The New English Language Curriculum in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: Intentions and Tensions in Curriculum Design and Enactment

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Abstract

The research described in this dissertation focuses on an investigation into the processes associated with the development and implementation of the recently released English language curriculum in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020*. The dissertation examines through a four-stage descriptive case study methodology the complex influences on the development of this curriculum, teachers‟ perceptions of their responses to enacting the curriculum, and an evaluation of efforts to support the curriculum‟s enactment, including a consideration of the role of initial teacher education in the reform efforts. The study draws attention to the claims of Pinar, Reynolds, Slattery, and Taubman, (1995) who suggest that curriculum "becomes the site on which the generations struggle to define itself and the world" (pp. 847-848). In brief, it addresses, through a multi-phase research journey, the tensions associated within the processes of curriculum design, development, and implementation in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in the 21st Century. The study triangulates quantitative and qualitative data, including policy documents, an analysis of the content in initial teacher education programs, and surveys completed by English language teachers and supervisors to understand the phenomenon of English language reform processes in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

The findings of the study indicated there was evidence in the national English language curriculum, over time, of an increasing explicit intention to national imperatives, suggesting that the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is consciously trying to „define itself‟ through a well-articulated identification of curriculum intent. As evidenced in the curriculum documents and the background materials supporting the development of the curriculum documents, the current

curriculum gives increasing attention to adherence to the unique nature of the customs, culture, and the influence and importance of family and religion in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. There is also increased evidence of neoliberal influences in curriculum intention; that is, the documents increasingly demonstrate explicitly the intention of the Kingdom to align education to economic output through the „Saudization" of the workforce and transforming both the economy through diversification from oil and graduating students as creative thinkers with entrepreneurial capability. While the current curriculum is clearly defined, both English language teachers and supervisors have concerns around the intended reform imperatives that thwart the realization of this intent. Participants identified, amongst other things, their personal language proficiency, time constraints, and the need for more professional development programs targeting teachers" needs to see this intent actualized. The challenges that teachers encounter with the implementation of the current English language curriculum are identified to likely be perpetuated by initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia that give minimal attention to English language teaching pedagogy. Further, the absence of benchmarked English proficiency testing as an entry or exit requirement for initial teacher education programs is suggested to be necessary to address graduate teachers" proficiency to enact the demands of the curriculum.

This study has several implications for the successful implementation of the current curriculum and future curricula. First, there is the need for the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia to address the identified challenges teachers face in implementing the current curriculum through professional development programs and English proficiency programs. In addition, graduate teachers require induction and in-service training programs, which would assist them with transitioning to the classroom with the ability to deliver the curriculum as intended.

In summary, the study identified key areas that need to be addressed to improve the teaching and learning of English in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and implement the curriculum as it is intended. English language teachers, working in Ministry of Education schools, require pedagogy and English proficiency professional development programs in order to see the current curriculum realized. Aligned with this is the likely need to implement standardized national English proficiency tests for students to quantitatively benchmark and measure student improvement and the success of professional development programs for English language teachers.

Complementing English proficiency requirements for English language teachers is a recommended requirement for graduate teachers to attain the same English language proficiency level as English language teachers before being eligible to apply for an English language teaching position at the Ministry of Education. It is suggested this needs to coincide with the restructuring of initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom to align them with the skills and attributes graduate teachers require to enter the classroom without the need for professional development programs upon graduation and before entering the classroom.

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has and continues to make great strides in the development of the provision of quality education for all its citizens since its foundation in 1932. However, the research identifies the changes necessary for these educational development challenges to be addressed for this ambitious nation to diversify its economy, „Saudize“ its workforce, and become a knowledge-based society.

Finally, the research has been instrumental in informing, from a critical perspective, my role as an international curriculum facilitator. It has advanced my knowledge and application of curriculum construction, the fluid definitions of curriculum, and the intentions and associated

tensions of curriculum, with a particular relevance to educationally developing countries. Complementing this professional knowledge development has been the acquirement of the skills to analyze the impact that teacher professional development programs have on implementing curriculum as intended and the influence of initial teacher education programs on teacher competency. In brief, I understand that curriculum intentions are strongly influenced by the stakeholders involved, and in my future roles understanding these influences are central to my role in negotiating the design of a curriculum and its implementation for „common" good.

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

APEC	Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation
AQF	Australian Qualifications Framework
ARAMCO	Arabian-American Oil Company
ATAR	Australian Tertiary Admissions Rank
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
Ele	Elementary School (grades 1 – 6)
ELT	English Language Teaching
GAT	Proficiency Achievement Test
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
Inter	Intermediate School (grades 7 – 9)
JCU	James Cook University
KSA	Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
MoE	Ministry of Education
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
PISA	Program for International Student Assessment
Qiyas	National Centre for Assessment in Higher Education
SAAT	Standardized Achievement Aptitude Test
Sec	Secondary School (Grades 10 – 12)
SPS	Scholarship Preparation School
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics
STEP	Standardized Test for English Proficiency (STEP)
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TOEFL iBT	Test of English as a Foreign Language Internet-Based Test
UK Naric	United Kingdom National Academic Recognition Information Centre
USD	American dollars
YUC	Yanbu University College

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The research described in this dissertation focuses on an investigation into the processes associated with the development and implementation of the English language curriculum in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020.* This dissertation examines through a four-stage descriptive case study methodology the complex influences on the historical development of this curriculum, teachers‟ perceptions of their responses to enacting the curriculum, and an evaluation of ministerial efforts to support the curriculum‟s enactment, including a consideration of the role of initial teacher education in the reform efforts.

Chapter 1 provides an overview of the framework of this thesis, my motivations for engaging in the study, and the significance and the limitations of the investigation. Section 1.2 describes through a chronology the history education development in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, with an emphasis on English language education reform initiatives. This section provides the background knowledge and understanding of educational development in the Kingdom since its inception in 1932; the internal and external influences on curricula and education through the Kingdom‟s relatively young journey; key mile stones; and challenges the Kingdom has faced and does face as it seeks to define itself. This is followed by Section 1.3, where my background is described along with my motivations to engage in doctoral study. Section 1.4 presents the four research questions, which is followed by the significance of the

study (Section 1.5). Section 1.6 describes the potential limitations of the study and the final section of Chapter 1 provides an outline of this thesis (1.7).

1.2 History of English Language Education Reform in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

This dissertation focuses on an investigation into the development and implementation of the most recent English language curriculum in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020*. The dissertation examines the complex influences on the development of this curriculum, English language teachers‟ and supervisors‟ perceptions of their responses to enacting the curriculum, and an evaluation of ministerial efforts to support the curriculum‟s enactment, including a consideration of the role of initial teacher education in the reform efforts. In brief, it addresses, through a multi-phase research journey, the processes of English language curriculum design, development, and implementation in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in the 21st Century.

When writing about curriculum development in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia it is important to start with an account of the origins of the Saudi Arabian English language curriculum with special consideration to educational development generally and English language development specifically. As we know it today, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is a relatively young country that has experienced many changes, mainly due to economic prosperity brought from the riches of oil. Saudis were traditionally Bedouins, having their cultural origins as nomadic tribes who followed the rain and water sources for their herds of cattle; namely camels, sheep, and goats. As the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia developed because of the monetary opportunity provided by oil revenues, so did the availability of consistent water supplies for

agricultural purposes. Because of the oil revenues, over the past few decades, towns and cities have become more common and the Kingdom has become more urbanized.

Initially, formal education was limited to what was offered in mosques or provided by religious scholars with the focus being on the written and verbal memorization of the Holy Quran. The move to state controlled education dates back to the 1920s (Faruk, 2013). At that time, King AbdulAziz Ibn Saud united the Arabian Peninsula, and in 1925 established the precursor to the Ministry of Education, called the Directorate of Education, that still remains to this day. According to AL-Abdulkareem (1993), it was not until 1939 that formalized schools were established across the Kingdom. These could be regarded as elementary schools with a total enrolment of only slightly more than 2,000 students. At that time and for several decades to follow, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia relied on assistance from Egypt, Lebanon, and Syria for its educational foundations, primarily due to a lack of national scholars in education and the financial capacity to advance educational opportunity for its young citizens (Al-Nafjan, 2012). Mahboob and Elyas (2014) note that the Scholarship Preparation School (SPS) was established in 1936 in Makkah and go on to say, "this school is considered to be the beginning of modern day high school education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and the teaching of English in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was first introduced in this school" (p. 129).

In 1950, the enrolment in elementary schools had grown to over 20,000 with the efforts of a new era of the Saudi Arabian education system initiated in 1953 when intermediate and secondary schools were developed and expanded (Alsenbl, Alkhateeb, Motuali, & Abduljwad, 1998). The model of education adopted corresponded to models of education in Egypt and Lebanon, which both adhered to a British model with many educational planners, administrators, and curriculum developers within in the Saudi Arabian Ministry of Education being Egyptian.

According to Alshumaimeri (2012), the Ministry of Education, in the form it is today, was established in 1953; a time in which the Saudi constitutional monarchy started receiving significant royalties from oil. Because of the influx of oil revenues, Saudi teachers were sent abroad on teacher training scholarships to a diversity of locations including Egypt, Lebanon, United States, and Europe.

During these early years of development, it was not surprising the Kingdom had a high level of reading and writing illiteracy due to the lack of exposure most of the population had to education. To address this issue and to encourage students from all parts of the Kingdom to attend schools, the government made education free and provided daily meals for students. This effort included the provision of transportation and textbooks as well as giving monthly allowances to students who came from needy families. Students who enrolled in higher education within the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, received free accommodation and a monthly allowance equivalent to USD250 (AL-Abdulkareem, 1993). Although these early developments were focused on developing a literate Saudi Arabian population, the first evidence of education reform (such as teacher training, curricula, and the expansion and development of schools) started to take place in the 1950s coinciding with the influx of oil revenue (AL-Abdulkareem, 1993).

One of the downsides from the incentivized monthly allowance, which is still in place today, introduced for post-secondary study, was the expectation of teachers that such incentives would be carried over into the workplace for current training and reform projects. As will be illustrated in this research, these incentive schemes for teachers to attend and participate in training programs contribute to the ongoing tensions associated with current curriculum reform in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

During the 1950s, a shift from the pre-1950 Egyptian model, which was British based, moved towards a more religious conservative alignment that has been increasingly evident in textbooks and school policies (Al-Nafjan, 2012). It was during this shift in 1949 that the first higher education college was established in Makkah, and English was taught as a required subject for two hours per week for the duration of a four-year college degree. Al-Najan (2012) considered that it was during this period that school policies and textbooks became more intolerant towards other cultures and beliefs. As evidenced by Faruk (2013), it was also during this period that the United States (initially through the Arabian-American Oil Company (ARAMCO)) became more involved in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia through its commercial interests in oil. This made English and English language teaching more relevant to Saudi Arabian economic and social development, albeit that the constitutional monarchy needed to balance this against religious conservatism to maintain cohesion (Commins, 2008).

A further rather dramatic reform took place in 1960 with the establishment of the General Administration for Girls‟ Education that oversaw all levels of female education including teachers colleges. The public education system has always been and continues to be segregated by gender. Al-Salloom (1991) provides the following reasoning for this segregation: “It must be understood that girls' education in separate institutions is mainly an issue related to the separate social status given to women by Islam” (p. 10). Al-Salloom (1991) elaborates on this by saying: “Islam is not only integral to Saudi Arabian education but also serves as the very essence of the curriculum" (p.10). Saudi Arabian education and curriculum is a continuation of Islamic principles which is incorporated in all subject areas.

1970 saw the release of the inaugural Ministry of Education English language curriculum at the secondary level. The general aims of the curriculum included providing secondary school

students a window to the world, providing students with the opportunity to read science and arts literature in English, developing critical thinking and imaginations, and providing students with the English language proficiency to enter university and/or pursue their vocation. The aims of the syllabus were complemented by the objectives which were for students to develop mastery of the four main English skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening); for students to understand the value of learning a foreign language for economic, social, and cultural purposes; and to develop students‟ interest in reading particularly for future purposes. It was from these objectives that the textbooks were written with adherence to Saudi culture.

The use of customized textbooks produced by international publishers that go through a review process in the Ministry of Education for K-12 students is still, quite questionably, the practice today with yearly-renewed editions of the materials. It was also during the early 1970s that private schools for both boys and girls started teaching English from the first grade. Private schools for girls had been operating from the late 1950‟s and followed the national curriculum, which were attended by the children of the business elite and Royal Family (Commins, 2008).

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia‟s education policy of 1980, while being religious in its nature, does not mention denunciation of other faiths, which contradicts Al Nafjan‟s (2012) more recent assumption describing textbooks as being instruments for religious conservatives and intolerance. This non-inclusion could have been dependent on the individual teacher‟s views and education where many teachers graduated with studies in religious studies (Commins, 2008). This could have led to different interpretations of the textbooks and syllabus guidelines which emphasized such traits as the strength of faith in Islam: (1) being guided by the message of Mohammad; (2) the importance that each Muslim should seek education; (3) the importance of national history; and (4) the incorporation and teaching of religion in all levels and schooling.

The teaching of Islam was also integrated into subject areas such as science, where feasible, to promote solidarity, respect, and faith in Islamic society without prejudice on the grounds of ethnicity and location and the duty to share Islam globally. It must also be noted that the *Third Development Plan (1980 – 1985)* placed a greater emphasis on the use of instructional technology to improve teaching and learning practices. So while the curriculum could have been structured around Islam, nevertheless, the use of technology was encouraged. However, the use of technology in the classroom creates tension for teachers in its use due to a lack of familiarity, training, and facilities (Mulhim, 2014).

1988 saw the introduction of a revised English language curriculum with a more functional approach towards the English language. This emphasis was seen as one of the distinctions of this new curriculum. "The continuous drive for quality education led to the Ministry of Education to launch in 2000 a project of comprehensive revision of its educational curriculum and teaching materials at all levels; elementary, intermediate, and secondary" (Al-Saadat & Al-Braik, 2004, p. 201). English language teaching was included in the project to improve the teaching of skills of teachers and how they could teach the curriculum. The focus was not so much on the curriculum but on the instruction and assessment of the curriculum, because these are the areas where teachers have needed professional development (Commins, 2008).

A year after the launch of the project to revise the curriculum, the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001 occurred and education systems in the Islamic world were blamed, particularly the Saudi Arabian education system, as fifteen young Saudis were involved in the operation (Taleb, 2005). However, "a study in education (assigned by the Arab Education Bureau of the Gulf States), in the Gulf States suggests that the events of 9/11 are the associations

made between the education systems of the Arab world and terrorists and extremists" (Taleb, 2005) and Arab education was not to blame as those responsible did not attend mainstream schools. However, officials from within the governments of the United States and the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia expressed concerns that the curriculum did not promote social tolerance, and there was a need for education reform with a more socio-economic focus (Center for Religious Freedom with the Institute for Gulf Affairs, 2006). Regardless of the findings of the study (Taleb, 2005), encouragement for education reform in the Arab world was pushed as curricula, in their current state, were viewed as not capable of developing the human resource capacity and capability for the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia to compete in a globalized world.

A new Ministry of Education English language curriculum was introduced in 2005 with the objectives not differing greatly from what was introduced in 1970. This introduction coincided with the teaching of English from grade six in public schools and paved the way for the introduction of English teaching and learning in elementary schools.

The Ministry of Economy and Planning (2006) noted that the enhancement of English language teaching had become one of the key development strategies in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, recognizing the importance of English language proficiency for the continued development of the Kingdom. The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has traditionally funded scholarships for education purposes since its conception. Scholarships have increased since 2005 where the King Abdullah scholarship program has provided opportunities for tens of thousands of Saudi Arabian students to study abroad in order to contribute to the development strategies of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia upon their return.

Notwithstanding the importance of these efforts, there have been tensions associated with the various recent reform efforts in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Taleb (2005) argues such reforms

are propaganda-based with the advocacy of the English language curriculum being a medium of advancing the objective of spreading the word of Islam. Taleb (2005) also provides a different perspective by suggesting some Saudis are opposed to sending their youth abroad arguing those going abroad will adopt Western values which are against the teachings of Islam. Reform efforts for the removal or changing the tone of ideals in books and their teachings are seen by some as not going far enough towards removing perceived intolerances embedded within the curriculum (Al-Nafjan, 2012). These illustrations are only examples of a much broader conundrum, which demonstrate the ongoing tensions, at an epistemological level, around curriculum reform in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

The most recent reform efforts are encapsulated in the King Abdullah bin Abdulaziz Public Education Development Project which was developed as a five year initiative (2008 – 2012) by the Ministry of Education to revive the reform efforts of the Kingdom‟s public schools. The foundation of the reform was grounded in the potential „human capital benefits" associated with education as a „predictor" of national development and global social and economic participation. The vision of the project, at the time, was to create a world-class and self-sustaining knowledge workforce that could compete economically at the global level.

Building on prior reform initiatives in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, my current employer, Tatweer Company for Educational Services, aims to create a new framework for teaching and learning, which will contribute to both individual and national economic development. The King Abdullah Public Education Development Project has been expanded since 2012 with particular recognition for both: (1) science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM); and (2) English language teaching (ELT), which will reflect these learning areas as of significant importance for potential labor market participation and knowledge

economy development. Extra-curricular activities, community participation projects, Arabic language, school leadership, technology, professional learning communities, and professionalizing the teaching professional are initiatives contributing to the overall improvement of teaching and learning in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia with attention to improving the Kingdom‟s economic stability and progression. This attention is also seen in the investment in public school education is complemented with the investment in higher education and vocational educational (Wiseman, Alromi, & Alshumrani, 2014) to prepare graduates for the private sector and stem the unemployment of the young in a country of high birth rates (Commins, 2008).

It is within this recent economic imperative emphasis the research associated with this development focuses. Specifically, my research focus is on the new English language curriculum in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. It seeks to explore the intentions of this curriculum and influences upon its formation; English language teachers‟ and supervisors‟ responses to the intended curriculum and how it is enacted, and to determine whether professional development programs and initial teacher education address teachers‟ identified needs. As well, it seeks to determine if the pedagogical approaches introduced to improve the teaching and learning of English in the Kingdom have actually become enacted and the effectiveness of the enactment particularly as a cascade model, as suggested by my employer, has been used. That is, Ministry of Education English language supervisors have been trained to cascade the training to English language teachers in their educational directorates with central support and guidance. Underpinning this directive is the model that my employer, Tatweer Company for Educational Services, is expected to enact. In the section that follows, a brief overview of my background

and current responsibilities are described, which provide insight into the motivations and tensions associated with pursuing this line of research inquiry.

1.3 Locating Myself as a Researcher

Since 1998, I have worked in and on education projects in Asia, the Middle East, and the Pacific. In that time, I have served in a variety of roles including lecturer, trainer, academic coordinator, project manager, consultant, professional learning manger, and principal in a range of education settings. I have co-written books for instructional purposes, published journal articles, edited a journal, and presented outcomes associated with these projects at conferences. Although I have gained much from these experiences, I have become acutely aware that the implementation of curriculum seems to be fraught by a multiplicity of issues. I sometimes have wondered about the motivations for these projects, what the intentions are and who the drivers of these initiatives are?

The process of curriculum construction is both fascinating and complex, and this dissertation, as a professional doctorate, seeks to develop a broader understanding of curriculum, in all of its dimensions. It is important to note that although I work as an education provider, I have not completed an initial teacher education qualification. For this reason, the literature review conducted and presented in Chapter 2 was conducted to enable me to extend my knowledge of curriculum - its definitions, construction, and implementation, and the associated tensions and recommendations associated with the processes. The literature review provided me with the theoretical grounding to critically engage in this research.

I have a wide range of qualifications, ranging from tertiary to vocational. I have completed two course-work based master‟s degrees in education, which included both course work and project work, and required me to engage in applied research. The subjects I studied

provided me with the opportunity to develop my capabilities and capacity in a range of areas. Despite this academic background, I realized I needed a broader – maybe a deeper – understanding of the construct of „curriculum". As I commenced my professional doctorate, I was personally and professionally disturbed, in a productive way, by my introduction to scholars such as Pinar, Reynolds, Slattery, and Taubman (1995), who suggest that curriculum "becomes the site on which the generations struggle to define itself and the world" (pp. 847-848). This comment became the focus of my inquiry.

Between 2000 and 2013, I developed, constructed, and delivered professional development training packages to both trainee teachers and teachers in a range of subject areas including English, mathematics, science, leadership, administration, and special education. The programs for teachers were commissioned by national or regional ministries of education and were predominantly directed toward the development of teachers" pedagogical skills. I was committed to providing services required by my employers. In this role, I became aware that my employers were interested in what I would later learn in a progressive purpose of education. The ministries of education wanted a more communicative and student-centered teaching and learning approach to support their curriculum. I created surveys that were completed to feed into reports that I submitted to ministries of education, with the teachers participating in the programs interested in making sure that they were given a positive report both individually and collectively. This typically resulted in motivated and engaging participants. It appeared that although the curriculum effort was progressive, teachers were bound by a pragmatic and performative agenda. This provided me with an interesting perspective into the tensions and challenges teacher training can pose in a number of areas:

1. In some cases the participants in the programs were concerned about the reports and the effect it could have on them. Some projects were viewed as an incentive provided to them by the sponsoring body and, in some cases, the program outcomes could have been secondary to this.
2. For me as the project manager, implementer, and in many cases (one of) the trainer(s), there were the competing interests to write objective reports; both individual and collective while limiting constructive criticism and focusing on the positives. However, I always sought to understand if the participants were satisfied. Did the participants feel they had gained skills that could be used in their classrooms? Could they share the information and/or cascade the training in their schools? Were they satisfied with the training? Did the training (significantly) improve their competencies in both targeted areas and secondary areas?
3. The project sponsors and organizers were keen for projects to be successful so they could request budgets for future projects.

Since December 2013, I have worked in educational development for Tatweer Company for Educational Services where I am based in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The role of Tatweer Company for Educational Services is to implement programs and projects for public education development in the Kingdom. The prime goal is to improve teaching and learning outcomes throughout the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. This goal, in itself, becomes the tension associated with my work and my research. In brief, I start the thesis as an employee, subscribed to a variety of duties, but I seek to end this research as a scholar – able to critically consider and reconsider a nation‟s curriculum aspirations.

I realize that what is expected in my current role is likely to influence my interpretation of the research process. It is important to emphasize at this early point in the thesis that I am contracted by Tatweer Company for Educational Services to implement decisions that have already been made; that is, the English language curriculum document was complete, the teaching materials were selected, and the professional development programs to support the introduction of the curriculum had commenced. This job requirement, and my initial unquestioning of my employer‟s mandate, influenced my „positionality‟ and regulated the manner I initially approached my work, and subsequently, my research. Holmes (2014) discusses the importance for researchers to consider their positionality. I was mindful that I needed to be open to considerations that could potentially reframe my thinking about the many aspects of curriculum during the research process. As stated by Holmes (2014), "a researcher‟s positionality or „situatedness‟ can change over time" (p. 3). As I progressed through this three-year journey, I needed to reflect and engage in the research outside of my contracted role and be open to new considerations about curriculum and its enactment. It was my intent to be open to being reframed during this journey.

This research project was initiated early on in my professional role, as I believed it provided the opportunity for me to develop my professional capabilities, particularly in the areas of curriculum understanding what influences reform and development. It also enabled me to develop a range of competencies, which I anticipated would prepare me for future roles. I am aware that my time in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is finite for a number of reasons; most notably because of „Saudization‟ policies, where the government is seeking to increase Saudi participation rates in the private sector. Once the organization I work for deems local capacity and capability has been developed sufficiently, it is my intention to return to Australia and work

in the education sector. This provided the reasoning to use Australian initial teacher education programs, as a likely context for my future professional role, for the comparison with current initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia as presented in Chapter 7.

1.4 Research Questions

Because I am enrolled in a professional doctorate, my research questions were designed to contribute to my ongoing professional development, and were aligned with my work in educational development and more importantly educational development, for the immediate future, in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and, the longer-term future, in Australia. My overarching research aim pertained to the new English language curriculum in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and the intentions and ensuring tensions in curriculum design and enactment. It sought to examine the foundations and influences of the Saudi Arabian English language curriculum, teachers‟ concerns around the reform imperatives and the associated professional development activities seeking to address teachers‟ identified needs. Further, it sought to understand how initial teacher education either interrupts or perpetuates these identified concerns. Under the umbrella of my research aim are four distinct sub-questions, each of which is a distinct phase in the research chronology.

Research Question 1: What are the current Saudi Arabian English language teaching reform goals, and how do these compare to previous English language curriculum reforms and what curriculum theory positions inform these reforms? This question investigated the current English language teaching reform goals in the Kingdom with its focus on improving Saudi Arabian students‟ English language competency and acquisition. Central to this initial question was developing an understanding of the theoretical orientations and foundations underscoring the

new Saudi Arabian English language curriculum and the influences on the formulation of this curriculum.

Research Question 2: What do English language teachers identify as the contributors and impediments to the enactment of the current reform agenda in English language teaching? This question sought to identify the tensions teachers identify to be associated with the reform process. As is evidenced in the structure of the question, I not only sought to identify impediments to the reform process but also factors positively contributing to the reform process.

Research Question 3: What are the professional development needs of English language teachers? As is noted in the limitations of the study (Chapter 1.6), the focus of the research is on English language teachers, and while the research includes English language teachers‟ and supervisors‟ opinions of student improvement through the training initiatives, it does not include a study on baseline student targeted English language levels (Appendix A) and/or improvement from the implementation of new pedagogical approaches. This question asked and answered what are the influences on in-service professional development and looked at more than just the influences, but both internal and external factors affecting the development and the tensions and constraints associated with the in-service professional development.

Research Question 4: What are the challenges that new English language teachers face? Based on these findings how might these challenges be addressed, especially through initial teacher education? Research Question 4 examined what obstacles new English language teachers face, their knowledge of the curriculum, current pedagogies, and other teaching and learning strategies. Research Question 4 also looked at what support mechanisms and in-service training programs new English language teachers require, along with the content of initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

1.5 Significance of the Study

In line with the role of a professional doctorate, my research questions and associated research contributed to my professional development for my current and anticipated professional roles. More importantly, for the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, my research questions provided the foundation for an in-depth study into the reform and processes with attention to the design, development, and implementation processes. This includes an analysis of the curriculum intent and the influences on this intent, a critical investigation of the associated materials used in schools and associated in-service teacher training programs, and an investigation into the pedagogical approaches and English language proficiency training enacted that aspire to foster the realization of the curriculum intent.

This project provides a detailed multifaceted study on the development and implementation of the *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020* in the Kingdom. The research seeks to triangulate data from policy and curriculum documents, survey results, and the content of initial teacher education programs to understand the phenomenon of curriculum – its development and implementation – in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. In brief this project investigated whether the current English language curriculum has been enacted as intended and the challenges that need to be addressed for this intended curriculum enactment to be realized. It also critically considers whether the intended curriculum should be realized.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

The information gathered from this study was limited to the current Saudi Arabian English language reform goals, what teachers identified as the contributors and impediments of the reform agenda, the influence of in-service teacher training, and the disconnect between initial teacher education and English language teaching reform goals. In brief, it sought to understand

the influences on what was anticipated and enacted. The qualitative data did not investigate whether or not all English language teachers and supervisors are aware of all the goals and/or their opinions on whether or not the reform goals are achievable and, more provocatively, even desirable. Indirect data on this more contentious point were not pursued or obtained through conversations with English language teachers and supervisors. In brief, they were asked to respond to more pragmatic limitations and problems of the teaching and learning of English in their schools and classrooms as aspired by the current curriculum and the resources provided to serve this end. This was influenced by my role as an employee expected to carry out a defined and prescribed role. In brief, the study does not directly pursue to understand, from a critical perspective, the broader intentions and the drawbacks of this intention and associated support efforts.

A limitation of this study is that there were no monitored classroom observations of teaching practices throughout the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, which would have allowed the comparison prior to the implementation of professional development programs and on-going professional development programs. Whilst self-reported practice was obtained through surveys completed by English language teachers and supervisors, there were no observations of these teaching approaches.

An additional limitation of the study is that student improvement and outcomes were not analyzed to help determine if the English language skills development programs and the pedagogical skills development projects being implemented are improving the English proficiency of students. The reason for this was that presently there are no standardized Kingdom-wide English tests at any grade level for students studying in Ministry of Education

schools. Presently the Ministry of Education provides directorates with guidelines of what should be included in tests and individual teachers create their own tests.

Having English language teachers and supervisors complete surveys was a further limitation as some did not do so. To mitigate this variable, the sample size was large in terms of the number of English language teachers and supervisors surveyed across a large geographical spread in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Aligned with this limitation was that the initial English language reform projects for teachers began in 2013 and that data I collected did not include the amount of follow-up and reporting the English language supervisors may have conducted in the early stages of the reform process. This limited my ability to establish the early tensions in the reform process.

1.7 Thesis Outline

Chapter 1 introduced the history of education and reform in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia from the early part of the twentieth century up until the current day. It painted the picture of what has happened and how the past, with attention to Saudi nationalist goals, has contributed to the shaping of the current reform initiatives, particularly in English language teaching. It also identified some tensions associated with previous reform initiatives that are relevant to the current reform initiative. In Chapter 1, I explained my involvement and how I am personally and professionally connected to the research, my motivations for the research, and how I believe my thesis will make a significant professional contribution to not only curriculum reform and its associated initiatives in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia but also have relevance to curriculum reform strategies and approaches through-out the third and developing world. This is enabled and enacted through the construction of the research questions, which fall under my overarching research aim, which is to investigate the influences on the development of the new English

language curriculum in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and the associated intentions and tensions in curriculum design and enactment. Chapter 1 also recognized and discussed the limitations of the study.

Following this introductory chapter, Chapter 2, the literature review is presented. I again emphasize that I have had little exposure to the construct of curriculum, and in this professional doctorate I seek to demonstrate my understanding of this construct. The focus of this portion of this thesis is to demonstrate my understanding of what informs curriculum development and the theories and practices aligned with curriculum construction and development. The literature review analyzed general curriculum development references, historical origins, influences of curriculum development, and areas of tension in both establishing what defines curriculum and the ensuing tensions that often arise among stakeholders. The literature review also includes, from a comparative perspective, how curriculum literature on Islamic and developing countries seeking reform has been positioned, primarily in regards to English language curricula for second and foreign language speakers.

Chapter 3 outlines the methodology and explained the context of the study, the theoretical framework, data sources, participants, research design, data collection, data analysis, ethical considerations, and validity and reliability for the study. Following the methodology chapter, Chapter 4 presents a document analysis of the relevant curriculum documents and supporting documents influencing past and current English language curriculum development efforts. It will be shown that Eisner‟s (1985) model provided a sufficient framework to analyze documents and publications relevant to the more recent curriculum reform in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, particularly English language teaching. The chapter examines what themes and groupings emerged in the documents.

Each of the three subsequent research questions are then addressed in Chapters 5, 6, and 7. The data analysis of both qualitative and quantitative results from the research tools designed and outlined in Chapter 3 are discussed in these chapters. Included in these chapters are tables of results from surveys.

The final chapter provides the conclusions of the thesis. The conclusions are drawn and discussed with recommendations for further research to measure the effectiveness and impact of English language curriculum reform and whether its associated professional development activities are having the projected positive influence in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The final part of the thesis consists of references and appendices.

Chapter 2

Literature Review: What Informs Curriculum Development?

2.1 Introduction

Chapter 2 begins with a discussion on the construct of curriculum and then focuses on a review of literature, primarily from well-known curriculum scholarship, which informs curriculum development, curriculum orientations, foundations of curriculum, and the influences on curriculum construction and development. This chapter provides evidence of my professional interest as a doctoral student with no prior formal tertiary experience in education in developing a better understanding of the construction of curriculum, especially the multiple dimensions of curriculum.

In Section 2.1.1 the concept of curriculum is defined, which is a complex task because, as Portelli (1987) stated, there are scores of definitions in the literature for curriculum. Section 2.1.2 examines the human influence on curriculum, which is followed by Section 2.2, which defines the types of curriculum relevant to this thesis. Ornstein and Hunkins‟ (2009) four foundations of curriculum and Eisner‟s (1985) five basic orientations to curriculum, in particular the social reconstructionist orientation, are examined and discussed in Section 2.3. This is followed by an analysis of the literature on: curriculum design (2.4); curriculum development (2.5); curriculum implementation (2.6); and curriculum evaluation (2.7). The final sections of the chapter provide (1) an analysis on education and curriculum reform in Middle Eastern and Islamic countries (2.8); and (2) a discussion on the content of initial teacher English education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (2.9).

2.1.1 Tensions associated with defining curriculum

As has been noted in the introduction, there are many definitions of curriculum (Portelli, 1987). Beauchamp (1981), for example, identifies three uses of the term curriculum: first, as a referent to a substantive phenomenon; second, as the name of a system of schooling; and finally, as a field of study. For this study, each of these definitions has merit, especially the first which refers to curriculum as a phenomenon. This reference to phenomenon is evidenced by Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) who discuss both technical and non-technical definitions of curriculum. This is also distinguished by Scheffler (1960) who identifies curriculum as either scientific or non-scientific. Scheffler (1960) asserts that scientific is technical in nature, and there is a call for specific knowledge while non-scientific is more general and therefore general in definition.

Portelli (1987) discusses curriculum in three distinct areas: (1) course and subject content; (2) experiences, both in school and life; and (3) a plan for learning, which also encompasses pedagogical approaches. Again, important to this study is the reference to experiences, not just the experiences students have with curriculum, but the experiences all stakeholders, including teachers, have with the design, implementation, and evaluation of curriculum.

These introductory definitions illustrate that definitions for curriculum denote curriculum as objective, or in contrast, subjective. It is not uncommon for people to hold a view of curriculum as a technical document developed with little influence of the subjective. This subjective connotation is evidenced in Connelly and Clandinin (1988) who have adopted the Latin meaning for curriculum - „race course", that is, a course of study. Their reference moves beyond the technical and emphasizes the experiential and subjective, and thus the

phenomenological, in recognizing the influence of the stakeholders in the curriculum design, development, and enactment processes.

The tension between curriculum as technical-objective and non-technical-subjective is evident in the assertion by Ebert, Ebert, and Bentley (2011) who provided an historical evolution of how curriculum may have „come into being". This reference to curriculum coming into being again captures the experiential rather than technical dimensions of curriculum. In medieval Europe, the trivium was an educational curriculum based upon the study of grammar, rhetoric, and logic. The later quadrivium (referring to four subjects rather than three as represented by the trivium) emphasized the study of arithmetic, geometry, music, and astronomy. Historically, curriculum was typically described by the explicit intentions of content specified, with little room for modification and adjustment (Ebert et al., 2011).

Evidence of the nature of curriculum as dynamic and open to adjustment is evident in Wiles and Bondi"s (2007) writing when they discuss curriculum as being goals or values centered that are activated and adjusted through the development process and result in successful learning experiences for students. Wiles and Bondi (2007) argue that the definition of curriculum is reliant on the individuals involved in the development process and the results the development process seeks to deliver.

