question tags, subject-object questions, negative questions, indirect questions) |
| LESSON 2 An important festival | | |
| Transfer from verbal to visual information; Politely express agreement and disagreement | Express purpose; Express result | Clauses of result (so + adjective/adverb + (that)/ such + (a/an) (+ adjective) + noun (+ that)) |
| LESSON 3 Great travellers | | |
| Understand the main ideas and specific information in straightforward factual texts on subjects related to one's interests; Guess the meaning of unknown words | Distinguish between habitual actions and current activities | Present simple vs. present progressive; Present progressive with future meaning; Time expressions; Stative verbs |
| REVIEW | | |
| Grammar: Present simple vs. present progressive; Present progressive with future meaning; Time expressions; Stative verbs | | |
| UNIT 2 ACHIEVEMENTS, AMBITIONS, ADVENTURES | | |
| LESSON 1 Under the sea | | |
| Understand the main ideas and specific information in straightforward factual texts on subjects related to one's interests | Narrate and sequence past actions and events; Make comparisons | Present perfect simple; Time expressions: <i>How long?</i> , <i>for/since</i> ; <i>have been/have gone</i> ; Comparative and superlative forms of adjectives/adverbs and other forms of comparison (as + ... + as) |
| LESSON 2 Plans for the future | | |
| Understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters/e-mails; Understand the main idea and/or basic information in monologues or dialogues | Discuss future plans and talk about the future | Future <i>will</i> ; Conditional sentence types 1 and 2 |
| LESSON 3 An amazing story | | |
| Describe or present people, places, experiences, events, possessions, daily routines, future plans, arrangements, past activities, likes/dislikes, everyday aspects of their environment, etc; Understand the main idea and/or basic information in monologues or dialogues; Write an account of an event | Narrate and sequence past actions and events | Past simple vs. past progressive |
| REVIEW | | |
| Grammar: Present perfect simple; Time expressions: <i>How long?</i> , <i>for/since</i> ; <i>have been/have gone</i> ; Past simple; <i>used to</i> ; Time expressions | | |
| UNIT 3 SUPPORTERS, SELLING AND SOURCES OF ENERGY | | |
| LESSON 1 If I were the new manager | | |
| Discuss a range of familiar topics; Briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions, plans and actions; Differentiate between the pronunciation of similar sounds in English | Ask for and give advice | Conditional sentence types 1 and 2 |
| LESSON 2 Different ways of shopping | | |
| Write short simple essays on familiar topics; Deal with certain aspects of writing (paragraphing, purpose, audience, cohesion, coherence) | Discuss advantages and disadvantages; Invite and make arrangements/suggestions | Intensifiers |
| LESSON 3 Sources of energy | | |
| Understand text cohesion; Use a variety of vocabulary and structures in order to successfully communicate information in everyday situations; Differentiate between the pronunciation of similar sounds in English | Stress the action in a sentence rather than the agent | Passive voice (present, past) |
| REVIEW | | |
| Grammar: Conditional sentence types 1 and 2; Passive voice (present, past); Intensifiers | | |

| UNIT 4 GOOD STORIES, SAD STORIES | | |
|---|---|--|
| LESSON 1 Money for good causes | | |
| Understand sequence; Describe or present people, places, experiences, events, possessions, daily routines, future plans, arrangements, past activities, likes/dislikes, everyday aspects of their environment, etc. | Talk about experiences linking past and present time | Present perfect progressive |
| LESSON 2 Race to the South Pole | | |
| Guess the meaning of unknown words; Transfer information from a text to a table; Briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions, plans and actions | Narrate and sequence past actions and events; Discuss past habits and situations | Time clauses (past, present, future); Past perfect simple (Affirmative – Negative – Questions – Short answers); Time expressions |
| LESSON 3 Accidents | | |
| Follow straightforward short talks on familiar topics, provided these are delivered slowly and clearly; Recognise various intonation patterns; Express and respond to feelings (e.g. surprise, happiness, interest) | Describe feelings; Give and follow instructions | Intensifiers; Modals |
| REVIEW | | |
| Grammar: Past perfect simple (Affirmative – Negative – Questions – Short answers); Time expressions | | |
| UNIT 5 BLOGS, REVIEWS AND REPORTS | | |
| LESSON 1 Ramadan blog | | |
| Understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters/e-mails; Write informal letters and e-mails (giving news, inviting, asking for and giving information, describing experiences, asking for and giving advice) | Talk about experiences linking past and present time | Present perfect progressive |
| LESSON 2 Restaurant reviews | | |
| Follow straightforward short talks on familiar topics, provided these are delivered slowly and clearly; Recognise various intonation patterns; Establish social contact: greetings and farewells, introductions, giving thanks | Discuss a range of familiar topics; Ask for and give information | Questions (question tags, subject-object questions, negative questions, indirect questions) |
| LESSON 3 From Saudi Arabia | | |
| Describe or present people, places, experiences, events, possessions, daily routines, future plans, arrangements, past activities, likes/dislikes, everyday aspects of their environment, etc.; Write straightforward connected texts on familiar topics, by linking a series of shorter discrete elements into a linear sequence | Stress the action in a sentence rather than the agent; Ask for and give information; Discuss advantages and disadvantages | Passive voice (present, past) |
| REVIEW | | |
| Grammar: Conjunctions | | |
| UNIT 6 WORKING IN A TEAM | | |
| LESSON 1 A radio drama | | |
| Understand sequence | Express opinion/agree and disagree; Express possibility | Conditional sentence types 1 and 2 |
| LESSON 2 Teamwork | | |
| Understand straightforward factual information about common everyday topics; Manage less routine situations (in a post office, bank, etc.); Ask and answer questions and check and confirm information; Ask for repetition and clarification to fill in gaps in understanding | Ask for confirmation/agree and disagree; Discuss advantages and disadvantages | Questions (question tags, subject-object questions, negative questions, indirect questions) |
| LESSON 3 Satellite TV | | |
| Transfer from verbal to visual information; Guess the meaning of unknown words | Stress the action in a sentence rather than the agent; Ask for confirmation/agree and disagree | Passive voice (present, past); Questions (question tags, subject-object questions, negative questions, indirect questions) |
| REVIEW | | |
| Grammar: Conditional sentence types 1 and 2; Questions (question tags, subject-object questions, negative questions, indirect questions) | | |
| UNIT 7 AROUND THE WORLD | | |
| LESSON 1 An unusual holiday | | |
| Follow straightforward short talks on familiar topics, provided these are delivered slowly and clearly; Follow detailed directions; Narrate a story | Discuss future plans and talk about the future | Future <i>will</i> ; Time clauses (present, future, past) |

| | | |
|--|--|---|
| LESSON 2 Water experiments | | |
| Understand the main idea and/or basic information in monologues or dialogues; Give and follow detailed instructions and directions | Give and follow instructions; Stress the action in a sentence rather than the agent | Passive voice (present, past) |
| LESSON 3 Mystery Island | | |
| Find and understand relevant information in everyday material such as letters and brochures; Understand text cohesion | Ask for and give information | Questions (question tags, subject-object questions, negative questions, indirect questions) |
| REVIEW | | |
| Grammar: Questions (question tags, subject-object questions, negative questions, indirect questions); Future <i>will</i> | | |
| UNIT 8 PROGRESS, PRESENTS AND PLANTS | | |
| LESSON 1 Arab and Muslim contributions to science | | |
| Find and understand relevant information in everyday material such as letters and brochures; Follow straightforward short talks on familiar topics, provided these are delivered slowly and clearly | Stress the action in a sentence rather than the agent; Ask for and give information; Find things in common | Passive voice (present, past); Prepositions of time, place and movement |
| LESSON 2 A present for Jeff | | |
| Understand sequence; Write notes and short messages conveying simple information | Report commands and requests; Give and follow instructions | Reported speech (commands, requests) |
| LESSON 3 Plants | | |
| Transfer information from a text to a table; Write informal letters and e-mails (giving news, inviting, asking for and giving information, describing experiences, asking for and giving advice) | Talk about experiences linking past and present time; Ask for, give and refuse permission | Prepositions of time, place and movement; Present perfect progressive |
| REVIEW | | |
| Grammar: Reported speech (commands, requests) | | |
| UNIT 9 CHOICES AND CONCLUSIONS | | |
| LESSON 1 Two successful modern companies | | |
| Recognise various intonation patterns; Write short descriptions of people, places and events | Express surprise; Talk about experiences linking past and present time | Passive voice (present, past) |
| LESSON 2 That can't be your bag. | | |
| Understand the main idea and/or basic information in monologues or dialogues; Use a variety of vocabulary and structures in order to successfully communicate information in everyday situations | Make deductions; Express possibility | Modal verbs |
| LESSON 3 Opinions and reasons | | |
| Logically link ideas by using a variety of connectors; Politely express agreement and disagreement; Write straightforward connected texts on familiar topics by linking a series of shorter discrete elements into a linear sequence | Express opinion/agree and disagree; Discuss advantages and disadvantages | Future <i>will</i> |
| REVIEW | | |
| Grammar: Object and possessive pronouns and possessive adjectives; Modal verbs | | |
| UNIT 10 A HAPPY ENDING | | |
| LESSON 1 An Asian story | | |
| Understand the main ideas and specific information in straightforward factual texts on subjects related to one's interests; Narrate a story | Narrate and sequence past actions and events | Past perfect simple (Affirmative – Negative – Questions – Short answers); Time expressions; Past simple/used to |
| LESSON 2 When this device was invented | | |
| Transfer from verbal to visual information; Describe people and places in detail; Follow detailed directions | Define people, places and things; Give and follow instructions; Report commands and requests | Relative pronouns (<i>who, which, that</i>); Relative adverb (<i>where</i>); Reported speech (commands, requests) |
| LESSON 3 I'd study maths. | | |
| Understand the main ideas and specific information in straightforward factual texts on subjects related to one's interests; Briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions, plans and actions | Express possibility; Discuss a range of familiar topics | Conditional sentence types 1 and 2 |
| REVIEW | | |
| Grammar: Revision of structures from the materials | | |

Appendix E-2: *Lift Off 6, Teacher’s Book, ‘How Fast Should You Teach?’*

How fast should you teach?

