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University of Southampton

FACULTY OF ARTS & HUMANITIES

Modern Languages

**English Teachers' Beliefs and Curriculum Implementation
in Switzerland: The Case Study of Lower Secondary
Schools in a French-Speaking Region**

by

Coralie Clerc

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

University of Southampton
Faculty of Arts and Humanities
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Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

ENGLISH TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION IN SWITZERLAND: THE CASE STUDY OF LOWER SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN A FRENCH-SPEAKING REGION

by Coralie Clerc

The teachers' role is of paramount importance in educational innovations, particularly when it comes to implementing a new curriculum (Wedell, 2009). To embrace the desired changes, teachers need to restructure their beliefs that act as a filter and guide actions (Fives & Buehl, 2012). The current research explores this issue in a Swiss context, where English was added to compulsory education in the early 2000s. This has recently led to the publication of a new curriculum and to the introduction of a new course book. The study was conducted against this backdrop, in state lower secondary schools in the French-speaking part of the canton of Valais. It aims to uncover the English teachers' beliefs and practices to gain a better understanding of their relationship, and to analyse their role in the implementation of the curriculum. In addition, the impact of factors such as training and experience was examined. The originality of the project is that German, the majority language of the country, has a higher status than English in education. There are consequently no high-stakes examinations in English at lower secondary school.

A mixed methods research design was adopted. The quantitative analysis of eighty-nine questionnaires provides a general picture while the qualitative data (interviews, observations and stimulated recall) focus on a few teachers to obtain a fine-grained analysis. This case study, taking the teachers' observed practices as a starting point for investigating their beliefs, shows the complexity of the belief systems organisation. A satellite metaphor that depicts their dynamism and instability is suggested. The findings demonstrate that the curriculum standards may be achieved by different means from the official ones. Teachers indeed rely on the syllabus and on their colleagues to adapt the curriculum to their context while taking their previous experience into account. In addition, the teachers' philosophy of teaching is shaped by their core beliefs about the curriculum, their teachers' roles and the role of English. The teachers' beliefs of what is possible or desirable are very influential, and some locally situated beliefs, such as class size and self-imposed time constraints, appear to limit the teachers' implementation of desired practices despite a favourable context. It has also emerged that teachers with different training and experience have different beliefs. The implications for policy makers and teacher training are discussed, and some methodological recommendations are outlined.

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Academic Thesis: Declaration of Authorship

I, Coralie Clerc, declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

English Teachers' Beliefs and Curriculum Implementation in Switzerland: The Case Study of Lower Secondary Schools in a French-Speaking Region

I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;
4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;
5. I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
6. Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;
7. None of this work has been published before submission.

Signed:

Date:

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Definitions and Abbreviations

CDIP	Swiss conference of cantonal ministers of education (Conférence suisse des directeurs cantonaux de l'instruction publique)
CIIP	Inter-cantonal conference of state education (Conférence intercantonale de l'instruction publique)
CLT	Communicative language teaching
CO	Cycle d'orientation (= lower secondary school)
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELF	English as a lingua franca
EiM	<i>English in Mind 9e</i> , CIIP ed. (language course: textbook and resources)
Harmos	Inter-cantonal agreement on the harmonisation of compulsory education (Concordat Suisse sur l'harmonisation de la scolarité obligatoire)
HEP	Teacher training college (Haute école pédagogique)
L2	Second language
L3	Third language
LEP	Language education policies
NH	<i>New Hotline</i> (language course: textbook and resources)
PCA	Principal components analysis (in factor analysis)
PCK	Personal practical knowledge
PER	Education curriculum for the French-speaking part of Switzerland (Plan d'études romand)
RP	Received pronunciation
SR	Stimulated recall

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 General background

Whereas the teachers' behaviours and their outcomes were originally at the core of research on teaching, the focus shifted in the mid-1970s when the unobservable side of teaching, namely the teacher thought processes, became the new centre of attention (Clark & Peterson, 1986). Since the mid-1990s (Borg, 2019), the interest for the field of teacher cognition, and teacher beliefs in particular, has been constantly increasing, which led to special issues on the matter in journals such as *System* (2011) and *The Modern Language Journal* (2015). It is now well established that teachers and their cognition play a key role in classroom practices (Borg, 2006), in the implementation of educational innovations (Borg, 2015b; Menken & García, 2010; Wedell, 2009), and consequently also when it comes to implementing a new curriculum successfully (Smith & Southerland, 2007; Underwood, 2012; X. Zheng & Borg, 2014). Indeed, Wedell (2009, p. 24) emphasises that for an implementation to be successful, it is not enough to make concrete and visible changes such as improving the resources available or the class sizes. He stresses the importance of also considering “[c]hanges to people’s behaviours and, especially, beliefs” (p. 25) which might lead to implementation failure if neglected. This explains why factors such as training and experience (Borg, 2015b; Kissau, Algozzine, & Yon, 2012; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017) have often been studied along with their influence on teacher beliefs and on the way teachers implement change.

Regarding curriculum innovations nowadays, most of them are related to communicative language teaching (CLT). From a traditional format of frontal teaching and rote learning of isolated knowledge, we have shifted towards a socio-constructivist perspective where communication is at the forefront with differentiation as a tool to reach it (Breen & Candlin, 2001). Training is therefore essential to get a deep comprehension of what CLT is, what it is not, and what it implies to avoid misconceptions (G. Thompson, 1996). To embrace the desired changes, the teachers' capacity to reflect on the beliefs underpinning their practices is of paramount importance (Sanchez, 2013). However, as explained in detail in 2.2, some beliefs are highly resistant to change, and the training teachers receive when there is an educational innovation might therefore have only little

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impact, depending on how and for how long it is conducted (see 3.5.2). Reflective practice and support provided by competent people over a certain period of time have yielded encouraging results though (Snyder, Bolin, & Zumwalt, 1992). Yet, it is likely that if support, reflective practice as well as positive external factors are not being put in place effectively, the outcomes of an innovation will be led mainly by beliefs. Beliefs and practices are closely connected (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2009), and whereas a change of beliefs can be seen as a pre-requisite for a change of practice (Richardson, 1996), one could argue that beliefs only change after a modification of practice has yielded positive results (Wedell, 2009). However, for Borg (2009), beliefs and actions influence each other.

As far as beliefs are concerned, they come from different origins, they are difficult to identify precisely and they can be held with various strengths (T. Green, 1971; Rokeach, 1968). Additionally, the boundaries between beliefs and knowledge are blurred, and the driving forces of beliefs are often unconscious and part of a multifaceted belief system, which makes their access and study particularly challenging. The theoretical framework of this research project is based on the assumption that beliefs are well anchored, powerful, and that they influence the person who holds them in their understanding of a given situation as well as in action itself.

The present study investigates the beliefs and practices of English teachers in lower secondary state schools in the French-speaking part of the Valais, Switzerland, in a context of curricular innovation. The complex nature of beliefs (as presented in Chapter 2) is acknowledged, and to address this complexity, the data are collected using various instruments (a questionnaire, interviews, stimulated recall, classroom observations and fieldnotes).

1.2 Contextual background

Already coping with four national languages and three official ones (Grin & Korth, 2005; Heinzmann, 2013), Switzerland decided to add English to the curriculum of compulsory education in the early 2000s, on the 1999 recommendation of the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (CDIP). As a result, English started to be taught at lower secondary school, and it has now successfully established itself in all the Swiss cantons. More recently, a political decision granting even more importance to languages has been

introduced subsequent to another statement of the CDIP (2004). In the French-speaking part of the Valais, where this study was conducted, this implied a restructuring of the last two years of primary school where English is now taught alongside German, the majority language of the country, as well as in lower secondary schools where students have more English lessons every week. They are also divided in small groups to favour speaking activities. This wave of change was accompanied, in 2011, by the progressive implementation of a new curriculum called *Plan d'études romand* (PER)(CIIP, 2010a), which grants more importance to communication. Finally, in August 2015, some new teaching materials developed in accordance with the PER started to be implemented at lower secondary school. Consequently, this study took place in a time of change, when teachers were dealing with the challenge of implementing both a new curriculum and a new course book called *English in Mind* (EiM). To provide insight into the background of the research, I am now going to present the canton, the role of its languages, the school system and training provided for teachers.