The above definition differs from Wiles and Bondi"s (cited in Dobbler, Johnson, & Wolsey, 2013) explanation of a curriculum as a flexible plan for learning and a structure that provides for the translation of vision into learning experiences for students. They discuss curriculum as a way to think about broad swaths of learning experiences that encompass a given period of time. The plan for learning provides the guidance for what content is to be covered and how the teaching and learning process is to be implemented.

The Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) Human Resources Development Working Group (n.d.) defines curriculum as a course meant to be connected and integrated that should lead to learning. Although their view of curriculum is quite technical, important to this study is their claim that the ultimate goal a curriculum achieves will be influenced by the context and those involved in its creation and enactment.

Olivia (1997) identifies curriculum quite traditionally as that which is taught in schools, a set of subjects, subject content, a program or course of study, a set of materials, a sequence of courses, a set of performance objectives, everything that goes on within the school including extra-class activities, guidance, and interpersonal relationships, and everything that is planned by a school. Olivia (1997) also draws attention to the personal nature of curriculum by referring to it as the experiences of learners in a school and the experiences a learner has from the result of schooling.

In summary, the many definitions of curriculum in the literature imply that curriculum, in the minds of some authors (Beauchamp, 1981; Olivia, 1997; Taba, 1962), is objective, technical, and tangible. For others (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009; Pinar et al., 1995; Wiles & Bondi, 2007), it is an active phenomenon that illustrates the manifestation of contextual influences for the society it represents. The latter definitions, overall, represent curriculum as a deeply personal and dynamic phenomenon, strongly influenced by the environmental and personal influences that impact on curriculum, especially in its design and implementation. As Pinar et al. (1995) state:

> [curriculum] is what the older generation chooses to tell the younger generation… [it] is intensely historical, political, racial, gendered, phenomenological, autobiographical, aesthetic, theological, and international. It becomes the site on which the generations struggle to define themselves and the world. (pp. 847-848)

Pinar et al.‟s (1995) reference to the phenomenological is significant. This description of curriculum illustrates that curriculum-as-text is context bound and because of its contextual „locatedness‟, the contextual influences, its nature, and will be illustrated in its text. The text becomes illustrative of the spheres of influence, as Pinar et al. (1995) suggest of how [a country] seeks to define itself. It is this emphasis on curriculum as a phenomenon that is central to this study.

2.1.2 Curriculum as a human construct

As the title of this section indicates, curriculum as a human construct implies curriculum is a human construction. Curriculum areas are determined at a point in time, by a range of people who perhaps have different agendas and/or points of view of what should be included in a curriculum (Sowell, 2005). In brief, and central to this study, is that these stakeholders not only have influence on the development of the intended curriculum but also the enacted curriculum.

This influence on curriculum development is most obvious when education is seen to be a means for human resource development for countries. This is commonly evidenced in today‟s globalization efforts that have led to the construction of curriculum to meet economic needs and goals (Wiseman, Alromi, & Alshumrani, 2014). This neo-liberalist agenda is evident in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia with its huge investment in K-12, higher education, and vocational education (Mohammed, 2013). These combined initiatives seek to provide the Kingdom with a skilled local workforce.

Alongside the push for a skilled workforce for economic reasons, the attention to values education or citizenship education is an emphasis in curriculum. The Ministry of Education in the Kingdom has examined the possibility of introducing a form of citizenship education within its education system to increase the affiliation young people have to the Kingdom and to the

development of positive identity, particularly in light of terror attacks that have been carried out by Saudi Arabian youths (Shayea, 2014).

Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) discuss the dynamic in the construction of curriculum for present and future purposes, such as citizenship and economic gain, because of the preferred outcomes of stakeholders. This influence of stakeholders often results in what Bell, Carr, and Jones (1995) have described curriculum as a "marble cake" curriculum (p. 99) where a range of course foundations can be represented in a formal curriculum through the different points of view held by curriculum developers that strive to define the curriculum intent. This „marbling" is due to the variance in the views of the personnel involved in constructing curriculum. This influencing factor is discussed further by Marsh and Willis (2007) who maintain that while a mix of specialists and practitioners is desirable, in curriculum construction many curriculum development projects have been dominated by specialists and experts often suppressing any textual expression of others contribution.

Caswell (1952) recognizes that ideas about the purposes of education, the nature of learning and of the learner, and the role of the school in the community needs to be interpreted into courses of action by those who develop the curriculum. Without the implementation plan inefficiencies and differences in implementation practices can occur (Sowell, 2005). Where differences in these basic theories exist, curriculum issues arise; and the sharper the differences, the more critical the issues become. Different positions need to be explored and critically analyzed (Unruh & Unruh, 1984) and then a consensus can be reached, which is beneficial to curriculum reform (Marsh & Willis, 2007).

Unruh and Unruh (1984) note that geographic location and the ability to have curriculum development teams meet together regularly has an influence on curriculum construction. While

the internet and related technologies have decreased the reliance on face-to-face curriculum development meetings, Paykoç et al., (2004) remarked the lack of a national online data base in Turkey was one of the problems contributing to the participation of practitioners and professionals in the curriculum decision making process, ultimately leading to a curriculum-in-text inadequately representing the expression of the breadth of stakeholders.

What if curriculum developers come from abroad? Does this create issues with a range of personal opinions and also the ability for committees to meet face-to-face regularly? In third world and developing countries there is still the need for expatriates, but these people need to be suitably qualified and have the capacity and capability to transfer skills to build the capability of nationals (Mngomezulu, 2012). National staff needs to be part of the curriculum planning and development processes and the processes should be not dominated by expatriates (Barton & Walker, 2012).

Team diversification is important in curriculum construction and is supported by Sims and Sims (1995) who state, "one of the immediate benefits of diverse team composition is that there are few ties to existing curriculum and practice and diverse teams bring a fresh view to the design process" (p. 44). However, Sims and Sims (1995) note that team members need to be provided with training in effective team skills. Teamwork must be a stated goal of the overarching curriculum design process and the team leader must operate as a liaison between team members.

Political issues can also influence the human construction of curriculum. Stellar (1980) discusses how education policy makers respond quickly to political demands rather than educational needs. Stellar (1980) goes on to state "the difference between what special interest groups and educational professionals perceive as curriculum can be very wide" (p. 161).

However, Stellar (1980) also notes that curriculum constructors can use the political process to instigate change. Kennedy (1995) states, "curriculum reform is about changes to the content and organization of what is taught, within the constraints of social, economic, and political contexts" (p. 177). In essence, Stellar (1980) is saying politics can be an impetus to create curriculum change, whereas Kennedy (1995) identifies that, in contrast, politics can often be a constraint to change.

Important to this study is that national ideology and philosophy can have a large influence on the curriculum, which in turn defines curriculum content and, ultimately, the curriculum materials used and thus the actions of teachers (Commins, 2008). For example, in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, English language curriculum materials need to be sensitive to Islamic beliefs and customs as these are likely to strongly influence what is enacted by teachers and experienced by students at the classroom level.

Roberts (1998) contests that curriculum cannot be neutral, because it invariably becomes a site for political challenges and a vehicle to express political views. It is a means by which political parties use to help create distinction in their views or to defend or promote values. In the Kingdom, the oil wealth has provided the constitutional monarchy with great influence over what is taught in schools and the education system in general. That is, the curriculum and its materials have been tailored to meet nationalistic goals with attention to Saudi Arabian culture, values and, potentially, nationalistic economic goals.

It is evident in this section that curriculum is a human construct and influenced by those involved in its construction and, ultimately, at the classroom level its reconstruction. As Pinar et al. assert, "it is intensely historical, political, racial, gendered, phenomenological, autobiographical, aesthetic, theological, and international" (1995, pp. 847-848).

2.2 Types of Curriculum

In this section of the literature review the types of curriculum relevant to this study are examined. These are the: (1) overt, explicit, or written curriculum; (2) social or societal curriculum; (3) rhetorical curriculum; (4) received curriculum; and (5) curriculum in use or the enacted curriculum. Within the descriptions of the types of curriculum, examples from the context of this study, English language teaching in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia including religious, family, and cultural influences, are used to elucidate and to further describe the types of curriculum.

The overt, explicit, or written curriculum is described by Srivastava and Kumari (2005) as that which is written as part of formal instruction of schooling experiences. For example, this could take the form of a curriculum document such as the English Language Curriculum 2014 – 2020 in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Cuban (1992) refers to the explicit curriculum as an intended curriculum; that is one that is recommended, adopted, and official. It serves as a documented map of theories, beliefs, and intentions about schooling, teaching, learning, and knowledge - evidence in the development of a teacher proof curriculum. These types of documents could be referred to as curriculum documents, a curriculum framework, or a national curriculum.

The social curriculum or societal curriculum is described by Cortes (1981) as a massive, ongoing, informal curriculum of the influences of family, peer groups, neighbourhoods, religious organizations, occupations, mass media, and other socializing forces that educate people throughout their lives. As AL-Abdulkareem (1993) says in historical writings on the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, “the family is the fundamental and essential repository of every individual's personal and the family structure as it exists among the nomadic Arabs and cities, but the basic

pattern is the same, and the differences are largely of degree" (p. 4). AL-Abdulrareem's (1993) assertion shows the importance of the social curriculum in the Kingdom through the influence of family and religion.

The rhetorical curriculum is comprised from reports and ideas provided by policymakers, school officials, administrators, and politicians (Wilson, 2015). Additionally, these reports may come from organizations involved in concept formation and content changes. So, in essence, the rhetorical curriculum is the guidelines provided by the overarching educational body that help to shape both pedagogy and content, and any changes in and development of the curriculum. The rhetorical curriculum may also come from publicized works, which includes educational journals offering updates in pedagogical knowledge. English language teaching, mathematics, and science needs analysis documents provide good examples of works that have not only provided updates in pedagogical knowledge but also the need for continual improvement in the practical aspects of teaching and learning in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

The received curriculum is what students actually take out of the classroom. Cuban (1992) noted "the gap between what is taught and what is learned, both intended and unintended is large" (p. 223). The gap between the written curriculum and what students actually receive or take out of the classroom varies between students based on teacher competency, teachers' opinions of what is important for students and possibly a teacher's own personal preferences, location, schools, time allocated to specific parts of the curriculum, and students. Kelly (2009) supports this statement by discussing that it could be a conscious or deliberate decision by a teacher to impart curriculum to students or possibly an unconscious decision by the teacher to omit parts of the official curriculum. This is where a mismatch occurs between those who have planned the curriculum and those who deliver the curriculum and, therefore, determines what

parts of curriculum the students have the opportunity of taking out of the classroom. The final type of curriculum described is the curriculum in use or the enacted curriculum, which is the actual curriculum that is delivered and presented by each teacher (Wilson, 2015).

Sandlin and Cervero (2003) identify the importance of looking at the pedagogical approaches and classroom practices when analyzing curriculum and its related documents. Aoki, Pinar, and Irwin describe, "a teacher‟s pedagogic position as living in tensionality – a tensionality that emerges, in part, from the indwelling in a zone between two curriculum worlds" (2005, p. 159).

2.3 Foundations of and Orientations to Curriculum

An important aspect of my research is the understanding of the foundations and orientations of curriculum associated with the current English language reform efforts in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, both at the national level as well as at the professional level by teachers who are making decisions about how to enact this curriculum. The foundations of curriculum provide a framework for the design and development of curriculum. In developing my understanding of these foundations I drew from Ornstein and Hunkins (2009), who describe the foundations of curriculum as the areas outside of the curriculum which influence the field. Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) say, "the foundations of curriculum see the external boundaries of the knowledge of curriculum and define what constitutes valid sources from which to derive the field‟s principles, theories, and ideas" (2009, p. 13). They have categorized the foundations of curriculum into four areas: (1) philosophical; (2) historical; (3) psychological; and (4) social.

There are various orientation frameworks, with Schiro‟s (2012) and Eisner‟s (1985) frameworks being of particular merit. Shiro (2012) identified, described, and analyzed four orientations, which have influenced American schools and educators: (1) scholar academic; (2)

social efficiency; (3) learner centered; and (4) social reconstruction. In addition to Schiro‟s (2012) framework is the seminal work provided by Elliot Eisner (1985). Eisner‟s (1985) work includes further elaborations and has more international application (Ahour, Khasawneh, Abu Al-ruz, & Alsharqawi, 2012; Worrell, 2004).

Eisner (1985) identified five orientations to the curriculum: (1) academic rationalism; (2) the development of cognitive processes; (3) personal relevance; (4) social adaptation and social reconstruction; and (5) curriculum as technology. It could be argued that additional orientations have evolved since Eisner (1985) described his orientations, such as: (1) curriculum for social and political control (Cantoni, Chen, Yang, Yuchtman, & Zhang, 2017); (2) the emergent curriculum (Jones, 2012); (3) the thinking curriculum (Fennimore & Tinzmann, 1990); (4) education for democracy (Patrick, 2003); and (5) curriculum for social justice (Connell, 1992). However, these all relate to one of Eisner‟s (1985) five orientations to the curriculum.

This section of the literature review will now describe the different aspects of both the foundations and orientations of curriculum and relates these to the English language teaching reform process in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. At this stage of the dissertation, I do not present these assertions based upon a content analysis of the new curriculum as this is the focus of Research Question 1 (Chapter 4).

2.3.1 Foundations of curriculum

The following sections discuss Ornstein and Hunkins‟ (2009) foundations of curriculum beginning with the philosophical foundations which include, perennialism, essentialism, progressivism, and reconstructionism, each of which are underpinned by a specific philosophical base. Included in this section is the importance and challenges of developing philosophical foundations in curriculum. Historical foundations to curriculum are reviewed with specific

attention given to the historical foundations of curriculum in the Arab world. Following the historical foundations to curriculum I examined the psychological foundations to curriculum, which is followed by Ornstein and Hunkins‟ (2009) fourth and final foundation of curriculum, the social foundations of curriculum.

2.3.1.1 Philosophical foundations of curriculum

A search of the literature indicates that over time, many philosophies of education have emerged, each with their own beliefs about education. The Greek philosophers Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle all philosophized about education. Aristotle provides insight into early philosophical foundations of curriculum, by philosophizing, "in modern times there are opposing views about the practice of education. There is no general agreement about what the young should learn either in relation to virtue or in relation to the best life" (Saunders, 1981, p. 453). Dewey clarified Aristotle‟s philosophy on education in 1916 and more than twenty years later in 1938, discussed how philosophy is a certain way of thinking that helps bring meaning to our lives and then goes on to suggest that philosophy underpins every decision made in an educational context. It can also be seen as shaping our patterns of thinking both mentally and morally.

Dewey (1916) saw philosophy as crucial and fundamental for all curriculum activities. This was endorsed by Tyler (1949) who saw philosophy as one of five criteria informing curriculum construction, with the other four being studies of learners, studies of contemporary life, suggestions from subject specialists, and the psychology of learning, which form the basis for determining a school‟s purpose.

Ladd and Brubacher (1956) implied that the curriculum must be established by the older generation in opposition to the younger. In essence they are implying the role of the curriculum

in education is for adults to establish identified ideals and use the curriculum to mould children into good citizens that uphold the aspirations of society. Goodlad (1979) described a school‟s first responsibility is to advocate for social order, which he referred to as the ideals and imperatives of a nation. Goodlad (1979) expanded on this point describing philosophy as the starting point of curriculum, where the aims, methods, and ends of curriculum are determined. This corresponds with Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) who suggest that philosophy sets up an organizational structure and framework for curriculum construction. They suggest that philosophy guides decisions in schools which would not only fit Dewey‟s views on educational philosophy but more so Goodlad‟s (1979) where the aims, methods, and ends are grounded in the aspired educational philosophy.

While, Smith, Stanley, and Shores (1957) placed great importance on the role philosophy plays in the development of curriculum; they saw it for the formulation and justification for educational purposes, as it provides the foundation for organizing knowledge and formulating activities and procedures in the curriculum construction process. In contrast Ekanem and Ekefre (2014) discuss how the philosophy of education is a blend of intellect and character.

In countries such as the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia where a constitutional monarchy oversees the Kingdom, educational philosophies that emphasize strong religious values and moral behaviour underpin the curriculum development process. These are common themes through the curricula of the Gulf Council Cooperation Countries (Maroun, Samman, Moujaes, & Abouchakra, 2008).

Whilst there are a number of educational philosophies discussed in the literature (Dewey, 1916; Ekanem & Ekefre, 2014; Goodlad, 1979; Ladd & Brubacher, 1956; Tyler, 1949), I am going to limit my discussion to those I can see influencing curriculum construction in the

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia today; that is, those that are teacher or student-centered approaches. Two are traditional philosophies - perennialism and essentialism; and two are contemporary philosophies - progressivism and reconstructionism.

Perennialism is a conservative educational philosophy and is aligned with realism. Ornstein, Pajak, and Ornstein (2011) have described the perennialist approach as being grounded in the tradition of the past, especially the knowledge foundations representing the past. There is an emphasis on academic content, and to prepare students for the future ahead, especially in formalized study (Olivia, 1997). Doll (1986) provides a concise summary of perennialism by stating it establishes that, "theory and principles tend to come first in the learning experience; application or practice follows" (p. 33).

The second conservative educational philosophy is essentialism, which is linked to perennialism through its connection to the philosophical base of realism (Ornstein et al., 2011). Olivia (1997) provides the following explanation on the similarities between the two traditional educational philosophies, "the perennialist agrees with the essentialist that education is preparation for life" (p. 179). They are both teacher-centered philosophies where the teacher is the authority, the teaching is subject centered and traditional values are explicitly taught. Like the perennialists, the essentialists emphasize that education should show permanent and enduring values that have been transmitted from one generation to the next (Ekanem & Ekefre, 2014). Both of the traditional philosophies can be seen to have neo-Aristotelian characteristics where reality and truth are seen as stable and unchanging phenomenon and that curriculum should follow what has been proven to be true.

Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) point out, "like perennialism, essentialism is subject-centered; however, essentialism is not rooted in the past" (p. 41). Essentialism differentiates

from perennialism with its curriculum focus on problem solving and social justice. Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) note that while essentialism has a teacher-centered approach it also incorporates problem solving and encourages students to regress to find solutions to problems with the knowledge and skills they have gained. The perennialist looks to the past for the answers to social problems (Olivia, 1997), whereas the idealist can be seen to find solutions to past problems with facts, skills, and knowledge gained (Doll, 1986), which can be seen as being more proactive in contributing to the eradication of social problems than realism.

This leads us into the two contemporary educational philosophies, progressivism and reconstructionism. The view of the progressivist is that, "education is for life" (Olivia, 1997, p. 179) where knowledge leads to growth and development both individually and socially. Progressivism has a pragmatic philosophical base, and as Ekanem and Ekefre (2014) state "it anchors on the importance and value of change, process, and relativity since it clearly nudged on the fact that the value of an idea is dependent on its actual consequences" (p. 268). Ekanem and Ekefre (2014) describe progressivism as a philosophy that engages learners in the teaching and learning process and that sees things at a particular point in time recognizing that change and social development can alter values and ideas. This approach encourages students to think critically. Dewey's inquiry-based teaching and learning approach can be seen to have contributed to the development of the progressivist approach. Olivia (1997) describes the approach as, learning by doing. Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) summarize the main tenet of progressivism when they state, "progressivist skills include problem-solving, scientific methods, cooperation, and self-discipline because reality is constantly changing and progressivism emphasizes how to think, not what to think" (p. 46).

Reconstructionism is the second contemporary education philosophy, and like the progressivist approach, the role of the teacher is that of a guide and leader while encouraging students to inquire and learn through the application of concepts to test theories. Reconstructionism differentiates itself from progressivism in that it is through curriculum the instructional objective seeks social reform, and ultimately social equality and opportunity through education (Ornstein et al. 2011). This has led to reconstructionist curriculum addressing social priorities that focus on national imperatives that serve a global purpose. Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) have said that reconstructionism emphasizes "personal self-knowledge, particularly mystical, spiritual, and moral introspection, and that current society is marked by alienation, a failure to accommodate diversity, and indifference to people‟s needs" (p. 53). Reconstructionist emphasis primarily includes education for change and social reform (Ornstein et al., 2011), and learning is concerned with contemporary and future society today and in the future (Ornstein et al., 2011). This emphasis could be interpreted as accommodating diversity and people‟s needs in what is a globalized and multi-cultured world (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 2015).

In terms of a pedagogical approach, in general, the traditional approaches are teacher-centered with the teacher giving the knowledge and information to students to master. In contrast, the contemporary approaches are student-centered where students engage in problem solving and inquiry-based learning approaches.

It is important to develop philosophical foundations in curriculum but doing so also has its challenges. Some of the challenges previously identified in Section 2.1.2, Curriculum as a Human Construct are relevant to the challenges faced when developing philosophical foundations in curriculum. For example, Marsh and Willis (2007) discussed that while a mix of

specialists and practitioners are desirable in curriculum construction, many curriculum development projects have been dominated by specialists and experts, who draw from their preferred curriculum foundations. Ekanem and Ekefre (2014) contend that, "the philosophy of curriculum experts or specialists reflect their life experiences, common sense, socio-economic background, education, and the general beliefs. A personal philosophy is an evaluation and continuation of the existence of individual growth, development, and learning from experience" (p. 266).

Whilst Marsh and Wills (2007) say that a mix of specialists is important, Ekanem and Ekefre (2014) indicate that individual specialists draw on their own experiences when determining educational philosophy, which can lead to differences in educational philosophies. Doll (1986) reasons that conflict can occur amongst curriculum planners because of divisions in educational philosophies. Olivia (1997) supports Doll"s (1986) opinion by saying curriculum experts "enter into the process with differing assumptions, sometimes unexpressed, about the learning process, the needs of society, and the roles of individuals in that society" (p. 192).

It is important to recognize that there are challenges in developing philosophical foundations in curriculum as outlined above, and it is more important to be proactive in the approach to developing philosophical foundations, which in turn will help shape the curriculum. This allows stakeholders to develop a shared view on the purpose of education and a clear view that will shape the curriculum and educational philosophy. Doll (1986) supports this point of view when discussing the workings of curriculum teams which will usually develop more comprehensive and clearer philosophies, compared to individuals. Team members also tend to critically analyze their own philosophies in a team environment. As I discussed earlier in this chapter, Bell et al."s (1995) "marble cake" (p. 99) emerges in curriculum and becomes evident

when a number of educational philosophies are blended together to create a foundation of the curriculum. Whilst this foundational overview is not a tool to examine the success and/or societal failure of educational philosophical foundations, it provides the foundation to identify what the apparent motivations and broad goals of the curriculum are.

Further these foundations ultimately impact on teaching practice and what might be expected of teachers in their practice, which is a further line of investigation in this study. The educational philosophical foundations in curriculum do have two primary influences; first, on teachers where the philosophical approach implemented by teachers and administrators, and the relationships between these stakeholders typically determines the pedagogical approach followed by teachers. The second are the areas of the types (as discussed earlier in Chapter 2.2) of curriculum teachers and schools are using and the content knowledge of teachers in specialist areas.

To summarise, the importance of underscoring philosophical foundations in curriculum is imperative as educational philosophy is what provides the framework for the aims and methods of schools. The instructional objectives, knowledge or student learning outcomes, role of teacher, and the curriculum focus are defined along with the pedagogical approaches to be used in the teaching and learning process.

2.3.1.2 Historical foundations of curriculum

Curriculum developers need to reflect on past and present curricula to examine what worked and what did not work. It could be argued that in many cases a new curriculum is just a new version of a curriculum with some adjusted features reflecting contemporary issues of importance in content or pedagogy or a combination of both (Doll, 1986). Doll (1986) states "that not only are curricula usually similar to their predecessors, but that they are copied from

other schools and school systems" (p. 21). This is supported by Pinar and Reynolds (1992, p. 92) who state, we "as students of curriculum, live and work in the aftermath of the death of our predecessors".

Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) discuss the importance of looking at the historical foundations of curriculum, stating, "curriculum specialists need an understanding of history to avoid repeating the mistakes of the past and to also prepare them for the future" (p. 70). Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) explain how curriculum developers need to have an understanding of the historical foundations before they are able to develop and interpret new concepts and this "helps integrate curriculum, instruction, and teaching" (p. 70). It is this statement that provides the link between curriculum and instruction as the curriculum content of the essential skills (three Rs) and essential subjects (English, arithmetic, science, history, and foreign language) has not changed greatly, foundations of curriculum have evolved.

In the Saudi Arabian context outlined in Chapter 1 it was not until 1939 that formalized schools were established, which demonstrated educational development in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was lagging behind more established nations. This later development in the establishment and structure in formal education in the Kingdom does not mean that there are not historical foundations to curriculum in the Arabic speaking world.

Al-Farabi, during the tenth century, was the leading philosopher in what is now the Middle East and whose works were recognized in both the East and West. "Al-Farabi"s (as cited in Al-Talbi, 1993) view on education can be summed up as the acquisition of values, knowledge, and practical skills by the individual, within a particular period and a particular culture" (p. 2). Al-Farabi (as cited in Al-Talbi, 1993) goes on to say, "the goal of education is to lead the individual to perfection since the human being was created for this purpose, and the goal of

humanity‟s existence in this world is to attain happiness, which is the highest perfection - the absolute good" (p. 2). It can be seen that what Al-Farabi has stated about education goals has relevance to both traditional and contemporary educational philosophies.

2.3.1.3 Psychological foundations of curriculum

The psychological foundations of curriculum define, primarily, how students learn. If we do not know how people learn, teachers and curriculum designers do not know what to include in the curriculum and how a curriculum should be delivered. We can see from my discussion on the philosophical foundations of curriculum, the contemporary philosophies tend to address individual students needs rather than a collective approach to student learning and teaching. The work of behavioral theorists such as Neisser, Thorndike, Pavlov, Watson, Skinner, Bandura, Gagne, Paiget, Bruner, Maslov, and Rogers indicate that this development came about to address the psychological learning needs of students and in recognition that not everyone learns the same way and that students do not all have the same attributes.

2.3.1.4 Social foundations of curriculum

Ornstein and Hunkins‟ (2009) fourth and final foundation of curriculum is the social foundations of curriculum. The social foundations of curriculum are concerned with society, and education and schooling for social good. Goodland (cited in Clabaugh & Rozycki, 1990) identified four public goals that schools and curriculum should aim to achieve, each of which contributes to producing citizens who will live within the laws of a country or society, therefore forming the social foundations of curriculum. The four public goals are:

1. Social, civic and cultural goals: for example interpersonal understandings and citizenship participation;
2. Intellectual goals: academic knowledge, and intellectual skills;

3. Personal goals: emotional and physical well-being, creativity and aesthetic expression, and self-realization; and
4. Vocational goals: being prepared for an occupation.

Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) expand upon this approach when explaining the importance of the social foundations on curriculum. They advocate "comprehending those forces in society at large and locally enables educators to determine what aspects of society to transmit to current and future students, and what dimensions of society require reinvention" (p. 177).

2.3.2 Orientations to curriculum

In this section, orientations to curriculum are explored. As opposed to the foundations of curriculum that focus on the underpinning premise of curriculum, orientations focus primarily on what is pursued by curriculum as outcomes. In other words, orientations focus on what is desired. This understanding of orientations is imperative for this study, as I seek in my professional role to have a better understanding of the intentions behind curriculum in the making. I seek to understand what the underpinning purpose of a curriculum is, and how these imperatives are captured in the design and development process.

Chapter 2.3 noted that a major contributor to the considerations of orientations to curriculum is Elliot Eisner (1985). Schubert (2012) ascertains that Eisner has been influenced by Dewey evidenced by the amount of references to Dewey throughout Eisner‟s work. Eisner himself (Schubert, 2012) acknowledges Dewey‟s influence along with psychologist Jerome Bruner who has made significant contributions to human cognitive psychology and cognitive learning. Educational historians Lawrence Cremin and Raymond Callahan, and philosophers; Rudolf Arnheim, Nelson Goodman, and Suzanne Langer have also influenced Eisner‟s work

(Schubert, 2012). It is evident from the nature of Eisner‟s influences that there is some cross over with Ornstein and Hunkins‟ (2009) four major foundations of curriculum.

Eisner (1985) categorizes his orientations to curriculum into five distinct areas: (1) academic rationalism; (2) development of cognitive processes; (3) personal relevance; (4) social adaptation and social reconstruction; and (5) curriculum as technology. These characterizations organize the curriculum into categories which share similar ideologies and goals (Manley-Delacruz, 1990) and have been used in Chapter 4 to analyze the current English language teaching document and supporting documents in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

2.3.2.1 Academic rationalism

The first curriculum orientation academic rationalism argues that, “the major function of the school is to foster the intellectual growth of the student in those subject matters most worthy of study” (Eisner, 1985, p.66). Eisner (1985) goes on to discuss how children should be exposed to basic fields of study so they can find out if they have an interest and/or ability for particular curriculum areas.

Academic rationalists take the view that not all available curricula can be taught due to time constraints, and economies of scale, so the subjects that are deemed to be the time-tested important subjects are prioritized; reading, writing, and arithmetic. Academic rationalism assumes a collective approach to teaching and learning; what the older generation think the younger generation need to know (Pinar et al., 1995) to develop intellect.

2.3.2.2 Development of cognitive processes

Along with academic rationalism the development of students' intellectual abilities are also the focus of the development of cognitive processes orientation with the major function of

school being "to help children learn how to learn and to provide them with the opportunities to use and strengthen the variety of intellectual faculties they possess" (Eisner, 1985, p. 62).

The differentiation between the academic rationalism and the development of cognitive processes orientations is that the first focuses on curriculum content and the latter on students‟ abilities to solve problems through inquiry. Dewey‟s (1956) influence on Eisner is evident in this orientation through Dewey‟s work on inquiry-based learning and students „finding out‟ through problem solving. I would suggest that Eisner‟s more recent work, particularly on connoisseurship has developed from the development of cognitive processes orientation. This is evident from what Eisner (1998) states:

> We have to develop the ability to name and appreciate the different dimensions of situations and experiences, and the way they relate to one and other. We have to be able to draw upon, and make use of, a wide array of information. We also have to be able to place our experiences and understandings in a wider context, and connect them with our values and commitments (p. 6).

The development of cognitive processes orientation to curriculum relevance should not be underestimated. The vertical and horizontal integration of 21st century skills into curricula is seen as vital to students‟ life success through the development of the four C‟s: (1) communication; (2) collaboration; (3) critical thinking; and (4) creativity (Alismail & McGuire, 2015), all of which contribute to the development of students‟ cognitive processes.

2.3.2.3 Personal relevance

Eisner‟s third orientation to curriculum is personal relevance, where students have influence on curriculum, in that courses are designed so that students have an input in determining the personal significance a course will have on them. For example, the personal

significance could be comprised of elective components both in subject matter and assessments where students‟ influence the teaching and learning process. Eisner (1985) argues that, “without actual participation or the availability of real choices within the curriculum, school is likely to be little more than a series of meaningless routines” (p. 69). By providing students with options the curriculum provides opportunities that are important to the students. Therefore if the teaching and learning process takes a student-centered approach one could argue by virtue it becomes a classroom management strategy because interested students are more likely to pay attention, not get side tracked and are more likely to be focused and engaged in the learning process. Reddy (2014) sums this point up by saying, “the climate of the classroom is where all the students want to learn and share and understand together because the power of what they do together can be dramatic” (para. 11). Eisner (1985) realizes that there are limitations to the personal relevance curriculum orientation in areas such as when is a child old enough to make judgement on what their educational needs are, economies of scale in terms of class and school sizes, evaluation and assessment models, teaching strategies, and the content of the curriculum.

2.3.2.4 Social adaptation and social reconstruction

The fourth orientation to curriculum draws attention to two social imperatives, social adaptation and social reconstruction, both of which are strongly evident in curriculum initiatives in today‟s global education reform movement. Social adaptation has two distinct segments in society; the first, “regards the manpower needs of society as most salient” (Eisner, 1985, p. 74). This segment infers that when skills are needed in a certain area it is the role of education providers to produce suitability qualified personnel to meet the skill shortage or need. As the Arab News (2014b) points out, this is something the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is struggling with at present, particularly in the university sector where the skills and areas of specialization of

graduates are not aligned with the job market. The Arab News (2014b) goes on to say, "graduates working in the private sector do not master English" (para. 6), which is a factor contributing to the need of English language teaching reform in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

The second segment of social adaption is "the need for conformity to existing values and for children to take their place in social order" (Eisner, 1985, p. 74). Eisner (1985) goes on to reason that both segments are conservative in their views and approaches, and in my opinion (particularly in the first segment) reactive rather than proactive in nature and implementation. Are curricula producing graduates with the skills economies need? Are stakeholders collaborating and planning to determine the future skill needs of society? Do career education programs and school careers counsellors know what future skills are needed by industry? The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia alone is home for about nine million foreign workers (Arab News, 2014a) and millions more foreign workers work throughout the Middle East. Even in developed countries there is a need for foreign workers to address skills and labour shortages.

Social reconstruction "is basically aimed at developing levels of critical consciousness among children and youth so that they become aware of the kinds of ills that society has and become motivated to learn how to alleviate them" (Eisner, 1985, p. 76). Even though a national intended curriculum may not seek such critical consciousness, a teacher at the classroom level may seek this as an imperative at the classroom level. By so doing, as Pinar et al. (1995) suggest, a reconceptualization of curriculum occurs at the interface between student and teacher. Whilst this is not new to curriculum as such, with values being taught through subjects such as social studies, history, and religious studies, in recent years the social reconstruction orientation curriculum has become prevalent with a number of countries taking the initiative to introduce values education, be it a stand-alone subject or embedded in the curriculum. This can take the

process of instilling values from teachers to students, even though this may not be explicit in the intended curriculum. Values education has also been referred to as the process that gives young people an initiation into values, giving knowledge of the rules needed to function in this mode of relating to other people, and for students to develop the understanding and application of certain underlying principles, together with the settled disposition to apply these rules intelligently (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 2015).

2.3.2.5 Curriculum as technology

Eisner"s final orientation is curriculum as technology where the focus of curriculum is on curriculum planning, purpose, and goals. Eisner (1985) expresses the need to evaluate and measure what has been achieved and "to use those purposes as criteria for evaluating the efficiency and effectiveness of the plans made" (p. 80). This orientation is associated with subject content but it also includes other aspects of planning such as behaviour as Eisner (1985) asserts: "form sets the boundaries within which the substantive goals of education can be articulated" (p. 81). The planning aspect of this orientation is not something new and Eisner (1985) acknowledges that educational planners and theorist such as Benjamin Bloom, Franklin Bobbit, John Dewey, Virgil Herrick, Hilda Taba, and Ralph Tyler have either used or supported the use of a planning model. Due to the planning and evaluation processes schools and teachers become accountable. Manley-Delacruz, (1990) goes further describing planning and evaluation as a scientific method of control, rationalizing it as a, "means-end, efficiency-centered approach to the organization and construction of school subjects, manifested in such forms as the behavioural objectives model, competency-based instruction, and the accountability movement" (p. 10).

2.4 Curriculum Design

Taba (1962) recognized curriculum design as, "a statement which identifies the elements of the curriculum, states what their relationships are to each other, and indicates the principles of an organization and the requirements of that organization for the administrative conditions for which it is to operate" (p. 421). The key word in Taba's (1962) statement in reference to curriculum design is organization, and I would suggest that this reference to organization captures the human nature of curriculum design recognizing it is an organizational and decision-making process that ultimately informs the development process. Design focuses on what is decided to be learned, how it is to be learned and why it is to be learned.

Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) broaden curriculum design to include the imparting of essential concepts, attitudes, and skills to learners. So not only does the design of the curriculum take into account the development of intellect but also character development and the link to curriculum design is aligned with a philosophy of curriculum. Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) identify two main elements of curriculum design: (1) the source of the design, that is, what sources informs curriculum design; and (2) the actual method or technicalities influencing the design process, sometimes referred to as the horizontal and vertical organizational influence. Vertical organization ensures sequence and continuity within the curriculum. Horizontal organization is primarily focused on the scope, which is the breadth and depth of material to be covered (Tyler, 1949). Additionally, horizontal organization is concerned with side by side relationships or integration of different areas of curriculum. For example, in a reading class a social studies topic maybe covered.

2.5 Curriculum Development

Curriculum development can be seen as a process or a series of steps to create a whole curriculum. This whole curriculum is an ongoing process and a live document that needs to be constantly up-dated and reviewed. Salberg (2006) supports this notion and sees curriculum development as, "an ongoing process and not just a product. Curriculum development can no longer be viewed as a project that has a start and an end and should be viewed as a living, organic instrument" (p. 8).

Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) illustrate two approaches to curriculum development: (1) the technical-scientific approach; and (2) the nontechnical-nonscientific. The technical-scientific approach to curriculum development stresses "students learning specific subject matter with specific outputs" (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009, p. 212). The focus is on knowledge acquisition and what knowledge is most important for the students to gain. The curriculum is structured in a step-by-step manner to optimize students" learning and to allow them to increase their output. Neary (2003) describes the technical-scientific model as the product model, which emphasises plans and intentions. It is very teacher centric and focuses on content structured assessment tools.

Whereas the technical-scientific approach to curriculum development is very subject and content centred, the nontechnical-nonscientific approach to curriculum development is student centred with the emphasis on the learners rather than the outputs (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009). By its very nature, it employs contemporary educational philosophies and has a holistic view of learning. Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) describe the nontechnical-nonscientific approach to curriculum development as being, "highly objective, universal, logical, subjective, personal, aesthetic, heuristic, and transactional" (p. 220). Neary (2003) agrees with Ornstein and Hunkins

(2009) and describes the nontechnical-nonscientific approach to curriculum development as a process model that concentrates on activities and the effects of the activities.

Both the technical-scientific approach to curriculum development and the nontechnical-nonscientific approach to curriculum development are associated with numerous distinctive models (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009). The choice of which approach and/or combination depends on the context and is influenced by the curriculum developers and designers. For the purposes of this thesis I am in interested in the developed product or curriculum document: *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Grades 4 – 12, 2014 - 2020*. This is the output of the development process that is analyzed in Chapter 4.

2.6 Curriculum Implementation

Referring to Ornstein and Hunkins" (2009) identification of curriculum as a production, the process of curriculum implementation can be seen as applying the product that has been created in classrooms and schools. Both Tyler (1949) and Taba (1962) see curriculum implementation as the final destination for curriculum; that is in the classroom. The implementation of a new or revised curriculum needs to ensure that all stakeholders are informed, schools and teachers are provided with guidelines, and communication is collaborative and proactive. Professional learning communities can provide forums for discussion, analysis, support, feedback, and advice. Resources need to be developed and in place and professional development programs need to be provided for teachers and all associated staff who require expertise in a new or revised curriculum.

Marsh and Willis (2007) recognize that there are challenges around curriculum implementation including: (1) finding time for those charged with the implementation, which is

essential for success; (2) the lack of uniformity that arises from the fact that enactment can vary from school to school; and (3) that there is no one right way of going about it for all teachers in all schools. Of particular emphasis is that curriculum implementation is a change process, which can be fraught by a variety of factors which can affect the implementation process. Fullan and Pomfret (1977) suggest "effective implementation of innovations requires time, personal interaction and contact, in-service training, and other forms of people-based support" (p. 391). People-based support can minimize the effects of anxiety and often identified resistance to change. Substantive in-service teacher training is usually necessary as it provides the support necessary for the change associated with instruction or delivery of the curriculum, which ultimately influences the enacted and received curriculums. However, training without follow-up, ongoing support for teachers, and subsequent training sessions will not deliver significant results (Killion & Kaylor, 1991).

Fullan (2007) suggests there are three elements to the curriculum implementation process: (1) using new resources and curriculums; (2) employing new practices; and (3) integrating new principles and attitudes. Changes in teachers" beliefs, attitudes, and principles need to precede the introduction of new resources and practices as the change in teacher beliefs and attitudes is likely to take place after they see evidence of changes in student learning as a result of the new materials and practices (Guskey, 1986). Fullan"s (2007) work has increasingly drawn attention to the influence of belief systems on curriculum implementation, recognizing, as Pinar et al. (1995) assert that at the classroom level teachers reconceptualize curriculum based upon their own system of beliefs and ideals.

Once the implementation process has commenced the success of the implementation not only relies on in-service teacher training, and changes in beliefs and practices, but the ongoing

support of the implementation process (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991), and clarity around the change process with clear and specific details provided to teachers (Fullan, 2007). Change is hard to conceive and harder to implement and requires the support and leadership within schools from subject leaders, vice-principals and principals, and at higher levels such as directorates and within the Ministry of Education (Fullan, 2007). Within the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia the belief and attitudes of English language supervisors to support changes and curriculum reform is crucial and channeling these beliefs and attitudes to teachers with support and training is essential for success.

2.7 Curriculum Evaluation

Curriculum evaluation is the fourth element in the curriculum production process (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009). Oliva‟s (1997) curriculum evaluation model has four elements: (1) curriculum goals; (2) curriculum objectives; (3) organization and implementation of the curriculum; and (4) the evaluation of the curriculum. The primary purpose of curriculum evaluation is to determine whether the curriculum goals and objectives are being successfully carried out or not. If the goals or objectives of the curriculum do not include student achievement then student results should not be used to measure the effectiveness or success of a curriculum (Oliva, 1997).

For the purposes of this thesis, curriculum evaluation will be seen as, “an attempt to toss light on two questions: (1) Do planned courses, programs, activities, and learning opportunities as developed and organized actually produce desired results?; and (2) How can the curriculum offerings best be improved” (Glatthorn, Floyd, Whitehead, & Boschee, 2015, p. 357)?

Salberg (2006) notes that the curriculum development process, of which curriculum evaluation is an integral part of is on-going, that is it is not a one off event. It can be seen as

providing an ongoing needs analysis function. Curriculum evaluation is a tool for examining or determining the appropriateness of the selected curriculum for the students: (1) How much of the curriculum in use is the target audience actually receiving? (2) Are the pedagogical approaches selected complementing the curriculum objectives? (3) Is the content meeting curriculum goals? and (4) Are the teaching and learning tools and materials appropriate?

Figure 1 represents the relationships among the elements in the curriculum production process, foundations of curriculum, orientations to curriculum, curriculum design, and curriculum development approach. In essence Figure 1 provides an overview of the ongoing curriculum process discussed in the previous sections of this literature review.

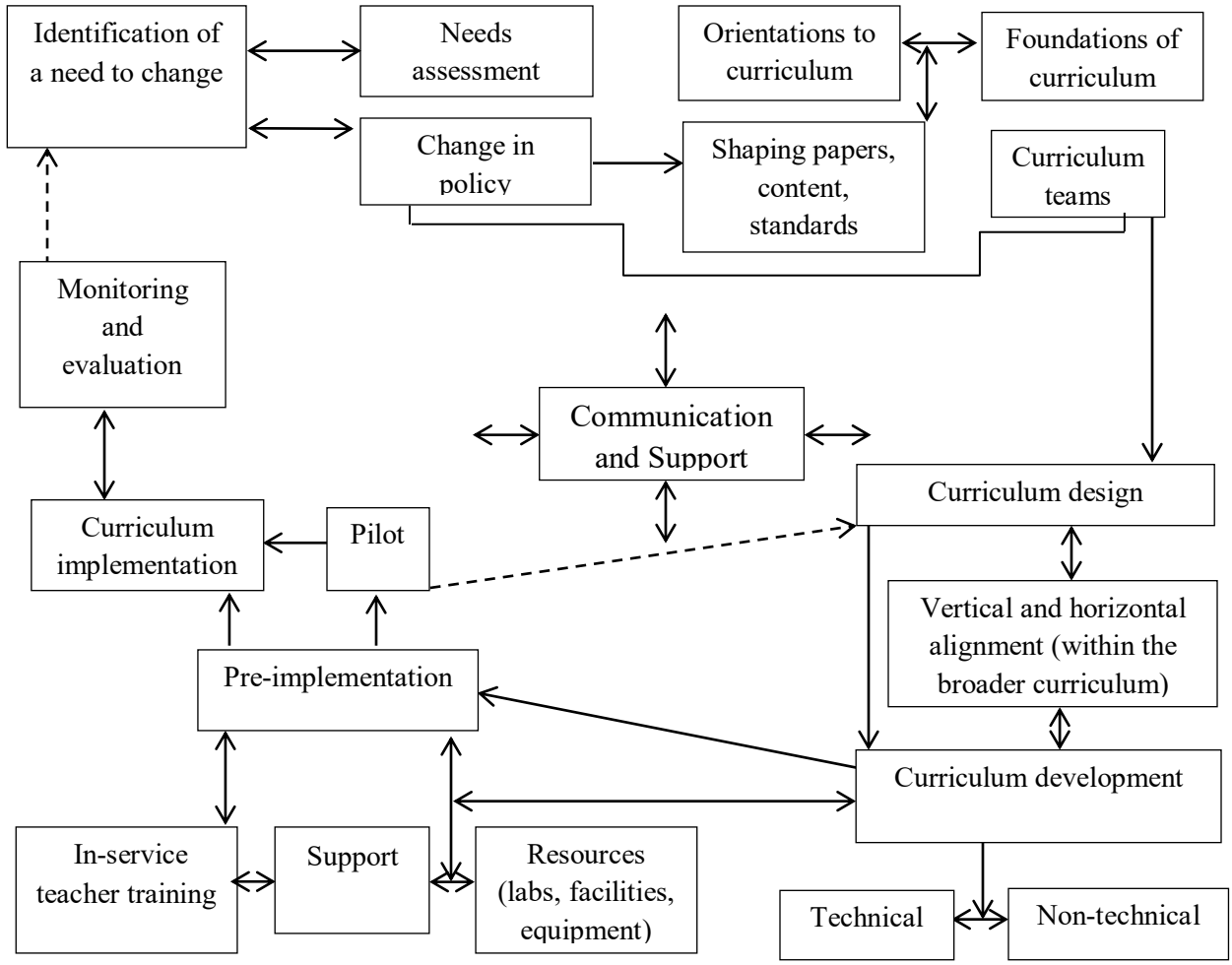


Figure 1. Relationships among the Elements in the Curriculum Production Process

2.8 Curriculum in the Developing World

2.8.1 Introduction

This section of the literature review, curriculum in the developing world, presents an array of relevant literature pertaining to the research focus of this thesis. Although previous sections of this review have examined foundational theoretical literature pertaining to curriculum design, development, and implementation in general, this section focuses on the influences and tensions associated with curriculum processes, especially curriculum reform in Middle Eastern and Islamic countries. Specifically, this section of the literature review draws together the

previous theoretical and foundational sections with attention to the overarching research focus on the new English language curriculum in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and whether the ongoing professional development addresses teachers‟ needs. I have been selective in the choice of literature included here so as not to encroach on documents and literature that are the substance for the document analysis presented in Chapter 4.

2.8.2 Education and curriculum reform in Middle Eastern and Islamic countries

In the first section of Chapter 1, I drew upon a selection of literature that provided a brief chronology from the beginnings of formal education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia through to the present day. In this section, recent examples of referenced events are used to demonstrate the tensions that exist in curriculum intent when conflicting national imperatives, especially in religion and economics, come to the foreground in the decision-making level around curriculum priorities. Consequently, to develop a better understanding of the tensions in curriculum, especially English language curriculum, this section includes not only literature on education and curriculum reform in Middle Eastern and Islamic countries but also other countries, where relevant.

South Korea is a developed and economic powerhouse which was severely affected by the 1997-1998 Asian financial crises. The Asian financial crisis “was the catalyst for a set of socioeconomic transformations that led to the imposition of competitiveness as a core value for a nation” (Lee, 2012, p.1). In South Korea English language competency is seen as a sign of competiveness and some of the curriculum and instruction reforms that have taken place are the vertical and horizontal integration of English into other subject areas, and certain universities have introduced English as the medium of instruction in selected courses. Complementing these reforms has been the continued growth in English language training centers and having English

language speakers in government schools. As has been noted the Asian financial crisis was an agent for change in South Korea. However, curriculum reform in South Korea has not occurred without controversy, especially with the attention given to the educational pressures students are under, which have been attributed to rising levels of suicide (Lee, 2012). This can be seen to be an example of how "curriculum is what the older generation chooses to tell the younger generation" (Pinar et al., 1995, pp. 847-848), which, in turn, places undue pressure on students to perform.

Malaysia is another Asian country where economic imperatives have strongly influenced curriculum reform. The term „Asian Economic Tiger" was used to describe it prior to the Asian financial crisis (Lee, 2012). Malaysia has undergone numerous English language curriculum reforms since obtaining independence from the United Kingdom in 1957 (White, 2004), including the priority placed on English as the language of instruction in all subject areas. It can be described as ongoing curriculum change processes in Malaysia, which has not occurred without disagreement, especially with attention to debates around nationalism and sovereignty and the desire to distance themselves from their former colonial masters (Selvaraj, 2010). This tension to have English as the language of instruction is evident in a variety of developments. For example, Selvaraj (2010) quotes the then Malay Prime Minister Datuk Seri Dr. Mahathir Mohamad who said in 1991, "that Malaysia might lose its economic competitiveness and find it hard to progress in the industrial and technical fields" (p. 52). This has resulted in not only curriculum reform but also language policy changes in Malaysia.

Curriculum reform in Malaysia can be seen to fall under Eisner"s (1985) social adaptation and social reconstruction orientation to curriculum, where the function of curriculum is two-fold: (1) to develop manpower for a nation; and (2) to create good citizens. Kabilan (2007) recognizes

Malaysian students in remote and rural areas are not provided with the same level of instruction, especially in English language exposure, as students in urban areas, which likely hinders the intent of the reform efforts. Kabilan (2007) goes on to recognize, "the emphases on English as an academic subject and a tool for economic attainment" (p. 681). While curriculum reform can be seen as a tool for economic development, not all students are allowed to access this capital that is identified as central to participation in the economic imperatives.

The world"s largest Muslim country, Indonesia, has been undergoing curriculum reform in recent decades. Before discussing the curriculum in Indonesia, it is important to note that two different government ministries oversee education in the huge archipelago, the Ministry of Religious Affairs (which is responsible for the Islamic schools) and the Ministry of National Education. A 2013 curriculum reform initiative in Indonesia has seen the piloting of a new curriculum in 6,000 schools. This reform "instantly drew controversy after it removed science, English, social sciences, and information technology as separate subjects in favor of Bahasa Indonesian, nationalism, and religious studies" (Palatino, 2013, para. 1). Whilst the decrease in the number of subjects students undertake at both primary and junior high school might be seen as a positive by the Ministry of National Affairs, and citizens calling for a more substantive religious base to schooling, the de-prioritization of core subjects is inconsistent with developing labor market skills and modernizing an economy (Palatino, 2013). These reforms are at odds with most developments in Asian and Middle Eastern countries, such as the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia where there is an emphasis of the curriculum reform efforts for STEM and English. These subjects are seen as essential for future economic prosperity. Investing in human capital through education is seen as a central mandate for the improvement in the quality of education as

the continuation of the investment in future generations in order to transform the Kingdom into a knowledge-based society.

A search of the literature indicates that there is no literature available, as yet, elaborating on the outcomes of the 6,000 school curriculum pilot project in Indonesia. Informal feedback from teachers indicates dissatisfaction with this imperative, and the in-service training provided to teachers has been insufficient (Palatino, 2013). This is a key point Kabilan (2007) has discussed in relation to the Malaysian context where teachers‟ knowledge and pedagogical approaches influence the success of a curriculum.

In Indonesia there is a growth of schools, especially independent schools, offering Cambridge qualifications in Indonesia (Cambridge International Examinations, 2015), which includes the "National Plus Schools which are government schools that teach an international curriculum alongside the local standard Education Department curriculum" (Ferras, 2012, para. 3). As of April 2014, there is also a Cambridge IGCSE Bahasa Indonesia qualification for students. So on one hand while the pilot program for 6,000 schools is increasing religious education at the expense of other core subjects, other government schools are embracing and adopting international curriculum and practices. This polarity in intent between schools will undoubtedly contribute to, or at least perpetuate, ongoing tensions around the contested space of curriculum in Indonesia.

Closer to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, the Gulf Cooperation Council Countries, which in addition to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is made up of the United Arab Emirates, Kuwait, the Kingdom of Bahrain, Qatar, and the Sultanate of Oman, are undergoing curriculum reform. The Gulf Cooperation Council Countries share a common outlook with regard to religion and its

practices, although with some slightly different interpretations and laws. The council member countries share similar histories and beginnings, cultural, language, and socio-political domains.

Education reform in the six member countries is seen as a key in driving the countries forward. One of the few people who have written and published extensively on education reform in the region is Al-Issa (2012) who says:

> In their pursuit of development, advancement and modernization, all of the six oil producing and rich Gulf countries recently started to restructure and reform their education systems in terms of quality and quantity in order to respond to the world technological, social, economic and political changes, challenges and demands, which mold and steer the needs of the individuals, who make the prime resource of development in any country. (p. 538)

Maroun et al. (2008), while discussing how to succeed at education reform in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and the Gulf Cooperation Council Countries, talk about the links to economic development and the links to the socioeconomic environment, which was a key motivator in education reform in South Korea (Lee, 2012). Maroun et al. (2008) go on to say:

> The urgency for education reform in the Arab world has been manifested in the various initiatives aimed at improving the quality and quantity of education, especially with a rising young population that represents a majority in many countries of the Arab world. Recent years have witnessed many Arab countries making efforts to develop and implement comprehensive education reform programs that can result in a skilled, knowledge-based workforce in line with socioeconomic goals. (p. 1)

English language curriculum reform is deemed to be a key component in curriculum reform due to it being a world language and essential for trade and enterprise in the globalized

world. The importance of English language teaching is evident in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia with recent reforms to the English language curriculum and accompanying instruction being implemented. However, the outputs from these changes will take a number of years to be realized as is evidenced by the poor English language proficiency of current graduates (Arab News, 2014b). Richards (2010) notes that most English language teachers are non-native speakers of English. In the Ministry of Education K-12 schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia English language teachers are typically Saudi Arabian nationals. This is different from some of the other countries previously discussed such as South Korea, Malaysia, and other Gulf Cooperation Council Countries, which have a blend of expatriate teachers within their public school systems.

The situation in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia brings with it potential tensions. First, in referring to the needs of non-native speakers of English, Richards (2010) states, "there is a threshold proficiency level the teacher needs to have reached in the target language in order to be able to teach effectively in English" (p. 103). Unfortunately, Richards (2010) does not align this statement to a quantifiable International English Language Testing System (IELTS) or Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) score. To put this in perspective both internationally and within the Saudi Arabian context, non-native speakers of English who would like to enter an undergraduate initial teacher education program in an Anglophone country typically require an academic IELTS score of 7.0 across all four bands. In the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia there is no official English language proficiency requirement for English language teachers. However, in 2013 the Ministry of Education and Tatweeer Company for Educational Services discussed a target of academic IETLS 6.0 or TOEFL iBT 71 for English language teachers.

Khan (2011a, b) acknowledges that there exists a poor level of English language teaching in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Al-Issa (2011) notes that this is common throughout the Gulf Council Cooperation Countries. Both Khan (2011a, b) and Al-Issa (2011) recognize and stress the importance of providing professional development for English language teachers, which is an essential element for a positive impact on learners‟ language improvement. In essence, teacher up-skilling programs provide the crucial element in determining the success of the new curriculum through improved instruction; a key goal of the outcomes of the professional development programs for English language teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

It is quite possible that some English language teachers do not subscribe to the national curriculum imperatives. It is conceivable they do not support, as Fullan and Miles (1992) suggest, the „worthwhileness‟ of such initiatives and may consciously or unconsciously resist such efforts because of their belief systems (Allam, 2011). The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is fundamentally a conservative country and initiatives that draw into question fundamental conservative foundations are likely to be contested by those charged ultimately with the imperative of enacting curriculum.

The interdependence between curriculum reform (and its success) and teachers‟ skill has been discussed in relation to the Indonesian and Malaysian contexts. Wiseman and Al-bakr (2013) are one of the few researchers who have published a range of literature on education reform in the Middle East, and, in particular, in the Gulf Cooperation Council Countries. Wiseman and Al-bakr (2013) discuss how the Gulf Cooperation Council Countries have teacher competence high on their agenda in curriculum reform implementation. Policy makers have linked student performance to placing a focus on teacher quality and teacher improvement and the introduction of teacher standards to improve teachers‟ standards (Wiseman & Al-bakr, 2013).

While there are numerous initiatives around teacher development and improvement to support curriculum reform in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia there are also a range of inhibitors. When the Ministry of Education recently announced on its website its intention to look into extending the school day, with the extra hours used to strengthen classes or do homework, both teachers and parents expressed concern (Fakkar, 2014).

There is also a history of rewarding high performing teachers through incentive schemes (Arab News, 2014c). Questions will surely arise around the viability of such incentive schemes along with the distribution and selection of rewarded teachers. Monthly allowances for students (AL-Abdulkareem, 1993) were discussed in Chapter 1, along with incentive schemes for teachers. It is clear that these schemes, although seen as support mechanisms, are also likely to cause tensions in the implementation process.

The Maroun et al. (2008) report shows the percentage of gross domestic product invested in education from a cross section of countries including developed and developing countries such as the Gulf Cooperation Council Countries and Jordan. This report provides comparative data on employment, education development indexes, and literacy rates, all of which did not bode well for the Gulf Cooperation Council Countries and, in particular, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Countries such as Singapore and South Korea have been suggested as curriculum reform models that could be replicated or adapted due to their success and their rapid ascendance across education indexes because of improved student performance on international testing assessments such as the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) and the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS).

This section of the literature review has demonstrated that there will be challenges and tensions associated with the curriculum reform process in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

indicating, as Pinar et al. (1995) suggest, that curriculum "becomes the site on which the generations struggle to define themselves" (pp.847-848). It is envisaged that these tensions will not only be evident at the design and development level, but also at the classroom level as teachers' beliefs, capabilities, and external factors such as time, and school and community milieu influence teachers' actions in enacting curriculum in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Subsequent chapters in this thesis analyze the foundations of and motivations behind curriculum reform and the success of the implementation of the new English language curriculum in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and the influence of professional development programs that are supporting implementation efforts.

2.9 Initial Teacher Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

This final section of the literature review provides an investigation into the available pathways to become an English language teacher in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. This is achieved through a content analysis of initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and draws upon the available literature, which provides a critical analysis of initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Secondary school students in the Kingdom graduate through one of two pathways; science or literature. Students who complete the science pathway have the opportunity to study any field at university while those students who complete the literature pathway are only permitted to study non-scientific fields. Students are awarded a secondary school diploma upon completing the official tests, provided and administered by each school rather than national standardized achievement tests at the end of their secondary school education (Siddiek, 2011). Siddieck (2011) suggests that this form of summative assessment has an effect on English language teaching and in turn students' English language attainment as teachers predominantly

focus on test taking techniques to ensure students graduate with high marks rather than the mastery of English language skills and communicative competency.

With the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia not having national standardized achievement tests in year 12, Saudi Arabian universities only place a 30% weighting on students‟ secondary school results as a component of the admission requirements. The Proficiency Achievement Test (GAT) and the Standardized Achievement Aptitude Test (SAAT) of the National Centre for Assessment in Higher Education (Qiyas) compose 70% of the academic entrance requirements. Depending on their GAT and SAAT results, and secondary school scores, students apply directly to the universities of their choice. In the first year of university studies students will usually complete a preparatory year program prior to entering their major field of study. The content of preparatory year programs for students who plan on studying a humanities undergraduate degree is English language skills (12 hours per week), Islamic studies, Arabic language, mathematics, communication and learning skills, computer science and information technology (Taif University, 2014). This entry pathway does vary between institutions with the variables being students obtaining high scores on the GAT and SAAT, and/or other tests prescribed by a particular institution. Eligible students with high scores on the GAT and SAAT, and/or other tests prescribed by a particular institution are able to qualify for exemption from the preparatory year and enter their bachelor‟s degree directly.

The available pathways to becoming a Ministry of Education English language teacher in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia include graduating with a university degree at an undergraduate level from a Faculty or College of Arts, Social Sciences, Humanities, or Education. A list of institutions that offer initial English language teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is provided in Appendix B.

Determining the educational and training pathways available to students who would like to become English language teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is complicated by the fact that there is no central source or repository for individuals to access information regarding institutions offering initial teacher education programs. This gap in information is further hampered by the fact that most of the university websites provide minimal to no information on their programs, while in other cases links are broken or under maintenance. Moreover, some university websites are predominantly only available in Arabic without a full English version. However, this situation is to be corrected with the launch of the Saudi qualifications framework program, devised to facilitate comparison and consistency between Saudi qualifications, and provide a national information repository for qualifications (National qualifications framework, 2016).

Appendices C, D, and E provide examples of three initial English language teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Appendix C is an example of the subjects in a Bachelor of English and Translation degree. The subjects comprising a Bachelor of English Literature degree in the Kingdom are shown in Appendix D. The subjects for the Bachelor of Science in Applied Linguistics at Yanbu University College are listed in Appendix E. Both Appendix E and Table 34 highlight the Bachelor of Science in Applied Linguistics at Yanbu University College contains far more teaching specific courses than the programs catalogued in Appendices C and D, and referred to by Al-Hamzi (2003); Al-Seghayer (2014); and Al-Nasser (2015) in the following paragraphs.

Research into English language teacher preparation in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia includes a detailed study by Al-Hamzi (2003) who describes initial teacher education as "non-systematic and inadequate" (2003, p. 341). Describing the pathways available to prospective

English language teachers, Al-Hamzi (2003) maintains that students are offered only one English teaching methodology subject throughout the duration of their four year initial teacher education program. However, this figure is in contrast to the writing of Al-Seghayer (2014) who put this number at between one and three subjects, maintaining that irrespective of the number of subjects being taught, these subjects still do not adequately prepare graduates to teach English language in schools. Al-Nasser (2015) concurs elaborating on initial teacher education in his discussion of the challenges facing English language learners in Kingdom. Al-Nasser (2015) contends the following issues contribute to the generally poor second language outcomes in the Kingdom: (1) the age at which children start learning English and recommends English language instruction should start from first grade; (2) English language teachers‟ lack of training in linguistics; (3) an overemphasis on examination results; (4) insufficient time is dedicated to English language instruction the schools; (5) a lack of modern teaching aids and pedagogies; (6) reliance on out-dated approaches to teaching and learning; and (7) insufficient opportunities for students to use the English language in the natural environment. The issues identified by Al-Nasser (2015) resonate with the findings in Chapters 5, 6, and 7 of this thesis.

Al-Seghayer‟s (2014) research on initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia also levels significant criticism at the current initial teacher education system. Al-Seghayer (2014) makes the assertion that “a substantial number of Saudi English language teachers are professionally and linguistically incompetent” (p. 146), and lack expertise in the core methods of second language instruction. He points out that this problem is compounded by the fact that many Saudi English language teachers are not proficient in English. Furthermore, Al-Seghayer (2014) upholds that programs largely operate independently of one another, with unique requirements and philosophies; in other words, there is no standardized approach to initial

teacher education, nor is there a set of national standards that specify language-teacher competencies. Initial teacher education and graduate English teacher preparedness for the classroom is the focus of Chapter 7.

2.10 Chapter Summary

As part of my professional doctorate goals the first part of the literature review has provided attention to curriculum background literature that informs this study. It explained what curriculum is and provided the different definitions of curriculum and the tensions associated with defining curriculum due to the sheer number of definitions provided and justified by scholars. This provided the background for a discussion of the human nature of the construct of curriculum. The types of curriculum were then discussed with relevance to the Saudi Arabian context.

The literature review proceeded to focus on Ornstein and Hunkins‟ foundations of curriculum and Eisner‟s orientations to curriculum. Ornstein and Hunkins‟ philosophical foundations of curriculum, historical foundations of curriculum, psychological foundations of curriculum and social foundations of curriculum were discussed in detail. This was followed by a dialogue on Eisner‟s orientations to curriculum; academic rationalism, development of cognitive processes, personal relevance, social adaptation and social reconstruction, and curriculum as technology.

The next section of the literature review progressed into the curriculum design stage and the main elements of curriculum design. This was followed by a description of the construct of curriculum development and the types of curriculum development approaches. Again, this information was provided because the intended study will investigate influences on the English language curriculum design and development.

The final sections of the literature review looked at curriculum reform in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and other Islamic countries, and initial teacher education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The chapter that follows describes the methodology used to answer the research questions underpinning this thesis.

Chapter 3

Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This dissertation focused on understanding the phenomenon of the development and implementation of the new English language curriculum in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The dissertation examined the complex influences on the development of this curriculum, teachers‟ perceptions and their responses to enacting the curriculum, and an evaluation of ministerial efforts to support the curriculum‟s enactment. In brief, it addressed, through a multi-phase research journey, the processes of curriculum design, development, and implementation of the English language curriculum in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in the 21st Century.

The literature in Chapter 2 focused on curriculum processes, what informs curriculum development, and theories and practices aligned with curriculum construction and development. The literature analyzed general curriculum development references, historical origins, influences of curriculum development, and areas of tension in both establishing what defines curriculum and developing and implementing curriculum. This review of the literature served as a foundation for the study because the research, overall, sought to understand the various facets of curriculum within a selected context. In this chapter, the research methodology is described, starting with a redefining of the research questions in Section 3.2. This is followed in Section 3.3 with a description of the philosophical assumptions and interpretive frameworks informing the research. In Section 3.4 the context of the study is explained. In Section 3.5 the research design is addressed. Sections 3.6 and 3.7 identify the data sources and participants, followed by Section 3.8 which details the data collection method. Section 3.9 describes how the collected

data was analyzed. Section 3.10 looks at the ethical considerations. Section 3.11 discusses the validity and reliability of the study and finally, Section 3.12 provides a timeline for the thesis.

3.2 Research Questions

My overarching research aim was to investigate the intentions and tensions associated with the development and implementation of the new English language curriculum in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. In essence, the research focused on the processes of curriculum design, development, implementation, and evaluation, each of which was described in Chapter 3. The four specific research questions were:

1. What are the current Saudi Arabian English language teaching reform goals, and how do these compare to previous English language curriculum reforms and what curriculum theory positions inform these reforms?
2. What do English language teachers identify as the contributors and impediments to the enactment of the current reform agenda in English language teaching?
3. What are the professional development needs of English language teachers?
4. What are the challenges that new English language teachers face? Based on these findings how might these challenges be addressed, especially through initial teacher education?

3.3 Philosophical Assumptions and Interpretive Frameworks

In the study of the English language curriculum in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia I used an interpretive theoretical framework approach as I sought to understand the phenomenon of curriculum development, implementation and, ultimately, evaluation in the Saudi Arabian context. An interpretive framework is more specific than a qualitative approach, which is a diverse term, in that it is defined in terms of epistemology (Schwandt, 2015).

As can be seen from Schwandt‟s (2015) explanation, interpretive research differs from the more general description of qualitative research; qualitative research is broad in application whereas interpretive research relies on a connection between the researcher and the subject(s) of his or her research, which I have demonstrated that I have in Chapter 1.3. Taylor, Kermode, and Roberts‟ (2006) explanation of interpretive research supports Schwandt‟s (2015) description of interpretive research in that it aims to explain and describe meaning. I had no pre-determined ideas as to processes influencing the development of the curriculum or the influences on its enactment, or stakeholders‟ perceptions of how the process unfolds. I did not hold a pre-conceived theory and thus analytical framework, such as critical theory, that gave evidence of an outcome. Instead, the data would be collected and analyzed in the study enabled me to identify general trends associated with the phenomenon of curriculum implementation without a pre-conceived lens of investigation.

3.4 Context of the Study

As stated previously, this study took place throughout the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and focused on the challenges faced with the implementation of the English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020. The English language curriculum document was developed by the Ministry of Education which superseded the 2005 curriculum. The three main differences that have occurred with the introduction of the English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020 are:

1. English language education has been expanded to incorporate grades 4 - 6 in Ministry of Education elementary schools.
2. The teaching and learning resources that are aligned with the curriculum are printed by the Ministry of Education. The contracts, delivery of the material, and training are being coordinated through Tatweer Company for Educational Services.

3. Tatweer Company for Educational Services has managed and coordinated large scale pedagogy and English proficiency training and testing programs throughout the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in partnership with the Ministry of Education.

3.5 Research Design

The research design joined and aligned the various parts of the research to address the research questions. The research design held the research project together (Trochim, 2005). It provided the plan, framework and flow as shown in Table 1 to carry out the research. The research methodology was a case study using a variety of data collection methods to answer each of the four questions. Collectively, the four questions assisted in understanding the phenomenon under investigation. By using a case study approach, I examined the multiple processes involved in curriculum development, enactment, and evaluation of the *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Grades 4 – 12, 2014 - 2020*.

According to Bromley (1990), a case study is a "systematic inquiry into an event or a set of related events which aims to describe and explain the phenomenon of interest" (p. 302). It involves an up-close, in-depth, and detailed examination of a subject of study (Yin, 2014). A case study is research that provides a detailed analysis into one or more events (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). In this thesis, the phenomenon under study was the current English language curriculum in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and the participants were the stakeholders associated with its implementation and the professional development provided for teachers.

A case study and its design have five elements: (1) the research questions; (2) the propositions (statements and questions); (3) components of analysis (where the data comes from); (4) the link between the data and the propositions; and (5) the criteria to evaluate the data

findings (Yin, 2014). Yin (2014) identified three types of case studies: (1) exploratory; (2) descriptive; and (3) explanatory. This study is regarded as a descriptive case study, which used inferential statistics to make generalizations about English language learning and teaching throughout the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Descriptive case studies seek to describe a phenomenon; in this study the phenomenon is the development and implementation of a curriculum. Before commencing a descriptive case study a descriptive theory needs to be developed (Tellis, 1997). As stated by Yin (2014), descriptive cases are focused and detailed, in which propositions and questions about a phenomenon are carefully scrutinized and articulated at the outset. When examining a curriculum for example, the descriptive theory needs to outline how a curriculum is developed. In this study the premise is that curriculum is a human construct and each stage of the curriculum process, from design through to implementation provides evidence that curriculum indeed is a human construction. It was anticipated the study would provide evidence that curriculum is a highly contested space.