Lift Off! 6 is designed to be covered completely in the second term of Intermediate Grade 3 in Saudi Intermediate Schools. In order to ensure that you cover all the teaching material, please use a calendar to check how many teaching weeks there are in that particular semester. Then carry out this calculation:

$$\frac{\text{Number of weeks} \times 4 \text{ (the number of class lessons per week)}}{10 \text{ (the number of units in } \textit{Lift Off! 6}\text{)}}$$

The result of the calculation will tell you how many class lessons you can devote to each unit of *Lift Off! 6* in order to cover all ten units of the Student’s Book in the first semester (your students should do most or all of the workbook activities as homework).

What should you do if you work more slowly than intended?

You should aim to cover all parts of the materials. However, in some circumstances, for example if books arrive late in your school or you work with a slower than average class, you might find you are short of time. If this is the case, please consult the chart below. The chart will help you choose which are the most important parts of the book to cover (Core materials) and which parts of the book are not so important (Desirable materials and Extension materials).

| Student's Book Lessons 1–3 | Workbook Lessons 1–3 | Saudi Review pages |
|----------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| Unit 1 | Unit 1 | Saudi Review 1 |
| Unit 2 | Unit 2 | Saudi Review 2 |
| Unit 3 | Unit 3 | Saudi Review 3 |
| Unit 4 | Unit 4 | Saudi Review 4 |
| Unit 5 | Unit 5 | Saudi Review 5 |
| Unit 6 | Unit 6 | Saudi Review 6 |
| Unit 7 | Unit 7 | Saudi Review 7 |
| Unit 8 | Unit 8 | Saudi Review 8 |
| Unit 9 | Unit 9 | Saudi Review 9 |
| Unit 10 | Unit 10 | Saudi Review 10 |

| | | |
|---------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| Core material | Desirable material | Extension material |
|---------------|--------------------|--------------------|

What should you do when some students work faster than others?

The Teacher’s Book features two ways of addressing these individual differences between students. The first feature is the ‘Extra Activity’ note which sometimes suggests extra work for students to do after they complete a basic activity in the Student’s Book.

Unit 2

Achievements, ambitions, adventures

LESSON 1 *Under the sea*

Language

Skills: Understand the main ideas and specific information in straightforward factual texts on subjects related to one's interests

Functions: Narrate and sequence past actions and events; Make comparisons

Grammar: Present perfect simple; Time expressions: *How long?, for/since; have been/have gone*; Comparative and superlative forms of adjectives/adverbs and other forms of comparison (*as + ... + as*)

Vocabulary: *achievement, ambition, dive (n and v), equal, ocean, pressure, submarine, surface, truck, United States*

Bring to the lesson:

- the CD (tracks 6 and 7)
- the Student's Book (pages 14 and 15)
- the Workbook (pages 94 and 95)

To start:

- Have a spelling bee with words from Unit 1. Focus on -or and -er endings.

A Reading

Aims: to practise differentiating between text types; to introduce vocabulary.

- Discuss the two pictures within the *Saudi Stars* frame (do not read the text or give any help yet).
- Read the speech bubbles and then the questions.
- Students read the text silently and tick the correct answers.
- Use voting cards to check answers with the class. Ask for reasons for their choices (1 *James Cameron is a real person; it is written in the present perfect not the simple past* 2 *It isn't about the films, it's about the director's trip* 3 *The use of 'is' rather than, for example, 'I think'; it is information which can be checked.*)

ANSWERS: 1 a 2 b 3 a

B Reading and speaking

Aim: to practise describing experiences, events and past activities.

- In pairs, students discuss the best answers to the questions. Prompt them to answer in detail.
- Students swap partners and ask and answer the questions in turns.
- Choose pairs to share their work with the class.
- Deal with any vocabulary or grammar problems.

ANSWERS: 1 *He's studied at university.* 2 *He has written books, edited films, been a photographer and even a truck driver.* 3 *He has dived in a special submarine to the bottom of the Mariana Trench.* 4 *It is cold and dark and the water pressure is very high.* 5 *He went in a submarine.* 6 *Because it's the deepest place on the surface of the Earth.*

C Listening

Aim: to practise listening for specific information.

- Read the table. Establish that column 1 needs dates and column 2 needs nouns.
- Say *Listen and read*. Play track 6. Students follow in their books.
- Say *Listen and answer*. Play track 6 again. Students complete the table.
- Say *Listen and check*. Play track 6 again. Students check their answers.
- Use voting cards to check answers with the class.
- Deal with any problems.

ANSWERS: 2 1971 3 university 4 film studio 5 2012

AUDIOSCRIPT TRACK 6

Male: James Cameron comes from Canada. He was born in August 1954. He went to school in Canada until he was 17. In 1971 his family moved to California in the United States. He studied at university for two years but he left in 1974. For three years he drove a truck and wrote in his free time. In 1977 he got a job in a film studio. At first he worked as a designer then he did other different jobs in the studio, for example, he worked as a film editor.
In his free time, James Cameron is very interested in diving and he has made more than 70 dives deep under the world's oceans. In 2012 he went to the bottom of the Mariana Trench, the deepest place on the surface of the Earth.

D Speaking

Aims: to practise asking and answering questions about past events and activities; to promote fluency.

- Read the speech bubbles with the class. Highlight the two question forms (*What happened in .../When did ...*)
- Elicit both forms for question 2.
- Students work in pairs, taking turns to ask both forms of questions. Monitor and support but don't interrupt.
- Choose pairs to demonstrate to the class. Revise any common grammar errors.

ANSWERS: Students' own answers following the information in the table.

Extra activity:

- Students write six sentences about James Cameron in their notebooks, using both the past simple and the present perfect as needed.

E Grammar D

Aim: to practise using the present perfect.

- Read the questions and the sample answer.
- Elicit two or three sample answers (highlight the need to give reasons).
- Students write their own answers in their notebooks. For example, *The most beautiful place which I have been to is Scotland. It is because there is a lot of green.*

ANSWERS: Students' own answers with reasons.

F Pronunciation

Aim: to practise using intonation to express and respond to feelings.

- Say *Listen. Does the second speaker sound interested or bored?* Play the first exchange of track 7 once or twice, until students can answer. (*Interested*)
- Explain that it's the intonation which make her sound interested. Play the exchange again, showing the falling intonation on *met* and *really* with your hands. Students repeat, also using their hands.
- Play the track all the way through, pausing to allow students to repeat.
- Play again, pausing after each first speaker for students to speak before the second speaker. Then play the second speaker so students can compare.
- Students practise in pairs (write prompts on the board). Monitor.
- Choose pairs to demonstrate to the class.

AUDIOSCRIPT TRACK 7

Male: She's the most intelligent person I've ever met.
Female: The most intelligent person you've ever met? Really?

Male: That's the nicest meal I've ever eaten.
Female: The nicest meal you've ever eaten? Really?
Male: That's the most enjoyable book I've ever read.
Female: The most enjoyable book you've ever read? Really?
Male: That's the coldest place I've ever been to.
Female: The coldest place you've ever been to? Really?
Male: He's the strangest person I've ever spoken to.
Female: The strangest person you've ever spoken to? Really?

G Speaking E

Aims: to promote fluency; to practise describing past experiences, events and activities.

- In pairs, students prepare a list of questions for James Cameron.
- Students change partners and take the parts of James and an interviewer.
- Students change partners again and take the opposite role.
- Monitor but don't interrupt. Deal with any common or major problems, but don't correct/highlight mistakes which don't obscure meaning.
- Choose pairs to demonstrate to the class. Vote for the best performance.

ANSWERS: Students' own answers.

Extra activity:

- Students write the new words into their notebooks and learn them for homework.

Homework: Workbook pages 94 and 95

Final activity:

- Play *Vocabulary tic-tac-toe* with words from the lesson.