The Valais is located in the Alps in the south-western part of Switzerland. It spreads from the source of the river Rhône, which is a glacier of the same name, down to its mouth at Lake Geneva. Except for the lower part of the canton, the Valais is surrounded by high ranges of mountains. The main towns and industries of the canton are located in the Rhône Valley ("The Valais in a nutshell", n.d.). The capital city, Sion, has almost 35000 inhabitants and the three other major towns of the French-speaking part of the canton have about 17000 to 18000 inhabitants (*Le Valais en chiffres/Das Wallis in Zahlen*, 2018). Other localities are regarded as small town or villages, they are dotted around the Rhône valley and in the alpine valleys, where many mountain and ski resorts are to be found. These attract many foreigners and tourists, especially in the winter season, and to a lesser extent in the summer as well. The built-up areas of the canton make up only 3.5% of the territory, while 43% of it is covered with forests and agricultural land (p.10). The following picture illustrates the topography of the Rhône valley:



*Figure 1 The Rhône Valley
Taken by Jérôme Michel, les Ailes du Léman, 2019
Reproduced with Permission*

As explained later in 3.4.1, each Swiss canton is in charge of its language policy, and while some cantons have questioned the relevance of teaching a national language before English at school (Demont-Heinrich, 2005), this has not been the case in the Valais that is officially a bilingual canton. Indeed, the population of the upper part speaks German, and that of the lower and central parts speak French. The most common populations from outside Switzerland are from Europe, from countries such as Portugal, France, Italy, former Yugoslavia, Spain (*Le Valais en chiffres/Das Wallis in Zahlen*, 2018). From the classroom observations I have conducted, I would say that the student population is less multicultural in the mountain schools I have visited. However, I could not notice any difference between the students in the Rhône valley, whether from villages or from towns. It is also important to highlight that while the French-speaking Valais has 260000 inhabitants and that towns offer more infrastructures than villages, they are less developed than urban areas such as Geneva, a place that often comes to mind when Switzerland is mentioned.

Regarding the role of languages in the French-speaking part of the canton, as developed later in 3.4.2, German has always played a prominent role. Both French and German are indeed the languages of the cantonal administration, and there is a long tradition of teaching the second official language of the canton at school. In the curriculum, German is taught first, and it is regarded as a core subject at lower secondary school while English is not, as further explained in Chapter 3. Additionally, three French-speaking towns started implementing content and language integrated learning (French/German) in 1993

(Schwob & Ducrey, 2006). Only a minority of pupils have access to these classes where half the class time is in French, and half in German. One of the cantonal high schools has also been offering a bilingual curriculum in both French and German since 1994 (Collège des Creusets, 2019). In contrast, it is only since the school year 2014-2015 (Collège de l'Abbaye, 2018) that a French and English option has been available at upper secondary. This shows that German clearly prevails in education in the context where the research was conducted. As far as English is concerned, it is certainly used with tourists and with students from the few international schools located in the Valais. However, Demont-Heinrich (2005) emphasises that although English is finding its way in international companies, in academic life, and in advertising in Switzerland, “[i]t would be tremendously misleading to say that Switzerland is awash in English [...]. Yet its increasing presence is an undeniable fact of Swiss life.” (p. 75) Grin (2014) points out that English can indeed be very useful in economic and academic circles, but he claims that other languages can also bring benefits. This is particularly the case of national languages in Switzerland, where French and German are used as lingua francas (Sherman, 2018, p. 118)

As far as the school system is concerned, the great majority of pupils attend state schools. Compulsory education starts when children are four, it lasts for eleven years. It is composed of two years of nursery school, six years of primary school and three of lower secondary education (more details about this specific level will be provided in section 4.3.1). At the age of fifteen, once done with mandatory schooling, students have two options (CDIP, 2019):

- 1) the first one is to start an apprenticeship (vocational education combined with field placement in a company for two to four years);
- 2) the second one is to pursue secondary education in an upper secondary specialised school or a high school (which is a baccalaureate school equivalent to a Sixth Form College in the UK).

The figures show (*Le Valais en chiffres/Das Wallis in Zahlen*, 2018, p. 26) that the former, the dual training system, is very popular. As for the latter, it is only accessible to students with good academic results. The central part of the canton is home to a university of applied sciences and arts (Haute Ecole Spécialisée, equivalent to former Colleges of

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Higher Education in the UK). Recently, some university campuses and research institutes (Canton du Valais, n.d.-b) have also installed themselves in the Valais, but the canton does not have a university as such. For this reason, Valaisan people go to other cantons to study at university level, and this has indeed been the case for most of my research participants as section 4.3.3 will demonstrate.

Regarding the teaching population of lower secondary school in the Valais, most teachers were educated in Switzerland. However, to become teachers, they had to study outside the canton at some point. Indeed, many have studied at the University of Fribourg in order to get a teaching diploma. Others have first studied to get a Bachelor's or Master's degree (or an equivalent) in the subject(s) they wanted to teach before attending a teacher training college where they were taught the pedagogy and methodology. Since there was no teacher training college for secondary education in the canton of Valais before 2004 (Clivaz, Di Giacomo, Summermatter, & Favre, 2011), several teachers had to obtain their pedagogical training outside the canton, at the teacher training college of Lausanne, for example. Another option was to complete a theoretical pedagogy course through a distance learning centre (CRED). Finally, a last category of teachers who were not necessarily English specialists attended language classes offered by the canton to become proficient enough to teach English as a foreign language (this is developed at the end of 3.4.5). Continuous professional development is available in the canton, and teachers are encouraged, rather than required, to attend training sessions. The next section addresses the research gap and presents a set of reasons for investigating English teachers' beliefs in a context of curriculum change.

1.3 Rationale

Despite a number of studies in the field of language teaching (Farrell & Ives, 2015; Graham, Santos, & Francis-Brophy, 2014; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2016; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Tamimy, 2015; H. Zheng, 2013), our understanding of the relationship between beliefs and practices is incomplete and unsatisfactory since the mechanism of belief change is not fully understood. There is no straight way from beliefs to practices, which is especially true when a curricular reform fostering change is taking place. The significance of researching teacher beliefs and practices in a context of change also originates from the desire to understand how the teachers welcome the innovation and how their beliefs

influence the innovation process (Borg, 2018). In the existing body of literature about the relationship between beliefs and practices, most studies have tended to focus on the inconsistencies between them, and the teachers' beliefs have often been used as predictors of their practices (Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Farrell & Ives, 2015). For this reason, the research design of this research, whose objective is to explain the teachers' practices thanks to their beliefs, is rather innovative (as explained in 4.2.1).

The aim of the present study is to look at the influence of beliefs on a specific situation, that of curriculum implementation. Indeed, a new communicative curriculum has recently been introduced in the French-speaking part of Switzerland, and previous work has been limited in this context since there are only two studies investigating how teachers implemented the new teaching resources during the pilot phase (Schedel & Bonvin, 2017; Singh & Bonvin, 2015). The implementation has not yet been thoroughly assessed in a single canton. More importantly, it has never been investigated from a teacher cognition perspective.

I believe that exploring teachers' beliefs in the Valais is also original because of the role of languages in this canton, which is in central Europe, in an area where the school environment is constant, well managed, and where going to a private school remains an exception. In fact, its linguistic situation is particularly interesting. Indeed, despite the role of English as a global language (Crystal, 2003), German has a higher status than English in compulsory education, as previously mentioned in 1.2 and developed further in 3.4.2. Previous empirical studies have mainly explored language teachers' beliefs in settings where English is the dominant foreign language, which is not the case here. The aim of my research is consequently to broaden our current understanding by examining what English teachers' beliefs are like in a context where German is more important from an official point of view. Furthermore, few studies about teachers' beliefs have been conducted in Europe (some mainly in the UK and Turkey) according to Borg's reviews (2009, 2015a), and studies in lower secondary state schools are scarce (Borg, 2015b). A study conducted in a Swiss canton will shed some light on the phenomenon of teachers' beliefs in an unexplored and unique environment where English is not the main foreign language and where conditions seem favourable to the implementation of a new curriculum.