Stake (1995) identified three additional types of case studies: (1) instrumental; (2) intrinsic; and (3) collective. Instrumental case studies are used to gain knowledge and information beyond what is common or general knowledge, and provide insight into an event (Tellis, 1997). Intrinsic case studies are used to gain a better understanding of a case when a researcher has an interest or is connected to the case (Stake, 1995). Collective case studies combine multiple cases into a single study. In this study, because of my connection to the English language curriculum process in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, the case study approach was intrinsic.

Table 1

Research Design

Research questions	Method	Data sources	Data analysis
1. What are the current Saudi Arabian English language teaching reform goals, and how do these compare to previous English language curriculum reforms and what curriculum theory positions inform these reforms?	Document analysis where the documents were segmented and analyzed (Bowen, 2009).	ELT curriculum and supporting documents.	Document analysis through interpretation of the document(s) using Eisner‟s (1985) five orientations to curriculum.
2. What do English language teachers identify as the contributors and impediments to the enactment of the current reform agenda in English language teaching?	Survey electronically distributed to English language teachers. Biographical, familiarity with curriculum and response to the curriculum, open questions pertaining to influences on curriculum enactment.	MoE English language teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.	The analysis of the quantitative (Likert-type) questions used the SPSS to summarize the results of the closed questions. The qualitative data were coded using the constant comparative method (Glaser, 2008). The data were then analyzed and described following Braun and Clarke‟s (2006) thematic analysis process.
3. What are the professional development needs of English language teachers?	Survey electronically distributed to MoE English language supervisors. Open and closed questions	MoE English language supervisors in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.	The analysis of the quantitative (Likert-type) data employed the SPSS to summarize the results of the closed questions. The qualitative data were

	on what areas English language supervisors see as the impediments to improving the teaching the learning.		coded using the constant comparative method (Glaser, 2008). The data were then analyzed and described following a six phase thematic analysis process (Braun & Clarke, 2006).
4. What are the challenges that new English language teachers face? Based on these findings how might these challenges be addressed, especially through initial teacher education?	Initial teacher education content analysis and data garnered in the surveys used to answer Research Question 3.	MoE English language supervisors in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and the content of initial teacher education programs.	The analysis of the quantitative data used the SPSS to summarize the results of the closed questions. The qualitative data was coded using the constant comparative method (Glaser, 2008). The data were analyzed and described following Braun and Clarke‟s (2006) thematic analysis process.

3.6 Data Sources

The sources of data for the research are illustrated in the research design Table 1. Each of these data sources is discussed in detail in this section. The first research question focused on the current Saudi Arabian English language teaching reform goals, and the curriculum theory positions inform these reforms. The data sources were the *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Grades 4 – 12, 2014 - 2020* and other documents that were collated that pertained to the design and development process. For example, the *Professional Standards for English Teachers* (2013) document provided significant information describing the initial conception of this imperative and the intentions for curriculum reform. Additionally, this document provided insight into foundational information on what is to be taught by teachers, why it is to be taught, and what the standards required of teachers are for teaching the curriculum.

The data sources for the second research question, which sought to identify what teachers saw as the contributors and impediments to the enactment of the reform agenda in English language teaching, were English language teachers in the five largest directorates in the Kingdom charged with the requirement to enact the curriculum. The data sources used to answer the third research question that examines the influence of in-service skills development initiatives on English language teaching in Saudi Arabian schools were responses to the survey provided by Ministry of Education English language supervisors throughout the Kingdom.

The data sources for the fourth research question that investigated the challenges that new English language teachers face and how these challenges can be addressed came from the Ministry of Education English language supervisors‟ responses to part two of the survey used to answer Research Question 3 and the content contained in initial teacher education programs.

3.7 Participants

All the participants were either English language teachers or supervisors from the Ministry of Education within the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The participants answering the second research question were 550 English language teachers in the five largest directorates (Riyadh, Jeddah, Eastern Province, Makkah, and Al Madinah) who were participating in English language proficiency programs being conducted by four English language training providers (Appendix F). The participants surveyed to answer the third and fourth research questions were 83 Ministry of Education English language supervisors.

3.8 Data Collection

The data collection section describes the methods that were used to collect the data which highlight the contextual differences while demonstrating the instrumental nature of the research design through "the intent to gain insight and understanding of a particular situation or phenomenon" (Baxter & Jack, 2008, p.550). The nature and design of the research required the use of several approaches and data collection tools. The use of a range of instruments and methods used to collect data increased the validity in understanding the phenomenon of curriculum design, development and implementation (Zohrabi, 2013). In answering the first research question three curriculum documents which represent a chronology of „defining" were analyzed: *English Language Syllabus* (1970); *Goals of English Language Teaching* (2005); and *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020*. These three documents were selected for analysis to illustrate how curriculum pertaining to English language has evolved in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia over four decades. A series of documents that serve to illustrate the source of the influences on these curricula were sourced. The *Professional Standards for English*

Teachers (2013) as it defines what the goals for teachers are and how they equate with the *2014 – 2020 English Language Curriculum*. The *Ninth Development Plan (2010 - 2014)* document was selected because of its relevance to education as it provided evidence of how economic development goals can influence curriculum. The final document collected was, *What Matters Most to Saudi Arabia's Youth? Helping Policy Makers Address the National Challenges* (2014), which examines the future imperatives of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, the perceived threats, and short-comings to achieving these imperatives from the opinions of Saudi youth. This document was produced by the Boston Consulting Group, whose publications and the intellectual content contained in them have been referred to as „thought leadership" (Carol, 2016).

The qualitative and quantitative data were collected through anonymous surveys distributed through Survey Monkey where a combination of closed and open questions were used (Appendices G and Q). I did not provide the participants with too much scope or encourage extended answers due to the amount of data I collected and I did not want participants to feel that surveys would take a lot of their time resulting in a loss of information through participants not completing the surveys (Harrison, 2007; Sudman & Bradburn, 1982). I wanted to maximize participation balanced with questions that I perceived would give the participants the opportunity to provide accurate data and opinions from their situations.

In answering question two, a large-scale survey, primarily composed of Likert-type scale questions was distributed electronically to 2,000 teachers who participated in the English proficiency training programs resulting in 550 responses to the survey. The English language teachers" survey (Appendix G) additionally sought (1) demographical data; and (2) English language teachers" opinions of the training provider administering the training and the training

itself. These questions were included in the survey to: (1) provide an overview of English language teachers‟ qualifications and experience; and (2) to gauge English language teachers‟ satisfaction with the professional development program and help inform what needs to be included or done to support potential future professional development programs for teachers. The questions were developed to gauge English language teachers‟ engagement with the professional development program they were participating in and to determine current (and future) additional training needs. This likely resulted in positional bias in how the questions were framed. That is, my current employment strongly influenced the questions I asked. Upon reflection the questions and surveys could have been structured to provide respondents with more scope to express their opinions on the current curriculum, its enactment, and what it is seeking to achieve.

The data collected to answer the third research question came from a separate survey primarily composed of Likert-type scale questions distributed electronically to 150 English language supervisors who attended professional development programs and were then responsible for the cascading of training programs throughout the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Eighty-three English language supervisors participated in the survey.

In answering the final research question, the surveys completed by the English language supervisors supplied qualitative data that provided an understanding of recent graduates‟ preparedness for their new appointments as English language teachers. Further to this, I analyzed open source documentation to determine the content focus of current initial teacher education programs (presented in Section 2.9 of the literature review) and how well the content corresponds with curriculum initiatives.

3.9 Data Analysis

The data collection section (3.8) provided an overview of the tools, techniques, and associated functions and how these aligned and provided the data to respond to the research questions. In answering the first research question the methodology that was followed was a document analysis, an analytical qualitative research method for reviewing and evaluating documents (Bowen, 2009). The Saudi Arabian curricula and supporting documents were examined, analyzed, and interpreted to extract meaning. In brief, the analytical framework used for the analysis was Eisner‟s (1985) five orientations to curriculum; a framework that has been used similarly in other document analyses (Ahour, Khasawneh, Abu Al-ruz, & Alsharqawi, 2012; Worrell, 2004). The text within the curriculum and supporting documents were identified and coded through a content analysis process (Labuschagne, 2003) based on sharing similar principles and goals (Manley-Delacruz, 1990). The content analysis was directed by Braun and Clarke‟s (2006) six phase thematic analysis process: (1) familiarization with the (categorized) data set; (2) generating initial data; (3) searching for themes; (4) checking identified themes; (5) refining themes; and (6) reporting on these findings.

The analysis of the quantitative (Likert-type) questions used the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 22) to summarize the results of the closed questions. The qualitative data were coded using the constant comparative method (Glaser, 2008) to enable the results to be summarized. The data were then analyzed and described following Braun and Clarke‟s (2006) six phase thematic analysis process (as described in the previous paragraph).

The data gathered from the surveys were reported on by gender when describing: (1) teacher demographics, training program satisfaction, and attendance (Section 5.2); and (2) class sizes (Section 5.4.1). In addition, it was important to analyze the data by gender in the following

sections of the thesis: (1) benefits of the teaching profession (Section 5.5.1); (2) English language teachers‟ and students‟ English skills (Sections 5.5.3, 5.5.4, and 5.5.5); and (3) What attracts people to the teaching profession (Section 7.2)? The justification for analyzing these sections by gender is that education, along with social work and health have traditionally been the areas where Saudi women have worked and succeeded in segregated areas (Al Rawaf & Simmons, 1991; Hamdan, 2005). This trend of success for more women in education has continued. In recent years as the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has been providing greater educational opportunities for women; they have been relentlessly pursuing higher education both at home and abroad (Alsuwaida, 2016) with higher participation rates than males (Abu-Nasr, 2013).

3.10 Ethical Considerations

I acknowledge that research ethics is an important facet when conducting research and its associated activities in the educational field. It was important to me to ensure my research through document analysis, surveys, quotations, and the analysis of statistical results would not damage or cause a loss of opportunity to individuals or associated bodies such as the Ministry of Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. As Malin (2003) points out, “the rightness or wrongness of the research is judged according to its consequences” (p. 22).

I recognize that ethical issues have assumed a considerable role in educational research at a global level and research bodies must scrutinize and ultimately consent to the research being conducted. Similarly, the research conducted needed and obtained approval from James Cook University.

Prior to distributing the surveys to the Ministry of Education English language teachers and supervisors to answer Research Questions 2, 3, and 4 I conducted a pilot study; a preliminary

stage prior to the main study. Robson (2002, p. 185) defines a pilot as "a small-scale version of the real thing, a try-out of what you propose so its feasibility can be checked". The pilot enabled me to check the survey questions and logistics (Yin, 2014) prior to distributing the main survey. The surveys did not require any adjustment of either the content or distribution method because the pilot surveys were completed efficiency and without feedback.

Wallen and Fraenkel (2001) discuss three areas that researchers should be aware of during the research and reporting progress: (1) protection of the research subjects and area; (2) confidentiality of research data; and (3) avoiding deceiving the research subjects. Both Malin (2003), and Wallen and Fraenkel's (2001) advice to researchers to adhere to research ethics can be summed up by Wellington (2000) who states "the researcher affects the researched" (p. 41). My research aimed to be proactive and productive in that the outcomes of the research could be used to help inform policy makers, curriculum designers, educators, and initial teacher education programs to name but a few bodies and personnel who are involved and those who have the potential to be involved in the development of teaching and learning (particularly English language) in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (and beyond).

3.11 Validity and Reliability

The validity and reliability of my data through its collection and analysis was ensured by a number of factors. The foremost factor was triangulation described by Kaasila and Lauriala (2010) as "the use of different data gathering methods is an indication of triangulation; i.e. method triangulation, as well as triangulation of data sources, and which may be used to confirm the results" (p. 857).

Table 1, provided an overview of this investigation's research methods, data sources, and data analysis, demonstrating that I used a variety of research methods to analyze the collected

data. Additionally, my data collection demonstrated triangulation as the data came from multiple sources and the breadth of participants was large in both quantity and geographic spread in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

3.12 Timeline

I began my research application process by submitting my proposed thesis outline to James Cook University in March 2014 and formally commenced the pre-candidature for the Doctor of Education in July 2014. Appendix H provides a timeline of the various stages of my doctoral journey.

3.13 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the procedures outlining my research were described and detailed in Table 1. This methodology chapter encompassed an explanation of the study‟s theoretical framework, philosophical assumptions and interpretative frameworks, the context of the study, the research design, data sources, information about participants, and data collection and analysis. Finally, this chapter addressed issues around ethical considerations, and validity and reliability. The next chapter presents the results from the document analysis that seeks to answer Research Question 1: What are the current Saudi Arabian English language teaching reform goals, and how do these compare to previous English language curriculum reforms and what curriculum theory positions inform these reforms?

Chapter 4

Document Analysis

4.1 Introduction

In answering the first research question, Chapter 4 presents the results of a document analysis, an analytical qualitative research method for reviewing and evaluating documents (Bowen, 2009). As stated in Chapter 3, the document analysis process that was followed is a combination of content analysis and thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The chapter answers Research Question 1: What are the current Saudi Arabian English language teaching reform goals, and how do these compare to previous English language curriculum reforms and what curriculum theory positions inform these reforms?

The chapter begins by analyzing three Saudi Arabian English language curriculum documents (referred to in Chapter 2.2 as the written curriculum; Cuban, 1992; Srivastava & Kumari, 2005): *English Language Syllabus* (1970); *Goals of English Language Teaching* (2005); and *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020*. These three documents were selected for analysis to illustrate how curriculum pertaining to English language has evolved in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia over four decades. These are also the three curricula that define English language curricula imperatives over that time. Following the analysis of these three curricula, a more detailed analysis is provided of the existing curriculum.

This is then followed by an analysis of a series of documents that informed the development of the most current curriculum and further serves to illustrate the source of the influences on curriculum. The *Professional Standards for English Teachers* (2013) is analyzed to determine what the goals for teachers are and how they equate with the English Language

Curriculum 2014 - 2020. This is followed by the *Ninth Development Plan (2010 - 2014)* document that has particular relevance to education as it provides evidence of how economic development goals can influence curriculum. The final document analyzed is *What Matters Most to Saudi Arabia's Youth? Helping Policy Makers Address the National Challenges* (2014), that examines the future imperatives of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and the perceived threats and short-comings to achieving these imperatives.

The analysis includes these documents because they demonstrate both the contested and evolutionary nature of English language teaching in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Special attention is given to the perceived skills and abilities teachers need to have to deliver the curriculum and how these complement and contribute to the explicitly defined curriculum imperatives in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. In essence, it is through an analysis of these documents that evidence is provided of how the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia seeks to define itself (Pinar et al., 1995). The chapter concludes by providing a discussion of the inter-relationships among these document imperatives and the identified orientations and foundations of curriculum.

4.2 Analysis of 1970, 2005, and 2014 - 2020 English Language Curricula

4.2.1 English Language Syllabus (1970)

The *English Language Syllabus* (1970) was a curriculum for secondary school, that is, years 10, 11, and 12. The introduction of the syllabus refers to what the general aims of the syllabus were: (1) to provide secondary school students with a window to the world; (2) to encourage students to read and gain enjoyment of reading which would develop their knowledge of arts and sciences; (3) to nurture students" critical thinking skills through reading English texts; (4) to encourage imagination through visualization of character and imagery in poetry; (5) to provide students with sufficient English proficiency to further their studies at universities or

post-secondary school institutes; and (6) for students to complete their secondary education with a command of English to assist in a chosen vocation (Ministry of Education, 1970).

Various orientations to curriculum (Eisner, 1985) are evident in the text of the introduction to curriculum. For example, the aims of developing students‟ critical thinking skills and imagination and visualization of character and imagery in the study of poetry (Ministry of Education, 1970) indicates the presence of the development of social cognitive processes curriculum orientation. An additional aim of the *English Language Syllabus* (1970) was for students to be able to further their studies and/or to assist students with employment opportunities. Therefore, by implication, academic rationalism was an orientation embedded in this curriculum.

The specific objectives of *English Language Syllabus* (1970) complement the objectives of the syllabus and align with the general aims of the curriculum. For example, after completing secondary school students should have a reasonable mastery of the four language skills: listening (with understanding), speaking (with correct stress and intonation), reading (understanding of English texts of varying difficulty), and writing (ability to write a full page descriptive piece) to emphasize the value of learning English as a tool for cultural, social and economic communication; and to foster students interest in reading which would prepare them for future study or develop their interest in reading reference books.

The *English Language Syllabus* (1970) was limited in both grade levels (years 10, 11, and 12), complexity and detail. However, both the general aims and the objectives contained in the syllabus provided the foundation for more expansive English language curricula to be developed. In brief, this syllabus is characterized by its alignment with the development of the

social cognitive curriculum process and academic rationalism curriculum orientations, and the problem solving component underpinned in the perennialism foundation of curriculum.

4.2.2 Goals of English Language Teaching (2005)

The objectives in the *Goals of English Language Teaching* (2005) curriculum do not commit themselves to any one theoretical framework but aim at characterizing what learners should be able to do on completion of school grade levels (Ministry of Education, 2005, p. 1). The objectives in the *Goals of English Language Teaching* (2005) are "an adaptation from the proficiency guidelines developed by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and the United Kingdom‟s Qualification and Curriculum Authority (QCA)" (p. 1). The document is more complex and detailed than its 1970 counterpart and provided the cornerstone for the development and enactment of the *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020.*

The *Goals of English Language Teaching* (2005) curriculum begins with sections relevant to all grades: (1) introduction: goals of teaching English in Saudi schools; (2) objectives: stage scope and objectives (for elementary, intermediate, and secondary school); (3) specific objectives and study skills; and (4) sequence (Ministry of Education, 2005). The curriculum is segmented by grade level for elementary, intermediate, and secondary school with each grade level covering the desired listening, speaking, reading, and writing learning outcomes. The exception is the final year of secondary school that has holistic learning outcomes rather than segmented learning outcomes for the four English skill areas (Ministry of Education, 2005). Rather than including punctuation and grammar after the four English skill areas the learning

outcomes are covered for each grade level and are described in point form in the final section of the *Goals of English Language* (2005) curriculum.

The goal that has been explicitly identified in the *Goals of English Language Teaching* (2005) curriculum that is not present in the *English Language Syllabus* (1970), is to "explain the tenets of Islam with a vision to promoting international understanding and tolerance; students will use English to introduce Islam to others; and students will use English to explain topics and issues central to the Islamic identity" (p. 3). This goal correlates with the curriculum orientation social reconstruction in that it seeks to have students learn values and adhere to conformity. The additional foundations and orientations of curriculum that are identifiable in the *Goals of English Language Teaching* (2005) curriculum are similar to those identified in the 1970 syllabus. However, there is one distinct additional curriculum orientation prominent; curriculum as technology, where learning outcomes and goals are clearly defined throughout the document (Ministry of Education, 2005).

The *Goals of English Language Teaching* (2005) provided more detail and complexity than previous English language curricula in terms of grade levels and specifics. The additional detail and complexity of the document allowed for curriculum orientations to be identified within the document, which highlighted the emergence of the social reconstruction and curriculum as technology curriculum orientations. This correlated with not only the problem solving component of the perennialism foundation of curriculum being present in the document but also the social justice element of perennialism.

4.2.3 English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020

The current curriculum document in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia the *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi*

Arabia, Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020 begins with an overview. The overview is followed by nine sections relevant to all grade bands: (1) introduction; (2) principles underlying the curriculum; (3) general aims of the curriculum; (4) curricular goals; (5) levels of language proficiency; (6) methodology; (7) cultural issues; (8) new technologies in the English language teaching classroom; and (9) assessment. In essence the current comprehensive curriculum document encompasses the types of curriculum described in Chapter 2.2 and the identification and organization of the elements of curriculum in the design (Taba, 1962) discussed in Chapter 2.5.

Following the generic sections of the English language curriculum document the grade levels are segmented by grade bands: (1) grades 4 – 6 (elementary), (2) grades 7 – 9 (intermediate), and (3) grades 10 – 12 (secondary). The document goes on to describe the curricular objectives by grade band and level: (1) topics; (2) vocabulary; (3) language exponents; (4) grammar; and (5) phonics (only elementary level) that students need to master. The English language curriculum document concludes with appendices 1 and 2. Appendix 1 covers the suggest topics relevant to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Appendix 2 encompasses the correlations of grade levels to the Common European Framework of Reference for languages including: (1) learning; (2) teaching; (3) assessment (CEFR) levels; (4) international examinations; (5) teaching time; and (6) vocabulary.

4.2.4 Development of English language curricula since 1970

Aside from the English language curriculum documents becoming more detailed since 1970, there are some additional distinct differences. There is the international alignment or adaptation with American and British standards in the *Goals of English Language Teaching* (2005) curriculum whereas external assistance and/or adaptation have not been acknowledged in the English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020. However, the English Language Curriculum

2014 - 2020 includes international language proficiency benchmarks with the correlation of expected English language proficiency to grade levels to the CEFR levels and international examinations: IELTS and TOEFL (Appendix A).

The English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020 details expected language functions and exponents students should have competency in on completion of each grade level. The document also provides guidance on linguistics and vocabulary range, vocabulary and phonological control, grammatical accuracy, orthographic control, and sociolinguistic appropriateness. Additionally, the English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020 includes a specific section on suggested topics relevant to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and Islamic culture and recognizes the growth in the number of English speakers whose first language is not English. These components are not explicit in the 1970 and 2005 English language curricula, demonstrating the ongoing processes of curriculum development (Salberg, 2006) described in Chapter 2.6.

Additionally, the 1970 and 2005 English language curricula do not include specific sections on methodology, which are included in the English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020. Increasingly and more explicitly the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia‟s English language curricula since 1970 have emphasized students‟ ability to communicate in English to interact with other cultures. The imperative is for Saudi Arabian citizens to be internationally inclined and professionally oriented with well-developed science and technological skills; and be competent in the four language skill areas. Further, underpinning this assertion is an increasing attention to Saudi Arabian culture generally and Islam specifically, with attention to topics and issues central to the Islamic identity. These points demonstrate a key priority remains ensuring that educational practices are consistent with Islamic beliefs while alignment between national

education goals and economic development has become apparent. In essence the English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020 is more neoliberal than preceding English language curricula.

In all, the analysis of the broad goals and aims of the three curricula demonstrates that English language curriculum in the Kingdom of Saudi has evolved significantly since its 1970 inception. It has become more personalized with national interests at its core. While the 1970 and 2005 curricula focused on the social cognitive curriculum process and saw the emergence of the social reconstruction and curriculum as technology curriculum orientations, all of the curriculum orientations are present in the English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020. The current curriculum gives evidence of curriculum being influenced by academic rationalism and social adaptation orientations. This has been complemented by the curriculum moving from a perennialist curriculum foundation to having a nationalistic reconstructionist mandate. The section that follows seeks to more explicitly identify influences informing these curricula, especially through the recommended learning objectives and preferred pedagogical approaches endorsed.

4.3 Document Analysis: English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020

4.3.1 Orientations to curriculum within the English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020

Table 2 provides a detailed analysis of the *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Grades 4 – 12, 2014 - 2020* using Eisner‟s (1985) orientations to curriculum as pre-defined codes. Table 2 identifies the trends and which orientation(s) that have strongly influenced the construction of the English language curriculum.

Academic rationalism is the development of intellectual capability (Eisner, 1985) and has particular relevance to Section 9 of the curriculum document that focuses on factual information on the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and Islamic history. However, if the contemporary foundations of curriculum progressivism and reconstructionism are used in the teaching and learning process these parts of Segment 9 of the curriculum document would fall under the curriculum orientation of development of cognitive processes. As suggested by Alharbi (2015) one of the reasons that English language education reform efforts are needed in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is that rote learning, the grammar-translation method, and the use of Arabic as the language of instruction are still applied in public schools which indicates traditional foundations of curriculum are employed by teachers when delivering content to students. Chapters 5 and 6 provide further insight into the current pedagogical practices employed by teachers.

The development of cognitive processes is prevalent in Section 2 (principles underlying the curriculum), Section 3 (general aims of the curriculum), and Section 5 (methodology) in the English language teaching document (Ministry of Education, 2013). It is obvious that the English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020 is aiming to achieve what Alharbi (2015) and Harrison (2008) have identified as traditional short comings in the philosophical foundations of the English language curriculum where there is a need to enhance critical thinking and cognitive skills and communicative capability. The English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020 aims for English language teachers to take a progressive and reconstructionist approach in the teaching and learning of English.

The personal relevance orientation to curriculum is present in the English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020 in Sections: 2 (principles underlying the curriculum); 5 (methodology); and 7 (new technologies in the ELT classroom). The principles underlying the curriculum and

the methodology sections of the curriculum document contain sub-sections that focus on the learners‟ needs and learning styles along with self-assessment, reflection, and collaboration. New technologies in the ELT classroom is a method of engaging students and as the Boston Consulting Group‟s (2014) report highlights, “young Saudis are integrating new modes of staying informed and communicating into their traditional lives” (pp. 5 – 6). By embracing technology as a teaching tool, it provides a platform for teachers to engage students in the teaching and learning process.

Social adaptation, which focuses on both economic needs and conformity to existing values, and for children to take their place in the social order, had a strong influence on the construction of the curriculum, which is evident in Section 1 of the curriculum document. Section 4 has relevance to both aspects of the social adaptation orientation with a focus on both Islam and the importance of English for international communication. Section 6 is similar to Section 4 in that it is applicable to both Islamic culture and the world use of English. Section 9 of the curriculum document, suggested topics relevant to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and Islamic culture for elementary, intermediate, and secondary schools and includes many areas, which are oriented to social adaptation; particularly conformity to existing values.

Social reconstruction is concerned with values education in “the need for conformity to existing values” (Eisner, 1985, p. 74) and it is “aimed at developing levels of critical consciousness among children and youth so that they become aware of the kinds of ills that society has and become motivated to learn how to alleviate them” (Eisner, 1985, p. 76). Social reconstruction is represented in Section 9 (suggested topics relevant to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and Islamic culture for elementary, intermediate, and secondary schools) with the relevant sub-sections concentrating on Islam, Arabic culture, and the family, which Saudi youth

are strongly influenced by (Boston Consulting Group, 2014). Section 4.6 aims for students to develop a positive attitude to studying English and can be classified as social reconstruction orientation to curriculum.

Section 8 (assessment) of the curriculum document encompasses the curriculum orientation, curriculum as technology. Curriculum as technology encompasses planning, purposes, and goals, which provides a mechanism for efficiency and effectiveness to be measured through assessment (primarily formative).

Table 2

Orientations to Curriculum within the English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020

Segments	1	2	3	4A	4B	5
1.Introduction:						
1.1 Contemporary societies are rapidly transforming and are characterized by dynamic development in all sectors;						
1.2 Societies are becoming increasingly competitive;						
1.3 Knowledge of foreign languages promotes the higher values of international understanding and tolerance; and						
1.4 It is also a key to success in the academic sector as well as in the global market.						
2. Principles underlying the curriculum:						
2.1 Language is used for communication;						
2.2 Teaching a language involves enabling learners to interact socially in a variety of situations and contexts;						
2.3 Learners‟ needs and abilities must be taken into consideration;						
2.4 Learners have different individual learning styles; and						
2.5 Learners should be involved in meaningful, interactive tasks for optimum effectiveness.						
3. General aims of the curriculum:						
3.1 Enable learners to use the language in meaningful contexts; and						
3.2 Build learners‟ ability to communicate their ideas fluently, accurately and confidently.						
4. Curricular goals:						
4.1 Explain the tenets of Islam with a vision to promoting international understanding and tolerance;						
4.2 Advocate and participate in spreading Islam;						
4.3 Promote mutual cultural understanding and respect among nations;						
4.4 Enhance their cognitive and problem-solving skills, thus leading to academic and professional advancement;						
4.5 Develop an awareness of the significance of English as a means of international						

communication; and
4.6 Develop a positive attitude towards learning the English language.

5. Methodology:
5.1 Communicative approach to language learning;
5.2 Learners‟ needs are taken into account;
5.3 There is a shift from a focus on form to a focus on meaning;
5.4 Real world language is used in realistic contexts;
5.5 Learner-centered work opportunities for collaboration, sharing of ideas, self-assessment and reflection should be encouraged;
5.6 The materials should be relevant to the needs and interests of the learners, as well as motivating and entertaining; and
5.7 The methodology recommended is an eclectic approach which incorporates the most effective elements of various teaching methods, thus providing a framework within which learners learn simultaneously in a number of different ways.

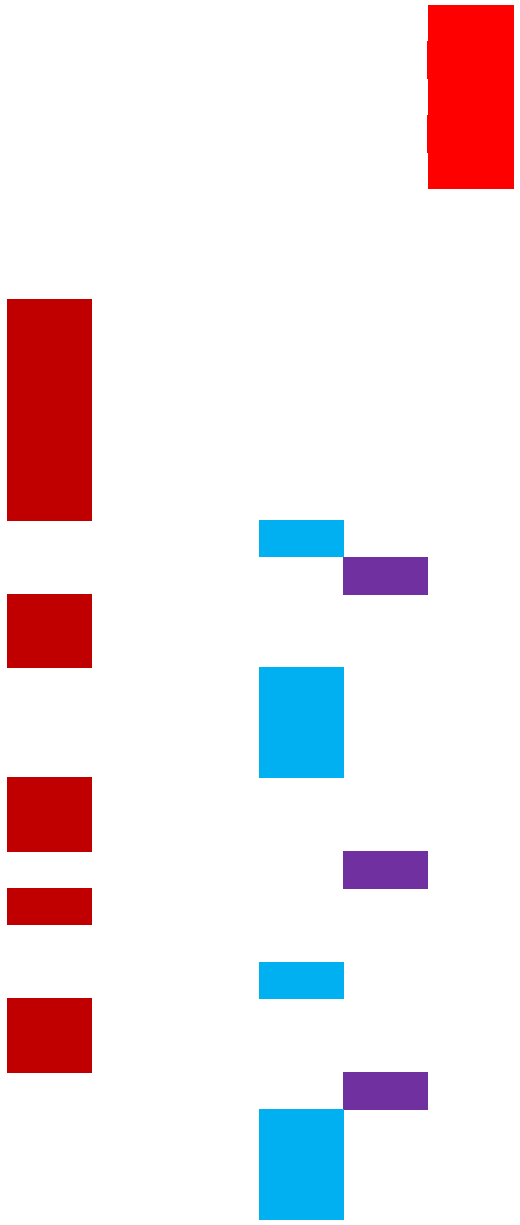
6.Cultural issues:
6.1 Source culture materials in which the learners‟ own culture is used as content;
6.2 Target culture materials in which the culture of a country where English is spoken as a first language is used; and
6.3 International target culture materials from countries where English as a second language is widely used.

7.New technologies in the ELT classroom:
7.1 Technological aids can promote learner-centered learning and encourage interaction between learners, the teacher and technology;
7.2 Technology enables teachers take into consideration different learning abilities but also different learning styles and multiple intelligences; and
7.3 Technology enhances the learning experience and makes it more appealing, which results in higher students‟ motivation.

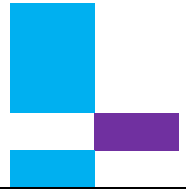
8.Assessment:
8.1Teachers should monitor their learners‟ progress and provide them with feedback that will

facilitate the learning process;
8.2 Formative assessment should be used to monitor student learning to provide ongoing feedback; and
8.3 Learners‟ classroom participation, project work, homework assessment tasks and portfolios also need to be assessed.

9. Suggested topics relevant to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and Islamic culture for elementary, intermediate and secondary schools:
9.1 A tour in a Muslim country;
9.2 A tour in a city in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia;
9.3 Agriculture in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia;
9.4 Airports and seaports in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia;
9.5 The Arabic language;
9.6 Arabic literature;
9.7 Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia;
9.8 Family in Islam;
9.9 Famous Muslim leaders;
9.10 The Gulf Cooperation Council;
9.11 Hajj;
9.12 Islamic civilization;
9.13 Islamic organizations;
9.14 Kings of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia;
9.15 Made in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia;
9.16 The pillars of Islam;
9.17 The Prophet Mohammed, peace be upon him;
9.18 Famous people in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia;
9.19 The Shora Council;
9.20 Great Muslim crafts;
9.21 Sports in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia;
9.22 Stories from Arab culture;
9.23 The expansion of the two Holy Mosques;
9.24 The role of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in spreading Islam;
9.25 The spreading of Islam throughout the world;



9.26 Tourism in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia;
9.27 Transport in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia;
9.28 Universities and colleges in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia;
9.29 Human rights in Islam; and
9.30 Saudization in the private sector.



Key: 1. Academic rationalism 2. Development of cognitive processes 3. Personal relevance 4A. Social adaptation 4B. Social reconstruction 5. Curriculum as technology

4.3.2 Specific learning outcomes and associated pedagogies within the English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020

Taking an interpretive approach in order to extract meaning and gain understanding (Corbin & Strass, 2008) of the sections of the current curriculum document, this section of the chapter focuses on the analysis of specific learning outcomes and associated pedagogies in the English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020. Table 2 provided a comprehensive overview of the orientations of curriculum (Eisner, 1985) for the sections relevant to all grade bands: (1) introduction; (2) principles underlying the curriculum; (3) general aims of the curriculum; (4) curricular goals; (5) levels of language proficiency; (6) methodology; (7) cultural issues; (8) new technologies in the English language teaching classroom; and (8) assessment (Ministry of Education, 2013).

The teaching and learning methods (Table 2, Section 5) advocated in the curriculum document are student-centered. The knowledge students are expected and encouraged to acquire leads to growth and development with a focus on active and interesting learning that is concerned with contemporary and futures orientated Saudi Arabian society. Sections 1, 6, and 7 (Table 2) of the curriculum document identify with contemporary and future societies in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The curriculum looks at present and future trends as well as national (Table 2, Section 9) and international issues. The role of the teacher is a guide for problem solving and inquiry (Table 2, Section 5). Associated with the curriculum foundations of progressivism and reconstructionism are the notions of equality of education and free education. In the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia public schooling and post-secondary education is free (AL-Abdulkareem, 1993) and the *Seventh Development Plan (2000 - 2004)* made elementary and secondary education compulsory (Ramady, 2010).

Specific learning outcomes for each grade level are provided in detailed descriptions of the knowledge and skills referred to in the curricular objectives, which have been specified for elementary, intermediate, and secondary school stages. These outcomes outline what students are expected to know: (1) vocabulary; (2) topics; (3) numbers; (4) alphabet and phonics (elementary); (5) listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills; (6) functions and language exponents; and (7) grammar. The learning outcomes are to be achieved through contemporary approaches to teaching while being aligned with the curriculum as technology orientation to curriculum.

Individual grade levels in the outlines of the listening, speaking, reading, and writing learning outcomes are linked to the CEFR levels, which correlate with international examination equivalency scores, teaching hours, and expected vocabulary at each grade level. However, the curriculum document does not provide information on testing and English tests are school based and are constructed by teachers (Alshumaimeri, 2012), which does not allow for students' CEFR levels to be evaluated to determine if the target English level has been met. If standardized English testing is introduced for students Kingdom-wide it would provide reliable and verifiable English levels of students. This would provide criteria for evaluating the efficiency and effectiveness of the *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020* and the associated foundations and orientations of curriculum.