WORKBOOK ANSWERS:

A Across: 1 ocean 5 United States 8 surface 9 dive 10 truck
Down: 2 achievement 3 pressure 4 submarines
 6 ambition 7 equalled

D B 1 James Cameron has had an interesting life.
 2 Since then, he has written books and films.
 3 He has been a photographer, a film editor and a deep-sea diver.
 4 For three years, he drove a truck.
 5 In 1977 he began to write stories for short films.
 6 He has equalled the deepest dive which anyone has ever made.
 7 James Cameron has now made more than 70 deep dives.

C 1 Opinion 2 Fact 3 Opinion 4 Fact 5 Fact 6 Fact
 7 Opinion 8 Opinion

D Real life: A, E, D, H Stories: B, C, G, F

E Students' own answers.

LESSON 2 *Plans for the future*

Language

Skills: Understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters/e-mails; Understand the main idea and/or basic information in monologues or dialogues

Functions: Discuss future plans and talk about the future

Grammar: Future *will*; Conditional sentence types 1 and 2

Vocabulary: *achieve, astronaut, championship, cyclist, determined, give up, Olympic*

Bring to the lesson:

- the CD (track 8)
- the Student's Book (pages 16 and 17)
- the Workbook (pages 96 and 97)

To start:

- Ask students to say what their ambitions are in life. Discuss the answers.

A Reading

Aims: to revise the future with *going to*; to revise first conditional sentences.

- Read the speech bubble and discuss the pictures
- Read the sentences. Establish that the task is to say if they are true or false.
- Students read the text silently and decide on the answers.
- Vote on the answers. Ask which parts of the text helped students to decide.
- Help students to understand all the new vocabulary.

ANSWERS: 1 T (*As a Saudi*) 2 F (*I want ... cycling team*)
3 F (*I've raced ... more than five years*) 4 T (*I won ... championships*) 5 F (*I cycle 5 hours*) 6 T (*I'm also ... trainer*)

B Speaking

Aim: to promote fluency; to revise a range of verb tenses.

- Students work in pairs to make sentences about Waleed.
- Monitor for correct verb tenses.
- Choose pairs to share their work with the class.

ANSWERS: *Waleed is good at bike riding. Waleed has cycled for more than five years. Waleed won a gold medal in a race for young riders. Waleed is going to train more. A cycling trainer is going to help Waleed. Waleed won't stop cycling if he isn't good enough to ride at the Olympics. (Any five, in any order)*

Extra activity:

- Students write their sentences in their notebooks and check with a partner.

C Listening

Aim: to practise asking questions about plans and intentions for the future.

- Read the title *Unusual ambitions*. Look at the picture. What do students think the text will be about? (Someone's ambition is to be an astronaut.)
- Read the text. Say *Listen and read the questions*. Play track 8. Students follow.
- Say *Listen and answer*. Play track 8 again, pausing to allow students to write.
- Students check their answers with a partner. Monitor for spelling.
- Choose students to give their answers.

ANSWERS: 1 *your ambition* 2 *do that* 3 *How will you*
4 *What will you*

D Listening

Aims: to practise expressing future plans; to practise using the first conditional.

- Read the sentences and establish that the task is to put them in order.
- Play track 8 while students number the sentences in order.
- If necessary, play track 8 again while students check their answers.
- Check answers with the whole class, using the voting cards.
- Help with any vocabulary

ANSWERS: a 5 b 1 c 4 d 2 e 3

AUDIOSCRIPT TRACK 8

Female: What's your ambition, Salma?
Salma: I want to be the first Saudi female to go into space.
Female: Why do you want to do that?
Salma: I have always wanted to be an astronaut and to see the planets and stars from space.
Female: How will you achieve your ambition of going into space?
Salma: At the moment some companies are developing rockets to take people into space. The flights will start in about ten years' time. Tickets will be very expensive. It's going to be difficult but I'll try and save enough money to buy a ticket.
Female: What will you do if you can't go into space?
Salma: I'm a determined person. I hope I will go into space. It's been my dream for a long time.

E Speaking D

Aims: to practise asking and answering questions about future plans; to promote fluency.

- Divide the class in half. In pairs, one half of the class prepares questions for Waleed, the other for Salma.
- Pairs split up and find a new partner from the other group. With their new partner, they take the parts of interviewer and Waleed/Salma. Students ask and answer their questions, then swap roles and repeat.
- Monitor and support. Choose pairs to share their work. Vote on the best interview.

ANSWERS: Students' own answers.

F Grammar D

Aim: to consolidate the use of the *will* future.

- Read the six ambitions and the sample answer. Highlight the use of *will* ... in the example.
- Elicit some examples of ways to achieve each ambition.
- Students complete the task and check their answers with a partner. Support.
- Choose individuals to read their plans to the class. Discuss. Does the class agree these ideas would be helpful?

ANSWERS: Students' own answers using 'I'm going to ...'

G Vocabulary E

Aim: to revise using alphabetical order.

- Tell students to close their books. Write *tailor* and *craft* on the board. Elicit that *craft* comes before *tailor* in alphabetical order because *c* comes before *t*.
- Add *car*. Elicit that when the first letter is the same, alphabetical order depends on the second letter (and so on).
- Add *care*. Elicit that longer words come after shorter words.

- Have a competition. In small groups, students put the words in alphabetical order. Only one student in each group should write. He/she should not be able to see the words. The others (using books) have to decide the order and help the writer with spelling. The first group with all the words correctly spelled and (neatly) written in the correct order is the winner.

ANSWERS: *achievement, adventure, ambition, astronaut, carve, championship, cycling, cyclist, determined, dive*

Extra activity:

- Ask students to write the new words into their notebooks and learn them for homework.

Homework: Workbook pages 96 and 97

Final activity:

Use Exercise G as the final activity.

WORKBOOK ANSWERS:

A 1 give up 2 rocket 3 Olympics 4 space 5 train 6 plan
 7 championship 8 achieve 9 astronaut 10 cyclist
 11 determined 12 dream

D B achievable, achieve, achieved, achievement, achiever, achieving

C 1 achievement 2 achieving 3 achieve 4 achieved
 5 achiever 6 achievable

D 1 We're both going to be scientists and make exciting new discoveries.
 2 If I help you with your homework, will you come shopping with me?
 3 If they all come, there won't be enough seats.
 4 I'm fasting today, so I'm not going to eat until tonight.
 5 If we win the championship, we'll each get a gold medal!

E (Example answers)
 1 What's your ambition, Sarah?
 2 Why do you want to do that?
 3 How are you planning to achieve your ambition?
 4 What are you going to do if you can't be a brain specialist?
 5 I want to be a travel writer.
 6 If I can, I'll go to the most remote places on Earth.
 7 I'm going to write about endangered animals.
 8 I'm going to explain why it's important to save them.

E F Students' own answers.

LESSON 3 *An amazing story*

Language

Skills: Describe or present people, places, experiences, events, possessions, daily routines, future plans, arrangements, past activities, likes/dislikes, everyday aspects of their environment, etc.; Understand the main idea and/or basic information in monologues or dialogues; Write an account of an event

Functions: Narrate and sequence past actions and events

Grammar: Past simple vs. past progressive

Vocabulary: *biology, crash (v), hit (v), lightning, path, shoulder, storm, stream, survive*

Bring to the lesson:

- the CD (tracks 9 and 10)
- the Student's Book (pages 18 and 19)
- the Workbook (pages 98 and 99)

To start:

- Have a competition. In pairs or small teams, students make as many words as they can from the letters in *achievement*.
- Possible words include: *achieve, active, am, at, ate, came, can, can't, cat, cement, chat, China, cinema, each, eat, eaten, event, hat, hate, have, he, heat, him, his, hit, I, ice, in, it, item, machine, man, mat, match, meat, meet, men, met, mine, name, neat, net, nice, niece, tea, teach, team, teen, ten, than, the, them, then, thin, tie, time, van, vet.*

A Reading and speaking

Aims: to promote fluency; to introduce the topic.

- Ask students to cover Exercise B. Read the speech bubble and the questions for Exercise A.
- In pairs, students use the pictures to try to guess the answers. Do not help.
- Compare suggestions. Do not confirm the answers to the questions yet.

B Reading

Aims: to revise the use of the past progressive and past simple; to revise relative clauses.

- Students read the text silently. Remind them to use the text to try to work out meanings of new words, but not to worry if they don't understand everything.
- Check answers with the class. Were their earlier guesses correct?
- Elicit meanings for the new vocabulary, or explain if necessary.

ANSWERS:

- 1 It took place in Peru, South America.
- 2 Juliane's father was waiting to meet them.
- 3 The weather was very bad/terrible.
- 4 Juliane fell from the plane.

C Listening and speaking **D**

Aim: to practise pronunciation, stress and intonation.

- Say *Look at paragraph 2. Listen and repeat.* Play track 9. Students read and repeat. Monitor pronunciation, stress and intonation. Repeat as necessary.
- Choose a few students to read the paragraph aloud. The class can use their voting cards to choose the best speaker, or award marks.

AUDIOSCRIPT TRACK 9

Male: While Juliane and her mother were flying there was a very bad storm. Suddenly lightning hit the plane. At a height of 3,200 metres the plane broke into pieces and crashed into the jungle below. Juliane found herself falling to the ground.

Juliane: I was in my plane seat and I was wearing my seat belt when I fell.