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Research has shown that external factors would often hinder the teachers to implement a CLT curriculum (as explained in 3.3.3), but in the case of the Valais, however, the external factors seem highly favourable to the innovation. Indeed, English is an L3 and, therefore, neither a core subject nor exam driven, which should reduce the pressure on teachers. Subjects such as mathematics, German, French and science play a more decisive role at lower secondary than English because they are assessed by cantonal examinations. Moreover, the classes are relatively small (see 4.3.1), and adapted teaching materials are provided. The teachers follow the PER but they have some choice within that framework. In English, they are encouraged to follow the official course book, but they can choose to do it either meticulously, or to do the exercises they judge relevant only. Supplementing the course book is also common, which suggests the existence of some tacit practices on which this study is aiming to shed light. Thus, given that external factors are only expected to play a minor role in the Valais, I would argue that the main obstacle to the implementation of the new curriculum might be related to the teacher's beliefs.

Finally, previous empirical studies (discussed in 3.5) have shown that training and experience can play a key role in (re)shaping the teachers' beliefs and practices. There are therefore worth considering in a context of change where there are some variations in the teaching population, which is the case of the Valais. The teachers implementing the new curriculum have indeed different levels of experience and they have attended different training courses. Indeed, they followed different paths to become teachers, and language teachers in particular, as further explained in 4.3.3. Additionally, it can be expected that the great majority of English teachers learnt German as a first foreign language at school, which might have influenced their "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie, 1975). All in all, the teaching population is quite diverse, and this study seeks to address whether this diversity is reflected in the beliefs they hold.

1.4 The research and my motivation for conducting it

With a focus on teacher beliefs and practices, this research intends to examine how the new curriculum is being implemented in English classes in lower secondary school. To address this issue, the following research questions will be addressed:

1. What are the teachers' beliefs about learning, teaching, and the curriculum?
2. To what extent do beliefs and practices inform each other?
3. How do the teachers' beliefs affect the way they implement the curriculum?
4. What influence do training and experience have on the teachers' beliefs and practices?

This is a study of teaching in a policy-led frame where the teachers are supported by the national and local governments, and where there is no apparent test and parent pressure regarding English. Despite this framework and its official statements and documents, there is a diversity of practices (Spolsky, 2004), and a way to understand it is to investigate teacher beliefs. Throughout this study, I aim to uncover the participating teachers' beliefs, explore their practices and their role in the implementation of the PER. My theoretical framework is firstly based on the assumption that beliefs act as a filter, provide a framework and guide actions (Fives & Buehl, 2012), I therefore examine how the new curriculum is shaped, in theory and practice, by the teachers' beliefs. Secondly, I also acknowledge that the contextual factors, the teachers' experience and training influence their beliefs (Borg, 2006), which in turn influence the reform. For this reason, I also explore the impact of the teachers' training and experiences on their beliefs and practices.

Due to their multifaceted nature (Fives & Buehl, 2012), beliefs are difficult to access (Pajares, 1992). Therefore, I decided to combine research methods to obtain a more accurate picture of the situation, and to access different types of beliefs. The focus is consequently on both stated and enacted beliefs. The former will be accessed thanks to a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews, and the latter thanks to observations and stimulated recall. Thus, although mainly qualitative in nature because it allows a deeper understanding of the belief phenomenon (Borg, 2012), this case study also relies on the use a questionnaire to gain access to the lower secondary French-speaking Valaisan teacher beliefs and practices.

As for my interest and motivation, they come from my previous experience as a lower secondary English and German teacher in the Valais. During my ten years of teaching, I noticed on many occasions that even though my colleagues and I were teaching under the same conditions, with the same textbook to reach the same objectives, we would

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often plan completely different lessons, which raised my curiosity. Indeed, it seemed that differences in professional training were not enough to account for this variety. In addition, being a teacher trainer as well, I could see how difficult it was for some pre-service teachers to plan lessons that were student-centred and communicative in approach. I knew what information they were given at the teacher training college and could only observe the discrepancies between the theory they had received, the curriculum they were supposed to follow, and the lessons they planned (for a detailed account of my background and previous experience, see 5.4). These were the main drivers leading to this study, which I hope will bring some clarity and contribute to a better understanding of the complex area of teachers' beliefs and practices in a context of change.

1.5 Organisation of the thesis

Chapter 1 has presented the general background of the study as well as the research setting. It has also outlined the research questions, aims and rationale, including a short section on my motivations for conducting this research project.

Chapter 2 is dedicated to the key concepts of this research. It explains where the study of beliefs –and teacher beliefs in particular– comes from. It also provides a definition of teacher cognition, a detailed account of the conceptualisation of teacher beliefs, and a review of their characteristics, organisation and functions. The nature of the relationship between beliefs and practices as well as the process of belief change are also addressed. The second part of the chapter continues with an introduction to teacher knowledge. Since these two concepts are closely intertwined, I deemed necessary to define them both to distinguish them at the theoretical level. The concept of belief is extremely complex, therefore a whole chapter is devoted to this particular topic with the aim to lay a firm foundation for this research.

Chapter 3 is about change. It explores key issues related to the implementation of curricular innovations, as well as teacher change by means of training and experience, with an emphasis on the role of their beliefs. A section provides an in-depth description of the various stages that have led to the implementation of a new curriculum in the Valais, and to the adaptation of the international version of *English in Mind*. The teaching

materials that has been developed by Cambridge University Press to match the curriculum are portrayed.

Chapter 4 sets out the research design of the study. After presenting the research questions, it moves on to the research approach. The methodology traditionally used to research beliefs is reviewed, and a rationale for conducting a mixed-method case study is provided. The philosophical framework that shapes this study is also discussed. Finally, the chapter paints a complete picture of the participants and their local context, with an emphasis on the schools where the data were collected. The last section is about ethical considerations.

Chapter 5 offers a description of the data collection instruments. The various steps leading to the design of the final questionnaire and interview protocol are reviewed. The chapter also presents the data collection procedures, the fieldwork practical constraints that influenced the schedule of the observations and stimulated recall interviews as well as a comprehensive section on the quantitative and qualitative methods of analysis. Finally, the role of the researcher is addressed in a section that also references the literature on reflexivity, and the multilingual nature of the research is acknowledged.

Chapter 6 is the first results chapter. It provides an overview and reports the findings of the quantitative analysis of the questionnaire data. It starts with a factor analysis of the questionnaire items, which is used as a basis to generate group comparisons between teachers having a different background in terms of training and experience. The teachers' reported practices are examined, and a multiple regression analysis is conducted to determine whether the teachers' results are predictable. Then, the limitations of the quantitative data analysis are outlined, and the key findings are summarised.

Chapter 7 mainly focuses on the teachers' reported beliefs and practices obtained thanks to the interview data. It presents, in turn, the participants' beliefs about their role(s) as teacher and their beliefs and practices regarding the curriculum. The next section explores to what extent the implementation of *English in Mind* has been accompanied by a change of beliefs. The chapter ends with a careful analysis of the factors affecting the implementation of the new curriculum and teaching materials.

Chapter 8 moves from the general to the particular, and centres on two teachers' situated beliefs and observed practices. The objective here is to show Florence's and

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Mary's identities in action by attempting to understand their practices thanks to their beliefs. Special emphasis is put on themes that had emerged in Chapters 6 and 7, such as the role of training, experience, and the way to implement the new teaching materials and curriculum.

Chapter 9 brings together the findings from Chapters 6, 7 and 8, and discusses them in relation to the research questions. Issues pertaining to the conceptualisation of teacher beliefs, curriculum implementation and teachers' professional growth are put forward. With the aim to illustrate some key aspects of my line of argument, several new references are introduced.

Chapter 10 summarises the key findings and presents the implications of this research. Some recommendations are also listed as well as some ideas for future research. The chapter ends with some personal reflections on this PhD journey.

Chapter 2 Key Concepts

Beliefs are at the centre of this study, and Chapter 2 intends to clarify what beliefs are from a theoretical perspective. Therefore, this chapter does not only refer to empirical studies, it also includes many theoretical references. After presenting the origin of the study of teachers' beliefs (2.1), I move on to examine how they are conceptualised, organised, and what their relationship to practices is (2.2). I also offer an overview of the meaning of teacher knowledge (2.3) since these two concepts tend to overlap. The chapter ends with a summary of the most important elements to bear in mind (2.4).