4.4 Document Analysis: Professional Standards for English Teachers

4.4.1 Organization and overview of the Professional Standards for English Teachers

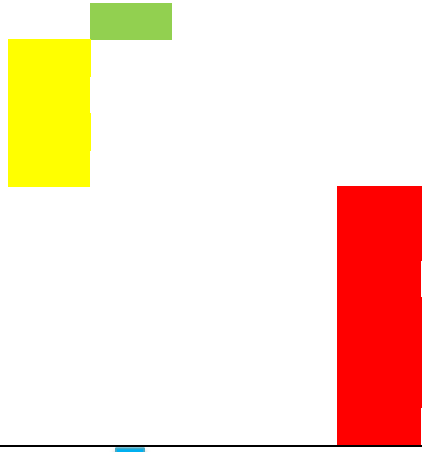
The *Professional Standards for English Teachers* (2013) document consists of 27 standards with each standard having a number of indicators connected to the individual standard. There is no introduction or explanatory notes in the document and consists of points rather than detailed explanations and is presented in table format. Table 3 presents the standards and identifiable orientations to curriculum in the *Professional Standards for English Teachers* (2013) document.

Table 3

Orientations to Curriculum within the Professional Standards for English Teachers

Sections	1	2	3	4A	4B	5
1. Teachers know and understand the diverse backgrounds, abilities, learning needs and interests of their students;						
2. Teachers know the psychological, cognitive and social characteristics of EFL students in various stages of language development;						
3. Teachers have general knowledge of language as a system;						
4. Teachers have thorough knowledge of the structure of English;						
5. Teachers have general knowledge of the phonetics and phonology of English;						
6. Teachers know and understand the morphology and syntax of English;						
7. Teachers know and understand the semantics and pragmatics of English;						
8. Teachers demonstrate knowledge and understanding of language acquisition;						
9. Teachers know and understand listening and speaking strategies;						
10. Teachers know and understand reading comprehension strategies;						
11. Teachers know and understand the writing processes of English;						
12. Teachers are familiar with the theoretical and methodological developments of TESOL;						
13. Teachers have general knowledge of English literature;						
14. Teachers know the major concepts and issues related to Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL);						
15. Teachers know a range of approaches, methods and strategies related to teaching and assessing EFL;						
16. Teachers know how to set appropriate EFL learning goals;						
17. Teachers know how to plan learning activities relevant to EFL learning goals and curriculum requirements;						
18. Teachers know how to develop and select appropriate methods for assessing EFL student learning that are consistent with learning goals;						
19. Teachers know how to access and design a range of appropriate learning resources related to EFL;						
20. Teachers plan language lessons that are appropriate to their student needs and						

backgrounds;
21. Teachers apply effective teaching methods and strategies based on second language acquisition theories and research;
22. Teachers use a variety of teaching methods that promote student engagement in language learning;
23. Teachers use and adapt a wide range of effective resources in language teaching;
24. Teachers know a range of methods and tools of assessment of English as a Foreign Language;
25. Teachers design, adapt and use a variety of EFL assessment methods and tools;
26. Teachers provide their students with timely and constructive feedback; and
27. Teachers maintain accessible and accurate records of student achievement and analyze assessment data.



Key: 1. Academic rationalism 2. Development of cognitive processes 3. Personal relevance 4A. Social adaptation 4B. Social reconstruction 5. Curriculum as technology

4.4.2 The complementary nature of the English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020 and Professional Standards for English Teachers

The *Professional Standards for English Teachers* (2013) document is prescriptive and outcomes orientated and states what competencies, capabilities, and knowledge English language teachers need to have to implement the curriculum as it is intended. This document is pragmatically aligned with a teacher-centric orientation stating what teachers need to know, demonstrate and understand along with planning, purposes, goals, and assessment and is dominated by the curriculum orientation curriculum as technology. The document is focused on efficiency and effectiveness. It complements the English Language Curriculum 2014 – 2020, which is both prescriptive and descriptive in its nature by describing what students should be able to do and prescriptive by stating what the expected outcomes are on completion of each grade level. The *Professional Standards for English Teachers* (2013) puts the onus on the English language teachers to ensure they have the competencies and knowledge to ensure students achieve the prescribed outcomes in the curriculum.

The *Professional Standards for English Teachers* (2013) Sections 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, and 16 (Table 3) are aligned with the specific learning outcomes for each grade level and the skills referred to in the curricular objectives for elementary, intermediate, and secondary segments in the curriculum document. The document outlines the knowledge and skills English language teachers must have in the areas of reading, writing, listening, speaking, phonics, and grammar along with an understanding of language acquisition. For example, Sections 2.3, 2.4, 5.2, 6.1, 7.2, and Segment 9 (Table 2) of the curriculum document correspond with Sections 1, 2, and 20 (Table 3) of the professional standards document where they are concerned with teachers

knowing their learners and understanding students have varying abilities and learning styles as described in the psychological foundations of curriculum (Chapter 2.4.1.3).

Segments 2 (principles underlying the curriculum) and 5 (methodology), and Sections 7.1 and 7.3 (Table 2) in the curriculum document complement Sections 12, 13, 14, 15, 21, 22, and 23 of the *Professional Standards for English Teachers* (2013) document that outline the English teaching concepts and contemporary teaching and learning methodologies English language teachers must possess and implement. The methodologies have a flow on effect to: Segments 1 (introduction); 3 (general aims of the curriculum); and 4 (curricular goals) (Table 2) in the curriculum document.

Segment 8 (Assessment) (Table 2) of the curriculum document is compatible with Sections 24, 25, 26, and 27 (Table 3) of the professional standards document. Both documents encompass the need for ongoing feedback, outline a formative approach to assessment, and use a range of assessment tools and tasks.

4.5 Document Analysis: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ninth Development Plan (2010 – 2014)

4.5.1 Organization and overview of the Ninth Development Plan

The *Ninth Development Plan (2010 – 2014)* is a detailed document, which along with the previous development plans are high level policy documents. The development plans go through a detailed approval process: (1) Council of Ministers; (2) Consultative Shoura Council (responsible for making recommendations to the King on issues that are important to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia); and the (3) Supreme Economic Council culminating with approval by the Chairman of the Council of Ministers. The preface recognizes the size and importance of the Saudi Arabian economy in the world along with commending the validity and efficacy of the

development process pursued, cumulating in the Kingdom of Saudi being a member of the twenty largest economies (G20) and Global Financial Security Board.

The *Ninth Development Plan (2010 – 2014)* was formulated in the midst of the Global Financial Crisis. However, the plan demonstrates the commitment and determination of the leaders to accelerate the development achieved over the last decade, particularly during the *Eighth Development Plan (2005 – 2009)*. The *Ninth Development Plan (2010 – 2014)* was built on five key areas, which form an integrated framework for balanced, comprehensive and sustainable long term development. The five themes are: (1) continual improvement in the standard of living and quality of life for citizens; (2) development of national human resources and employment opportunities for citizens; (3) balanced development throughout the Kingdom; (4); structural development of the Saudi economy and (5) improving the competitiveness of the national economy in conjunction with Saudi products in both the domestic and external markets (Ninth Development Plan, 2010). The plan aims to increase Saudi participation in the workforce, specifically in the private sector through education and training, while increasing its exporting capacity particularly of non-oil products and industries. Additionally, the *Ninth Development Plan (2010 – 2014)* seeks to provide welfare and happiness to its citizens; and provide citizens with housing, employment, education, health care, and other services and amenities, contributing to the social foundations of curriculum (Chapter 2.4.1.4).

Following the preface, chapter one provides an overview of the national economy during the *Ninth Development Plan (2010 – 2014)*, which is followed by chapter two which outlines the directions of the *Ninth Development Plan (2010 – 2014)*. The chapters that follow relevant to this study and Saudization are: (1) long-term strategy for the Saudi economy; (2) the national economy under the *Ninth Development Plan (2010 – 2014)*; (3) knowledge-based economy; (4)

competitiveness of the national economy; (5) institutional and administrative development; (6) the private sector; (7) investment; (8) manpower and the labor market; (9) population and standard of living; (10) regional development; (11) building and construction; (12) environment management; (13) tourism and antiquities; (14) trade; (15) financial services; (16) youth and development; (17) women and the family; (18) housing; (19) science, technology, and innovation; (20) development of human resources; (21) health; (22) information and communication technology; (23) water and sanitation; (24) oil and natural gas; (25) mineral resources; (26) agriculture; (27) industry; (28) electricity; (29) transport; (30) municipal affairs; (31) culture and information; and (32) religious, judicial, Hajj, and Umrah services. It is apparent that the *Ninth Development Plan (2010 – 2014)* aligns national education goals and economic development further emphasizing the influence of neo-liberal globalization on Saudi Arabian policy.

4.5.2 Identifiable orientations to curriculum within the Ninth Development Plan

Table 4 identifies the sections in the *Ninth Development Plan (2010 – 2014)* that have relevance and influence on education and training in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The *Ninth Development Plan (2010 – 2014)* as with preceding development plans is concerned with economic development, improved efficiency and improved participation in the private sector by Saudis to support Saudization, technological advancement, and improving the outputs of the education sector. Academic rationalism, social adaptation, and curriculum as technology dominate the curriculum orientations that have been identified in the *Ninth Development Plan (2010 – 2014)*. This is a global phenomenon as is stated in *The Global Competitiveness Report 2015–2016* (Schwab & Sala-i-Martín, 2015, p. xiii), "across countries we are witnessing

economic policymaking become increasingly people-centered and embedded in overall societal goals".

The *Ninth Development Plan* aims to: (1) develop science, technology, engineering and mathematics to enhance a knowledge-based economy; (2) improve academic standards; (3) continue to improve of the content and structure of the curriculum; (4) provide professional development for teachers; (5) construct and develop school buildings to include technology facilities; (6) develop students" who are capable of competing internationally in science and technology; and (7) eradicate illiteracy, which are aligned with academic rationalism (Table 4, Points 6, 14, 18, 22, 23, 26, 30, and 32). The focus of these seven listed aims is on improving standards and knowledge (of both teachers and students), developing science, technology, engineering and mathematics subjects to support a knowledge-based economy, improving the outcomes of graduates, and producing students who are able to compete internationally in science and technology fields. To support these objectives, continuous improvement in the content and structure of the curriculum is seen as crucial along with the recognition that school buildings need to be developed and refurbished to improve the teaching and learning environment and keep up with advances in technology.

The curriculum orientation development of cognitive processes, which develops the students" creativity and problem solving skills, is aligned with Points 25 and 28 (Table 4). The development of creativity and innovation are essential elements in progress towards a knowledge-based economy and society (De Beule & Nauwelaerts, 2013). Professional development and monitoring and evaluation of teachers by Ministry of Education supervisors will attempt to ensure that the Kingdom of Saudi has the human teaching resources to develop enquiry and creativity in the education system. Maroun et al. (2008) state, "Gulf Cooperation

Council Countries can improve their economic competitiveness by improving the quality of their education systems. An effective education framework must be instituted to optimize the channeling of funds and allow for a better return on investments" (p. 6).

Maroun et al. (2008) also discuss the need for Gulf Cooperation Council Countries to better equip students with soft skills such as communication, problem solving and negotiation skills. These skills are what Saudi Arabian youth have also identified as lacking in the Saudi Arabian education system (Boston Consulting Group, 2014).

The curriculum orientation social adaptation is well represented in Table 4 (Points 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 10, 11, 13, and 27) as it is linked to the economic needs of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia where the *Ninth Development Plan 2010 – 2014* places importance on developing and improving human resources to meet the Kingdom"s economic needs. Hanushek and Wößmann (2007) connect the quality of education, to economic growth as a success measurement rather than only measuring (increased) school enrollment data as the measure of educational success and/or improvement. Point 13 is, increase parental participation in the educational process. Research further indicates that parental participation in their children"s schooling has positive effects on children"s success with increased motivation, homework completion rates and improved academic achievement being some of the benefits (Abdullah et al., 2011).

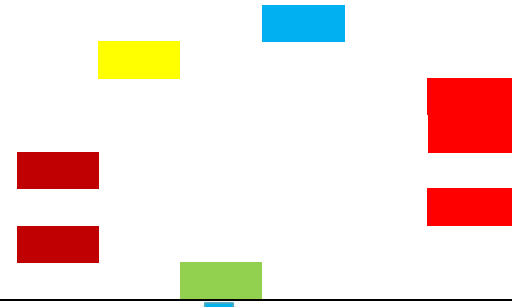
Process, planning, efficiency, and effectiveness goals are prevalent in the *Ninth Development Plan (2010 - 2014)*, which are addressed in Points 9, 15, 16, 19, 20, and 21 (Table 4). The importance of the prevalence of curriculum as technology in this document is that it states the goals that need to be attained to realize the intentions of not only the aspirations of this document, but also the objectives of the current curriculum.

Table 4

Orientations to Curriculum within the Ninth Development Plan (2010 – 2014)

Education content	1	2	3	4A	4B	5
1. Safeguard Islamic values and teachings						
2. Values of citizenship and national belonging						
3. Develop (national) human resources to meet economic needs						
4. Improve the efficiency and effectiveness of human resources						
5. Reduce the development gap between the various regions						
6. To develop STEM to enhance a knowledge-based economy						
7. Enhance the role of the family in society						
8. Expand and develop educational services						
9. Develop educational administration						
10. Saudization of employment (in the private sector)						
11. Reduce unemployment						
12. Increase schools and facilities for special needs students						
13. Increase parental participation in the educational process						
14. Improve academic standards of (secondary school) graduates						
15. Address (skill) deficiencies of teachers and improve teaching methods						
16. Improve monitoring and evaluation systems						
18. Continuous improvement of the content and structure of the curriculum						
19. Ensure the employment of highly skilled teachers to ensure efficient performance						
20. Adapt a licensing system for teachers based on standardized tests to monitor and evaluate teachers						
21. Introduce math, science and language tests for graduates of all three levels of the education system						
22. Provide continuous professional development for teachers						
23. Construct and develop school buildings including technology facilities						
24. Maintain Islamic, cultural and social values						
25. Develop students‟ creativity						
26. Develop students‟ who are capable of competing internationally in science and technology						

27. Instill positive work ethics in the educational environment
28. Develop research and self-learning abilities of students
29. Deal efficiently with cultural impacts of globalization without compromising faith and values
30. Eradicate illiteracy
31. Reduce drop-out and repetition rates
32. Introduce communication and technology classes at all levels
33. Develop extra-curricular activities



Key: 1. Academic rationalism 2. Development of cognitive processes 3. Personal relevance 4A. Social adaptation 4B. Social reconstruction 5. Curriculum as technology

4.6 Document Analysis: What Matters Most to Saudi Arabia's Youth? Helping Policy Makers Address the National Challenges

4.6.1 Organization and overview of What Matters Most to Saudi Arabia's Youth?

The Boston Consulting Group‟s (2014) study on what matters most to Saudi Arabia‟s youth traces the journey from elementary school through to university and into the job market and the major challenges the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia‟s youth face. Forty-eight percent of elementary school students and 57% of secondary school students do not meet basic learning achievement levels, and 63% of university students receive degrees such as arts, education, humanities, and agriculture (Boston Consulting Group, 2014), which are not aligned with the jobs market (Arab News, 2014b). This has created high levels of youth and young adult unemployment along with an over reliance on the public sector for employment (Arab News, 2014b; Boston Consulting Group 2014).

The document begins by highlighting some of the key findings of the study in regard to what matters most to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia‟s youth and how the youth are shaped and influenced. The document identifies that Saudi youth are strongly influenced by Islam and family and have integrated digital communication into their daily lives which they are generally satisfied with. Islam was found to shape citizens‟ identity more so than nationality or ethnicity which is not surprising given than religion is integral to the Kingdom‟s identity (Boston Consulting Group, 2014). Islam‟s teachings emphasize the importance of family. In Saudi culture family has significant influence on people‟s ambitions and goals, which was discussed in Chapter 2 where AL-Abdulkareem (1993) said, "the family is the fundamental and essential repository of every individual's personal identity" (p. 4).

However, there are some key areas that Saudi youth are concerned about such as: (1) the cost of living; (2) the availability of affordable housing; (3) crime; (4) the education system; and (5) career opportunities. These areas need to be addressed as "there are 13 million Saudi citizens under the age of 30 representing approximately two-thirds of the population making the Kingdom much younger than most countries" (Boston Consulting Group, 2014 p. 3). This will intensify the pressure on the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia to address the concerns of its youth where the Kingdom has very high birth rates (Commins, 2008).

While the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia‟s youth are generally happy with their lives; family life; health and well-being; and social life, youth living in the southern region of the Kingdom report low levels of satisfaction in comparison to other four geographical regions: (1) central; (2) northern; (3) eastern; and (4) western (Boston Consulting Group, 2014). For example, it is likely the conflict in Yemen along the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia‟s southern border would have furthered the decrease of youth satisfaction in the southern region of the Kingdom.

The document goes on to discuss the areas the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia‟s youth are concerned with, beginning with the high cost of living and housing affordability in relation to wages. One of the main fears is that these two factors will limit their financial ability to marry and have children (Boston Consulting Group, 2014). The government has recognized this is an area of concern and is constructing 500,000 dwellings throughout the Kingdom (Ghafour, 2014) to address the problem of housing affordability.

Young Saudis have wide ranging concerns about crime and safety that have been analyzed in the following areas: (1) violent crime; (2) war, terrorism, and riots; (3) general crime and safety issues; (4) road safety; and (5) theft and robbery (Boston Consulting Group, 2014). The northern region of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia which borders Jordan and Iraq has a high

level of concern about crime and safety in all areas apart from the area of war, terrorism, and safety. Both the southern and western regions in the Kingdom have high levels of concern about war, terrorism, and riots.

Education and career opportunities are areas of concern for Saudi Arabian youth particularly in the southern and eastern regions where Saudi youth hold high levels of concern about the short comings in the education system (Boston Consulting Group, 2014). The high level of concern in the southern region has most likely increased due to the war with Yemen which has led to schools being closed in 2015 (Naffee, 2015). The document goes on to examine the effectiveness of teaching Islam, which is integral to Saudi Arabian education and incorporated in all subject areas (Al-Salloom, 1991) where, "young Saudis consider the education system effective for teaching them about Islam and basic academic subjects (mathematics, reading and writing)" (Boston Consulting Group, 2014 p. 10).

While young Saudis are satisfied with the education system‟s ability to teach Islam and basic academic subjects effectively there are low levels of satisfaction with instruction in soft skills such as effective communication, critical thinking, teamwork, and problem solving. These soft skills are highly valued by employers (Boston Consulting Group, 2014) particularly in the private sector. These soft skill deficiencies identified by young Saudis need to be addressed to contribute to a key aim of the *Ninth Development Plan (2010 – 2014)*; to increase national participation in the private employment sector, which in turn contributes to the broader goal of Saudization of the workforce throughout the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

4.6.2 Identifiable orientations to curriculum within What Matters Most to Saudi Arabia's Youth?

Four curriculum orientations are present in the *What Matters Most to Saudi Arabia's Youth? Helping Policy Makers Address the National Challenges* (2014) (Table 5) document: (1) academic rationalism where the education system is deemed by students to be effective in teaching Islam and academic subjects; (2) the short comings in the education system in teaching soft skills are related to the development of cognitive processes; (3) the immersion of technology into the traditional lifestyle provides students with personal relevance; and (4) social adaptation through the strong influences of family and Islam in everyday life. While the development of cognitive processes is the dominant curriculum orientation present in this document, it highlights the perceived shortcomings of the education system. Because of this perceived shortcoming, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia seeks to address these problems through the education system and the needs of the technologically informed youth population in the Kingdom.

Table 5

Orientations to Curriculum within What Matters Most to Saudi Arabia's Youth?

Education content	1	2	3	4A	4B	5
A generation shaped by Islam, family and the Internet						
-Strongly influenced by Islam						
-The importance of the family						
-Integration of digital communication into traditional lifestyle						
The Education System						
-Effective for teaching Islam						
-Effective for teaching basic academic subjects						
Shortcomings in the Education System						
-Problem solving						
-Teamwork and collaboration						
-Effective communication						
-Critical thinking						
-Commercial awareness						
-Computer skills						

Key: 1. Academic rationalism 2. Development of cognitive processes 3. Personal relevance 4A. Social adaptation 4B. Social reconstruction 5. Curriculum as technology

4.7 Discussion

This chapter sought to identify, through a systematic document analysis, the fundamental orientations to curriculum in the English language curriculum as evidenced in three curriculum documents: *English Language Syllabus* (1970); *Goals of English Language Teaching* (2005); and the *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020*. Further, it has examined the influences upon the development of these curricula through the analysis of documents informing the development of these curricula. In all, the analysis of both the actual „intended" curriculum documents and the documents informing the development of the intended curricula are able to provide insight into how the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has sought to define itself, both historically and currently. As Pinar et al. (1995) suggest these documents provide insight into the "intense historical, political, racial, gendered, phenomenological, autobiographical, aesthetic, theological, and international nature of curriculum" (pp. 847-848).

The analysis reveals several significant themes. First, as evidenced in the objectives and learning outcomes stated in the *English Language curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020* as compared to preceding curricula, the intent of the contemporary curriculum is increasingly becoming more clearly defined. That is, there is evidence in more recent documents towards explicit curriculum intention, suggesting that the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is, consciously, trying to define itself through a well-articulated identification of curriculum intent. This defining is evidenced in intentions that address a variety of curriculum orientations and foundations including progressivism, reconstructionism, the development of cognitive processes, and academic rationalism. These core curriculum intentions are explicit demonstration of a nation committed,

through educational processes, to cultivating and, potentially, reconstructing future citizens and society that are academically oriented and prepared with the critical thinking skills that will shape the future of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in its drive to move towards a knowledge-based economy.

The second major theme to emerge from the document analysis is the increasing and overt evidence of a focus on the relationship and alignment between national education goals and economic development. The documents increasingly provide evidence of goals that seek for the younger generation to develop the necessary skills during their education that will support them in becoming economically productive members of Saudi society. As suggested by Connell (2013), education in Saudi Arabia is increasingly becoming influenced by the nation‟s economic agenda.

The third major theme is theological. Although the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is open to different ideas and influence, a key priority remains ensuring that educational practices are consistent with Islamic beliefs. The documents identify what older generations have sought to achieve: (1) internally within the Kingdom, safeguarding Islamic values and teaching to support the notion of national belonging; and (2) externally, identifying the virtues of Islam that should be shared and spread. The documents indicate that for youth, their responsibility is first and foremost to Islam and the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, while at the same time encouraging international participation in support of commercial and economic development.

The fourth and final significant theme in the documents is the emphasis on where the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia sees itself positioned politically. Curriculum developments suggest that students are increasingly being prepared to possess the knowledge and skills that are required to participate within the region as well as globally. There is an emphasis on learning

about local and regional culture and current events while raising the Kingdom's intellectual standing and participation in the global community. In essence, the documents signal to students that they need to gain local and regional knowledge and to provide the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia with an international intellectual presence that will contribute to Kingdom‟s international political influence.

4.8 Chapter Summary

The 1970 curriculum provided the foundation for what evolved into the comprehensive and inclusive *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020* in use today, which addresses national imperatives and global challenges. The English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020 provides evidence of a nation seeking to define itself whilst not deviating from its political, racial, gendered, theological, regional and international aspirations. Central to the revelations of the document analysis was the prevalence of the curriculum orientations, academic rationalism and social adaptation in both the current curriculum and supporting documents as the Kingdom seeks to Saudize its workforce and move towards a knowledge-based society whilst decreasing its reliance on oil revenues. The goals and aspirations of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia that are apparent in the curriculum and supporting documents resonates with the two high level policy documents that were released in 2016: (1) the *National Transformation Program 2020*; and (2) the *Saudi Vision 2030* (which in essence have superseded the development plans) as the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia pursues a sustainable and positive future for its young population.

Chapter 5

Contributors and Impediments to English Language Teaching

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 seeks to answer Research Question 2: What do English language teachers identify as the contributors and impediments to the enactment of the current reform agenda in English language teaching? The chapter presents the quantitative and qualitative results from the survey (Appendix G) distributed to and completed by Ministry of Education English language teachers who were undertaking English proficiency professional development programs. It is noteworthy that the participants were English language teachers who may have demonstrated positive bias (Kay, 2005) and affiliation to the current curriculum and reform goals. If non-English language teachers were included in the survey sample the outcomes may have been different as these teachers would not be benefiting from either the curriculum or reform efforts. As outlined in Chapter 3, the analysis of the quantitative (Likert-type) questions used the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 22) to summarize the results of the closed survey questions. The qualitative data were coded using the constant comparative method (Glaser, 2008) to enable the results to be summarized. The data were then analyzed and described following Braun and Clarke‟s (2006) thematic analysis process.

Chapter 5 is comprised of four data analysis sections and concludes with a discussion and summary. The first section (5.2) presents data on the teachers‟ biographical and situational information; the second section (5.3) provides information on teachers‟ perceptions of the English language proficiency skills program and the benefits of the program for both teachers and students; the third section (5.4) focuses on the teachers‟ school level taught, their qualifications, and class and administration hours, and the effects class sizes have on the teaching

and learning of English; and the final data analysis section (5.5) examines the motivators, skills, problems, challenges, and needs of the Ministry of Education English language teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

5.2 Participants Background and Demographics

Chapter 3 explained the rationale behind the selection of the teachers to be surveyed for Research Question 2. The survey was electronically distributed to Ministry of Education English language teachers undertaking English proficiency programs in the five largest directorates in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: Riyadh; Jeddah; the Eastern Province; Makkah; and Al Madinah. These teachers were teaching English language across all three school levels: (1) elementary; (2) intermediate; and (3) secondary. There were 550 responses to the survey with approximately 20% more females completing the survey than their male counterparts. The number of responses to the questions varied throughout the survey. Additionally, there were geographic differences in response rates with nearly 40% of the respondents from Al Madinah, followed by over 25% of respondents from Riyadh with the Eastern Province, Jeddah, and Makkah having lower survey participation rates. Data representing the regional and gender composition of the participants is represented in Table 6 below.

Table 6

Teachers' Gender and Region

	Region N (%)					
Gender	Riyadh	Eastern Province	Jeddah	Makkah	Al Madinah	Total
Male	79 (53.7)	28 (45.9)	24 (31.6)	18 (32.1)	81 (38.6)	230 (41.8)
Female	68 (46.3)	33 (54.1)	52 (68.4)	38 (67.9)	129 (61.4)	320 (58.2)
Total	147 (100)	61 (100)	76 (100)	56 (100)	210 (100)	550 (100)

The majority of the teachers (over 85%) across all three school levels reported they had bachelor qualifications. The number of teachers reporting master qualifications varied across school levels with one (female) teacher at elementary level reporting having a master‟s degree. At intermediate level the number of teachers holding master‟s degrees increased significantly with over 17% of the male teachers and close to 10% of the female teachers surveyed holding master‟s degrees. The number of teachers holding master‟s degrees at the secondary level in comparison to the intermediate level remained steady for female teachers but dropped to slightly over 10% for male teachers. The results also yielded a very small percentage of PhD holders at intermediate and secondary levels (Appendix O).

The majority of the male teachers (64.6%) who completed the survey reported they have 10 or few years teaching experience; at elementary level the percentage (76.5%) was significantly higher than the average (64.6%). Slightly more than 20% of the male teachers reported having 11 – 15 years of experience and male teachers with over 16 years teaching experience contributed to 14% of the male teachers surveyed. The female teachers‟ results did not mirror the male respondents‟ results with female teachers having more years of experience than their male counterparts with only 44% of the female teachers reporting to have less than 10 years of experience. However, female elementary teachers with 10 or fewer years of experience made up 55% of the teachers at the elementary level. Significantly higher numbers of female teachers at the intermediate and secondary levels reported having 11 – 20 years of experience (60%) and as per the male teachers‟ results, less than 10% of teachers have more than 20 years teaching experience (Appendix P).

As described in Chapter 3.7 the participants for this part of the study were participating in English proficiency programs conducted by four English language training providers. The

majority of teachers participating in the training program attended Al Khaleej who had 12 centers (seven centers for males and five centers for females) providing training to the Ministry of Education English language teachers. London School of English had six centers (three centers for males and three centers for females), Saudi British Centre had four centers (two centers for males and two centers females) and Taibah University had one male center and one female center providing training to English language teachers.

These teachers had previously been pre-tested to ascertain their English proficiency levels and their preparedness for the enactment of the current curriculum. Based on the results of English proficiency pre-tests, teachers who scored an IELTS equivalency of 5.0 or above were streamed into test preparation classes and teachers who scored an IELTS equivalency of less than 5.0 were streamed into general English. Three times as many teachers who completed the survey were in test preparation classes compared to general English classes (Appendix F).

Over 85% of the teachers who completed the survey reported they were somewhat satisfied or very satisfied with the training providers with a rate of reported satisfaction close to 95% for teachers attending Taibah University. However, both Al Khaleej and Saudi British Centre respondents registered slightly over 15% of somewhat dissatisfied or very dissatisfied with the training providers (Appendix I). With the exception of a small percentage of teachers (3.2%) from Al Khaleej and the Saudi British Centre close to 100% of the teachers who completed the survey responded that the staff at the English language training centers was friendly and helpful (Appendix N).

The primary goal of the English language proficiency program was to improve teachers‟ language competency resulting in more English used in the classroom. A secondary objective was for teachers to understand a range of communicative activities and to improve their skills

and abilities (see Tables 2 and 3) to enact the current curriculum as intended (Cuban, 1992). More than 80% of the male teachers who completed the survey reported that their instructor sometimes or often used communicative activities in the classes while over 90% of the female teachers reported their instructor sometimes or often used communicative activities as a method of instruction (Appendix J). The English language training centers instructors‟ overall teaching ability as reported by the respondents (Appendix M) correlated with the use of communicative teaching methods in the classes (Appendix J).

I asked some alternative time and attendance questions to discover teachers‟ motivation to attend the classes prepared and ready to commence the programs on time. The majority of the teachers reported that their classes commenced at their scheduled times (Appendix K). This corresponds with teachers reporting high levels of satisfaction with the training centers (Appendix I) and the use of communicative activities in the sessions (Appendix J), and provides an indication of teachers‟ motivation to arrive prior to the commencement of classes. Corresponding with the high percentage of classes starting on time is the teachers‟ self-reported attendance with 80.2% of the teachers stating they attended 100% of the classes, and close to 20% of the teachers surveyed reporting they attended 75% of the classes (Appendix L).

5.3 Program Participation and Benefits

Table 7 presents the participating teachers‟ responses (level of agreement) to a series of statements related to participating in the program and the benefits of the program. These statements were used to identify the constraints and impediments, and motivators to implement the curriculum (described in Chapter 2.7) and related to: (1) environmental factors; (2) students; and (3) teacher engagement in the professional development programs. In addition to four levels of agreement (agree, somewhat agree, somewhat disagree, and disagree) there was a neutral

level. The motivation for teachers to improve their English to help their students and their nation is high, however teachers‟ engagement and commitment to the opportunity that was afforded to them with the professional development program was lower. This is evidenced in the responses to: (1) motivation to attend classes; (2) participation in activities and discussions; and (3) completion of homework tasks. The female responses were more positive than those provided by their male counterparts. These finding mirrored the teachers‟ responses to the statements related to their students where the female teachers have rated their students‟ motivation, homework completion rates, and enjoyment learning English higher than their male counterparts (Table 7).

Table 7

Program Participation and Benefits

		N (%)			
Participation and benefits	Gender	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree
-I want to improve my English to help my students	Male	185 (87.7)	22 (10.4)	2 (1)	1 (0.5)
	Female	279 (92.4)	22 (7.3)		
-I am motivated to attend the classes	Male	128 (60.7)	55 (26.1)	20 (9.5)	4 (1.9)
	Female	228 (76.3)	59 (19.7)	10 (3.3)	2 (0.7)
-I am actively involved in class discussions and activities	Male	132 (64.4)	66 (32.2)	7 (3.4)	--
	Female	223 (73.8)	64 (21.2)	5 (1.7)	9 (3)
-I complete assigned homework tasks	Male	123 (59.4)	54 (26.1)	16 (7.7)	8 (3.9)
	Female	188 (64)	82 (27.9)	18 (6.1)	4 (1.4)
-If students have better English proficiency skills it will help the development of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia	Male	175 (85.4)	24 (11.7)	3 (1.5)	2 (1)
	Female	268 (90.5)	26 (8.8)	2 (0.7)	--
-My students enjoy learning English	Male	66 (32)	89 (43.2)	29 (14.1)	13 (6.3)
	Female	130 (44.2)	124 (42.2)	32 (10.9)	6 (2)
-My students are motivated to learn English	Male	66 (32.2)	79 (38.5)	34 (16.6)	18 (8.8)
	Female	125 (42.4)	122 (41.4)	35 (11.9)	12 (4.1)
-My students complete their English homework	Male	64 (30.9)	86 (41.6)	41 (19.8)	12 (5.8)
	Female	103 (34.8)	149 (50.3)	35 (11.8)	9 (3)
-I try to speak English all the time in my English classes with my students	Male	99 (47.4)	80 (38.3)	21 (10.1)	7 (3.4)
	Female	218 (73.9)	72 (24.4)	3 (1)	2 (0.7)
-My students will enjoy my classes more if my English improves	Male	128 (61.5)	54 (26)	14 (6.7)	6 (2.9)
	Female	223 (75.1)	56 (18.9)	14 (4.7)	2 (0.7)
-I am learning new methods of teaching from the English training	Male	91 (42.9)	64 (30.2)	30 (14.2)	16 (7.6)
	Female	155 (52.5)	75 (25.4)	36 (12.2)	22 (7.5)
-I would like to apply for a scholarship after the training program	Male	184 (87.6)	20 (9.5)	4 (1.9)	--
	Female	241 (80.9)	47 (15.8)	7 (2.4)	3 (1)
-I will be able to achieve an IELTS score of 6.0 or TOEFL iBT71	Male	159 (73.6)	46 (21.3)	9 (4.2)	2 (0.9)
	Female	228 (76)	65 (21.7)	4 (1.3)	2 (0.7)

5.4 Class Sizes and Administration Hours

5.4.1 Average class sizes

The majority (greater than 70%) of both the male and female teachers reported having 25 or more students in their classes: (1) 25 – 30 (24%); (2) 30 – 35 (25%); and (3) 35+ (24%) as presented in Table 8. Schanzenbach‟s (2014) report says that average class sizes are between 22 – 25 students, and Table 8 would suggest that class sizes in the Kingdom are high and not conducive to effective teaching and learning. Approximately 15% of the teachers reported having 20 -25 students in their classes. Less teachers (approximately 10%) teachers reported having 15 – 25 students in their classes. A small percentage (approximately 5%) of teachers reported having class sizes of 10 – 15 students.