Male: Juliane remembered. When she reached the ground, she survived her fall. She had a broken bone in her shoulder, a cut to her right arm and a bruise on her right eye.

D Grammar and speaking

Aim: to practise using the past progressive and past simple tenses with relative clauses.

- Read sentence 1 and the sample answer. Highlight the use of *When*.
- In pairs, students use the text to complete the sentences. Prompt them to use *who*, *when*, *which* and *while* where appropriate.
- Choose pairs to say their sentences for the class to check.

ANSWERS:

- 2** *Juliane caught a plane to visit her father, who was working in Pucallpa.*
3 *While Juliane and her mother were flying, there was a terrible storm.*
4 *The plane broke into pieces which crashed into the jungle.*
5 *Juliane was wearing a seatbelt when she fell to the ground.*
6 *When Juliane reached the ground, she survived her fall.*
7 *When she fell, Juliane broke a bone, cut her arm and bruised her eye.*
8 *When she recovered a little from her fall, she tried to find her mother.*

E Listening **D**

Aim: to practise understanding cohesion and sequence in a listening text.

- Ask students to discuss the pictures in pairs.
- Ask for suggestions about what is happening.
- Say *Listen and look at the pictures*. Play track 10.
- Allow a short break for thinking and writing. Then play track 10 again while the students write/check their answers.
- Use the voting cards to check answers with the class.
- Choose students to say one sentence about each picture, in sequence.

ANSWERS: A 1 B 5 C 8 D 4 E 2 F 6 G 7 H 3

AUDIOSCRIPT TRACK 10

Male: After the accident, Juliane found some sweets which were her only food. She also found a small stream which she followed for nine days. She got clean water from the stream and it gave her a path through the jungle.
 On the ninth day, she found a boat which belonged to some men who were cutting trees.

Juliane: I stayed by the boat but I wanted to leave. I didn't want to take the boat because I didn't want to steal it.

Male: After a few hours, the men returned. They took her down the river to a small town. A local pilot flew her to a hospital in Pucallpa where her father was waiting. Juliane returned to Germany. Like her parents she studied biology at university. Two directors made films about her story, in 1974 and 2000. In 2011, Juliane wrote a book about her experience. It is called 'When I fell from the sky.'

F Writing

Aims: to develop fluency in writing narrative; to summarise a text.

- Establish the task (to complete the spaces with details about Juliane's story).
- Elicit suggestions for number 1. Encourage detailed answers.
- Students complete the task and then check their answers with a partner. Monitor and support.
- Choose students to read their answers. The class uses their voting cards to award marks for effort and detail. Deal with any language problems.

POSSIBLE ANSWERS: 1 *at a school in Peru* **2** *doing research there* **3** *a plane to visit her father* **4** *there was a terrible storm* **5** *broke into pieces* **6** *through the air to the ground* **7** *her fall* **8** *to find her mother* **9** *sweets* **10** *through the jungle* **11** *were working in the jungle* **12** *to a town* **13** *to hospital where her father was waiting for her* **14** *back to Germany* **15** *biology at university* **16** *a book about her experience*

Extra activity:

- Students write new words into their notebooks and learn them for homework.

Homework: Workbook pages 98 and 99

Final activity:

Play *Jumbled words* with six to ten words from Unit 2.

WORKBOOK ANSWERS:

- A 1 a** *the Marathon des Sables*
b *Mauro Prosperi*
c *the Marathon des Sables*
d *he was running in the wrong direction*
2 *e, c, a, f, b, g, d*
- B 1** *Biology* **2** *Lightning* **3** *path* **4** *shoulders* **5** *storm* **6** *stream*
7 *survive* **8** *hit, crashed*
- C 1** *When* **2** *who* **3** *where* **4** *when* **5** *who* **6** *While* **7** *where*
8 *while*
- D 1** *was driving, crashed* **2** *was living, took*
3 *were watching, went* **4** *looked, was playing, was reading*
5 *spent* **6** *was cooking, arrived* **7** *were you doing*
8 *started, were still driving* **9** *were standing, sitting*
- D E** *Students' own answers.*

Unit 2

Achievements, ambitions, adventures

LESSON 4 SAUDI REVIEW

Language

Consolidation of the skills and functions from Unit 2.

Skills: Narrate a story

Functions: Talk about experiences linking past and present time

Grammar: Present perfect simple; Time expressions:

How long?, for/since, have been/have gone; Past simple; *used to;*
Time expressions

Study tips: Organising words by lexical fields

Bring to the lesson:

- the CD (track 11)
- the Student's Book (pages 20 and 21)

To start:

- Play *WordBuster* with words from Units 1 and 2.

Study Tip D

- Read the Study Tip. Give an example, clapping on the main stress (*a-chieve-ment*).
- Ask students to say their own name, clapping on the stressed syllable.
- Students copy the tip and examples into their notebooks, underlining the stress.

A Pronunciation D

Aim: to practise counting syllables and identifying stress.

- Students work in pairs to complete the exercise. Do not help.
- Don't check answers yet.

B Listening

Aim: to practise identifying syllables and stress when listening.

- Say *Listen and check*. Play track 11. Students check their work in pairs.
- Repeat as necessary. Monitor and note problems.
- Choose students to give their answers. Ask the class to agree or disagree.

ANSWERS: **b** *achieve* (2) **c** *biology* (4) **d** *submarine* (3)
e *shoulder* (2) **f** *survive* (2) **g** *championship* (4) **h** *astronaut* (3)

AUDIOSCRIPT TRACK 11

- a**
Female: ambition, ambition
- b**
Male: achieve, achieve
- c**
Female: biology, biology
- d**
Male: submarine, submarine
- e**
Female: shoulder, shoulder
- f**
Male: survive, survive
- g**
Female: championship, championship
- h**
Male: astronaut, astronaut

C Vocabulary

Aim: to practise organising words by lexical fields.

- Read the categories and the list of words with the class.
- Check the students understand the task and elicit another example.
- The students complete the exercise and then check their answers with a partner.
- Choose students to read their answers. Check the class agrees.
- Choose students to say each word in a sentence.

ANSWERS: **1–3** (any order) *Countries: Saudi Arabia, Peru, United States;* **4–6** (any order) *Transport: truck, submarine, cycle;* **7–9** (any order) *Water: ocean, dive, stream;* **10–12** (any order) *Weather: rain, storm, lightning*

Grammar Study

Aim: to compare the use and formation of the past simple and present perfect tenses.

- Read the Grammar Study box as a class.
- Elicit examples. Give prompts if necessary.
- Help with any problems.

D Grammar

Aim: to identify the correct verb tense to use in a sentence.

- Read sentence 1 and elicit an answer. Ask students to explain the choice. (*Because the present simple is used for situations that are always true.*)
- Students complete the task and then check with a partner. Monitor for problems.
- Use voting cards to check the answers. Review any difficulties.

ANSWERS: 1 comes 2 started 3 has dived 4 left 5 decided
6 has studied 7 works 8 enjoy

E Writing

Aims: to promote fluency in narrating a story; to practise writing about the past.

- Give students a set length of time to write a short story (real or imaginary) about themselves.
- Monitor for serious errors or common problems. Support as required.
- Review any problem areas.

ANSWERS: Students' own answers (real or imaginary).

Extra activity:

- Students check all the new vocabulary from the unit is listed in their notebooks.

Homework

New vocabulary. Any exercises not completed in the Workbook pages 94–99.

Final activity:

- Hold a *Class contest* (see introduction) with the students' stories from Exercise E.

1c

FUNCTIONS

Talking about arts and crafts
Expressing likes/dislikes
Introducing yourself

STRUCTURES

Some/Any/No/Every and their compounds

VOCABULARY

Arts and crafts

calligraphy carpentry collage jewellery making
patchwork pottery rug making sewing

Phrases: like/dislike

be a fan of be fond of be interested in
be into sth can't stand find... boring/interesting
It's out of this world

Other words and phrases

atmosphere bowl bright carpenter
collection craft create enthusiastic about
patterns plates professional vase wood
youth

1 Warm-up

Aim: to introduce the topic of the lesson

- Draw Ss' attention to the title of the lesson.
- Ask them to guess what the lesson will be about.
- Ask Ss to read through the questions.
- Elicit answers and initiate a short discussion.

Suggested answers

- *Which of these arts and crafts are you familiar with? I'm familiar with all of them.*
- *Are they popular in your country?*
Some of them, for example, pottery, sewing, jewellery making, rug making and calligraphy are very popular in my country.

2 Read 6

- A. Aims:**
- ▶ to give Ss practice in making predictions about the content of three texts based on visual prompts
 - ▶ to present vocabulary, structures and functions in the context of three texts
 - ▶ to give Ss practice in identifying the main idea of three texts
- Draw Ss' attention to the title of the text and the pictures and ask them to guess what the text is about.
 - Ask Ss the question in the rubric.
 - Elicit answers but do not correct Ss at this stage.
 - Play the CD and have Ss follow in their books and check their predictions. Tell them to underline any unknown words at the same time.

KEY

Brian likes pottery.
Sandhya likes rug making.
Darren likes carpentry.