2.1 Origin of the study of teachers' beliefs

It was not until the mid-1970s that the role of teachers' mental activities was acknowledged as influencing classroom practices. Indeed, the leading approach until then was a process-product one that mainly focused on teachers' behaviours and on the corresponding students' achievements (Chaudron, 1988; Clark & Peterson, 1986). This change of paradigm was launched a few years earlier by Jackson (1968), who presented pioneering ideas in regard to the necessity of analysing how teachers think and plan in order to better understand what is happening in classrooms. Thus, from mere doers "mastering the specific content one was to teach and separately mastering methodologies for conveying that content to learners" (Freeman, 2002, p. 4), teachers were progressively considered having a proper mental life and complex thought processes.

In his sociological study of American state school teachers, Lortie (1975) draws our attention to the fact that teachers have undoubtedly been influenced by their former teachers and that "[t]here are ways in which being a student is like serving an apprenticeship in teaching" (p. 61). Thus, what he calls "apprenticeship of observation" (p. 61) shows that teachers enter their professional life with prior knowledge. As a result, whereas teaching practices were not regarded as supported by any personal thoughts until then, teachers started to be seen as decision makers with their own beliefs and knowledge. This change was gradually accompanied by an evolution in teaching methodologies as well (Freeman, 2002), and the teacher factor started to occupy a

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prominent place, which opened the way for new research perspectives in the domain of teaching. Clark and Peterson (1986, p. 257) developed a model of teacher thoughts and actions (Figure 2), where the reciprocity of teachers' thought processes, teachers' actions and observable effects are essential. Indeed, while the process-product approach focused only on the teachers' actions and outcomes on the students (i.e. the right-hand side circle), the centre of attention shifted from then on to the teachers' thought processes and their interactions with observable actions.

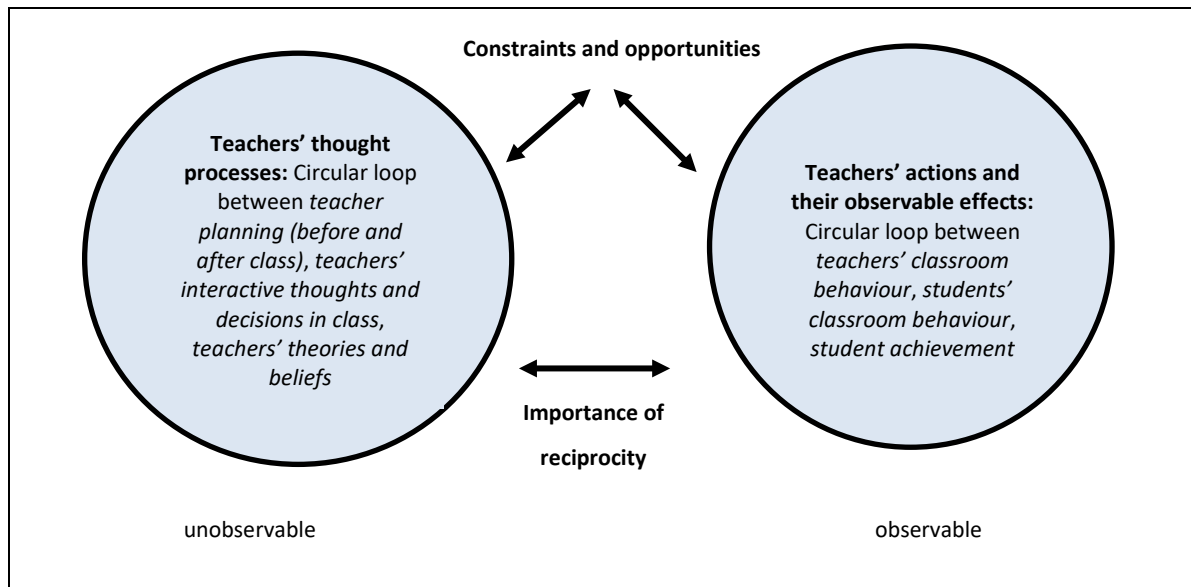


Figure 2 *Model of Teacher Thoughts and Actions, Adapted from Clark and Peterson (1986, p. 257)*

This change of paradigm happened at a time when new teaching practices were called for in the scientific domain. Indeed, the period of the 1980s marked a turning point in the teaching of mathematics in particular, where some innovations taking new technologies into account were necessary. As Ernest (1989, p. 14) puts it,

[t]o implement far-reaching innovations such as these successfully requires an understanding of the new demands made on the teacher, and of ways in which the teacher can accommodate them. It also requires a more fundamental understanding of how a mathematics teacher's knowledge, beliefs and attitudes provide a basis for classroom teaching approaches.

This led the way to a reform of mathematics teacher education, whose principles were also extended to teaching in general. At that time, the researchers realised that it was of paramount importance to take into account the teachers' underlying beliefs to understand their work better (Nespor, 1987), and this explains the growing number of studies that have been conducted in the field of teacher beliefs from then on.

2.2 Conceptualising teachers' beliefs

This section brings together some theoretical frameworks from the past that still have an influence on more current definitions of beliefs. They are presented along with belief characteristics such as belief features, organisation, origin, functions, as well as belief change.

2.2.1 Definitions of teacher beliefs and teacher cognition

At the beginning of the 1990s, Pajares (1992) pointed out that the messy concept of teachers' beliefs needed clarification. Thus, he did not only review the literature to present how knowledge and beliefs had been defined so far, but he also provided a wide range of different meanings that various authors had attributed to beliefs (1992, pp. 314-315), emphasising that the terminology employed could be misleading because beliefs often "travel in disguise and often under alias" (1992, p. 309). Ten years later, Borg (2003) emphasised the terminological problems as did Kalaja and Barcelos (2003), listing several synonyms used for beliefs. Considering this lack of cohesion as a weakness in the study of teachers' beliefs, Fives and Buehl (2012) decided to clearly define beliefs based on the five following characteristics.

First, teachers' beliefs can be explicit or implicit, in other words conscious or not. This distinction is extremely important when deciding which methodology to use in conducting empirical research (as further explained in 2.2.7 and 4.2.1). Secondly, they highlight that beliefs can be stable, dynamic, or somewhere between these two extremes (as developed in 2.2.4 and 2.2.5), which also has methodological implications. According to the third characteristic, there seem to be a reciprocal influence between beliefs, context and experience (also see Borg's model represented in Figure 4). Given that teachers seem to develop specific beliefs in different situations and according to their own experience, some beliefs created in a context X can then possibly also exert an influence in a context Y. The next feature puts the emphasis on the fact that beliefs and knowledge are intertwined, and the last one focuses on the nature of belief systems that can deal with different general and specific topics such as, for instance, the teacher, the students or the subject itself, as explained further in 2.2.3.

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As Richardson (1996, p. 103) reminds us, the study of beliefs and their influence on actions has been studied in various disciplines and researchers tend to agree on the fact that beliefs are “psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true.” As for Pajares (1992, p. 313), a “belief is based on evaluation and judgment”. Borg (2003, p. 81) has used the cover term *teacher cognition* to refer to “the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe, and think”, what Freeman (2002, p. 1) has called the “teachers' mental lives [that] represent the hidden side of teaching.” As for Crook (2015, p. 486), “[l]anguage teacher cognition [...] refers to aspects of (language) teacher thinking.” Nowadays, it seems that the concept of teacher beliefs is still not clearly defined, neither used in a consistent way in research. Borg (2015b) encourages researchers to agree on the definitions of the concepts used in the field of teacher cognition in order to bring some clarity.

Teacher knowledge will be explored later in 2.3, and we will come back to teacher cognition in 2.4. For now, I go on to discuss the various characteristics of individual beliefs while exploring how to differentiate them from knowledge.