Table 8

Teachers School Level and Class Sizes

		Class size N (%)						
Level	Gender	10 - 15	15 – 20	20 – 25	25 - 30	30 - 35	35+	Total
Ele	Male	1 (5.9)	2 (11.8)	2 (11.8)	7 (41.2)	2 (11.8)	3 (17.7)	17 (9.71)
	Female	4 (11.8)	3 (8.8)	1 (2.9)	10 (29.4)	10 (29.4)	6 (17.7)	34 (15.2)
Inter	Male	3 (4.4)	12(17.7)	11 (16.2)	14 (20.6)	18 (26.5)	10 (14.7)	68 (38.9)
	Female	6 (7.2)	7 (8.4)	9 (10.8)	22 (26.5)	20 (24.1)	19 (22.9)	83 (37.1)
Sec	Male	2 (2.2)	5 (5.6)	14 (15.6)	19 (21.1)	28 (31.1)	22 (24.4)	90 (51.4)
	Female	4 (3.7)	9 (8.4)	13 (12.2)	24 (22.4)	23 (21.5)	34 (31.8)	107 (47.8)
Total	Male	6 (3.4)	19(10.9)	27 (15.4)	40 (22.9)	48 (27.4)	35 (20)	175 (100)
	Female	14 (6.3)	19 (8.5)	23 (10.3)	56 (25)	53 (23.7)	59 (26.3)	224 (100)

5.4.2 Effects of class sizes on the teaching and learning of English

The effect class sizes have on the teaching and learning of English were coded using the constant comparative method (Glaser, 2008) into eight areas as per Table 9: (1) classroom management; (2) assessment and feedback; (3) group work and activities; (4) student participation and motivation; (5) individual student needs; (6) effects on teaching practice; (7)

general negative reasons and recommendations; and (8) not applicable. Over 22% of the respondents identified general negative effects as having the greatest effect on class sizes. "It has an effect in huge way"; and "it is very negative" are examples of the survey responses concerning the general negative effects that large class sizes have on the teaching and learning of English language.

Approximately 10% of the teachers who completed the survey identified classroom management, student participation and motivation, effects on teaching practice, and individual student needs as the biggest problems teachers encounter with large class sizes. Approximately 5% of teachers reported difficulties with assessment and feedback, and group work and activities as problems they encounter when teaching large classes.

Table 9

Effects of Classes sizes on the Teaching and Learning of English

Effects	N (%)
Classroom management	38 (12.3)
Assessment (including homework and assignments) and feedback	21 (6.8)
Difficulties with group work and activities	13 (4.2)
Student participation (and motivation)	33 (10.7)
Cannot focus on individual student needs (particularly low level students)	29 (9.4)
Effect on teaching practice (and learning)	35 (11.4)
General negative effects and recommendations	70 (22.7)
Not applicable (such as numerical responses)	69 (22.4)
Total	308 (100)

5.4.3 Teaching, administrative, preparation, and grading hours per week

Table 10 presents the results of two questions from the survey; the first on teaching hours per week; and the second on administrative hours per week for the purpose of identifying correlations between the two. The majority of the teachers teach 15 – 25 hours per week. This figure is within the 19 hours the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development"s

(OECD) average (OECD, 2014). However, there is a reasonably high percentage (more than 27%) of female teachers who teach less, 10 - 15 hours per week.

The OECD (2014) average for non-teaching related school related activities was 25 hours per week. The results from this survey show that over 50% of the teachers who teach 10 – 15 hours per week reported they do 5 – 10 hours administration, preparation, and grading work per week. Thirty percent of the teachers teaching 10 – 15 hours per week stated they do 11 – 15 hours per week aside from teaching duties. The research shows that over 90% of the male teachers who completed the survey and teach 10 – 15 hours per week do 15 hours or less administration, preparation, and grading work per week.

More than 80% of teachers who teach between 15 – 20 classes per week reported doing 5 – 10 or 11 – 15 hours of administration, preparation, and grading work per week. Over 80% of male teachers who reported teaching 20 – 25 hours per week also contributed 15 or fewer administration, preparation, and grading hours per week. However, 70% of their female colleagues reported doing 15 hours or less non-teaching hours and 30% of the females in this teaching hour range did more than 15 hours of work outside of the classroom. A small percentage (approximately 5%) of teachers reported teaching more than 25 hours per week. More than 40% of these teachers reported they do 5 – 10 administration, preparation, and grading hours work per week.

These results show that while the teachers teaching hours per week were within the OCED (2014) average the hours dedicated to administrative, preparation, and grading were far lower than the OECD (2014) average. These findings resonate with the findings discussed in Section 5.3, which found teachers‟ motivation for improvement to be high but their enactment and follow through can be seen to be lower.

Table 10

Teaching, Administration, Preparation, and Grading Hours per Week

		Administrative, preparation, and grading hours N (%)					
Teach hours	Gender	5 - 10	11 - 15	16 - 20	21 - 25	25+	Total
10 – 15	Male	11 (57.9)	6 (31.6)	--	2 (10.5)	--	19 (10.9)
	Female	31 (50)	18 (29)	11 (17.7)	2 (3.2)	--	62 (27.8)
15 – 20	Male	42 (44.2)	39 (41.1)	10 (10.5)	3 (3.2)	1 (1.1)	95 (54.3)
	Female	48 (49.5)	31 (32)	13 (13.4)	5 (5.2)	--	97 (43.5)
20 – 25	Male	27 (51.9)	15 (28.9)	5 (9.6)	4 (7.7)	1 (1.9)	52 (29.7)
	Female	14 (34.2)	11 (26.8)	9 (22)	4 (9.8)	3 (7.3)	41 (18.4)
25 – 30	Male	3 (42.9)	--	2 (28.6)	2 (28.6)	--	7 (4)
	Female	6 (42.9)	--	4(28.6)	--	4 (28.6)	14 (6.3)
30+	Male	--	1 (50)	1 (50)	--	--	2 (1.1)
	Female	5 (55.6)	--	3 (33.3)	1 (11.1)	--	9 (4)

5.5 Motivators, Skills, Problems, Challenges, Needs, and Benefits

5.5.1 Benefits of the teaching profession

Teachers were provided with a list of possible benefits of the teaching profession and were asked to check the perceived benefits relevant to them (see Table 11). The female teachers‟ percentage responses were predominantly higher across the responses (see Table 11). The responses show teachers‟ high motivation to helping both the students and the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, but their passion for teaching does not correlate with these findings, perhaps providing an indication that teacher motivation inside the classroom could be higher. Correlating with relatively low response for the passion for teaching is that the teachers did not see teacher status as a benefit, or perhaps they do not rank it as highly as other professions. However, the responses provided in Table 11, contradict with the data in Table 17 with teachers‟ reporting that students, schools, and the teaching profession are key motivators for them.

Table 11

Benefits of the Teaching Profession

Benefits	Gender	N (%)
Passion for teaching	Male	102 (58)
	Female	126 (56.5)
Helping the students	Male	133 (75.6)
	Female	197 (88.3)
Helping the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia	Male	107 (60.8)
	Female	151 (67.7)
Teacher status	Male	39 (22.2)
	Female	48 (21.5)
Job security	Male	41 (23.3)
	Female	82 (36.8)
Salary and benefits	Male	63 (35.8)
	Female	104 (46.6)
Professional development opportunities	Male	74 (42.1)
	Female	107 (48)
Vacations and hours of work	Male	44 (25)
	Female	69 (30.9)

5.5.2 Benefits for teachers studying English

The benefits for teachers studying English were coded into nine areas. The qualitative results in Table 12 show that teachers valued self-improvement factors (17.3%); ability to communicate with others in English (31%), improved English proficiency (20.5%), and self-improvement (17.3%) over student related benefits; increased knowledge and technical capabilities (11.5%), improved teaching (benefits for students) (9.3%), and improved teaching of English (8.4%). A small percentage of teachers identified a passion for English (2.5%), contribute to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (2%), and scholarship opportunities (0.9%) as the benefits of studying English.

Table 12

Benefits for Teachers Studying English

		N		N (%)
Benefits	A	B	C	Total
Improved English proficiency	102	44	17	163 (20.5)
Contribute to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (including projecting a positive image of Islam)	8	2	1	16 (2)
Communicate with others in English	92	79	48	219 (31)
Improved teaching of English	21	26	20	67 (8.4)
Self-improvement	39	50	48	137 (17.3)
Improved teaching (benefits for students)	16	31	27	74 (9.3)
Scholarship opportunities		5	2	7 (0.9)
Increased knowledge and technical capabilities	29	37	25	91 (11.5)
Passion for English	5	10	5	20 (2.5)
Total				794 (100)

5.5.3 Teachers' strongest English skill

Table 13 shows teachers identified reading as their strongest skill. Over 10% more females (44%) reported reading as their strongest skill in comparison with their male counterparts (33%). Speaking was identified by 28% of the teachers as their strongest English skill by over 31% of male teachers and 25% of female teachers. The gender split ratio of teachers identifying writing is in favor of female teachers (21%) when compared with their male compatriots (17%). Slightly over 13% of the teachers stated that listening is their strongest English skill. However, 9% more male teachers than female teachers surveyed identified listening as their strongest English skill.

Table 13

Teachers' Strongest English Skill

	Strongest English skill N (%)				
Gender	Writing	Reading	Speaking	Listening	Total
Male	30 (16.9)	59 (33.3)	56 (31.6)	32 (18.1)	177 (100)
Female	47 (21.4)	97 (44.1)	55 (25)	21 (9.5)	220 (100)
Total	77 (19.4)	156 (39.3)	111 (28)	53 (13.4)	397 (100)

5.5.4 Teachers' weakest English skill

Table 14 mirrors the results from what teachers identified as their strongest English skills (Table 13) with the distinct differences between the male and female teachers in regard to writing and listening. The teachers ranked listening as their weakest English skill (39%) followed by writing (36%), speaking (18%), and reading (6.7%).

Table 14

Teachers' Weakest English Skill

	Weakest English skill N (%)				
Gender	Writing	Reading	Speaking	Listening	Total
Male	85 (47.8)	13 (7.3)	32 (18)	48 (27)	178 (100)
Female	60 (26.9)	14 (6.3)	40 (17.9)	109 (48.9)	223 (100)
Total	145 (36.1)	27 (6.7)	72 (18)	157 (39.2)	401 (100)

5.5.5 Students' strongest English skill

As per the results in Section 5.5.3 teachers characterized their students" strongest English skill aligning with their own strongest skill. In essence the findings reported in Table 15 below mirrors Table 24 with teachers identifying reading as their students" strongest English skill and listening as their students" weakest English skill.

Table 15

Students' Strongest English Skill

	Strongest English skill N (%)				
Gender	Writing	Reading	Speaking	Listening	Total
Male	24 (13.7)	61 (34.9)	60 (34.3)	30 (17.1)	175 (100)
Female	49 (22.8)	100 (46.5)	42 (19.5)	24 (11.2)	215 (100)
Total	73 (18.8)	162 (41.3)	102 (26.1)	54 (13.8)	390 (100)

5.5.6 The benefits to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia of having an improved level of English

Table 16 presents what the teachers perceived to be benefits to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia of having an improved level of English. The survey invited participants to list up to four benefits to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia of having an improved level of English. The benefits to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia support the findings reported in the document analysis (Chapter 4): (1) improved education; (2) development; (3) global communication; (4) educated society; (5) job opportunities; and (6) sharing the virtues of Islam.

Table 16

The Benefits to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia of Having an Improved Level of English

	N				N (%)
Benefits	A	B	C	D	Total
Modernization, development, technological, and economic	66	70	56	41	233 (29.8)
Share the virtues of Islam	7	8	13	9	37 (4.7)
Improved education	135	77	52	23	287 (36.7)
Job opportunities for students	9	18	14	10	51 (6.5)
Study, travel, and communicate globally	38	36	22	18	114 (14.6)
Educated society	23	14	14	8	59 (7.6)
Total					781 (100)

5.5.7 Motivators for teachers

Table 17 shows that there were three main factors that motivated teachers in their teaching of English, namely: (1) their students, schools, and profession (32%); (2) development of their teaching skills (22%); and (3) the benefits that come with the teaching (17%). The following ancillary motivators were identified by teachers: (1) appreciation (8.6%); (2) teaching materials (6.6%); (3) the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and Islam (5.7%); (4) professional development (5.5%); (5) no specific motivator (2%); and (6) family (0.6%).

Tables 16 and 17 display the findings that sharing the benefits of Islam are both a motivator for teachers and a benefit to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia of having an improved level of English. The motivators for teachers aligned with the benefits to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (5.5.6) in that teachers‟ commitment to the development of English teaching skills and their students, school, and the profession are contributors to development, improved education, an educated society, and job opportunities for students.

Table 17

What Motivates Teachers?

	N			N (%)
Motivators	A	B	C	Total
Students, school, and the profession	88	74	42	204 (32)
Benefits (salary (increases), scholarships, and promotions)	38	41	34	113 (17.7)
Professional development	18	11	6	35 (5.5)
Development of teaching skills	69	34	32	135 (22.2)
No specific motivator	11	1	1	13 (2)
Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and Islam	16	8	12	36 (5.7)
Appreciation and encouragement	19	23	13	55 (8.6)
Teaching materials, aids, technology, and facilities	8	26	8	42 (6.6)
Family	2	1	1	4 (0.6)
Total				637 (100)

5.5.8 The problems teachers face with the English language curriculum

The biggest problems (32.6%) respondents stated they faced with the English language curriculum were twofold: (1) there is too much material to cover, and (2) the level of the content is too high for the students (see Table 18). Inter related with these factors were: (1) the students‟ (ability and motivation) (14.5%); (2) large classes (14.6%); (3) the need for more training on the using the textbooks and supplementary materials (11%); (4) teaching methods (7%); and (5) English proficiency (4.8%). Two other factors that teachers identified as problematic with the English language curriculum are: (1) logistical (teaching materials arriving late (10.4%)); and (2) changes in the textbooks (5.2%). These challenges highlight the tensioned nature of curriculum (Chapter 2.1.1) and indicate that the current curriculum may not be being implemented as it is intended.

Table 18

The Problems Teachers Face with the English Language Curriculum

		N		N (%)
Problems	A	B	C	Total
(Regular) changes in the textbooks	12	18	16	46 (5.2)
Too much material to cover (and the level of difficulty is too high for the students)	123	88	75	286 (32.6)
Teaching methods	24	20	17	61 (7)
Teachers English proficiency	15	15	12	42 (4.8)
Not enough training on using the textbooks and supplementary materials	43	32	21	96 (11)
Students (ability and motivation)	49	40	38	127 (14.5)
Teaching materials are delivered late and lack of resources (teachers book, audio CDs)	41	29	21	91 (10.4)
Large classes	52	44	32	128 (14.6)
Total				877 (100)

5.5.9 Would teachers benefit from more textbook and curriculum training?

Over 95% of the teachers who completed the survey believe teachers would benefit from more textbook and curriculum training with less than 5% reporting that teachers would „maybe benefit" from additional textbook and curriculum training. The results displayed in Table 19 suggest there is strong evidence that teachers would benefit from more textbook and more curriculum training.

Table 19

Would Teachers Benefit from more Textbook and Curriculum Training?

	N (%)				
Training	Definitely yes	Yes	Maybe	No	Definitely no
Textbook	362 (71)	124 (24.3)	24 (4.7)	--	--
Curriculum	364 (71.7)	126 (24.8)	18 (3.5)	--	--

5.5.10 Areas of training English language teachers need to improve their teaching of the English language curriculum

Section 5.5.8 examined what areas teachers face problems with when teaching the English language curriculum. While Table 18 showed only 4.8% of teachers identified English proficiency as a problem teachers" face when delivering the curriculum, 17.3% of the respondents prioritized the need for more English proficiency training (see Table 20). This priority was followed by: (1) teaching methods (16.6%); (2) using activities and games in the classroom (15.5%); and (3) how to teach low level students (14.3%). Teachers recommended additional areas they required training in to improve their teaching of the English language curriculum, namely: (1) using technology (8.8%); (2) using the textbooks (8.6%); (3) classroom and time management (7.7%); (4) motivating students (7.3%); and (5) assessment (3.9%).

Table 20

Teachers' Training Needs

	N			N (%)
Training needs	A	B	C	Total
Teaching low level students	46	43	37	126 (14.3)
English proficiency	44	58	51	153 (17.3)
Teaching methods	61	36	49	146 (16.6)
Using the textbooks (including digital and online material)	35	27	14	76 (8.6)
Technology in the classroom	29	28	21	78 (8.8)
Motivating students	24	21	19	64 (7.3)
Activities and games	53	45	39	137 (15.5)
Assessment	10	11	13	34 (3.9)
Classroom and time management	26	23	19	68 (7.7)
Total				882 (100)

5.5.11 General comments

The majority of the teachers (53.6%) who submitted general comments noted that the face-to-face English proficiency program was a good professional development opportunity with many respondents also expressing their gratitude for the opportunity to participate in the training program (see Table 21). However, 15.5% of the respondents commented that teachers should be compensated for attending the training outside of school hours or that the training should be conducted during school hours. Additional general comments included: (1) the need for pedagogy professional development programs (11.9%); and (2) that the teachers would like to apply for and/or receive a scholarship (10.7%) for participating in the program.

Table 21

General Comments

Recommendations	N (%)
Teachers should be either compensated for training conducted outside school hours or training should be conducted during school hours	26 (15.5)
Good professional development opportunity (thank you)	90 (53.6)
I would like to apply for (receive) a scholarship	18 (10.7)
Teachers would benefit from further pedagogical professional development programs	20 (11.9)
General comments	14 (8.3)
Total	168 (100)

5.6 Discussion

The data obtained through the surveys produced several significant themes in identifying the enablers, challenges, tensions, and impediments to the implementation of the current curriculum as it is intended. The first significant theme that emerged from the data is that the teachers recognized the benefits of improved levels of English as a key to economic development, providing students with life opportunities, helping the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia raise its intellectual standard and as a tool for sharing the virtues of Islam. The alignment can be seen between what the teachers perceive the benefits of improved levels of English are to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and the objectives of the *Ninth Development Plan (2010 – 2014)* (Table 4). However, the data in this chapter has identified teacher related factors thwarting the implementation of the current curriculum as it is intended. Although the teachers are graduates (initial teacher education programs are discussed in Chapter 2.9 and Chapter 7) they have questioned their English proficiency and communicative competency, and their pedagogy and teaching skills. Additionally, the data showed that while teachers‟ motivation for improvement is high, their commitment to enactment wavers.

The second theme emerging from the data was that while the teachers who completed the survey expressed appreciation for the opportunity to participate in the English proficiency program there was the expectation incentives should have been provided for the teachers attending and participating in the professional development program. The incentives for teachers included scholarship opportunities, financial compensation, and/or the training should have been conducted during school hours. This highlights the challenge of where the motivation for improved teacher competency lies; either for the individual, or the profession and students.

The third theme that was apparent from the data is that English proficiency training needs to be provided for teachers who require it, and who are motivated and committed to the training and outcomes it delivers. This continuing professional development needs to be supported and followed up by principals, trainers, and educational leaders for results and outcomes to be realized (Fullan, 2007; Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991; Killion & Kaylor, 1991; Marsh & Willis, 2007).

The fourth significant theme that emerged from the data is that the teachers experienced difficulty covering all the material in the textbooks. The data indicated the difficultly covering all the material is attributed to the students‟ motivation and varying ability coupled with the need for pedagogy professional development programs and expanded English proficiency training for teachers.

The four themes that have emerged from the data demonstrate that teachers have the mindset of what effective language teaching looks like; that is communicative and engaging, which are goals and objectives of the current curriculum (see Table 2). However, the data indicated the teachers are caught in a conundrum where they perceive a primary goal is to complete the prescribed curriculum materials (that is, the textbooks), but also see the need and

would like to have the competencies to enact the curriculum using a communicative approach to language teaching. In brief, teachers seem to perceive „curriculum implementation" as adherence to prescribed curriculum materials; that is the textbooks.

These data challenged my thinking about my dual role as a researcher and to support curriculum implementation. In Chapter 1.3 I discussed my current role and how it was likely to influence my positionality and interpretation of the research process. As described, my employment duties require me to support the implementation of a curriculum that had already been defined. Prior to my employment, the resource materials and how they were to be used had already been decided upon. The survey for teachers (Appendix G) was designed to determine how this pre-decided focus had progressed. I was seeking to determine the contributors and impediments to the enactment of the reform agenda in English language teaching as it was already defined, their satisfaction with the professional development program they were participating in, and to identify teachers" additional training needs. The survey did not envisage one of the primary goals identified by the teacher respondents in curriculum implementation would be to complete the textbooks and deliver the prescribed curriculum materials. It is likely that my positional bias influenced the questions I asked in the survey, which has caused me to rethink the approach I used. In hindsight, I could have designed and asked more qualitative questions to determine if the teachers agreed with the curriculum intent and approach to teaching it encourages and whether they held alternative views of the curriculum priorities and implementation efforts. This would have constituted a more critical evaluation stance for my research.

It would appear that the teachers are products of the Saudi Arabian education system, where Eisner"s (1985) curriculum orientation, curriculum as technology is prevalent, or at least

has been prevalent and teachers „teach to test", particularly at secondary level where summative test results take precedence over oral language fluency (Siddiek, 2011). This pressure or tension, as discussed in Chapter 2, could be influencing teachers to adopt an essentialist (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009) approach to English language teaching. This is in contrast to the progressivist approach endorsed by leading English language teaching proponents and their influential published work (Brown, 2007; Nunan, 2001, 2015; Richards, 2006).

However, while contrasts may present themselves as a slight on Saudi Arabian English language teachers, other environmental factors also impact teaching and learning: (1) class sizes; (2) resources; (3) amount of time dedicated to English; (4) parental involvement and guidance in the educational process; (5) parental and school leadership pressure to deliver high summative results; (6) the number of classes dedicated to English; and (7) the grade level students start learning English. Ariza, Zainuddin, Yahya, and Morales-Jones (2015) suggest that a range of English language teaching pedagogies need to be employed to meet the needs or perhaps demands of the teaching and learning environment. This approach, along with leveraging the advantages of using textbooks, such as consistency, structure and guidance for (new) teachers, and provision of adaptable materials (Fredericks, 2005; Mohammadi & Abdi, 2014), could provide an approach to advance English language teaching and learning in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

5.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has highlighted some of the enablers and constraints of curriculum implementation in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Drawing from the literature on curriculum it is evident that although there are a variety of enablers for contributing to the intended curriculum becoming the enacted and experienced curriculum, two primary issues arise. One is at a

pragmatic level. Teachers ascribe to the Kingdom‟s attention to English language learning, but identify their communicative and pedagogical capabilities, and the textbook dominated approach may be an impediment to such a realization. This raises the questions: (1) Was there enough attention given to what was wanted or needed during the curriculum design process (Alnefaie, 2016)?; (2) Was there consideration in the reform efforts and curriculum development process consideration for what was wanted in terms of English language proficiency?; and (3) Was there consideration of how this could be achieved through the teaching approaches to be used?

In the chapter that follows the attention turns to the Ministry of Education English language supervisors to determine what they perceive to be the issues and challenges English teachers face implementing the current curriculum, and the professional development training needs of English language teachers. Chapter 6 examines the extent that the English language supervisors‟ account of the teachers‟ challenges and needs correspond with those of the teachers‟ accounts presented in this chapter. Are there further or alternative insights provided by the English language supervisors that will contribute to identifying the key enablers and constraints of curriculum implementation in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia?

Chapter 6

English Language Teachers' Needs

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 6 seeks to answer Research Question 3: What are the professional development needs of English language teachers? The chapter presents the quantitative and qualitative results from the survey (Appendix Q) distributed to and completed by 83 Ministry of Education English language supervisors who delivered training for English language teachers throughout the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. It was hypothesized that the data generated from the research in Chapter 6 would corroborate the findings in Chapter 5.

Chapter 3 outlined the data analysis techniques and tools used to investigate the data. The analysis of the quantitative (Likert-type) data employed descriptive statistical analysis using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 22) to summarize the results of the closed survey questions. The qualitative data were coded using the constant comparative method (Glaser, 2008) to enable the results to be summarized. The data were then analyzed following a six phase thematic analysis process (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Three data analysis sections follow the introduction: Section 6.2 examines the issues and challenges teachers face implementing the English language curriculum; the second section of the chapter, 6.3 looks at the training needs of teachers; and Section 6.4 presents qualitative data on the support provided to English language teachers and the suitability of the English language curriculum. The chapter concludes with a discussion followed by a summary.

6.2 Issues and Challenges Teachers Face Implementing the English Language Curriculum

6.2.1 Problems teachers face with the English language curriculum

The English language teachers (Section 5.5.8) were asked the same question as the English language supervisors about the problems teachers face with the current English language curriculum. Both the teachers (32.6%) and the supervisors (34.6%) reported the amount and level of the content to be covered was the biggest challenge teachers face in implementing the curriculum as intended. The supervisors reported similar additional problems to the teachers (Table 18), that teachers face with the curriculum: These are: (1) the students‟ (ability and motivation) (13%); (2) large classes (3.9%); (3) the need for more training on using the textbooks (4.3%); (4) teachers lack of pedagogy skills (12%); and (5) the level of teachers‟ English proficiency (5.3%) (Table 22).

Slightly more than 20% of the supervisors reported that the curriculum materials arrive late and that teachers encountered challenges with regular changes of textbooks (6.7%), which places additional time stress on teachers and students to complete the materials within the semester. The surveyed teachers identified these challenges in Chapter 5.6 and discussed how teachers are conditioned to complete the prescribed curriculum materials.

Table 22

Problems Teachers Face with the English Language Curriculum

		N		N (%)
Problems	A	B	C	Total
(Regular) changes in the textbooks	5	5	4	14 (6.7)
Too much material to cover (and the level of difficulty is too high for the students)	33	23	16	72 (34.6)
Lack of pedagogy skills	11	4	10	25 (12)
Lack of English proficiency	6	2	3	11 (5.3)
Not enough training on using the textbooks (and supplementary material)	2	4	3	9 (4.3)
Students (ability and motivation)	10	12	5	27 (13)
Teaching materials are delivered late and lack of resources	11	15	16	42 (20.2)
Large classes	--	6	2	8 (3.9)
Total				208 (100)

6.2.2 Areas the English language textbooks could be improved

A reoccurring theme that emerged from the surveys completed by the teachers and the supervisors was that teachers have difficulty in covering all the material in the textbooks. Table 23 demonstrates this difficulty with 25% of the responses suggesting that a reduction in the amount of content, in conjunction with the amount of vocabulary and skills in each lesson (13.3%), would allow teachers to cover all the material in the textbooks. Twenty-five percent of the responses recommended that an increase in the amount of instructions and guidance (for teachers in the teacher‟s books) would improve the enactment of the current curriculum. The supervisors identified several additional areas in which the textbooks could be improved. These included: (1) change the topics, vary the types of exercises, and add revision sections in the textbooks (17.6%); (2) provide hardcopies of the teacher‟s books and audio CDs (15.4%); and (3) combining the student book and workbook (3.7%).

Table 23

Areas the English Language Textbooks Could be Improved

		N		N (%)
Areas for improvement	A	B	C	Total
Provide hardcopies of the teacher‟s book, audio CDs (and supplementary resources)	9	8	4	21 (15.4)
Reduce the amount of content in the textbooks	18	8	8	34 (25)
Combine the student and work book	5			5 (3.7)
Increase the amount of instructions and guidance (teaching methods) in the teacher‟s books along with including class tests	12	14	8	34 (25)
Decrease the number of skills and amount of vocabulary in each lesson	7	5	6	18 (13.3)
Change topics (more relevant) add revision classes and vary the types of exercise for each lesson	11	10	3	24 (17.6)
Total				136 (100)

6.2.3 Areas the English language curriculum could be improved

Table 24 presents the areas supervisors identified the English language curriculum could be improved. It was not unexpected that similar themes would emerge from the teacher comments in Section 5.5.8 to those identified by the supervisors. Table 24 indicates a high percentage (41.7%) of the supervisors suggest the amount of content to be covered in the curriculum should be reduced. 22.6% of the supervisors recommended that additional teaching aids should be provided to complement the curriculum. 10.4 % of the supervisors said more relevant topics should be included in the curriculum and that teachers need more training on using the texts and supplementary material. This suggestion is complemented with 11.3% of the responses reporting that the teacher‟s books should contain more instructions and guidance in teaching the content of the student books. The final area that a small percentage (3.6%) of the supervisors stated could improve the curriculum would be to use one textbook series Kingdom-wide to support the implementation of English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020.

Table 24

Areas the English Language Curriculum Could be Improved

	N			N (%)
Areas for improvement	A	B	C	Total
Change topics (more relevant)	4	5	3	12 (10.4)
Provide additional training on using the textbooks (and supplementary material)	3	5	4	12 (10.4)
Supply additional teaching aids to complement the curriculum	11	8	7	26 (22.6)
Reduce the amount of content to meet the needs of the students	23	13	12	48 (41.7)
Use one textbook Kingdom-wide	2	1	1	4 (3.6)
Increase the amount of instructions and guidance (teaching methods) in the teacher‟s books	5	7	1	13 (11.3)
Total				115 (100)

6.3 Teachers' Training Needs

6.3.1 Would teachers benefit from more textbook and curriculum training?

Differing slightly from the responses of the teachers (Section 5.5.9) where over 95% of the teachers reported teachers would benefit from more textbook and curriculum training. Table 25 shows over 85% of supervisors think teachers would benefit from additional textbook and curriculum training. A very small percentage of supervisors reported that teachers would „definitely not" benefit from additional textbook and curriculum training.

Table 25

Would Teachers Benefit from more Textbook and Curriculum Training?

	N (%)				
Training	Definitely yes	Yes	Maybe	No	Definitely no
Textbook	52 (65)	18 (22.5)	8 (10)	--	2 (2.5)
Curriculum	50 (65.7)	16 (20.3)	10 (12.7)	--	1 (1.3)

6.3.2 Areas of training teachers need to improve their teaching of the English language curriculum

The supervisors (Table 26) and the teachers (Table 20) identified similar areas of training English language teachers needed to improve the teaching of the current curriculum. Training on teaching methods (16.9%) and teaching strategies (16.3%) were identified as the highest training needs. These were followed by training on teaching the four (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) English skills (and grammar) (15.1%). The additional areas supervisors recommended that English language teachers need training on were: (1) English proficiency (12.7%); (2) textbooks and the curriculum (12%); (3) assessing students (11.4%); (4) using technology (9.6%); and (5) classroom management (6%).

Table 26

Teachers' Training Needs

		N		N (%)
Training needs	A	B	C	Total
Using technology	3	3	10	16 (9.6)
English proficiency (including grammar)	14	4	3	21 (12.7)
Teaching strategies	16	8	3	27 (16.3)
Teaching methods	11	10	7	28 (16.9)
Classroom management	2	3	5	10 (6)
Textbooks and the curriculum	8	6	6	20 (12)
Teaching the four skills (and grammar)	5	12	8	25 (15.1)
Assessment	2	10	7	19 (11.4)
Total				166 (100)

6.4 English Language Curriculum Support and Suitability

6.4.1 Constraints on the implementation of the English language curriculum

Table 27 presents the English language supervisors" responses (level of agreement) to a series of statements related to the constraints on the implementation of the English language curriculum. These statements were used to gauge: (1) the suitability of the current curriculum;

(2) if there is the time to cover the curriculum; (3) the teaching and supplementary materials; (4) the support of the Ministry of Education; and (5) if English language teachers‟ have the language competency to implement the curriculum. In addition to four levels of agreement (agree, somewhat agree, somewhat disagree, and disagree) there was a neutral level. Over 80% of the supervisors agreed or somewhat agreed that the English language curriculum is suitable for the students. Approximately 75% of the respondents reported that teachers at elementary level have sufficient time to teach the content in the textbooks. However, the supervisors reported that only 40% of the teachers at intermediate level and 22% of teachers at secondary level had enough time to teach the content in the textbooks. Over 85% of the supervisors reported that teachers find the current teacher‟s books beneficial. Slightly less than 50% of the responses either agreed or somewhat agreed that teachers incorporate the supplementary digital and online resources into their teaching.

54.9% of the supervisors reported that teachers receive support from the Ministry of Education. This finding indicates that increased support for teachers is an area the Ministry needs to address, which was discussed in Chapter 2.7, Curriculum Implementation. However, 63.4% of supervisors reported that the Ministry of Education effectively communicates curriculum changes to teachers. More than 50% of the supervisors reported that teachers lack the English language competency to successfully teach the curriculum. English language teachers‟ lack of English language competency has emerged as a common theme in Chapters 5 and 6 (Sections 5.5.8, 5.5.10, 6.2.1, and 6.3.2).

Table 27

Constraints on the Implementation of the English Language Curriculum

	N (%)			
Constraints	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree
The KSA ELT curriculum is suitable for the students	22 (26.8)	44 (53.7)	13 (15.9)	3 (3.7)
Elementary teachers have enough time to cover everything in the ELT textbooks	28 (34.2)	24 (29.3)	16 (19.5)	12 (14.6)
Intermediate teachers have enough time to cover everything in the ELT textbooks	8 (9.8)	26 (31.7)	35 (42.7)	10 (12.2)
Secondary teachers have enough time to cover everything in the ELT textbooks	3 (3.7)	15 (18.3)	28 (34.2)	31 (37.8)
MoE English language teachers use the digital and online material in their teaching	7 (8.5)	43 (40.2)	26 (31.7)	15 (18.2)
The teacher‟s books are useful for the teachers	54 (65.9)	19 (23.2)	6 (7.3)	2 (2.4)
English language teachers receive support from the MoE	15 (18.3)	30 (36.6)	25 (30.5)	11 (13.4)
The MoE communicates changes to the English language teachers	14 (17.1)	38 (46.3)	15 (18.3)	11 (13.4)
English language teachers have a high enough level of English to teach the KSA ELT Curriculum	4 (4.9)	29 (35.4)	35 (42.7)	10 (12.2)

6.4.2 General comments

The English language supervisors commented that while they thought the English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020 was very good, they recounted the pressing need for ongoing professional development for English language teachers to improve educational outcomes. This view is supported in the works of Yoon, Duncan, Lee, Scarloss, and Shapley (2007), and Polly et

al. (2001) who show that constructive professional development programs for teachers have a positive effect on student outcomes.

6.5 Discussion

The data reported in this chapter produced two significant themes that mirror the findings in Chapter 5. First, the English language supervisors reported the new curriculum to be very effective in terms of prescribed outcomes and detail. However, due to the amount of content to cover, English language teachers struggled to cover all the material in the textbooks, particularly at intermediate level and even more so at secondary level.

The challenge of the amount and level of the material English language teachers are required to cover has been a common theme in Chapters 5 and 6. Has the curriculum document contributed to the textbooks being too rigid and content heavy in their design and application, which has led to a textbook driven approach? Is the curriculum document itself too rigid in what it sees as the function of a curriculum document (Chapter 2.1.1; Chapter 2.3)? The challenge of completing the curriculum materials is compounded by: (1) time constraints; (2) varying student levels and perhaps their motivation; (3) class sizes; and (4) the need for English language teachers‟ English proficiency and pedagogy improvement. The English language supervisors have suggested that more detailed teacher‟s books to provide an increased amount of instruction and guidance to support the teachers so they can implement the curriculum effectively would be beneficial in addressing this problem. While this suggestion could alleviate the problem, it could lead to more rigidity in the delivery of the curriculum.