- Ask Ss some comprehension questions:

*Where is Brian from? He's from New York City.
How old was he when he started making pottery? He was six.
What does he make? He makes plates, bowls and vases and then paints them with bright colours.
What does he want to do one day? He wants to sell his work in many countries around the world.
Where is Sandhya from? She's from India.
Who showed Sandhya how to make rugs? Her grandmother.
Which rugs is she fond of? She is fond of rugs which have nice colours and patterns.
Why does she like them? Because they create a nice atmosphere in the house.
Which are her favourite rugs? The traditional Arabic rugs.
What is she making now? She's making a beautiful rug with sixteen different colours.
What does Darren want to become when he grows up? He wants to become a professional carpenter.
Why does he like this craft? Because he likes working with wood.
What does his father do? He's a carpenter.
How did Darren learn the craft? His father taught him.
What does Darren want to do when he's older? He wants to own a shop.*

B. Aim: to give Ss practice in reading for specific information

- Have Ss do the activity.
- Check the answers with the class.

KEY

1. D 2. B 3. B, S 4. S, D
5. D 6. B, D

- Explain any unknown words.
- Choose some Ss to read the texts aloud.

Post-reading

Aim: to give Ss the opportunity to elaborate on the topic of the dialogue

- Ask Ss:

*Do you like making things? Yes, I do. /No, I don't.
Have you made anything recently or would you like to make something in the future? I have made lots of collages, because I like pictures. In the future, I would like to learn how to make rugs.*

- Elicit answers and initiate a short discussion.

3 Vocabulary

Aim: to present and give Ss practice in using phrases expressing likes and dislikes

- Ask Ss to read the sentences and focus on the phrases in bold. Explain that they have to decide which phrases mean *like* and which mean *dislike*.
- Help Ss deduce the meaning of the unknown phrases by relating them to the content of the sentences.
- Have Ss do the activity. Check the answers with the class.

KEY

is a big fan of: like **is fond of:** like
can't stand: dislike **finds...boring:** dislike
is interested in: like **are...into:** like

- Ask Ss to come up with their own examples using the expressions in the activity.

4 Grammar

Aims: ▶ to present some / any / no / every and their compounds

- ▶ to give Ss practice in using some / any / no / every and their compounds in context
- Ask Ss to read through the sets of examples with *some, any, no, every* and their compounds.
- Check Ss' previous knowledge of *some* (used with uncountable and plural countable nouns in affirmative sentences and in questions when we offer something) and *any* (used with uncountable and plural countable nouns in negative sentences and in questions).
- Ask Ss to tell you when we use *no* (we use it with uncountable and plural countable nouns in affirmative sentences with a negative meaning). Make sure that Ss have understood what the difference between *any* and *no* is.
- Check Ss' previous knowledge of *every* (used with singular countable nouns).
- Point out that *someone, anywhere, nothing, everybody* are some of the compounds of *some, any, no* and *every*. Check Ss' previous knowledge of the compounds (used to refer to people, things and places; compounds with *-one* and *-body* refer to people, compounds with *-thing* refer to things and compounds with *-where* refer to places). Ask Ss to give you examples of other compounds.
- Refer Ss to the Grammar Reference (p. 65).
- Have Ss do the activity.
- Check the answers with the class.

KEY

1. Something, Nothing, Everybody
2. No one, Everyone
3. anywhere, everything

5 Listen ▶▶ 7

Aim: to give Ss practice in listening for specific information

- Ask Ss to read through the names and arts and crafts.
- Point out that there two extra arts and crafts that they do not need to use.
- Play the CD twice.
- Check the answers with the class.

KEY

Eddie: calligraphy Sandra: collage Tony: pottery
Mandy: rug making

- If necessary, play the CD again in order to clarify any questions Ss may have.

LISTENING TRANSCRIPT

Eddie

Last year someone asked me to make a poster for a pottery exhibition. I didn't want to make it on the computer, so I made it by hand. It was difficult but I really enjoyed writing out the words. Everyone liked it and asked me to do other posters. Now I'm really into it and I've even started lessons, every Monday and Wednesday.

Sandra

My mother loves making things. She made me some beautiful jewellery last month and my friends really like it. I prefer making pictures. I have a lot of magazines, so I cut out photos from them and stick them together to make larger pictures. It's really interesting, and one day I want to have an exhibition with my work.

Tony

My family isn't very creative, really. My grandfather was a carpenter, but he doesn't make anything any more. I like making things, so I went to a local college to learn a craft. I tried carpentry at first, but I'm not a carpenter like my grandfather. So then I tried a pottery class. It was a bit boring in the beginning, but I'm really fond of it now. I make things for my friends and family all the time.

Mandy

My friends sometimes make fun of my hobby, but I don't listen to them. There is a long tradition of rug making in my country, and just like calligraphy and pottery, there is a real art to making beautiful ones. My mother taught me all the basic skills, but then I was on my own. It takes weeks, sometimes months to finish, but it's always worth it.

6 Write

A. Aims: ▶ to provide Ss with a plan for writing an informal letter/e-mail to a new penfriend/e-pal

- ▶ to give Ss practice in using a variety of phrases when writing an informal letter/e-mail
- Ask Ss to read through the plan and make sure that they haven't got any unknown words.
- Point out the different parts of the plan and explain the heading of each part.
- Get Ss to do the activity in pairs or small groups and go round the class helping them when necessary.

KEY

Suggested answers

Greeting: Hello...

Opening paragraph: I was happy to find your name in... / I'm writing because...

Main part: Let me tell you about myself... / My name is... / I'm... old / I'm from... and I live in... / My hobbies are... / What about you?

Closing paragraph: That's all for now. / I would really love to be your e-pal... / Write back soon. / I hope you write back soon.

Signing off: Take care / Your friend...

B. Aim: to give Ss practice in writing an informal e-mail introducing themselves

- Ask Ss to read through the advertisement.
- Tell Ss to use the plan in 6A and write an e-mail to Greg.
- Point out that Ss don't have to use all the ideas mentioned in the main part.
- Allow Ss some time to write the e-mail.
- Choose some Ss to read out their e-mails.

Suggested answer

Hello Greg,

I found your advertisement in Teenage Life magazine. I'm writing because I'm also looking for an e-pal.

Let me tell you about myself. My name's George and I'm 15 years old, like you. I'm from London, but my family and I live in Birmingham. I miss London because all my friends are there! But Birmingham is nice, too.

I've got lots of hobbies, but my favourites are swimming and tennis. I also like carpentry. I spend my afternoons at the park with my friends or at the tennis court. What about you? You say you are into arts and crafts. What exactly do you like?

Well, that's all for now. I would really like to be your e-pal, so write back and tell me all about yourself.

Take care,
George

3 Numbers ▶▶4,5

FUNCTIONS

Identifying numbers 0-1000
Asking for and giving personal information (phone number, age)

VOCABULARY

zero-one hundred How old are you? I'm... (years old)
What's your phone number?

A. Aim: to present the numbers 0-9

- Draw Ss' attention to the picture and ask them what it is (*a smartphone*).
- Ask Ss if they know any numbers in English.
- Play the CD and have Ss listen and follow in their books.
- Play the CD and pause after each number so that Ss can repeat what they hear.

B. Aim: to give Ss practice in asking for and giving their phone number

- Draw Ss' attention to the speech bubble. Explain to Ss that numbers are read out one by one.
- Draw Ss' attention to the NOTE. Point out to Ss that the number 0 in a phone number is read *oh* and when a phone number includes the same number twice successively, it is read *double + the number* (e.g. 44 = *double four*).
- Choose a student and act out the dialogue.
- Point out that they can talk about their home numbers or their mobile phone numbers.
- Get Ss to do the activity in pairs and go round the class helping Ss when necessary.

C. Aim: to present the numbers 10-100

- Read out the numbers 10-100 slowly and clearly once.
- Play the CD and pause after each number so that Ss can repeat what they hear.
- Write the number 22 on the board and ask Ss what they think the English word for it is.
- Elicit an answer from Ss. (*twenty-two*)
- Explain to Ss that all the numbers from thirty-one to ninety-nine are formed in the same way as numbers twenty-one to twenty-nine.
- Point out to Ss the difference between *thirteen - thirty, fourteen - forty, fifteen - fifty, etc.*

D. Aim: to present the numbers 110-1000

- Read out the numbers 110-1000 slowly and clearly once.
- Play the CD and pause after each number so that Ss can repeat what they hear.
- Write the number 120 on the board and ask Ss what they think the English word for it is.
- Elicit an answer from Ss. (*a hundred and twenty*)
- Explain to Ss that all the numbers from a hundred to a thousand are formed in the same way as mentioned above.

E. Aim: to give Ss practice in asking and answering about age

- Say: *I'm ... years old*. Then choose a student and ask: *How old are you?*
- Encourage him/her to answer.
- Draw Ss' attention to the speech bubble.
- Point out to Ss that it is not necessary to say *years old* when answering the question *How old are you?*
- Get Ss to do the activity in pairs and go round the class helping Ss when necessary.

Optional activity

Invite some Ss to the board and say numbers so that they can write them.