2.2.2 Features of individual beliefs

As early as 1968, Milton Rokeach, a social psychologist, dedicated a whole book to beliefs, attitudes and values, where he developed a taxonomy of beliefs. In brief, it appears that these different types of beliefs do not all have the same kind of influence, some being more central than others. It must be noted in passing that his classification applies to general beliefs, and not to teachers' beliefs specifically. Twenty years later, Jan Nesper (1987), interested in cognitive psychology and cognitive science, analysed the beliefs of eight maths, English and history teachers in the United States. His objective was to uncover the characteristics of beliefs to differentiate them from knowledge. According to him, it was in fact, and for the sake of research, essential to come up with a working definition of beliefs and belief systems to supply a theoretical framework on which future studies could build. The first criterion he mentions to distinguish belief from knowledge is *existential presumption*, according to which every teacher has their personal and often inexplicable points of view regarded as indisputable entities, such as for instance beliefs about the students' laziness or ability. The second one is called *alternativity*. It

corresponds to the conceptualization of ideal situations that exist in parallel to reality and that can strongly influence the teachers' actions. Then come the different feelings people can have in relation to particular situations, which is the third feature of beliefs called *affective and evaluative aspects*. Finally, Nespor mentions *episodic storage*, which corresponds to the fact that beliefs are strongly influenced by previous personal experiences and stored in the memory accordingly. It must be added that these four criteria were first developed by Abelson (1979) who first attempted to differentiate belief from knowledge. Thus, it appears that Nespor recycled four of Abelson's seven characteristics to apply them to his definition of teacher beliefs, as opposed to knowledge. As a result, Nespor managed to bring together Abelson's theoretical concepts of beliefs with his own field of research about teachers in order to provide features of individual beliefs, as did Rokeach (1968) who had also confirmed his findings with empirical research. Nespor also used two other characteristics first mentioned by Abelson to define belief systems to which we turn now.

2.2.3 Organisation of beliefs in systems, sub-systems and sub-constructs

Given the large number of beliefs that a single person may have, researchers hypothesised that these beliefs had to be somehow organised in people's minds and then be observable in their behaviours (Rokeach, 1968, p. 1). The challenge was then to define how these beliefs were structured, and several researchers suggested organisational models and conceptual approaches that I am going to review now. Again, I would like to start with Rokeach (1968), according to whom

[a] belief system may be defined as having represented within it, in some organized psychological but not necessarily logical form, each and every one of a person's countless beliefs about physical and social reality. By definition, we do not allow beliefs to exist outside the belief system for the same reason that the astronomer does not allow stars to remain outside the universe. (p. 2)

Concerning the belief organisation within the system, he mentions sub-systems of various breadth (p. 123) and he proposes to place beliefs along a central-peripheral continuum where the most central ones are not only the most resistant to change (p. 3), but also the most influential ones (p. 5), as further developed in 2.2.4.

As for Green (1971), he suggests an organisation of beliefs according to three different dimensions accounting for the various degrees of conviction with which beliefs can be

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held. First, *primary* and *derivative beliefs* (p. 44), in other words main and associated ones. Then *central* and *peripheral beliefs* (p. 46), where the core ones are held with more strength, as in Rokeach's (1968) model, and finally *organisational clusters* (p. 47), indicating that beliefs are not necessarily connected, hence the possibility to hold contradictory beliefs. Furthermore, Green stresses that the organisation of beliefs defies common sense and might lack logic (p. 47), as previously noted by Rokeach (1968). This assertion is still valid nowadays and it justifies for the growing amount of studies investigating teachers' beliefs, a complex phenomenon not fully understood yet.

As previously mentioned, two other features of belief systems were suggested by Abelson in 1979 and taken up by Nespor (1987, pp. 320-321), namely *non-consensuality* and *unboundedness*. The former implies that, since beliefs are personal, they cannot be examined and assessed as well as knowledge, hence a lack of consensus. As for the latter, it means that beliefs are not related to anything in a logical way, which makes them very difficult to predict and which is aligned with Rokeach's (1968) and Green's (1971) claims.

More recently, Fives and Buehl (2012, p. 488) have noted that the organisation of beliefs in systems and sub-systems plays a role that is particularly important in the case of practice change. Different levels of beliefs might indeed be concerned, as for example a level that filters the interpretation of a desired reform, another that frames its application, and a last one that guides the teachers in the implementation. Thompson (1992) and Li (2013) also put forward the dynamic dimension of belief systems that are being rearranged each time an individual adjusts their beliefs to new experiences, emphasising the unstable nature of beliefs. For Li (2013, p. 177), it is unrealistic to regard beliefs as fixed or stable since she considers that "beliefs are the product of social interactions", reason for which she analyses them from an interactionist perspective, and not cognitive, as most researchers do. It must finally be noted that according to Pajares (1992, p. 316), beliefs can be arranged in different categories, called belief sub-constructs, and which correspond to what beliefs are about. This has implications for researchers interested in beliefs since they must decide on which component to focus. Those highlighted by the present study will be discussed in 9.1.1 and 9.2.1, where some new literature will be referenced. Before moving on to the origin and functions of beliefs, I would like to take a closer look at their central and peripheral dimensions.

2.2.4 Core and peripheral beliefs

The distinction between core and peripheral beliefs was made by both Rokeach (1968) and Green (1971), who claimed that the former are held with greater strength and are therefore less likely to change. In an interview, Simon Borg further explained that people might be more inclined to compromise on peripheral ones that might be about language learning specifically, while core ones might revolve around “educational issues more generally” (Birello, 2012, p. 90).

While the complex nature of beliefs has started to be acknowledged by researchers in their empirical studies (Farrell & Ives, 2015; Graham et al., 2014), it appears that the distinction between core and peripheral beliefs remains under-examined. In an attempt to develop a theoretical framework, Gabillon (2012) used this distinction to examine foreign language teacher beliefs. However, I would argue that a clear limitation of this model is that it has not been tested empirically. Using observations, interviews and post-observation interviews, Phipps and Borg (2009) explored the central-peripheral dimension of belief systems and found that the core ones, more generic and stable, were much more influential than the peripheral ones that were more specific. This confirmed the theoretical assumptions stated earlier. Figure 3 depicts my understanding of their findings.

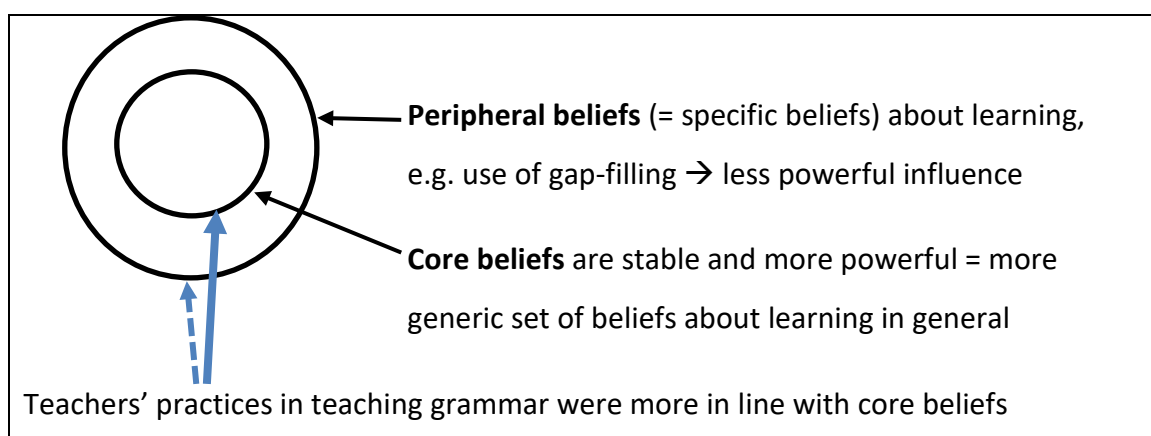


Figure 3 Organisation of Core and Peripheral Beliefs, Illustration based on Phipps and Borg's (2009) findings

Using data collected in China with the same instruments as Phipps and Borg, H. Zheng (2013) also found that core beliefs had a serious impact on the teachers' practices that happened to follow more than one belief. He also highlighted that the most dominant beliefs were not always the same ones, which demonstrates that they are context-

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dependent. Again, core beliefs were held more strongly, and it appeared that they mainly came from the teachers' teaching experience. Furthermore, the six participating teachers implemented different teaching approaches according to the beliefs that were core at a certain moment in time. My research has yielded significant results related to the core and peripheral nature of beliefs, and these will be discussed, along with some new references, in 9.1.2.1, 9.1.2.2, and 9.2.1. The next section is about belief change and perseverance.

2.2.5 Belief change and perseverance

The question of belief evolution and change is a thorny one. As already explained, some beliefs are highly resistant to change depending on their position in a belief system (Rokeach, 1968). The reason why people treasure their beliefs that much is that "they embody strongly held values" (Nisbett & Ross, 1980, p. 180). Nevertheless, nothing is fixed in stone and changes in teachers' beliefs can happen at different moments and for various reasons, as outlined next.