Chapter 5.6 discussed how my current role is likely to have influenced my positionality and the manner I initially approached my research (Chapter 1.3) and the framing of the survey questions for the teachers. My positional bias associated with my employment has also caused

me to reflect on the questions that were asked in the survey (Appendix Q) distributed to Ministry of Education English language supervisors. In saying this, I again have come to realize that the questions constructed were primarily focused on determining the degree to which teachers were responding to the textbook-driven approach associated with my contracted responsibilities. I now realize that the curriculum implementation by English language teachers and supervisors essentially means adherence to what is defined by the textbooks that support the curriculum‟s enactment. I realize my positional bias could have hindered my consideration for asking more open-ended critically orientated questions that drew into question the curriculum intention, and more importantly, the textbook dependent delivery approach followed by the majority of teachers.

The second theme evident in the data in Chapters 5 and 6 is the perception that not all English language teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia have the pedagogical competency and/or English proficiency to effectively implement the current English language curriculum. This suggests that initial teacher education programs may have a significant role in perpetuating or alleviating this issue. This issue is addressed in Chapter 7.

To address the current identified needs of English language teachers there is the necessity for English proficiency and pedagogy programs for English language teachers Kingdom-wide. Professional development programs for English language teachers correlate with Al-Issa (2011), Kabilan (2007), Khan (2011a, b), and Wiseman and Al-bakr‟s (2013) recognition that teacher improvement through professional development programs have a positive impact on students‟ English language improvement.

6.6 Chapter Summary

In Chapter 5 teachers‟ perceptions of the factors influencing the implementation of the *English Language curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020* were examined. The English language teachers‟ comments indicated that their approach to teaching was textbook dependent and they questioned their English language competency. These perceived inadequacies were major influences on ensuring the intended curriculum became the enacted curriculum. Drawing from these assertions, Chapter 6 sought to draw from English language supervisors‟ comments in order to corroborate the teacher responses from Chapter 5. In all, it was found that the supervisors‟ comments corroborated teachers‟ perceptions.

Overall, Chapters 5 and 6 indicate that language competency and teaching competency constrain the implementation of the current English language curriculum as it is intended. Further the data indicate that the pedagogical approach used is textbook dominated, which contrasts with progressivist curriculum endorsements of the English language curriculum experience students should be experiencing and teachers should deliver. The focus of teachers on textbook reliance gives an indication that the current curriculum materials being used and professional learning approach currently being encouraged foster a textbook reliant English language learning process without enough attention given to more progressivist language acquisition approaches as encouraged by Brown (2007), Nunan (2001, 2015), and Richards (2006).

In summary, these findings from Chapters 5 and 6 indicate that at the heart of the issues challenging curriculum enactment in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is likely to be initial teacher education. This is the focus of the following chapter, Chapter 7.

Chapter 7

New English Language Teachers and Initial Teacher Education Programs

7.1 Introduction

Chapter 7 seeks to answer Research Question 4: What are the challenges that new English language teachers face? Based on these findings, how might these challenges be addressed, especially through initial teacher education? Answering this question was achieved through: (1) Ministry of Education English language supervisors presenting their views on the challenges graduate English language teachers face; and (2) an analysis of the pathway to becoming an English language teacher in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia; and (3) a comparison and contrast with both the pathway to becoming a registered teacher, and the content of initial teacher education programs in Queensland, Australia.

The first section of this chapter presents the quantitative and qualitative results from the second section of the survey (Appendix Q) distributed to and completed by Ministry of Education English language supervisors. The analysis of the quantitative data used the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 22) to summarize the results of the closed survey questions. The qualitative data was coded using the constant comparative method (Glaser, 2008). Following the summarizing and coding of the quantitative and qualitative data, the data were analyzed and described following Braun and Clarke‟s (2006) thematic analysis process.

The second section of this chapter describes the pathway to becoming an English language teacher in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Both the pathway and content of initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia are compared and contrasted with the pathway to becoming a registered teacher and content of initial teacher education programs in Queensland, Australia. The reasoning and justification for using Australian initial teacher

education programs for providing the contrast and comparison was provided in Chapter 1.3 of this thesis. I emphasize, again, that this comparison is based upon my professional doctorate goals to position myself professionally through my study to have a broad international appreciation of initial teacher education programs.

The final section of this chapter seeks to synthesize the challenges new teachers face. It examines how these challenges may be addressed so the pathway from a trainee English language teacher to a graduate English language teacher will enable new English language teachers to have developed the competencies to effectively deliver the *English Language curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020*.

7.2 What Attracts People to the Teaching Profession?

The English language supervisors were provided with a list of benefits teachers have in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and were asked to check the ones on the list they believe attract people to the teaching profession (Table 28). Responses indicated there were some similarities in the responses between males and females such as: (1) helping students; (2) helping the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia; and (3) vacations and hours of work. However, there are some distinct differences. For example, the percentage of female supervisors who reported a passion for teaching (72.4%) and professional development opportunities (31%) was far greater than their male counterparts. This finding is not unexpected as education, along with health, and social work is an area where women thrive in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (Al Rawaf & Simmons, 1991; Hamdan, 2005).

Twenty-five percent of the male supervisors reported a passion for teaching attracted (potential) teachers to the profession, and 16.7% reported that professional development

opportunities was an attraction of the teaching profession. The opposite can be seen for: (1) teacher status (22.2% of males compared to 9.9% of females); (2) job security (77.8% of males in comparison to 55.8% of females); and (3) salary and benefits (75% of male responses compared with 41.4% of female responses) with the male supervisors ranking these areas higher than the female supervisors.

Table 28

What Attracts People to the Teaching Profession?

Attractions	Gender	N (%)
Passion for teaching	Male	9 (25)
	Female	21 (72.4)
Helping the students	Male	6 (16.7)
	Female	6 (20.7)
Helping the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia	Male	6 (16.7)
	Female	7 (24.1)
Teacher status	Male	8 (22.2)
	Female	2 (6.9)
Job security	Male	28 (77.8)
	Female	17 (58.6)
Salary and benefits	Male	27 (75)
	Female	12 (41.4)
Professional development opportunities	Male	6 (16.7)
	Female	9 (31)
Vacations and hours of work	Male	16 (44.4)
	Female	13 (44.8)

7.3 Initial Teacher Education Programs, New Graduates' Weaknesses, Problems, and Required Support

7.3.1 How prepared are new graduates for the classroom?

Table 29 presents the English language supervisors‟ responses (level of agreement) to a series of statements related to new graduates preparedness for the classroom. These statements were used to determine if the content and English language requirements of initial teacher education programs adequately prepare graduates for the classroom. In addition to four levels of

agreement (agree, somewhat agree, somewhat disagree, and disagree) there was a neutral level. The English language supervisors were unanimous in deeming recent graduates as underprepared for the classroom (Table 29) with one exception: Having the skills to incorporate online and digital materials in their teaching. Responses revealed that new graduates have insufficient curriculum and content knowledge, as well as limited knowledge of the role of the Ministry of Education. Data (Table 29) further revealed that initial teacher education programs were not providing graduate teachers with the pedagogical skills and practical experience for the classroom. Additionally, close to 75% of the English language supervisors reported that new graduates do not have a sufficient level of English to teach the curriculum. Aligned with this finding was that over 90% of the responses agreed or somewhat agreed that new graduates need to have achieved a certain level of English proficiency prior to commencing teaching. This finding is confirmed in the writing of Al-Seghayer (2014) and discussed in Section 7.4.

Table 29

How Prepared are New Graduates for the Classroom?

	N (%)			
New graduate preparedness	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree
Universities prepare students to be competent English language teachers	5 (6.8)	22 (29.7)	23 (31.1)	20 (27)
English teaching graduates should have an IELTS 6 or TOEFL iBT 71 before they start teaching	45 (60.8)	24 (32.4)	3 (4.1)	1 (1.4)
Students at universities learn about the KSA ELT curriculum	8 (10.8)	13 (17.6)	23 (31.1)	23 (31.1)
Students at universities know the contents of the ELT textbooks	5 (6.8)	10 (13.5)	24 (32.4)	28 (37.8)
Students at universities are taught practical English teaching skills	6 (8.1)	29 (39.2)	27 (36.5)	11 (14.9)
Students at universities do a lot of practice teaching in their classes with other students	6 (8.1)	17 (23)	27 (36.5)	20 (27)
Students at universities are taught practical English teaching skills	6 (8.1)	23 (31.1)	20 (27)	23 (31.1)
Students at universities do school placement and teaching as part of their course	12 (16.2)	31 (41.9)	19 (25.7)	11 (14.9)
New graduates have a high enough level of English to teach the KSA ELT Curriculum	3 (4.1)	19 (25.7)	30 (40.5)	17 (23)
New graduates know the role of the MoE	4 (5.4)	13 (17.6)	30 (40.5)	21 (28.4)
New graduates have the opportunity for professional development training	9 (12.2)	22 (29.7)	24 (32.4)	16 (21.6)
New graduates are able to use what the studied at university when they teach their classes	6 (8.1)	20 (27)	27 (36.5)	18 (24.3)
New graduates have the skills to use online and digital materials as part of their teaching	10 (13.5)	31 (41.9)	19 (25.7)	13 (17.6)

7.3.2 Additional content that should be included in initial teacher education programs

Based on the findings reported in Table 30, initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia were seen to be lacking the required subject and skill areas. Over 50%

of the responses target teaching skill areas, which need to be included in initial teacher education programs, including: (1) teaching strategies (18%); (2) teaching methods (16%); and (3) teaching the four skills (and grammar) (12.3%). Classroom management (13.8%) and English proficiency (11.6%) were judged to be important inclusions in initial teacher education programs. Additional areas acknowledged for inclusion in initial teacher education programs included: (1) textbooks and curriculum (8%); (2) lesson planning and preparation (7.3%); (3) technology (7.3%); and (4) assessment (5.7%).

Table 30

What Needs to be Included in Initial Teacher Education Programs?

		N		N (%)
Additional content	A	B	C	Total
Classroom management	11	3	5	19 (13.8)
Teaching strategies	10	10	5	25 (18)
Teaching methods	11	8	3	22 (16)
Lesson planning and preparation	3	5	2	10 (7.3)
Technology	--	5	5	10 (7.3)
Teaching the 4 skills (and grammar)	5	5	7	17 (12.3)
English proficiency	12	2	2	16 (11.6)
Textbooks and curriculum	5	5	1	11 (8)
Assessment	--	5	3	8 (5.7)
Total				138 (100)

7.3.3 The weaknesses of new graduates

The identified gaps in knowledge and skills that new graduates have (Table 31) mirror the areas that need to be addressed in initial teacher education programs (Table 30). A lack of English proficiency was identified by slightly more than 30% of respondents as the major weakness of new graduates. This was followed by: (1) teaching methods (18.1%); (2) classroom management (15.9%); and (3) practical experience and competency deficiencies (14.5%). The absence of lesson planning skills (5.8%), lack of passion for teaching (5.8%), how to conduct

assessment implementation (5.8%), and a lack of curriculum and textbook content knowledge (3.6%) were further recognized by the English language supervisors as potential weaknesses new graduates may present with.

Table 31

New Graduates' Weaknesses

	N			N (%)
Weaknesses	A	B	C	Total
Lack of English proficiency	28	7	7	42 (30.4)
Practical experience (and competency)	8	7	5	20 (14.5)
Classroom management skills	9	10	3	22 (15.9)
Lack of curriculum and textbook content knowledge	5	--	--	5 (3.6)
Assessment implementation	--	3	5	8 (5.8)
Lack of passion for teaching	2	2	4	8 (5.8)
No lesson planning skills	2	3	3	8 (5.8)
Lack of teaching methods	5	14	6	25 (18.1)
Total				138 (100)

7.3.4 The problems new graduates face

The data reported in Table 32 shows that with the exception of a lack of support transitioning from a trainee teacher to a graduate teacher (9.4%), the problems that new graduates face when entering the classroom are a result of the requirements of, and content in initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The problems graduates face include: (1) a lack of experience and professional development training (22.7%); (2) classroom management (20.3%); (3) time management and planning (11.1%); (4) minimal curriculum content knowledge (10.9%); (5) teaching large classes (10.2%); (6) insufficient English proficiency (9.4%); and (7) conducting assessment (5.5%). These gaps, consistent throughout Section 7.3, highlight the limited number of pedagogy subjects and practicum

experiences (Table 34) contained in initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Table 32

Problems New Graduates Face

		N		N (%)
Problems	A	B	C	Total
Lack of experience (and training)	14	10	5	29 (22.7)
Time management and planning skills	1	9	5	15 (11.7)
Implementing the curriculum (and textbooks)	9	4	1	14 (10.9)
Classroom management (and students)	13	10	3	26 (20.3)
English proficiency (using English in the classroom)	7	3	2	12 (9.4)
Conducting assessment	1	3	3	7 (5.5)
Teaching large classes	9	3	1	13 (10.2)
Lack of support transitioning from a pre-service teacher to a graduate teacher	3	4	5	12 (9.4)
Total				128 (100)

7.3.5 What should be done to support new graduates when they begin teaching?

The dominant recommendation on the type of support that new graduates working in schools would benefit from is ongoing professional development programs tailored toward building competencies and capacity for classroom teaching (45.2%) (Table 33). Associated with this recommendation was the identified need to provide new graduates with ongoing supervision and support (34.8%), conduct orientation programs (11.3%), and English language proficiency testing (2.6%). A small percentage (4.3%) of English language supervisors suggested providing new graduates with resources to assist them deliver lessons, which could incorporate, "pair work activities, role plays, group work activities, and project work" (Richards, 2006, p. 4). The final area identified by the English language supervisors was the need for cooperation between the Ministry of Education and universities (1.7%) directed toward overcoming the shortcomings in

the content of initial teacher education programs. These shortcomings are discussed further in Section 7.4.

Table 33

Support Needed for New Graduates

		N		N (%)
Support	A	B	C	Total
Professional development	38	10	4	52 (45.2)
Conduct orientation programs	6	6	1	13 (11.3)
Provide supervision and support	11	16	13	40 (34.8)
Cooperation between the MoE and universities	2	--	--	2 (1.7)
English proficiency testing	1	1	1	3 (2.6)
Provide resources	--	4	1	5 (4.3)
Total				115 (100)

7.3.6 Additional recommendations

The additional recommendations English language supervisors provided to advance the preparedness of new graduates to improve their readiness for teaching English were providing new graduates professional development programs and ensuring they have sufficient English language proficiency by using an internationally benchmarked language proficiency test (similar to what was reported in 7.3.5). Respondents further reported that there is a need for alignment and cooperation between the Ministry of Education and universities to ensure graduate teachers have the competencies required to effectively deliver the English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020, in conjunction, with the provision of better facilities for English language teachers.

7.4 Pathways to Becoming an English language teacher in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

The first section of Chapter 7 sought responses from English language supervisors on the preparedness of graduate teachers for the classroom; their weaknesses, strengths, motivations, and the support needed to integrate new graduates into the classroom. Section 2.9 of the literature review provided the background information and an overview of the content of current

initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. It was apparent from Section 2.9 of the literature review and the data in the preceding sections of this chapter that initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia are not adequately preparing graduate English language teachers for the classroom. Section 7.4 presents the process initial teacher education program graduates follow to become an English language teacher at the Ministry of Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Upon graduating their undergraduate degree, perspective (English) teachers are required by the National Centre for Assessment in Higher Education (Qiyas) to pass a standardized exam, the Standards for Teachers Test. This test instrument is divided into two subtests. The first test is the General Test, which covers aspects of education common to all subjects and assesses the following competencies: (1) professional knowledge; (2) enhancing learning; (3) supporting learning; (4) vocational responsibility; and (5) teaching strategies. The second test is the Subject Specialist Test, which encompasses the following competencies: (1) linguistics (20%); (2) applied linguistics/TESOL (34%); (3) language instruction (24%); (4) language assessment (20%); and (5) English literature (2%). Prospective English language teachers need to achieve a minimum score of 50%. Upon passing the Standards for Teachers Test and the Subject Specialist Test candidates are eligible to apply directly to the Ministry of Education for a position as an English language teacher in a government school. This process indicates that Al-Seghayer‟s (2014) assertion (discussed in Section 2.9 of the literature review) that there is not a set of national standards is not entirely correct.

7.5 Pathways to Becoming a Language Teacher in Queensland, Australia

Australia is made up of six states (provinces) and two territories, which have residual legislative authority over education. Teacher registration in Australia is managed by the states. This dissertation uses Queensland as the state of reference where all the information on teacher registration (full and provisional), eligibility requirements, teacher education providers, standards and conduct, professional development, current news, and general information for applicants and employers is detailed on the Queensland College of Teachers website. Included in the information for applicants for teacher registration section of the website is the mutual recognition principle. That is teachers who have current registration issued by an Australian or New Zealand teacher registration authority will have their registration recognized and accepted when applying for registration in Queensland. The mutual recognition principle implies that teacher education processes and registration procedures are the same, or very similar throughout Australia and New Zealand. The exception to this principle is New South Wales where there is no teacher registration authority and therefore eligibility to apply under mutual recognition in Queensland is not available. In New South Wales, prospective teachers apply for accreditation (rather than registration) through the Board of Studies, Teaching, and Educational Standards.

Teachers from abroad seeking employment in any of the Australian states are required to have their qualifications "assessed for comparability of educational levels at Australian bachelor"s degree level or higher against the Australian Qualifications Framework" (Queensland College of Teachers, n.d.a). All overseas teacher registration applicants apart from those from New Zealand, the United Kingdom, Canada, the United States, and the Republic of Ireland are required to achieve an academic IELTS score of 7.5. A score of at least 8 for Speaking and Listening, and a score of at least 7 for Reading and Writing is specified.

A prospective teacher can apply for (provisional) teacher registration in Queensland if they have successfully completed (or are in their final semester) an approved initial teacher education program. These approved teacher education programs are listed on the Queensland College of Teachers website (Queensland College of Teachers, n.d.b). The programs include four year Bachelor of Education programs, Graduate Diploma of Education programs that are completed after a bachelor"s degree, and Master of Teaching and Learning programs completed after a bachelor"s degree. All nationally approved initial teacher education programs must have a minimum of "80 days in undergraduate and double-degree teacher education programs and no fewer than 60 days in graduate-entry programs and consist of supervised and assessed teaching practice undertaken over a substantial and sustained period" (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2015, p. 17).

Prior to 2012, Australian states and territories approved initial teacher education programs. These programs, approved in accordance with Queensland state requirements, are registered and renewed at the national level (Queensland College of Teachers, n.d.b). The Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership is responsible for accrediting programs in accordance with national standards and procedures as a means of standardizing initial teacher education programs throughout Australia.

Australian year 12 high school leavers receive an Australian Tertiary Admissions Rank (ATAR), which is a score out of 100 based on grades and subjects completed. The ATAR score determines what degree programs a student will be eligible to apply for. Queensland has retained its own independent tertiary admissions system; the Overall Position System. The Overall Position System is very similar to the ATAR system in that it shows how a student has performed relevant to all other eligible students. The Overall Position System uses a bell curve

to allocate a numbered score between one and 25; unlike the ATAR system that uses a percentile rank. The Overall Position System in Queensland will be replaced by the ATAR system from 2018.

Queensland (and all Australian) higher education providers set their own entry score requirements. A combination of factors determines how a university sets its ATAR entry scores: (1) university ranking; (2) demand for the course; (3) location (rural or city); and (4) demographics. There are alternative ATAR score entry pathways including work experience and qualifying courses.

International students who pursue initial undergraduate teacher education programs in Queensland need to have met the academic entry requirements, with these eligibility requirements varying across students‟ country of origin. Saudi Arabian students for example need to have satisfactorily completed one year of study at an approved higher education institution or an approved Australian Foundation program. Only programs recognized by Australian Education International or UK Naric (National Agency for the Recognition and Comparison of International Qualifications and Skills) qualify. To apply for undergraduate and post graduate teacher education programs international students require academic IELTS 7.5 with no score lower than 8.0 in speaking and listening, and no score below 7.0 in reading and writing. This application IELTS score prerequisite aligns with Queensland College of Teachers application for teacher registration.

English is not the first language for Saudi Arabian Ministry of Education English language teachers so it is important to examine both the pathway and teacher education requirements for people who would like to teach a language other than English in Queensland, Australia. Prospective teachers of languages other than English in Queensland are required to

complete a three year Bachelor of Arts degree in a language currently taught in Queensland state schools: (1) Chinese; (2) French; (3) German; (4) Indonesian; (5) Italian; (6) Japanese; (7) Korean; or (8) Spanish. The Bachelor of Arts language major degree is followed by a Graduate Diploma of Education or a Master of Teaching and Learning. There are no language entry requirements or tests for either domestic or international students who would like to study a language other than English at a Queensland higher education provider. However, international students have to meet the English language requirements of academic IELTS 6.0 (no component lower than 5.5).

Students studying a language other than English at James Cook University, Queensland, Australia, for example, are required to take eight language subjects during their undergraduate degree. Students need to complete and pass summative and formative assessments demonstrating natural environment language use and understanding. Following the completion of a Bachelor of Arts degree, prospective teachers complete a Graduate Diploma of Education or Master of Teaching and Learning to be eligible to apply for provisional teacher registration. It is during this application stage where prospective teachers need to demonstrate proficiency in a language other than English. In Queensland the assessment can take up to 100 minutes consisting of three components: (1) a short written task; (2) a conversation between the applicant and the panel members; and (3) a reading exercise that requires the applicant to read and discuss a text in their nominated language. Assessments are conducted by a panel comprising a minimum of two people, at least one of whom is very experienced in the use of the specific language (Queensland Government, Department of Education and Training, 2017). If an applicant receives an inadequate rating (the other ratings are excellent, very good, and adequate) the applicant will not be eligible for employment as a foreign language teacher in a Queensland

state school. Due to the robust composition of the test this assessment provides more validity and reliability in an applicant‟s language proficiency and capability than what perspective English language teachers are required to achieve prior to applying to the Ministry of Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

A point of contention with initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi is the lack of placement or practicum in the Bachelor of English and Translation degrees (Appendix C). While other teacher education programs (Appendices D and E) have a practical component in the final semester of the fourth year the quality, time, and supervision of the practicum and outcomes vary. The practicum requirement for trainee teachers differs depending on the teaching pathway prospective teachers follow in both the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and Queensland. Compared with the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia the supervision and assessment of trainee teachers is far more structured in Queensland as is the alignment between the Department of Education, higher education providers, schools, and supervising teachers so as to ensure trainee teachers are prepared for provisional teacher registration. The same can be said for the amount of pedagogy embedded in the initial teacher education pathways in Queensland in comparison to the lack of pedagogy courses present in initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (see Table 34).

Australian states are moving towards requiring prospective teachers to complete a Master of Teaching and Learning to give graduate teachers greater in-depth study as trainee teachers and longer, more structured practicum placements in addition to providing perspective teachers with a bachelor‟s degree with a pathway to change careers. The Professional Standards for Teachers and Teacher Education Program accreditation, designed by the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, require that all initial teacher education graduate programs move to two

year qualifications (Brown & Arlington, 2012; Schriever, 2013). Complementing the move towards post graduate teaching qualifications is the phasing out of Graduate Diploma of Education programs in Queensland from 2017. This is evident in Queensland where there are an increasing number of Master of Teaching and Learning teacher education programs offered by higher education providers (Queensland College of Teachers, n.d.b).

7.6 Comparison of Initial Teacher Education Programs in Queensland, Australia, and the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Table 34 provides a comparison of initial teacher education programs in Queensland, Australia with the reference institution being James Cook University, and initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (Appendices C, D, and E). Table 34 clearly highlights that the initial teacher education programs at James Cook University, Queensland, Australia are dominated by teaching specific and pedagogy subjects coupled with sustained and comprehensive practicum. The opposite can be seen in initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, which are dominated by language proficiency and theoretical subjects. The content of initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is not dissimilar to the content of the Bachelor of Modern Languages at James Cook University. The distinction between initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and of the Bachelor of Modern Languages at James Cook University is that in order to apply for teacher registration in Queensland one needs to have first completed a Bachelor of Modern Languages followed by either a Graduate Diploma of Education or a Master of Teaching and Learning.

Table 34 - *Comparison of Initial Teacher Education Programs in Queensland, Australia, and the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*

	Initial teacher education programs						
	James Cook University, Queensland, Australia				Kingdom of Saudi Arabia		
Requisite	JCU1	JCU2	JCU3	JCU4	KSA1	KSA2	YUC
Entry requirements (from secondary school)	year 12 (math and chemistry bridging subjects maybe necessary)	bachelor"s degree in a field other than education	bachelor"s degree in an area linked to the national curriculum	year 12 and if necessary a diploma higher education	year 12 plus entry exams	year 12 plus entry exams	year 12 plus entry exams
English language	IELTS for international students				foundation program or test		
Program length (years)	4	1	1.5	3	4	4	4
Semesters	8	2	4	6	8	8	8
Practicum	80 days	80 days	80 days plus 20 days observation (plus optional 4 week internship)	--	30 hours	--	30 hours
Pedagogy and teaching subjects	28	6	10	--	--	--	8
Language proficiency subjects	--	--	--	8	12	16	14
Linguistics subjects	--	--	--	--	6	5	13
Translation subjects	--	--	--	--	16	5	3
Other subjects	--	--	--	16	9	38	11
Total subjects	32	8	16	24	44	64	50
Able to apply for teacher registration	✓	✓	✓	requires JCU 2 or JCU 3	✓	✓	✓
External language test	IELTS 7.5 for reg. for international students			✓	✓	✓	✓
External professional knowledge test	From 1 July 2016, all students need to pass a literacy and numeracy test prior to graduating.			X	✓	✓	✓

Key: JCU1 Bachelor of Education (primary); JCU2 Graduate Diploma of Education (secondary); JCU3 Master of Teaching and Learning (primary) (fast track 4 semesters); JCU4 Bachelor of Arts in Modern Languages (Japanese); KSA1 Appendix C; KSA2 Appendix D; YUC Appendix E

7.7 Addressing the Short Comings of Initial Teacher Education Programs in the Kingdom of Saudi of Arabia

This chapter has identified the short comings of initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, which emerged from the surveys completed by English language supervisors and an analysis of current initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom. Content exposure and mastery, English language entry and exit requirements, practicum opportunities and duration, and foundational pedagogical and teaching specific subjects were identified as the areas requiring attention in initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. These findings suggest that a solution could be to align initial teacher education programs with the in-service requirements and needs articulated in both the *Professional Standards for English Teachers* (2013) and *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020*. In brief, initial teacher education programs and the qualification of graduate teachers needs to better aligned with the professional requirements of in-service teachers.

An international study reports, "the more time a future teacher spends practicing in schools, the stronger the impact on his or her pedagogical learning" (Ingvarson, et al., 2013, p. 32). This mindset supports the recommendation that the practical component of initial teacher education bachelor"s degrees should not be limited to the second semester of the final year of initial teacher education programs and should be introduced earlier in initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia so as to develop trainee teachers" pedagogical skills.

It remains to be seen how tertiary education providers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia will be able to re-design initial teacher education programs to ensure pre-service teachers can make a successful transition into the classroom without input from Ministry of Education

English language supervisors and teachers, and higher education providers and a range of academics. Sections 2.3 and 2.4.1.1discuss and highlight the importance of having a combination of practitioners and specialists contributing to the curriculum construction process (Unruh & Unruh, 1984; Marsh & Willis, 2007; Sims & Sims, 1995; Ekanem & Ekefre, 2014). Depending on the structure of the merger of the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Higher Education there may not be a more opportune time to reform initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

A shortcoming of initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi of Arabia reported in the survey (Sections: 7.3.1, 7.3.2, 7.3.3, 7.3.4, and 7.3.6) is the level of English that perspective English language teachers have when both entering and exiting their program. To address this disquiet an internationally benchmarked test could be used, which has been mapped to IELTS/CEFR equivalency as a pre-requisite entry requirement and an academic IELTS test could be used as the exit test.

7.8 Summary

The purpose of this chapter has been to identify the challenges Ministry of Education English language supervisors recognize that new English language teachers face. Then, based on the identified challenges the chapter examined how they might be addressed, especially through initial teacher education programs. The first section of the chapter examined the quantitative and qualitative results from the second section of the survey (Appendix Q) completed by Ministry of Education English language supervisors. The second section of the chapter analyzed the pathway to becoming an English language teacher in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia through a content analysis of current initial teacher education programs offered within the Kingdom and becoming a graduate English language teacher at the Ministry of Education. The content of initial teacher

education programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia were compared with initial teacher education programs at James Cook University along with the pathway to becoming a registered teacher in Queensland, Australia. I recognize there is some possible contestation in this comparison, but ground this decision in my professional doctorate to be become conversant with cross-country program, content, and document analysis and to be able to provide research informed recommendations. Findings revealed a significant theme; new graduates in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, in comparison, are likely not adequately prepared for the classroom. They lack pedagogy skills and classroom management techniques, require higher levels of English proficiency, have insufficient knowledge of the curriculum and textbooks, and do not have sufficient practical classroom experience and competency. This was attributed to a range of factors. First, the language proficiency requisites of initial teacher education programs and application to the Ministry of Education are not stringent enough. The proficiency test used is not internationally benchmarked and consequently is not as valid or reliable as the IELTS, contributing to low levels of English proficiency among English language teachers. This deficiency is consistent with the findings reported in Chapters 5 and 6.

The second factor impacting the competency of graduate teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is re-counted in the current content of initial teacher education programs. The limited amount of pedagogy content, curriculum subjects, and subjects applicable to teaching, contribute to graduate English language teachers being underprepared for the classroom. This shortcoming is compounded by an inconsistency with some initial teacher education programs not having a practical component, and with the programs that contain a practical component there is no evidence of university personnel or Ministry of Education English language

supervisors consistently visiting, supporting, and assessing trainee teachers during the practicums.

It is likely that a contributing factor affecting the ability of graduate teachers has been the lack of alignment, partnership, and integration between the Ministry of Education and the (previous) Ministry of Higher Education. There has been a lack of communication and perhaps cooperation between the universities responsible for training teachers, and the Ministry of Education responsible for employing skilled teachers to educate students, resulting in new English language teacher graduates not being prepared for the classroom.

Chapter 8

Conclusions and Future Directions

8.1 Introduction

The aim of this thesis focused on an examination of the *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020* in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and the intentions and tensions in curriculum design and enactment. It sought to understand, from a historical perspective, the focus of more recent curriculum developments. It also sought to establish, through surveys completed by Ministry of Education English language teachers and supervisors, what the teachers‟ concerns around the reform imperatives are, and if and how the associated professional development activities are addressing teachers identified needs in delivering the current curriculum. Additionally, the study sought to determine any shortcomings of current graduate English language teachers and to determine the factors contributing to the unpreparedness of graduate English language teachers for the classroom.

Chapter 8 presents the findings and conclusions of the four-phase case study drawing from the document and content analysis, data collection, and discussion sections addressed over Chapters 4, 5, 6, and 7. These findings synthesized in Section 8.2 set the direction for recommended future next moves in the implementation of current English language curriculum in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Section 8.3 encompasses the potential limitations of this research, in conjunction with outlining opportunities for further research as an extension of this project.

8.2 Findings and Conclusions

The examination of the background of the establishment and development of the English language education in Chapter 1 provided the context and justification for the study, including an overview of my current role and how it has likely influenced my positionality and the manner I approached my research. Additionally, it provided a chronology of the development of English language teaching (and education in general) from the unification of the Arabian Peninsula and the birth of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in 1932. The background on reform efforts and tensions associated with education reform, in conjunction with the unique nature of the customs and culture, and the influence and importance of family and religion in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia were provided in this chapter.

Chapter 2 along with providing definitions of curriculum, types of curriculum, and curriculum development and evaluation processes presented an array of relevant literature pertaining to the research focus of this thesis. Content focused on the influences and tensions associated with curriculum processes, especially curriculum reform in Middle Eastern and Islamic countries and what the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia can learn from the experiences garnered from other countries. The experiences of other countries showed the link between curriculum implementation and the importance of professional development for teachers to support curriculum implementation.

The literature review examined and provided an understanding of the orientations and foundations of curriculum. This review provided the background to answer Research Question 1: What are the current Saudi Arabian English language teaching reform goals, and how do these compare to previous English language curriculum reforms and what curriculum theory positions inform these reforms? The document analysis of the curriculum and supporting documents,

presented in Chapter 4 used Eisner‟s (1985) orientations to curriculum as the model to analyze the documents. The analysis of the three curriculum documents: *English Language Syllabus* (1970); *Goals of English Language Teaching* (2005); and *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020* showed that, compared to preceding curriculum documents, the intent of the English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020 is more clearly defined. That is, there was evidence in the current curriculum towards explicit curriculum intention, suggesting that the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is, consciously, trying to define itself through a well-articulated identification of curriculum intent. Although the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is open to different ideas and influences, a key priority remains ensuring that educational practices are consistent with Islamic beliefs. This theme was evident in the English language teachers‟ and supervisors‟ responses in Chapters 5 and 6, and also in the content of initial education programs (Appendices C, D, and E) in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. While neoliberal globalization influences are clearly evident in the current curriculum, the current curriculum demonstrates the "intense historical, political, racial, gendered, phenomenological, autobiographical, aesthetic, theological, and international nature of curriculum" (Pinar et al., 1995, pp. 847-848) in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia as it strives to diversify its economy from a reliance on oil to a knowledge-based society.

The neoliberal globalization influences on the role education in fostering economic development were clearly evident in the supporting documents that were analyzed: (1) *Professional Standards for English teachers* (2013); (2) *Ninth Development Plan (2010 - 2014)*; and (3) *What Matters Most to Saudi Arabia's Youth? Helping Policy Makers Address the National Challenges* (2014). These documents demonstrate evidence of a nation clearly trying to define itself (Pinar et al., 1995) nationality, regionally, and internationally in an ever increasingly

globalized world. The current curriculum and supporting documents demonstrate the intention of the Kingdom to align education to economic output, Saudization of the workforce, and transforming both; the economy through diversification from oil; and graduating students into creative thinkers with entrepreneurial capability as the Kingdom strives to broaden its economy through improved educational outcomes. International research (Hanushek & Wößmann, 2007; Maroun et al., 2008; Schwab & Sala-i-Martín, 2015) shows improved critical thinking skills and the development of creativity in students as essential elements that drive and develop economies.

Research Question 2: What do English language teachers identify as the contributors and impediments to the enactment of the current reform agenda in English language teaching? and Research Question 3: What are the professional development needs of English language teachers? were the focus of Chapters 5 and 6. While the current curriculum is clearly defined, this thesis identified English language teachers (Chapter 5) and English language supervisors (Chapter 6) concerns around the reform imperatives and the associated professional development activities. Chapters 5 and 6 examined whether the professional development programs for teachers are addressing teachers‟ identified needs and what the gaps are in teacher‟s competencies to successfully implement the *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020*. The data from Chapters 5 and 6 revealed that teachers‟ pedagogy skills gaps and English proficiency levels are limiting the successful teaching of the current curriculum. There is the need to address further identified challenges to improve teaching and learning outcomes: (1) English proficiency of teachers; (2) teachers‟ pedagogy skills; (3) the amount of content that needs to be covered (particularly evident at secondary level); (4) low student motivation and

homework completion rates; (5) class sizes; and (6) the amount of lesson planning and preparation teachers do.