1a

FUNCTIONS

Distinguishing between habitual actions and current activities
Discussing future plans and arrangements

STRUCTURES

Present Simple vs Present Progressive
Stative verbs

VOCABULARY

Words and phrases

come along come round fancy doing sth
get hold of sb landline lose rarely ring (v)

Expressions

How's it going? I can't make it. I get it.
I have other plans. Nothing much. Sure, why not?
That would be great. What are you like?
What are you up to?

Warm-up

- Aim:** to introduce the topic of the lesson
- Draw Ss' attention to the title of the lesson.
 - Ask Ss to guess what the lesson will be about.
 - Elicit answers.

1 Read CD1 ►► 2

- A. Aim:** to prepare Ss for the reading activity
- Ask Ss to read through the questions and initiate a short discussion.

- B. Aims:**
- ▶ to give Ss practice in making predictions about the content of two dialogues based on visual prompts
 - ▶ to present vocabulary, structures and functions in the context of two dialogues
 - ▶ to give Ss practice in identifying the main idea of the two dialogues

- Ask Ss to look at the pictures and ask them the question in the rubric.
- Elicit answers but do not correct Ss at this stage.

Suggested answers

- *Do you talk with your friends on the phone a lot?*
Yes, I do. We talk on the phone every afternoon.
- *What do you talk about?*
We talk about school, our plans for the weekend, shopping or our hobbies.
- *Do you think having a mobile helps you make plans when going out?*
Yes, of course. For example, sometimes you need to call your friends to invite them to a place but they are not at home. If they've got a mobile, you can reach them wherever they are.

- Play the CD and have Ss follow in their books and check their predictions. Tell them to underline any unknown words at the same time.
- Check Ss' predictions.

KEY

Suggested answer

Alli can't find Tom because he lost his mobile. In the end, they all meet up and go to the park.

- Ask Ss some comprehension questions:

Does Bill want to do something with Ali at the moment? No, he doesn't.
What is Bill doing at the moment? His ICT project.
Where are Ali and Bill going tonight? To the park.
Why can't Ali get hold of Tom? Because Tom lost his mobile.
How does Bill get hold of Tom? He calls his landline.
What is Tom doing now? He's looking for his mobile.
Where does he think his mobile is? In his brother's car.
What do the boys fancy doing? Going to the park.
What time are they meeting? At eight o'clock.

- Choose some Ss to act out the dialogue in groups.
- C. Aim:** to help Ss understand conversational English
- Ask Ss to read through the expressions 1-6 and the equivalent phrases a-f.
- Refer Ss to the dialogues again and have them try to infer the meaning of the phrases in order to do the activity.
- Check the answers with the class.

KEY

1. d 2. f 3. b 4. c 5. e 6. a

Optional activity:

- Ask Ss to produce their own sentences using the expressions in activity C.
- Go round the class helping Ss when necessary.

- D. Aim:** to give Ss practice in identifying specific information in the dialogues

- Have Ss read the dialogues again and do the activity.
- Check the answers with the class.

KEY

1. T 2. F 3. T 4. T 5. F 6. T

- Explain any unknown words.

Post-reading

- Aim:** to give Ss the opportunity to elaborate on the topic of the lesson

- Ask Ss:

Have you ever lost your mobile? What happened?
Do you often go out with your friends? Where do you usually go?
Do you fancy going to the park?

- Elicit answers and initiate a short discussion.

Suggested answers

- *Have you ever lost your mobile? What happened?*
Yes, I have. Last month, I went to the shopping centre to meet my friends. I was a little late, so I wanted to call and let them know. But I couldn't find my mobile. Maybe I left it on the bus. In the end, I bought a new one.
- *Do you often go out with your friends? Where do you usually go?*
Yes. We usually meet at the weekend. We sometimes go to the shopping centre and hang out or do some shopping, or we go to the park. My friends also come round to my house and we play games.
- *Do you fancy going to the park?*
Yes, I do. There are many beautiful parks where I live. We usually go there in the afternoons and play football or have picnics and long walks.

2 Grammar

- Aims:**
- ▶ to present new uses of the Present Simple and the Present Progressive
 - ▶ to have Ss differentiate between the two tenses and use them in context
 - ▶ to present Stative verbs
- Draw Ss' attention to the first example with the Present Simple (*come, play*) and the Present Progressive (*'re playing*).
 - Check Ss' previous knowledge of the two tenses (*we use the Present Simple to refer to habitual actions and the Present Progressive to refer to current and temporary actions*). Then ask Ss to identify the use of the Present Simple (*habitual actions*) and the Present Progressive (*current action*) in the example.
 - Draw Ss' attention to the second example.
 - Choose a student and ask him/her the following question: *Are you going to school tomorrow? (Yes, I am./No, I'm not.)* Ask Ss a few more similar questions and elicit answers.
 - Ask Ss what they notice about the use of the Present Progressive in this case (*we use it to refer to actions that we have planned to do in the near future and we mention when, e.g. tomorrow*).
 - Write on the board: *The train leaves at 12:00.* Ask Ss what they notice about the use of the Present Simple in this case (*we use it to refer to actions that take place according to a schedule*).
 - Draw Ss' attention to the NOTE and explain the use of Stative verbs. Give some examples and ask Ss to come up with their own.
 - Refer Ss to the Grammar Reference (p. 64).
 - Have Ss do the activity.
 - Check the answers with the class.

KEY

1. uses, plays, is/'s playing, loves
2. don't understand, am/'m helping
3. are going shopping, does...open, closes

3 Listen ▶▶▶

Aim: to give Ss practice in listening for specific information

- Ask Ss to look at the corresponding pictures. Ask them what the pictures show and what they think the conversations will be about. Accept all answers.
- Ask Ss to read the sentences and check their understanding.
- Play the CD and have Ss do the activity.
- Check the answers with the class.

KEY

1. a 2. b 3. a

- If necessary, play the CD again in order to clarify any questions Ss may have.

LISTENING TRANSCRIPT

1.

- Mike** Hi, Rob. How's it going?
Rob Not bad. Hey. Are you coming on Thursday?
Mike What's on Thursday?
Rob The big match.
Mike Really? I thought it was on Friday.
Rob No, it isn't.
Mike Are you playing?
Rob No. The coach chose Oliver instead of me.
Mike Too bad.

Rob But I'm still going to be there and support the team.

Mike Good for you.

2.

Kim Hello, Sally.

Sally Hi. Hey, do you want to come shopping with me?

Kim I don't know. Where are you going?

Sally To the new shopping centre. There's a great shoe shop there.

Kim Shoes? I thought you needed a jacket.

Sally No. I got one last week. So, are you coming?

Kim All right.

3.

Harry Hi, Lee.

Lee Hello, Harry.

Harry What are you doing later today?

Lee Why?

Harry I'm going to the park with some friends from school. Do you fancy coming?

Lee Well...

Harry Come on. It's great fun at the park. We can play basketball and ride our bikes.

Lee I know, I know. I always have fun at the park. I'm a bit busy today, that's all. I'm meeting John at the youth club.

Harry No problem. Some other day, maybe?

Lee OK.

4 Speak

Aim: to give Ss practice in revising the structures, functions and vocabulary presented in this lesson by talking about their plans for today

- Ask Ss to read through the ideas in the purple box. Then, explain how they should use the phrases in the boxes (*they should use them to invite/suggest something or accept/refuse*). Make sure that they haven't got any unknown words.
- Draw Ss' attention to the speech bubble.
- Choose a student and act out the dialogue.
- Get Ss to do the activity in pairs and go round the class helping them when necessary.
- Choose some pairs to act out the dialogue in class.

Suggested answer

A: Hi Ameen. What are you up to?

B: Hi. I'm doing my homework. And you?

A: Nothing much. I'm reading a magazine. Listen. Do you fancy coming round to my house? I've got a new computer game.

B: I'm afraid I'm busy. I've got a History test tomorrow, so I'm studying.

A: OK. What about tomorrow, after school?

B: Sure. Why not? That would be great.

A: OK. See you tomorrow.

1c My style

FUNCTIONS

Talking about clothes and fashion
Talking about current activities and about temporary situations
Distinguishing between habitual actions and current activities

STRUCTURES

Present Progressive
Present Simple vs Present Progressive
Stative verbs

VOCABULARY

Clothes and accessories
abaya belt boots earrings hat headscarf jumper leggings sandals shirt skirt thobe tracksuit

Other words and phrases
Anyway... bored decorate Don't worry. draw in fashion look for look like own (adj) patch pocket put still ugly wait What a mess! What's up? Why...?

Warm-up

- Aim:** to introduce the topic of the lesson
- Draw Ss' attention to the title of the lesson.
 - Help Ss deduce the meaning of the word *style* by telling a student, e.g. *Nice clothes! I like your style!*
 - Ask Ss to guess what the lesson will be about.
 - Elicit answers.

1 Vocabulary ▶▶ 11

- Aim:** to present clothes and accessories
- Ask Ss to name any items of clothing that they already know.
 - Ask Ss to look at the pictures and read the words that accompany each picture.
 - Help Ss deduce the meaning of any unknown words by relating them to the content of the respective pictures.
 - Play the CD and have Ss repeat the words they hear.
 - Ask Ss which of these clothes and accessories they have got.