Both Richardson (1996) and Fives and Buehl (2012) mention developmental changes that can occur as a result of experience, before the teachers' beliefs are too deeply rooted. They also put forward a possible belief change triggered by a structured reflection in professional development such as reflexive practice (Farrell & Ives, 2015) that can be performed during in-service as well as pre-service training. In addition, Fives and Buehl (2012) claim that teacher training should not only introduce the participants with good practices, it should also ensure that teachers know where they come from and why they are effective. Moreover, they advocate that it is important for teachers to have positive experiences with say a new teaching practice, so that it can help reinforce or change their beliefs. Finally, they draw our attention to the fact that a change of belief might be necessary at several levels of a belief system to be completely successful (Fives & Buehl, 2012, p. 488).

It might also be worth considering 'assimilation' and 'accommodation', the two processes that allow a person to take in some new information. Williams and Burden (1997, p. 22) define them as follows:

Put simply, assimilation is the process by which incoming information is changed or modified in our minds so that we can fit it in with what we already know.

Accommodation, on the other hand, is the process by which we modify what we already know to take into account new information.

I contend that the same applies to beliefs, which means that some incoming information might be distorted to ensure existing beliefs stay unchanged. Conversely, a person might realise that it makes sense to modify some of their existing beliefs to avoid conflicting thoughts and to welcome some new information, which would correspond to accommodation. The issues related to belief change and perseverance identified in this research project will be discussed in detail in 9.1.2.1 and 9.2.2. Having discussed several aspects of the complexity of beliefs, the following sub-section explores their origin and functions.

2.2.6 Origin and functions of teachers' beliefs

Even though the origin of teachers' beliefs cannot be identified unambiguously, it seems that personal experience as well as the experience gained during schooling and instruction are important factors in belief formation (Borg, 2009; Ernest, 1989; Richardson, 1996), which is why beliefs are regarded as playing a key role in pre-service as well as in-service teacher training. Indeed, this means that teachers enter education programmes with some personal views about what teaching and learning are and should be like (Borg, 2003), and it has been argued that a major role of the training should be to take these pre-existing beliefs into account.

Regarding the functions of teacher beliefs, Fives and Buehl (2012) mention three different ones. Indeed, it seems that they filter information and experience because teachers interpret reality through them. Secondly, they also provide a framework that shape their understanding, helping them to analyse problems and situations before finally guiding their actions. It appears then that these three functions might be triggered by different situations. In addition, beliefs also help teachers define, frame and structure tasks (Nespor, 1987, p. 322), and investigating them allows to make sense of what is happening in the classroom, even though there are other influencing factors (listed in 2.2.7). To complete this section on belief characteristics, I would like to address their relationship with practices.

2.2.7 Teachers' beliefs and classroom practices

The fact that teacher beliefs underpin their actions is now widely accepted by scholars in the field (Basturkmen, 2012; Richardson, 1996; A. G. Thompson, 1992), and Borg (2009, p. 166) reminds us that this relation is bidirectional:

We also know, however, that this relationship is complex and that teachers' actions are not simply a direct result of their knowledge and beliefs. Rather, thought and action in language teaching are mutually informing (and so, action and experience shape, and are not only shaped by, teachers' cognitions).

However, the issue of accessing teachers' beliefs is still unresolved (Pajares, 1992) given that observing a teacher does not unambiguously enable the researcher to access their beliefs. Indeed, as early as 1974, Argyris and Schoen drew our attention to the fact that it is not always possible to infer beliefs from observed behaviours, either because certain beliefs have no opportunities to come up in a particular behaviour, or because something prevents them from being enacted. Furthermore, they also pointed out that the beliefs people state are not necessarily the ones governing their actions, hence the difference between professed and enacted beliefs. Regarding this distinction, Borg (2015a) further explains that professed beliefs might reveal ideals when elicited in a decontextualized way. In addition to this, teachers might not be aware of all their beliefs (Farrell & Ives, 2015), or they might formulate beliefs that do not truly correspond to what they do, hence inconsistencies (Woods, 2003). Several recent studies have focussed on the relationship between beliefs and practices in the domain of teaching (Graham et al., 2014; Liviero, 2017; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2016; Orafi & Borg, 2009; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017; Tamimy, 2015; X. Zheng & Borg, 2014), which shows the interest for the topic in various contexts.

In her review, Basturkmen (2012) lists factors affecting the belief-practice relationship. She mentions the role of situational constraints putting pressure on the teachers, the co-existence and negative influence of contradictory beliefs as well as the fact that a change of belief can precede a change of actions. Finally, she comments on the teachers' experience that can also affect the belief-practice relationship. As for Fives and Buehl (2012), they put forward both internal and external factors preventing belief implementation as well as methodological aspects that could be responsible for the inconsistencies observed, such as the primary role of the beliefs under analysis (beliefs that filter, frame or guide). Similarly, L. Li (2013) notes the influence of the teaching

experience, the school conditions, cultures and norms as well as practical factors. At this point, it seems that numerous reasons can explain the incongruences observed between beliefs and practices. Phipps and Borg (2009) and Borg (2009) argue, however, that this frequent lack of consistency between beliefs and practices must not be regarded as a flaw from the teachers' side but as tensions that can be explained thanks to a deep analysis of each situation. Borg (2018) has very recently identified two possible research designs for the study of beliefs and practices, and he warns that the discrepancies might be due to the kind of methodology used (as further explained in 4.2.1 and discussed in 9.1.3). Having presented the complexity of beliefs, I now briefly explore the second key concept being part of teacher cognition, namely teacher knowledge.

2.3 Defining knowledge

Let us first start with some historical facts reminded by Shulman (1986). Interestingly, in the late 1890s, the only prerequisite to become a teacher was to have a good command of the subject matter. This is not surprising given that, at this time, the teacher was seen as a knowledge transmitter. A century later, the content being relegated to a secondary position, the focus of attention shifted and the capacity to teach became the focal point. This observation led Shulman to question what the knowledge base for teaching was. This reflexion appeared at a time when teaching was suffering from a lack of professionalisation and when teacher education was criticised in the United States (Bullough, 2001). The origin of the problem was that, even though teaching was regarded as a complex job, "teachers [were] not commonly seen to possess a body of knowledge and expertise appropriate to their work, and this tend[ed] to diminish their status in the eyes of laymen." (Elbaz, 1983, p. 11) In the 1980s, several scholars addressed the challenge of defining knowledge and its components, as for instance Shulman (1986, 1987) whose conceptual organisation of teacher knowledge is still very influential nowadays. This conceptual framework was developed at a time when the standing of teacher education needed to be raised and when research in educational practices was still in its early stages. Now I would like to define what teacher knowledge, also referred to as "the knowledge base for teaching" (Shulman, 1987, p. 4), is.

2.3.1 Pedagogical content knowledge

According to Shulman (1987), teacher knowledge is made of several essential elements such as knowledge of educational ends and contexts, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, curriculum knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge as well as content knowledge and *pedagogical content knowledge* (PCK), which is the most significant element. Indeed, this concept gives all its originality to Shulman's theory and deserves some explanations. PCK has to do with the transformation of the scholarly knowledge into something comprehensible to a wider public, to learners of different ages and from various backgrounds. It also includes the capacity to anticipate difficulties and the ability to come up with adapted strategies in order to make learners overcome them. In other words, PCK corresponds to a deep understanding of the subject to be taught and to the skill to transmit it, taking into consideration the target audience, its representations, preconceptions and the problems or questions that might arise (Shulman, 1986, pp. 9-10). All the interest of PCK lies in the fact that it is unique to teachers and that it differentiates the expert of a discipline from a person actually teaching it (Mishra & Koehler, 2006). What is more, PCK seems to account for the difference of teaching expertise between trainee teachers and expert ones. Having observed a language teacher with 25 years of experience, Shulman (1987, p. 2) pointed out that the "combination of subject-matter understanding and pedagogical skill [of expert teachers is] quite dazzling", and this is what PCK is all about. According to him, it is about unifying content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, understanding and skill (p. 5).