The research then progressed to determine the possible role that teacher education has influenced the reform efforts through Research Question Four: What are the challenges that new English language teachers face? Based on these findings how might these challenges be addressed, especially through initial teacher education? The content analysis (Chapter 2.9 and Chapter 7) of initial teacher education programs (Appendices C, D, and E) demonstrated that the problems that teachers encounter with the implementation of the current curriculum likely stem from initial teacher education programs in the Kingdom. These challenges have been associated with: (1) minimal or a lack of practicum; (2) minimal pedagogy or teaching related subjects; and (3) no internationally benchmarked English proficiency test (as an entry or exit requirement). In addition to the content analysis, the challenges graduate teachers face when entering the classroom were examined through surveys completed by English language supervisors. The identified problems correlate with the challenges English language teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia encounter. The survey responses of the English language supervisors indicated that English language teacher graduates lack knowledge of the curriculum, current pedagogies and other teaching and learning strategies, and have insufficient English proficiency levels to successfully teach English language. Chapter 7 also looked at the support mechanisms and in-service training programs new English language teachers require, which would assist new graduates transitioning to the classroom with the ability to deliver the current English language curriculum as intended.

Continuing professional development programs targeting English language proficiency and pedagogy skill development would likely address the challenges English language teachers

and graduate teachers face. However, as international research (Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris, & Hopkins 2006; The Wallace Foundation, 2013) shows, the success of professional development programs for Saudi Arabian English language teachers is dependent on the support of school leaders. Leithwood et al. (2006) go on to further identify the influence of school leadership on student learning as second to classroom teaching. The Wallace Foundation (2013) supports Leithwood et al.‟s (2006) research and asserts that the principal is responsible for "shaping a vision of academic success for all students, one based on high standards, cultivating leadership in others and improving instruction to enable teachers to teach at their best and students to learn to their utmost" (p. 6). Both Leithwood et al. (2006) and the Wallace Foundation (2013) support Algarni and Male‟s (2014) findings on how education could be improved in the Kingdom of Saudi through up-skilling educational leaders. Algarni and Male (2014) state, "Saudi education could be enhanced if the Ministry of Education were to offer training on pedagogical leadership for educational leaders" (p. 55). This training would provide leaders with more freedom and encourage creativity to exercise their skills and influence in the era of economic globalization. Evidence in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia where educational leadership training has been provided is through Tatweer Schools where innovative teaching solutions are employed, student outcomes are high, and students enjoy doing their homework (Alyami, 2014).

The *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020* is deemed to be a clearly defined document; however, teachers face challenges implementing this curriculum. The Kingdom of Saudi of Arabia is addressing the identified challenges through professional development programs and English proficiency programs. There is still a lot more to be done in this nation

"where approximately two-thirds of the population (13 million people) are under the age of 30, making the Kingdom much younger than most countries" (Boston Consulting Group, 2014, p. 3). There are a range of measures that could be considered by the Ministry of Education to assist in addressing the challenges that English language teachers and supervisors (Chapters 5, 6, and 7), and the content analysis (Chapter 7) identified that teachers encounter in enacting the current curriculum as intended. These recommendations have been identified in three areas:

1. English language teachers – provide professional development programs (pedagogy and proficiency) aligned with teachers" identified needs. Aligned with this recommendation is the potential introduction of a pathway to testing for English language teachers to meet an English language proficiency requirement.
2. Initial teacher education programs and trainee teachers – introduce guidelines and requirements for the registration of initial teacher education programs offered at universities in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia including practicum and English proficiency (entry and exit levels) requisites. Such an initiative would contribute to addressing the identified challenges graduate English language teachers face.
3. Curriculum and textbook challenges – reduce the amount of content in the textbooks to allow teachers to enact the curriculum as the current curriculum document prescribes; that is in a student centered communicative approach rather than a textbook driven method. Kingdom-wide assessments could be considered at key grade levels to assess students" language proficiency and improvement but more importantly the success of the curriculum and its implementation.

8.3 Opportunities for Further Research

This study provides opportunities for further research. These opportunities have been identified in three areas: (1) the limitations of this study; (2) extension of this study; and (3) the strengths of this study.

A limitation of this study was my positionality in my professional role, and how it regulated, from a task-oriented perspective, the manner I initially approached my work, and subsequently, my research. Upon reflection, I did not investigate how a broader understanding of how curriculum enactment can be strongly influenced by the development of textbooks, and teachers‟ interpretation, or perhaps a directive to not only teach from the textbook but also to complete the textbook within a prescribed time. Broader qualitative questions could have been asked to investigate how the textbooks are influencing – maybe even constraining - the delivery of the current curriculum and if future textbooks need to be used, even at all, to encourage a more progressive approach to English language teaching and learning. Studies encompassing all educational directorates in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia could be carried out to investigate the influence the textbooks are having on the delivery of the current curriculum, along with the level of support and awareness English language teachers and supervisors have for the current curriculum and associated reform goals.

The primary objective of the English language teaching reform is to improve Saudi Arabian students‟ English language competency and acquisition. This provides a second limitation of the study in conjunction with an opportunity for further research. While this research included English language teachers‟ and supervisors‟ opinions on student improvement through the training initiatives, it did not include a study on baseline student targeted English language levels (Appendix A) and/or students‟ improvement from the implementation of new

pedagogical approaches. This data would add depth and measure student outcomes (Appendix A), and determine the success of current professional development initiatives. Related to this point is that there have been no monitored classroom observations of teaching practices throughout the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. This would have allowed a qualitative comparison prior to teachers commencing in-service training programs and during and upon completion of in-service training programs.

Building on the current findings of this study and the changing landscape in the goals and vision of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia there is the scope for further research in three identified areas.

1. A contrast and comparison of professional development programs for English language teachers provided in the private school sector. This could be connected to student outcomes to determine which sector and its associated training and support mechanisms have more influence on English language curriculum enactment.
2. The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia released two high level policy documents in 2016: (1) the *National Transformation Program 2020*; and (2) the *Saudi Vision 2030* (which in essence have superseded the development plans). Both documents have ambitious goals aimed at furthering Saudization, reducing government spending, reforming government, developing industries aside from oil, and enhancing the move towards to knowledge-based society. The substantial role that education plays in achieving these goals is outlined in the documents. There are multiple qualitative and quantitative studies that could be conducted with the implementation of these plans and the educational objectives presented in these plans. For example, researching to determine if the educational

objectives in the *National Transformation Program 2020* and the *Saudi Vision 2030* are being achieved through initiatives implemented to achieve these goals.

3. Comparative studies with Gulf Cooperation Council Countries could be conducted to examine: (1) English proficiency levels of teachers and students; (2) professional development programs for teachers; (3) English language curricula and English lessons per week; (4) a content analysis of initial teacher education programs including language proficiency entry and exit requirements, and the teacher registration and application processes; and (5) the financial investment in education by country. Such a study would provide a regional analysis that would identify common deficiencies in the English language education and individual successes that could be replicated regionally.

The research methods employed in this thesis could serve as a model for the analysis of past, current, and future curricula in any subject area from early childhood education through to and encompassing higher education. The research questions and surveys would only need to be adapted dependent on curricula area and level of schooling. In essence this thesis provides the tools and methodology to conduct training needs analyses across school levels, and the framework to analyze curricula.

8.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter outlined the overall conclusions from the study and provided recommendations to address the challenges teachers and graduate teachers face based on these conclusions. Drawing from the data collected, analyzed, and discussed in this thesis, conclusions were made about the success of the implementation of the current *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020*. The conclusions also highlighted challenges teachers continue to face with

the teaching of the English Language Curriculum 2014 - 2020, which stem from initial teacher education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, and the reasons why teachers continue to face challenges despite the provision of professional development activities. Suggestions for further research have been provided that can be built upon from the results and conclusions of this study.

It is envisaged that this thesis will make a significant and positive contribution to English language teaching reform and improvement in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia as the Kingdom seeks to define itself nationally, regionally, and internationally. For significant and positive contributions to be achieved it is suggested that the recommendations presented in this chapter are considered and introduced in a manner that benefits and supports improved English language outcomes and proficiency levels throughout the Kingdom.

This research journey enabled me to understand curriculum as a deeply personal and dynamic phenomenon, strongly influenced by the environmental, stakeholders, and personal influences, especially in its design and enactment. These complex and fascinating facets of curriculum have provided me with insight into and awareness of the tensions associated with the intentions of curriculum. As a researcher I was able to reflect on my initial positionality, which influenced the way I initially approached my research through both my role and perhaps my preconceived ideas of not only the influence that curriculum materials play in dictating curriculum enactment, but what curriculum is; that is, an ongoing process and a live document that needs to be constantly open to review and contestation and not confined by authorities that seek to author the work of teachers through textbook prescription.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Correlations of grades, CEFR levels and International Examinations, Teaching Time, and Vocabulary (adapted from *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Grades 4 – 12, 2014 – 2020*)

Grade	CEFR level	International examinations	Hours	Vocabulary
12	B2+	FCE (Cambridge ESOL) / Michigan ECCE IELTS 4.5, approaching 5 TOEFL 400 approaching 500 TOEFL iBT 87-109	130	Approximately 4,000 words
11	B1.2/B2.1	PET (Cambridge ESOL)	130	Approximately 3,300 words
10	B1.1		130	Approximately 2,800 words
9	A2.2/B1.1	KET (Cambridge ESOL)	130	Approximately 2,200 words
8	A2.1		130	Approximately 1,650 words
7	A1.2		130	Approximately 1,100 words
6	A1.1	YLE Movers (Cambridge ESOL)	65	Approximately 750 words
5	Leading to A1	YLE Starter (Cambridge ESOL)	65	Approximately 500 words
4	Leading to A1		65	Approximately 250 words

Appendix B

Overview of Initial English Language Teacher Education Programs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (Sourced from university websites and the Ministry of Education website)

Name of university	Qualification (4 years)
Taibah University (Al Madinah)	BA of Language and Translation
Taif University (Makkah)	BA of Language, Literature, Translation
Umm Al-Qura University (Makkah)	BA of English
King Saud University (Riyadh)	BA of English Language and Literature BA of English and Translation
Princess Nora bint Abdulrahman University (Riyadh)	BA of English Literature and Arts BA of English and Translation
Al- Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (Riyadh)	BA of English Literature and Arts
Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University (Al Kharj)	BA of English Language and Literature
Prince Sultan University (females) (Riyadh)	BA of Arts (Literature) BA of Arts (Translation)
Dar Al Uloom University (Riyadh)	BA of English
Al Majmaah University (Riyadh)	BA of English
Qassim University (Buraydah Community College)	BA of English
University of Hail	BA of English
King Faisal University (Al Hassa)	BA of English
University of Tabuk	BA of English Language and Translation
Fahd bin Sultan University (Tabuk)	BA of English Language and Translation
Yanbu University College	BA of Applied Linguistics
Al Baha University	BA of English Language and Literature
Al Jouf University	BA of English Language and Literature BA of Linguistics and Translation
Northern Borders University	BA of English Language and Literature
University of Dammam	BA of English Literature and Arts
King Khalid University (Asir)	BA of English Language
King Abdul Aziz University (Jeddah)	BA of English Language
Effat University (Female) (Jeddah)	BA of English and Translation – Linguistics BA of English and Translation – Literature
Najran University	BA of English Literature and Arts BA of English and Translation
Jazan University	BA of English
Arab Open University (Riyadh, Jeddah, Dammam, Al Ahsa, Al Madinah Al Monawwarah, Hail)	BA of English Language and Literature

Appendix C

Bachelor of English and Translation

Year one first level		
Subject	Contact hours	Credit hours
Islamic culture (1)	2	2
English Language (1)	3	3
Listening and Speaking (1)	3	3
Reading	3	3
Writing(1)	3	3
Grammar (1)	3	3
Total	17	17
Year one second level		
Subject	Contact hours	Credit hours
Arabic Composition	2	2
Listening and Speaking (2)	3	3
Writing(2)	3	3
Grammar (2)	3	3
Dictionary Skills	4	4
English Language (2)	3	3
Total	18	18
Year two third level		
Subject	Contact hours	Credit hours
Islamic Culture (2)	2	2
Oral Skills for Interpreters	3	3
Advanced Writing	3	3
Language Skills	2	2
Introduction to Linguistics	3	3
Introduction to Semantics	3	3
Optional Course (1)	-	2
Total	16	18
Year two fourth level		
Subject	Contact hours	Credit hours
Islamic Culture (3)	2	2
Applied Syntax and Morphology	2	2
Introduction to Stylistics	3	3
Discourse Analysis	3	3
Introduction to Translation	4	3
Department Elective(1)	-	3
Optional Course (2)	-	3
Total	14	19

Year three fifth level		
Subject	Contact hours	Credit hours
Islamic Culture (4)	2	2
Translation Issues and Problems	3	3
Translation in Humanities	5	4
Selected Translations (1)	5	4
Applied Rhetoric	2	2
Department Elective (2)	-	3
Total	17	18
Year three sixth level		
Subject	Contact hours	Credit hours
Consecutive Translation	5	4
Translation in Science and Technology	5	4
Computer Assisted Translation (CAT)	4	3
Department Elective (3)	-	3
Optional Course(3)	-	3
Total	14	17
Year four seventh level		
Subject	Contact hours	Credit hours
Simultaneous Translation	5	4
Terminology and Arabization	3	3
Selected Translations (2)	5	4
Summary Translation	3	3
Statistics	4	3
Total	20	17
Year four eighth level		
Subject	Contact hours	Credit hours
Graduation Project	6	3
Practical Training	30	6
Total	36	9

Key: 1. Practicum 2. Methodology and teaching subjects 3. Language proficiency subjects 4. Linguistics subjects 5. Translation subjects 6. Other subjects

Appendix D

Bachelor of English Literature

Year one first level		
Subject	Contact Hours	Credit Hours
Grammar (1)	3	2
Reading Comprehension (1)	3	2
Essays (1)	3	2
Listening and Speaking (1)	3	2
Introduction to Prose	2	2
Arabic Language (1)	2	2
Islamic Culture (1)	2	2
Total	18	14

Year one second level		
Subject	Contact Hours	Credit Hours
Grammar (2)	3	2
Reading Comprehension (2)	3	2
Essays (2)	3	2
Listening and Speaking (2)	3	2
Introduction to Plays	2	2
Introduction to Poetry	2	2
Arabic Language (2)	2	2
Holy Quran	2	2
Total	20	16

Year two third level		
Subject	Contact Hours	Credit Hours
Listening and Speaking (3)	2	2
Reading Comprehension (3)	3	2
Essays (3)	3	2
Principles of Translation (1)	2	2
History of English Literature (1)	2	2
Jacobean and Elizabethan Theater	2	2
Islamic Culture (2)	2	2
Thinking Skills Development	4	2
Total	20	16

Year two fourth level		
Subject	Contact Hours	Credit Hours
Applied Linguistics (1)	3	2
Reading Comprehension (4)	2	2
Essays (4)	3	2
Principles of Translation (2)	2	2
Elizabethan and Augustan Poetry	3	2
18th Century Fiction	3	2
Introduction to Computers	4	2
Holy Quran	2	2
Health Culture (1)	2	2
Total	24	18

Year three fifth level		
Subject	Contact Hours	Credit Hours
Applied Linguistics (2)	2	2
Translation (3)	2	2
Essays (5)	3	2
Romantic Poetry	3	2
19th Century Fiction	3	2
Shakespeare	2	2
Literary Critique (1)	2	2
History of English Literature (2)	2	2
Holy Quran	2	2
Total	21	18
Year three sixth level		
Subject	Contact Hours	Credit Hours
Applied Linguistics (3)	3	2
Translation (4)	2	2
Essays (6)	3	2
Victorian Poetry	2	2
19th Century Fiction (2)	3	2
Restoration Era and 18th Century Theater	3	2
Literary Critique (2)	4	2
Total	20	14
Year four seventh level		
Subject	Contact Hours	Credit Hours
Applied Linguistics (4)	3	2
Translation (5)	2	2
20th Century Poetry (1)	3	2
20th Century Theater (1)	3	2
20th Century Fiction (1)	3	2
American Literature	2	2
Literary Critique (3)	2	2
Research Methodology	2	2
Holy Quran	2	2
Total	22	18
Year four eighth level		
Subject	Contact Hours	Credit Hours
Applied Linguistics (5)	3	2
History of English Language	2	2
20th Century Poetry	3	2
20th Century Theater	3	2
20th Century Fiction	3	2
Translated International English Literature	3	2
Literary Critique (4)	2	2
Total	19	14

Key: 1. Practicum 2. Methodology and teaching subjects 3. Language proficiency subjects 4. Linguistics subjects 5. Translation subjects 6. Other subjects

Appendix E

Bachelor of Science in Applied Linguistics - Yanbu University College

Year one first level		
Subject	Contact Hours	Credit Hours
English Language Skills I (L)	3	1
English Language Skills I (S)	3	1
English Language Skills I (R)	5	5
English Language Skills I (W)	5	5
Essay Writing	3	3
Introduction to Statistics	2	2
Islamic Ideology & Thought	2	2
Phy. Education - I	2	1
Total	25	20

Year one second level		
Subject	Contact Hours	Credit Hours
English Language Skills II (L)	3	1
English Language Skills II (S)	3	1
English Language Skills II (R)	5	5
English Language Skills II (W)	5	5
English for Academic Purposes	3	3
Functional Grammar	2	2
Phy. Education - II	2	1
Total	23	18

Year two third level		
Subject	Contact Hours	Credit Hours
Linguistics I	3	3
Phonetics and Phonology I	3	3
English Grammar I	4	4
English Morphology	3	3
Work Ethics in Islam	2	2
Total	15	15

Year two fourth level		
Subject	Contact Hours	Credit Hours
Linguistics II	3	3
Phonetics and Phonology II	3	3
English Grammar II	4	4
English Syntax	4	4
Objective Writing	2	2
Library Info Services	2	2
Total	18	17

Year three fifth level		
Subject	Contact Hours	Credit Hours
Intro. to App. Linguistics	3	3
History of the English Language	2	2
Psycholinguistics	3	3
Sociolinguistics	3	3
Semantics	3	3
Human Rights in Islam	2	2
Total	16	16
Year three sixth level		
Subject	Contact Hours	Credit Hours
Introduction to Translation	2	2
Educational Psychology	2	2
TEFL Methodology I	3	3
Language Acquisition	3	3
Contrastive Linguistics	2	2
Arabic Communication	2	2
Elective I	2	2
Total	16	16
Year four seventh level		
Subject	Contact Hours	Credit Hours
Research Methods in Linguistics	2	2
Educational Technology	3	2
Syllabus Design	2	2
TEFL Methodology II	3	3
Practical Translation	3	3
Elective II	2	2
Total	15	14
Year four eighth level		
Subject	Contact Hours	Credit Hours
Simultaneous Interpreting	3	2
EFL Materials Preparation	4	3
Language Testing	3	3
Supervised Practicum	3	3
Senior Project	3	3
Total	16	14

Key: 1. Practicum 2. Methodology and teaching subjects 3. Language proficiency subjects 4. Linguistics subjects 5. Translation subjects 6. Other subjects

Appendix F

English Level, Gender, and Training Centers

		English language training centers N (%)				
English Level	Gender	Al Khaleej	London School of English	Saudi British Centre	Taibah University	Total
General English	Male	44 (68.8)	--	18 (28.1)	2 (3.1)	64 (100)
	Female	67 (91.8)	1 (1.4)	4 (5.5)	1 (1.4)	73 (100)
	Total	111 (81)	1 (0.7)	22 (16.1)	3 (2.2)	137 (100)
Test Preparation	Male	97 (60.6)	2 (1.3)	21 (13.1)	40 (25)	160 (100)
	Female	143 (61.6)	--	15 (6.5)	74 (31.9)	232 (100)
	Total	240 (61.2)	2 (0.5)	36 (9.2)	114 (29.1)	392 (100)
Total	Male	141 (62.9)	2 (0.9)	39 (17.4)	42 (18.8)	224 (100)
	Female	210 (68.9)	1 (0.3)	19 (6.2)	75 (24.6)	305 (100)
	Total	351 (66.4)	3 (0.6)	58 (11)	117 (22.1)	529 (100)

Appendix G

Survey for Teachers who Participated in Face-to-Face English Proficiency Training

1. Region:
   __ Riyadh __Jeddah __Eastern Province __Al Madinah __Makkah

2. Gender:
   __Male __Female

3. Which English language training center do you attend?
   __Al Khaleej __London School of English __Saudi British Centre __Taibah University

4. What English level are you studying?
   __General English __Test preparation

5. How satisfied are you with the English training center?
   __ Very satisfied __ Somewhat satisfied __ Somewhat dissatisfied __ Very dissatisfied

6. Does the English training center instructor use communicative activities in your classes?
   __ Often __ Sometimes __ Not often __ Rarely

7. The English training classes start on time?
   __ Yes __ No

8. I attend all the classes at the English training center.
   __ 100% __ 75% __ 50% __ 25%

9. The English training center staff is friendly and helpful.
   __ Yes __ No

10. How would you describe your English training center instructor‟s overall ability?
    __ Very good __ Good __ Average __ Poor

11. Please answer the following:

	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree
I want to improve my English to help my students				
I am motivated to attend the classes				
This program is helping me improve my English				
I am actively involved in class discussions and activities				
I complete assigned homework tasks				
If students have better English proficiency skills it will help the development of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia				
My students enjoy learning English				
My students are motivated to learn English				
My students complete their English homework				
I try to speak English all the time in my English classes with my students				
My students will enjoy my classes more if my English improves				
I am learning new methods of teaching from the English training				
I would like to apply for a scholarship after the training program				
I will be able to achieve an IELTS score of 6.0 or TOEFL iBT71				

12. What level do you teach?

__ Elementary __ Intermediate __ Secondary

13. Degree earned

__ BA __ MA __ PhD

14. How many years have you been teaching English?

__1-5 __6-10 __11-15 __16-20 __20+

15. What is your average class size?

__10-15 __16-20 __21-25 __26-30 __31-35 __35+

16. How does the amount of students you have in class effect the teaching and learning of English in your classes?

_____

17. How many hours do you teach per week?
__10-15 __16-20 __21-25 __26-30 __30+

18. How many hours do you spend on preparation, grading student work, and administrative duties per work?
__5-10 __11-15 __16-20 __21-25 __25+

19. What do you like most about the teaching profession? (You may choose more than one)
__Passion for teaching __Helping the students __Helping the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia __Teacher status __Job security __Salary and benefits __Professional development opportunities __Vacations and hours of work

20. What are the benefits to you for studying English?

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____

21. What is your strongest English skill?
__Speaking __Listening __Writing __Reading

22. What is your weakest English skill?
__Speaking __Listening __Writing __Reading

23. What is your students" strongest English skill?
__Speaking __Listening __Writing __Reading

24. What are the benefits for the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia of having an improved level of English?

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____
d. _____

25. What motivates you as a teacher?

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____

26. What are the three biggest problems teachers have with the English language curriculum?

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____

27. Would teachers benefit from more textbook training?
__Definitely yes __Yes __Maybe __No __Definitely no

28. Would teachers benefit from more curriculum training?
__Definitely yes __Yes __Maybe __No __Definitely no

29. What are the three areas of training that you think English language teachers need to improve their teaching of the English language curriculum?

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____

30. General comments:

_____

Appendix H

Timeline

Item	2014 (July-)	2015 (Jan - Dec)	2016 (Jan - Dec)	2017 (Jan - Nov)
Commencement				
Chapter 1				
Chapter 2				
Chapter 3				
Confirmation seminar				
Chapter 4				
Mid-candidature review				
Chapter 5				
Chapter 6				
Chapter 7				
Chapter 8				
Pre-completion seminar				
Thesis editing				
Thesis submission				

Appendix I

Level of Satisfaction with the Training Centers

		English language training center N (%)				
Gender	Satisfaction	Al Khaleej	London School of English	Saudi British Centre	Taibah University	Total
Male	Very satisfied	46 (32.2)	1 (50)	14 (35.9)	16 (43.2)	77 (34.8)
	Somewhat satisfied	72 (50.3)	1 (50)	18 (46.2)	18 (48.6)	109 (49.3)
	Somewhat dissatisfied	18 (12.6)	--	4 (10.3)	1 (2.7)	23 (10.4)
	Very dissatisfied	7 (4.9)	--	3 (7.7)	2 (5.4)	12 (5.4)
	Total	143 (100)	2 (100)	39 (100)	37 (100)	221 (100)
Female	Very satisfied	85 (39.5)		9 (56.3)	35 (46.7)	129 (42)
	Somewhat satisfied	95 (44.2)	1 (100)	5 (31.3)	35 (46.7)	136 (44.3)
	Somewhat dissatisfied	29 (13.5)	--	1 (6.3)	4 (5.3)	34 (11.1)
	Very dissatisfied	6 (2.8)	--	1 (6.3)	1 (1.3)	8 (2.6)
	Total	215 (100)	1 (100)	16 (100)	75 (100)	307 (100)
Total	Very satisfied	131 (36.6)	1 (33.3)	23 (41.8)	51 (45.5)	206 (39)
	Somewhat satisfied	167 (46.6)	2 (66.7)	23 (41.8)	53 (47.3)	245 (46.4)
	Somewhat dissatisfied	47 (13.1)	--	5 (9.1)	5 (4.5)	57 (10.8)
	Very dissatisfied	13 (3.6)	--	4 (7.3)	3 (2.7)	20 (3.8)
	Total	358 (100)	3 (100)	55 (100)	112 (100)	528 (100)

Appendix J

The Frequency of Communicative Activities in the Classes

		English language training center N (%)				
Gender	Frequency	Al Khaleej	London School of English	Saudi British Centre	Taibah University	Total
Male	Often	72 (50.7)	--	16 (42.1)	25 (69.4)	113 (51.8)
	Sometimes	42 (29.6)	1 (50)	16 (42.1)	10 (27.8)	69 (31.7)
	Not often	16 (11.3)	1 (50)	4 (10.5)	1 (2.8)	22 (10.1)
	Rarely	12 (8.5)	--	2 (5.3)	--	14 (6.4)
	Total	142 (100)	2 (100)	38 (100)	36 (100)	218 (100)
Female	Often	125 (57.9)	--	10 (62.5)	64 (84.2)	199 (64.4)
	Sometimes	73 (33.8)	1 (100)	4 (25)	10 (13.2)	88 (28.5)
	Not often	9 (4.2)		1 (6.3)	2 (2.6)	12 (3.9)
	Rarely	9 (4.2)		1 (6.3)		10 (3.2)
	Total	216 (100)	1 (100)	16 (100)	76 (100)	309 (100)
Total	Often	197 (55)	--	26 (48.1)	89 (79.5)	312 (59.2)
	Sometimes	115 (32.1)	2 (66.7)	20 (37)	20 (17.9)	157 (29.8)
	Not often	25 (7)	1 (33.3)	5 (9.3)	3 (2.7)	34 (6.5)
	Rarely	21 (5.9)	--	3 (5.6)	--	24 (4.6)
	Total	358 (100)	3 (100)	54 (100)	112 (100)	527 (100)

Appendix K

Class Start Times

		English language training center N (%)				
Gender	Yes/No	Al Khaleej	London School of English	Saudi British Centre	Taibah University	Total
Male	Yes	135 (95.7)	2 (100)	37 (97.4)	42 (100)	216 (96.9)
	No	6 (4.3)	--	1 (2.6)	--	7 (3.1)
Female	Yes	206 (95.8)	1 (100)	16 (94.1)	74 (100)	297 (96.7)
	No	9 (4.2)	--	1 (5.9)	--	10 (3.3)
Total	Yes	341 (95.8)	3 (100)	53 (96.4)	116 (100)	513 (96.8)
	No	15 (4.2)	--	2 (3.6)	--	17 (3.2)

Appendix L

Teachers‟ Attendance

	Teachers‟ attendance N (%)				
Gender	100%	75%	50%	25%	Total
Male	178 (79.8)	39 (17.5)	5 (2.2)	1 (0.4)	223 (100)
Female	247 (80.5)	59 (19.2)	1 (0.3)		307 (100)
Total	425 (80.2)	98 (18.5)	6 (1.1)	1 (0.2)	530 (100)

Appendix M

Training Center Instructor‟s Ability

		English language training center N (%)				
Gender	Rating	Al Khaleej	London School of English	Saudi British Centre	Taibah University	Total
Male	Very good	78 (53.8)	1 (50)	18 (46.2)	30 (71.4)	127 (55.7)
	Good	44 (30.3)	1 (50)	17 (43.6)	10 (23.8)	72 (31.6)
	Average	18 (12.4)	--	4 (10.3)	2 (4.8)	24 (10.5)
	Poor	5 (3.4)	--	--	--	5 (2.2)
	Total	145 (100)	2 (100)	39 (100)	42 (100)	228 (100)
Female	Very good	126 (57.8)	--	11 (57.9)	51 (67.1)	188 (59.9)
	Good	71 (32.6)	1 (100)	7 (36.8)	20 (26.3)	99 (31.5)
	Average	21 (9.6)	--	1 (5.3)	3 (3.9)	25 (8)
	Poor	--	--	--	2 (2.6)	2 (0.6)
	Total	218 (100)	1 (100)	19 (100)	76 (100)	314 (100)
Total	Very good	204 (56.2)	1 (33.3)	29 (50)	81 (68.6)	315 (58.1)
	Good	115 (31.7)	2 (66.7)	24 (41.4)	30 (25.4)	171 (31.5)
	Average	39 (10.7)	--	5 (8.6)	5 (4.2)	49 (9)
	Poor	5 (1.4)	--	--	2 (1.7)	7 (1.3)
	Total	363 (100)	3 (100)	58 (100)	118 (100)	542 (100)

Appendix N

Friendliness and Helpfulness of the Training Centers‟ Staff

		English language training center N (%)				
Gender	Yes/No	Al Khaleej	London School of English	Saudi British Centre	Taibah University	Total
Male	Yes	137 (97.2)	2 (100)	37 (94.9)	41 (100)	217 (97.3)
	No	4 (2.8)	--	2 (5.1)	--	6 (2.7)
Female	Yes	199 (96.6)	1 (100)	18 (100)	76 (100)	294 (97.7)
	No	7 (3.4)	--	--	--	7 (2.3)
Total	Yes	336 (96.8)	3 (100)	55 (96.5)	117 (100)	511 (97.5)
	No	11 (3.2)	--	2 (3.5)	--	13 (2.5)

Appendix O

Teachers‟ School Level and Qualifications

		Qualification N (%)			
School level	Gender	BA	MA	PhD	Total
Elementary	Male	16 (100)	--	--	16 (9.1)
	Female	30 (96.8)	1 (3.2)	--	31 (14.2)
Intermediate	Male	56 (81.2)	12 (17.4)	1 (1.5)	69 (39.2)
	Female	73 (89)	8 (9.8)	1 (1.2)	82 (37.6)
Secondary	Male	78 (85.7)	10 (11)	3 (3.3)	91 (51.7)
	Female	92 (87.6)	10 (9.5)	3 (2.9)	105 (48.2)
Total	Male	150 (85.2)	22 (12.5)	4 (2.3)	176 (100)
	Female	195 (89.4)	19 (8.7)	4 (1.8)	218 (100)

Appendix P

Teachers‟ School Level and (years) Teaching Experience

		Teaching experience N (%)					
Level	Gender	1 - 5	6 - 10	11 - 15	16 - 20	20+	Total
Ele	Male	7 (41.2)	6 (35.3)	2 (11.8)	--	2 (11.8)	17 (9.6)
	Female	8 (23.5)	11 (32.4)	11 (32.4)	3 (8.8)	1 (2.9)	34 (15)
Inter	Male	11 (15.7)	29 (41.4)	19 (27.1)	3 (4.3)	8 (11.4)	70 (39.3)
	Female	11 (12.6)	20 (23)	28 (32.9)	23 (26.4)	5 (5.8)	87 (38.5)
Sec	Male	19 (20.9)	43 (47.3)	17 (18.7)	7 (7.7)	5 (5.5)	91 (51.1)
	Female	19 (18.1)	31 (29.5)	30 (28.6)	19 (18.1)	6 (5.7)	105 (46.5)
Total	Male	37 (20.8)	78 (43.8)	38 (21.3)	10 (5.6)	15 (8.4)	178 (100)
	Female	38 (16.8)	62 (27.4)	69 (30.5)	45 (19.9)	12 (5.3)	226 (100)

Appendix Q

Survey for English Language Supervisors

Textbooks and the Curriculum

1. Gender:
   __Male __Female

2. What are the three biggest problems teachers have with the English language curriculum?
   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____
3. What are the areas the ELT textbooks could be improved?
   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____
4. What are the areas the ELT curriculum could be improved?
   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____
5. Would teachers benefit from more textbook training?
   __Definitely yes __Yes __Maybe __No __Definitely no

6. Would teachers benefit from more curriculum training?
   __Definitely yes __Yes __Maybe __No __Definitely no

7. What are the three areas of training that you think MoE English language teachers need to improve their teaching of the English language curriculum?
   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____

8. Please answer the following:

	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree
The KSA ELT curriculum is suitable for the students				
Elementary teachers have enough time to cover everything in the ELT textbooks				
Intermediate teachers have enough time to cover everything in the ELT textbooks				
Secondary teachers have enough time to cover everything in the ELT textbooks				
MoE English language teachers use the digital and online material in their teaching				
The teacher‟s books are useful for the teachers				
English language teachers receive support from the MoE				
The MoE communicates changes to the English language teachers				
English language teachers have a high enough level of English to teach the English language curriculum				

9. General Comments:

_____

New Graduates, and the Textbooks and Curriculum

10. What attracts people to the teaching profession? (You may choose more than one)

__Passion for teaching __Helping the students __Helping the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia __Teacher status __Job security __Salary and benefits __Professional development opportunities __Vacations and hours of work

11. Please answer the following:

	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree
Universities prepare students to be competent English language teachers				
English teaching graduates should have an IELTS 6 or TOEFL iBT 71 before they start teaching				
Students at universities learn about the ELT curriculum				
Students at universities know the contents of the ELT textbooks				
Students at universities are taught practical English teaching skills				
Students at universities do a lot of practice teaching in their classes with other students				
Students at universities are taught practical English teaching skills				
Students at universities do school placement and teaching as part of their course				
New graduates have a high enough level of English to teach the ELT Curriculum				
New graduates know the role of the MoE				
New graduates have the opportunity for professional development training				
New graduates are able to use what the studied at university when they teach their classes				
New graduates have the skills to use online and digital materials as part of their teaching				

12. What skills should student English language teachers learn at universities as part of their studies that are not currently being taught?

e. _____
f. _____
g. _____

13. What weakness do new graduates have when they begin teaching English?

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____

14. What problems do new graduates have when they begin teaching English?

d. _____
e. _____
f. _____

15. What should be done to support new graduates when they begin teaching English?
    a. _____
    b. _____
    c. _____

16. General comments:

_____