Language Plus

- The words *leggings, jeans, etc.* are always used in the plural because they are made up of two parts that go together.
- Ask Ss the question in the rubric.
- Help Ss deduce the meaning of the word *accessories* by asking them to tell you which of the items presented here are accessories (*belt, hat, earrings*) and the word *unisex* (= worn by both boys and girls).

2 Read ▶▶ 12

- A. Aim:** ▶ to give Ss practice in making predictions about the content of the dialogue based on visual prompts
- ▶ to present vocabulary, structures and functions in the context of a dialogue
 - ▶ to give Ss practice in identifying the main idea of the dialogue
- Ask Ss to look at the picture and ask them the question in the rubric.
 - Elicit answers but do not correct Ss at this stage.
 - Play the CD and have Ss follow in their books and check their predictions. Tell them to underline any unknown words at the same time.

Suggested answer

He is putting a patch on his jeans.

- Ask Ss some comprehension questions:

Does Bill usually decorate his own clothes? No, he doesn't. What is Bill drawing on one of the pockets of his jeans? A tiger. What does Tom think of Bill's drawing? That it doesn't look like a tiger. Does Bill like his drawing? No, he doesn't. Which patch does Bill decide to put on his tiger? The green one. What does Bill ask Tom to do? To draw a tiger for him on the green patch.

- Explain any unknown words.
- Choose Ss to act out the dialogue.

B. Aim: to give Ss practice in reading for specific information

- Have Ss do the activity.
- Check the answers with the class.

KEY

1. He is using patches.
2. Because he's bored of them.
3. Jeans with patches.
4. He wants to put patches on the pockets of his jeans.
5. Tom.

C. Aim: to give Ss practice in transferring from verbal to visual prompts

- Ask Ss to look at the three pictures.
- Ask Ss to describe the pair of jeans in each picture.
- Allow Ss some time to decide on the correct picture.
- Check the answers with the class.

KEY

The correct picture is b.

Post-reading

Aim: to give Ss the opportunity to elaborate on the topic of the dialogue

- Ask Ss:

Do you ever get bored with your old clothes? Yes, sometimes I do. Have you ever tried to change them? No, I haven't. I like my clothes. They're comfortable. What changes would you like to make to your old clothes? I don't want to change my style. Maybe I could buy some new clothes.

- Elicit answers and initiate a short discussion.

3 Grammar

- Aims:**
- ▶ to present the Present Progressive
 - ▶ to have Ss differentiate between the Present Simple and the Present Progressive
 - ▶ to give Ss practice in using the Present Simple and the Present Progressive in context

Present Progressive

- Refer Ss to the first table and explain to them that this is the Present Progressive of the verb *draw*. Discuss the formation of the tense (*affirmative, negative and question forms*).
- Point out the time expressions used with the Present Progressive and explain any unknown words if necessary.
- Refer Ss to the dialogue in the reading activity and ask them to underline all the examples of the Present Progressive (e.g. *What are you doing?, I'm putting a patch...*, etc.) and tell you when the tense is used (*to describe an action that is happening now*).

Present Simple vs Present Progressive

- Choose a student and ask him/her the following question about something you know he/she does, e.g. *All, do you watch TV in your free time? (Yes, I do)*. Then, ask him/her, e.g. *Are you watching TV now? (No, I'm not)*.
- Ask Ss a few more similar questions and report their answers to the class, e.g. *Tariq plays tennis at the weekends, but he isn't playing tennis now*.
- Ask Ss when we use the Present Simple and the Present Progressive.
- Elicit answers and refer Ss to the second table.
- Draw Ss' attention to the NOTE and explain it. If necessary, demonstrate it with further examples (e.g. *I think you are funny. I like this milkshake. I'm hungry, I want something to eat, etc.*).
- Refer Ss to the Grammar Reference (p. 65).
- Have Ss do the activity.
- Check the answers with the class.

KEY

1. isn't/is not watching, 's/is listening, hates, thinks
2. are the boys doing, are/re playing, play
3. goes, 's/is visiting
4. live, are/re staying, want

4 Listen

Aim: to give Ss practice in transferring from verbal to visual and listening for specific information

- Draw Ss' attention to the TIP and explain it.
- Ask Ss to look at the pictures and describe what items of clothing they see.
- Play the CD twice.
- Check the answers with the class. If necessary, play the CD again in order to clarify any questions Ss may have.

KEY

1. c 2. a

LISTENING TRANSCRIPT

1.

Boy 1 Hello, Emad. What's up?

Boy 2 Not much. I'm a bit cold, actually.

Boy 1 Really? Are you wearing your sandals today?

Boy 2 No, I'm not. Look.

Boy 1 Nice, are they new?

Boy 2 Yeah, my mum wanted me to get boots but I got these.

Boy 1 They look really cool.

Boy 2 But they aren't very warm for cold days like today.

2.

Boy 1 Hi Omar.

Boy 2 Hi! What are you wearing?

Boy 1 It's my new shirt. Do you like it?

Boy 2 You aren't wearing it tonight, right?

Boy 1 What are you talking about? This is my favourite shirt. Of course I am.

Boy 2 It doesn't look good with those blue jeans.

Boy 1 I like it.

Boy 2 What about a nice white shirt?

Boy 1 No, and anyway, I haven't got one. I think you just don't like orange.

Boy 2 Maybe you're right.

5 Speak & Write

A. Aim: to give Ss practice in using the structures, functions and vocabulary presented in the lesson by talking about their clothes

- Ask Ss to read through the questions and make sure that they haven't got any unknown words.
- Choose a student and act out the dialogue.
- Get Ss to do the activity in pairs or small groups and go round the class helping them when necessary.
- Choose some students to act out the dialogue in class.

Suggested answer

A: What kind of clothes do you usually wear to school?

B: I usually wear casual clothes to school because they are comfortable. I wear tracksuits and trainers.

A: What do you wear when you go out with your friends?

B: I wear more formal clothes because I want to look good. I wear my thobe / abaya and nice shoes.

A: Are your clothes in fashion?

B: Yes, they are.

A: What's your favourite item of clothing?

B: My headscarf.

B. Aim: to give Ss practice in writing a paragraph about their clothes

- Tell Ss to use the ideas from activity 5A and write a paragraph.
- Allow Ss some time to write their paragraphs.
- Choose some Ss to read out their paragraphs.

Suggested answer

I usually wear casual clothes to school because they are more comfortable, like a tracksuit and trainers, or jeans. When I go out with my friends I usually wear clothes like jeans and shirts. I think my clothes are always in fashion and my favourite items of clothing are my hats and my belts.

Appendix F: Notes for analysis of 4 lessons

FAHAD

Fahad's lesson involves a heavily controlled sequence of exercises drawn from the textbook. Correctness is a main feature of the lesson as most of the errors are repaired. There is a lot of repetition, which mainly involves repeating the students' responses and thereby also correcting them. Summarising is used by the teacher, both before and after each phase. Fahad's feedback is mostly positive, but mistakes are rarely ignored. The main feature of Fahad's lesson is IRF as the teacher initiates exercises by asking a question; then there is either a response from the students, or a pause and further elicitation from Fahad before he gets the desired response; this is followed by feedback from Fahad that commends and repairs. Fahad controls the sequences and uses a lot of signalling to maintain control of the lesson sequence. He clearly has a set plan for the lesson, what goals he intends to achieve, and which benchmarks should be hit by the lesson. He is following the textbook very closely, both using it as a tool to aid and support his questions, and as a guide to structure the lesson.

how each lesson unfolded

Begins in managerial mode → materials mode (refers to page number of textbook, moves to textbook-based exercises, IRF - asking individuals questions) → switching between managerial and materials mode (using the textbook but having to constantly regulate, reminding them to focus) → some switch into skills and system mode in particular with his focus on correct answers.

Work from page 10 on the textbook, focus of the lesson is 'be creative'. Go through the questions from the textbook – get through all of this section in this lesson. Work through this first part through discussion. Ask students questions and get responses. Use reference to visual images from the textbook for the second exercise. Section on making rugs – go through this line by line ensuring student understanding. Darren and Brian exercise – go through ensuring student understanding. Reinforce vocab from the lesson – like/dislike etc.

Terms to understand – 'arts and crafts', 'be creative', 'popular', 'big fan', 'free time', 'all the time'

description of what the instructional/regulative discourse was

Fahad stayed almost entirely in materials/managerial mode, anchoring the progress of the class quite closely to the textbook and using an IRF approach to elicit answers from the students.

kind of language was being elicited/ modelled

The language is predominantly CALP in terms of the language elicited from the students, but it is sometimes BICS when crossing over into the language that the teacher uses to manage the classroom. - Modelling of BICS and eliciting of CALP.

what could be considered 'communicative' in the lesson

Element of communicative language in the classroom management.