Shulman's theory marked a turning point in the study of teacher knowledge, and the concept of PCK has been in constant evolution since then. Hashweh (2005, p. 274) highlights that it finally encompasses more than it used to, including "knowledge of subject-matter, orientations, student characteristics, aims and purposes, resources and pedagogy." He also criticises the fact that Shulman did not explain the relationship between the seven subcategories of teacher knowledge (Hashweh, p. 276). Another criticism comes from Mishra and Koehler (2006), according to whom Shulman did not describe the different categories of knowledge in a consistent way. There are indeed some differences between the components presented in the 1986 and the 1987's articles. Interestingly however, Mishra and Kohler have tried to extend the concept of PCK to the use of technology in class, coming up with the concept of technological pedagogical

content knowledge. It makes sense to adapt PCK to the recent integration of technology in class and I therefore find their update very relevant. Finally, I would like to mention Hill, Loewenberg Ball and Shilling's (2008) study where a new concept of teachers' knowledge of content and students is developed. They propose three subcategories of PCK, knowledge of the curriculum being one of them, as well as three subcategories of subject-matter knowledge regarding mathematics teaching. In this model, subject-matter knowledge is separated from PCK, which is not aligned with the traditional view. Furthermore, the knowledge of the curriculum is integrated in PCK, which is not the case in Shulman's model. What this paper shows is the complexity of structuring and organising all the different aspects of the knowledge base of teaching and that, depending on the researchers' view, key elements can be either embedded or juxtaposed. We will come back to the role and characteristics of PCK in relation to the results of this study in the discussion chapter (see 9.3.1).

As a final point, having just stressed the difficulty of defining what PCK exactly encompasses, I would like to underline that scholars have not only put the emphasis on its content, but also on its quality. Abell (2008, p. 1410) expresses it in these words: "PCK is not merely the amount of knowledge in a number of component categories, it is also about the quality of that knowledge and how it is put into action." Indeed, Grossman et al. (1989) underlined that a teacher with great subject matter expertise in a subject will not necessarily be a great teacher, which shows that PCK cannot be neglected. Concerning how it is acquired and how it evolves, it seems that teachers' beliefs, prior knowledge and experience have a role to play (Watzke, 2007). Finally, Van Driel and Berry (2012) acknowledge that PCK is difficult to teach because it is not only topic-, but person- and context-specific as well. Consequently, they consider as an asset the fact that teachers share practices and experiences, and they also encourage reflection.

2.3.2 Personal practical knowledge

In the 1980s, Shulman was not the only one to interest himself in what teachers knew. Another model emerged at that time, that of *practical knowledge*. Elbaz (1983) conducted a case study on a Canadian high school teacher of English to better understand the complexity of her job. Here is what she noticed:

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[T]he teacher exhibits wide-ranging knowledge which grows as experience increases. This knowledge encompasses first-hand experience of students' learning styles, interests, needs, strengths and difficulties, and a repertoire of instructional techniques and classroom management skills. The teacher knows the social structure of the school and what it requires, of teacher and student, for survival and for success; she knows the community of which the school is a part, and has a sense of what it will and will not accept. This experiential knowledge is informed by the teacher's theoretical knowledge of subject matter, and of areas such as child development, learning and social theory. All of these kinds of knowledge, as integrated by the individual teacher in terms of personal values and beliefs and as oriented to her practical situation, will be referred to here as 'practical knowledge'. (p. 5)

In her definition of practical knowledge, Elbaz (1983) encompasses the teacher's knowledge of herself, of the milieu, the subject matter knowledge, the knowledge of the curriculum and instructional knowledge. It seems that several components of Elbaz's theory have a correspondence in Shulman's one. However, it appears that it is not a one-to-one match, as my attempt to put them in parallel in Appendix A shows.

Following Elbaz's theoretical framework, Clandinin (1986; Clandinin & Connelly, 1987) developed the concept of *personal practical knowledge*, where the emphasis is on the personal experience of teachers. "Initially, we understood teacher knowledge as derived from personal experience, that is that knowledge is not something objective and independent of the teacher to be learned and transmitted but, rather, is the sum total of the teacher's experiences." (Connelly, Clandinin, & He, 1997, p. 666) Here again, the context is regarded as very important given that teachers acquire experience in the particular context of a school, and then apply and build on it in a school environment as well (p. 672).

All in all, according to Abell's (2008) positive answer to *Does pedagogical content knowledge remain a useful idea?*, and to Golombek's (2009) update on personal practical knowledge, it appears that both concepts still have a role to play in second language (L2) teacher education. In addition, Verloop, Van Driel, and Meijer (2001) highlight that taking the teachers' knowledge and beliefs into account is relevant since they are key to successful educational innovations. This will be developed further in the next chapter, which is about curricular changes and innovations in teaching. Moreover, personal practical knowledge will also be discussed in 9.3.2. For now, I would like to conclude by bringing together the terms of belief and knowledge.

2.4 Concluding remarks

Jackson (1968, p. 167) insisted on the roles played by beliefs and knowledge in teaching, emphasising the predominance of the former over the latter.

Given the complexity of his work, the teacher must learn to tolerate a high degree of uncertainty and ambiguity. He must be content with doing not what he *knows* is right, but what he *thinks* or *feels* is the most appropriate action in a particular situation. In short, he must play it by ear.

Since then, much has been written on the subject, and scholars have often presented the difference between both concepts (Richardson, 1996; A. G. Thompson, 1992; Woods, 2003). However, I would argue that most attempts to differentiate beliefs and knowledge have been mere reformulations of some of Abelson's distinctive features (1979) which are, according to me, the most complete, detailed and convincing ones, even though they date back to the late 1970s. More recently, the trend is to regard these two notions as complementary and entangled (Fives & Buehl, 2012), which is actually in line with Borg's definition of teacher cognition presented in 2.2.1.

In this study, my approach is based on his definition of cognition emphasising the teachers' educational knowledge, beliefs and thoughts in both the macro-context of the school system and the micro-context of their classroom that is influenced by contextual factors, the teachers' own institutional context, their schooling, their training and practice. The main elements of this model are represented in Figure 4 (for more details, see the original model in Borg's book).

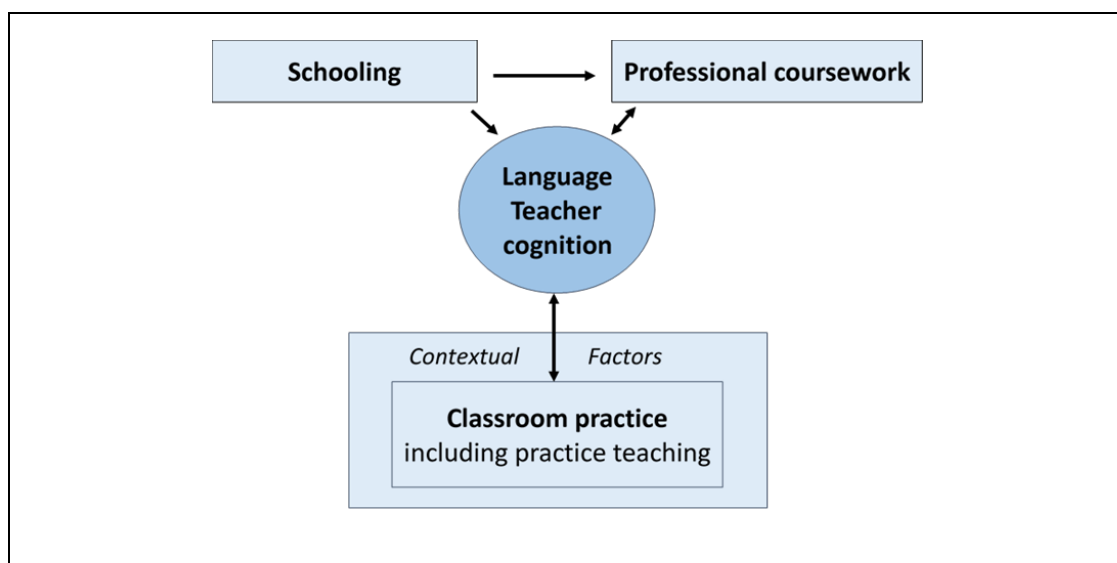


Figure 4 Elements and Processes in Language Teacher Cognition, Adapted from Borg (2015b, p. 333)

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Although I acknowledge the importance of knowledge, I have decided to mainly focus on teachers' beliefs in order to limit the scope of the study. Nevertheless, a short section (2.3) has been dedicated to knowledge in this chapter with the aim to clearly show what it implies from a theoretical approach. In practice though, I am aware that beliefs and knowledge are difficult to differentiate (2.2.2).