On pg 2 of the transcript, Fahad shifts the textbook material away from communicative language:

Fahad: *“the first question we have here: which of these arts and crafts are you familiar with?”* pay attention to the question, it has *“arts”* and *“crafts”*, the lesson is talking about arts and crafts

Ok below it is telling you *“What kind of art and crafts do these people like? read and check your answer”*, ok, the first paragraph *“shabbab”* lads, *“you can see we have three pictures and three guys”*

In terms of using the second language in a communicative or real way, he only seems to do so in managerial mode, and interestingly actually avoids or diverts textbook opportunities for communicative language.

ALI

how each lesson unfolded

Begins in managerial but then shifts into skills and systems mode and strategy, with a focus on pronunciation and breaking down understanding. Strong focus on how to spell and pronounce words. Little use of managerial mode, which suggests he has a strongly established routine with this class. Greetings are all in Arabic. Control leads to a lack of opportunity for managerial mode and terms.

The focus of this lesson is on reading and pronunciation. Begin by going over the homework and absences from last week, then move to the main lesson. First, get the students to read the material silently, followed by calling on some to read out words and phrases, with correction of any pronunciation errors. Continuing with pronunciation, shift the focus to grammar and translation, and go over rules related to vowels. Finally, summarise the lesson and get the students to read out longer sections from the material.

Key focus: correct pronunciation and grammar knowledge.

description of what the instructional/regulative discourse was

Entire class was focused on using reading material - this perhaps began with a greater focus on pronunciation, breaking words down in detail, and then moved to more grammar and translation, with greater detail on some grammar rules.

kind of language was being elicited/ modelled

Almost entirely CALP, with little or no opportunity for BICS. The focus is on creating correctly pronounced English. [DELETED]. Due to the high level of discipline and order, there is very little opportunity for use of English in a real managerial context. All instruction is given at length in Arabic, and greetings are also all in Arabic at the start of the lesson. [DELETED]. Most English being used is read.

what could be considered 'communicative' in the lesson

There is very little in Ali's lesson that can be considered communicative, particularly due to his extensive use of Arabic to explain.

TALAL

how each lesson unfolded

Working on numbers. Use the textbook – get the students to revise numbers 1-12, then move onto learning teens, learning the rules for 20-90. Go over this using the whiteboard, use imitation and repetition to teach this. Move to a notebook section and initiate pair work (this doesn't happen so then he shifts back into IRF). Copying from the board, then an exercise in pairs, reading out their answers and ends with teacher monologue about how to learn.

Materials mode intermixed with managerial mode for most of the lesson. Begins in materials mode (does use short phrases in English read from the textbook) → switching between managerial and materials mode (using the textbook but having to constantly regulate, reminding them to focus) → some switch into skills and system mode in terms of how to pronounce the numbers - focus on correctness of pronunciation and explaining the rules to apply to learning numbers

description of what the instructional/regulative discourse was

Spends most of the lesson teaching using IRF and focusing on numbers, pronunciation, but also primarily focusing on the grammar that allows the students to develop the numbers.

There is one major shift in the lesson - towards the end he moves entirely into managerial mode, shifting away from teaching and instead lecturing the students about how to learn.

kind of language was being elicited/ modelled

Use of English focuses on academic and linguistic correctness with no context throughout the lesson. When he uses English, it is mainly read from the textbook so relates to grammar rules or instructions in the textbook. Uses surprisingly little English to engage in classroom, uses Arabic for classroom management, but some English words to praise - 'excellent'.

what could be considered 'communicative' in the lesson

The English has very little meaning, except for brief moments of praise and instruction - 'excellent', 'who can read', 'number two' - almost always said in English and then immediately translated. Some English being modelled in this way, but there is essentially no communicative English being elicited from the students. Does on one occasion direct the students to find their own meaningfulness outside the classroom.

now there are available devices, everyone can access to YouTube access to see explaining reading of English letters, capital and small clear? Be with us (TALAL talked with student who's [DELETED]). Today the numbers for example, I was hungry or I did not pay attention in the classroom.. or or or...I can access Youtube.

TARIQ

how each lesson unfolded

Classroom context seems to dominate this classroom, with flashes of skills and systems, managerial and materials modes. Creates space for the students to communicate in English and for them to express themselves. Focus on promoting fluency and his own language is attempting to elicit fluency and responses. Space to experiment and try to respond in ways that work but making its way towards correctness – so classroom context used as a way to move towards skills and system and grammar understanding.

Starts lesson with a greeting, asks the students how they are. Begin by going over the homework, then move to textbook work – plays audio to get the students to work on grammar/pronunciation, eliciting responses from them, making space for their answers. Move to grammar - do exercise from textbook, but also move away from this and get the students to work as a class to develop answers. Goes over tense differences through an

exercise and examples. Then return to the audio and finally remind the students about homework.

description of what the instructional/ regulative discourse was

Moves from use of audio to IRF style, back to using audio, but there is a fluidity throughout the lesson. Uses the textbook and audio towards the goal of creating meaning and getting the students to talk and engage. Essentially a lot of the lesson seems to focus on eliciting conversation, various goals are secondary to that.

kind of language was being elicited/ modelled

Movement between BICS and CALP as there is a working towards correct grammar that is in itself lacking in meaning. Switches to Arabic to explain grammar points. Generally he seems to be modelling a lot of BICS language, talking to them and asking how they are, but usually failing to get the students to respond in English. CALP has a greater capacity to get the students to respond because it is more obviously teaching and requiring an answer in English.

what could be considered 'communicative' in the lesson

Creates context for communication, in a lot of his conversation, management and also just conversation. 'Shall I start?' Modelling polite language. 'Ok let's go with...' Movement away from the class:

Guys, "*please*" cover your books. "*Thank you, I like your glasses, your glasses are look like mine.*"

Directing movement through the textbook and materials - 'Next page, we have grammar'. Refers to examples such as local cities that the students are familiar with. Refers to playing Playstation – referring to aspects of their daily lives. Responses show that the students are engaged. 'Tariq: No, there is no wrong; you are all right.' - promoting fluency over accuracy. End of lesson – talking about the weather – again a lot of realness, talking about the other culture and developing a picture of it for the students. Focus on engaging them.

Appendix G: Notes on first interview (with Talal)

Talal: I was using a low voice, too direct, too low, I was not sure about how to ask. I was interrupting at the beginning in a way of manging the conversation. I did not encourage Talal much to carry some interesting points and examples, when he talked about “related to the control of the classroom” did not encourage him to extend the point of “the big number of students in the classroom”; the conversation was not very relaxed, we were in very formal tone.

Less engaged, the chemistry was low, there was a barrier in between me and him, the conversation was too formal, and sometimes he tries to make me happy using very standard Arabic, and talking about the good of his pedagogy and how the students like him and are active ([deleted])

Talal made much of his voice his tone, he talked about the role of marks, how he used them negatively. I did not ask to clarify.

My way of talking was the same from the beginning until the end, I did not engage actively, like I’m looking only for an answer (less human) too bad :(

I was thinking so badly about translation, but when he explained about how the role of translation helped in this situation he convinced me.

Talal tried to convince me about his pedagogy like I was there to judge him. This when he used very standard Arabic which is unusual to talk using it.

He was talking at the end about something not relevant to what I asked (talking about the core love and outsider love that make the students more engaged, which I did not what it is about), I did not manage to bring him back just let him talk.

Only questions and answers.

Appendix H: Notes on last interview (with Tariq)

My assumption before the interview with Tariq was thinking the main issue of failure of CLT was because of teachers. He talked about how difficult it is dealing with students with low levels.

More relaxed tone, I joked first with Tariq to make him more relaxed. It was much less formal. More chemistry in between my tone, was more engaged, I feel more interested. In interviewing Tariq, I did not interrupt like with Talal. He convinced me more about the teachers because I thought the low level of English of the teachers is the reason, but he is very fluent in English and he faced the same problem of CLT implementation.

My way of engagement was more affective, I feel that I was better in encouraging Tariq. Tariq was very relaxed, and he did not try to convince me about his pedagogy, but he talked about the CLT issues he faced.

I and Tariq was like a chat, similar to any chat between 2 Saudi men. Looks very authentic. Tariq, I feel he is very reasonable in the way he talked about the issues.

Appendix J: Notes on student focus groups

Focus Group 1

They were silent in Talal's group at first. My voice was a bit controlling like a teacher. I asked them about the textbook, only one said there are pictures and then they started talking about the teacher, praising him he explained everything especially grammar/ because the grammar is difficult and he explains it well because in the textbook there is not much explanation of the grammar. When I asked them to clarify, raising my voice, I think this scared them as they looked at one another and when I asked about the skills they want to improve they kept silent for some time. When I asked them about the difficulties, they said there are no difficulties. They kept going back to memorisation, that it was a good thing. The students were a little confused and the answers I felt were reserved.

Focus Group 2

The group of Fahad were like the other group as they spoke positively and there was similar reservation and they were mostly silent. The answers were short as if there is a question and an answer that has no message. Everything was excellent, excellent, excellent and when I asked to explain they said what? Two of them they just looked at me, waiting for me, as if I'm judging them, as if I would punish them or something. This group time was much shorter than the other group. I used the same wary teacher tone here because I was conscious of the ethics of speaking to children. The students weren't relaxed. They didn't seem free to open up about what they really believe.

END OF APPENDICES TO THESIS