In view of the theoretical elements presented so far, I postulate that beliefs are organised in systems (2.2.3) and along a central-peripheral continuum (2.2.4) where the central ones, probably dating back to their youth when they were themselves language learners (Lortie, 1975), tend to be the most influential ones (2.2.5, 2.2.6). To sum up, beliefs can be explicit or implicit (2.2.1), professed or enacted (2.2.7). If we acknowledge that they are organised in clusters, then they can also be core or peripheral (2.2.4), as well as stable or dynamic (2.2.1). Finally, beliefs tend not to be reliable predictors of practices due to their multifaceted nature (2.2.7). In this chapter I have tried to demonstrate that the concept of belief is subtle, and that this complexity must be taken into consideration. Based on the results of this study, the characteristics of both beliefs and knowledge will be addressed in the discussion chapter (in 9.1 and 9.3 respectively). Next, I would like to turn to another research area, that of the implementation of change.

Chapter 3 The Implementation of Change

This study sets out to examine the role of teacher beliefs in the implementation of a new curriculum. Now that the concept of belief has been defined, I would like to shed some light on the process of change. This chapter therefore first addresses the role of language policy and planning (3.1) since they are a backdrop to language educational policies that can bring about reforms from a top-down perspective. It also presents the process of educational innovations and what it implies for the teachers, namely a need to reculture to implement the desired changes (3.2). The subsequent section narrows down the focus and revolves around curriculum implementation, with the aim to define it and to review previous studies in this field of research (3.3). The chapter then moves on to the Swiss context and gives an overview of the political decisions that have led to a change of curriculum and teaching materials (3.4). As for the last part, it also addresses the issue of change, but from a different perspective. From the national and institutional levels that deal with educational policies, we shift in viewpoint and explore changes at an individual level, at the teacher level (3.5). To conclude the literature review, I present my rationale for this study (3.6).

3.1 Language policy as the onset of change

A language policy is a complex set of plans where language practices, language beliefs, and language planning (Spolsky, 2004) are taken into consideration. It corresponds to both the “decision-making processes and the setting of goals” (Ferguson, 2006, p. 16), two necessary steps before a government can actually impose or implement a policy (Spolsky, 2004), which is commonly referred to as language planning (Ferguson, 2006). Language policies can be more or less official, ranging from tacit practices to straightforward and official statements (Spolsky, 2004). I would argue that this distinction is important in this study because it implies that there might not only be an official way of teaching, but also another way based on practical reasons. A focus on teacher beliefs and practices might consequently help to understand the impact of a particular language policy.

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Language planning emerged with the idea of “national identity formation” (Ferguson, 2006, p. 1) according to which one nation should be built around a single language. Status and corpus planning were established for this purpose. The former is the concern of politicians who decide what language(s) prevail in different sectors of society, and the latter is a linguists’ issue since it relates to the language itself, its form and standardization (pp. 20-21). Things have evolved since the nation-state ideal and nowadays language policies and planning can have various roles, such as for instance language promotion or restriction (Wiley & García, 2016).

In the last two decades, policymakers could not fail to take into account the general spread of English (Spolsky, 2004) as well as the decision of the European Council (*Barcelona European Council 15-16 March 2002. Presidency conclusions, 2002, p. 19*) to promote at least two foreign languages at school. As a result, English is now taught worldwide besides the state language and often along with another additional language that can potentially be a regional, national or minority one (Cenoz & Gorter, 2012; Mitchell, 2010). This was made possible thanks to what Cooper (1989, p. 33) called “acquisition planning”, which is regarded as another dimension of language planning, and which is of particular importance in the domain of education (Wiley & Garcia, 2016). Acquisition planning is the result of language education policies (LEP), described by Shohamy (2006, p. 76) in these words:

Specifically, LEP refers to carrying out LP [language policy] decisions in the specific contexts of schools and universities in relation to home languages (previously referred to as ‘mother tongues’) and to foreign and second languages. These decisions often include issues such as: which language(s) to teach, and learn in schools? When (at what age) to begin teaching these languages? For how long (number of years and hours of study) should they be taught? By whom, for whom (who is qualified to teach and who is entitled or obligated to learn) and how (which methods, materials, tests, etc.)?

It must be noted that it is not only relevant to choose which language(s) to teach, but also which variety of a given language to favour (Spolsky, 2009). Researchers (Ferguson, 2006; Spolsky, 2009) agree on the fact that a language education policy is a very influential instrument of control in the sense that it enforces and upholds the decisions taken by the authorities regarding languages. As a result, the educational system of a country can be seen as the mirror of its government’s political and ideological positions. To be implemented, these LEP are most of the time supported by curricula, teaching materials and tests (Shohamy, 2006).

As last links of the chain, teachers are often regarded as policy “executors” (Parent, 2011, p. 186), “servant of the system” (Shohamy, 2006, p. 79) or “final arbiters of language policy implementation” (Menken & García, 2010, p. 1). However, it can be argued that teachers are more than just puppets following guidelines, and should instead be seen as puppeteers in the sense that they enliven education policies. Language policy is thus a dynamic process where teachers are policymakers according to Menken and Garcia (2010, p. 2), as developed further in 3.3.2. Moreover, in their view, the fact that teachers are part of a system must not be overlooked. This implies that other agents such as parents, test makers, curriculum and course book writers (p. 256) also have a role to play, as do local authorities, teacher trainers and school leaders. Indeed, the implementation process depends on the resources, the values and understanding around a given policy (Wiley & García, 2016), and several people share the responsibility, not just the teachers.

3.2 Educational innovations and the need to reculture

Whether it is to give the students a better education, to harmonise education, to introduce a new school subject or a different teaching approach, teachers are confronted with educational reforms during their career. They constantly need to face innovations so as to meet the students’ needs and to satisfy the increasingly demanding requirements of the society (Fullan, 1993, p. 5). On the other hand, the educational system is generally highly conservative and tends to avoid change (p. 3). As a result, the change process is a complex, dynamic, and unpredictable one, this is why it is unlikely to enable the parties involved to anticipate every aspect of it (pp. 19-20), hence the need for everyone to be patient and to allow time for adjustments and adaptations (Everard, Morris, & Wilson, 2004). Researchers have often realised that teachers did not necessarily implement the new ideas presented to them (Connelly et al., 1997; Fullan, 1993; Snyder et al., 1992), and it then became apparent that teachers first needed to take the various elements of the reform on board for a successful change, what has been regarded as *reculturing* (Fullan, 2007; Wedell, 2009).

In Wedell’s (2009) view, reculturing is a process through which teachers and other people involved in the reform have to go through to bring about change. It involves a modification of their professional practices and, if possible, of their beliefs as well (p. 17), which is far from straightforward. What is more, this reculturing should go hand in hand

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with the development of new practices that are in line with the innovation (p. 19). Again, developing new habits and behaviours does not happen from one day to the next, and it requires time, perseverance as well as a willingness to change. Teachers must actually be perspicacious and open-minded enough to not only question but also reflect on their established practices, which can cause a certain discomfort before they can welcome new ones (p. 34). Furthermore, “[w]hat is paramount is not simply *that* implementing agents choose to respond to policy but also *what* they understand themselves to be responding to.” (Spillane, Reiser, & Reimer, 2002, p. 393) Indeed, the way teachers comprehend the incoming information is decisive, as much as what they do with it, and they have several paths to choose from. As explained in 2.2.5, they can either adjust the new information so that it matches their existing knowledge and beliefs, or, conversely, adapt their existing knowledge to make room for the incoming information. Ideally, both are necessary for a successful change. However, people often tend to cling to their views and theories, which means that the process of accommodation does not accompany that of assimilation (Nisbett & Ross, 1980, p. 168). It appears then that adding something to old schemes is not self-evident, as Spillane et al. (2002, p. 396) have explained:

...learning new ideas such as instructional approaches is not simply an act of encoding these new ideas; it may require restructuring a complex of existing schemas, and the new ideas are subject to the danger of being seen as minor variations of what is already understood rather than as different in critically important ways.

For this reason, educational reforms are not linear in their progression, as we might expect, and Wedell’s concept of reculturing, somewhat reminiscent of that of assimilation and accommodation, is key in the process. Its innovative aspect is that it is situated. It implies a change that is embedded both in an educational (Wedell, 2009, p. 33) and organizational culture (pp. 90-91), involving all the actors of a particular context to get deeply and actively involved in the reform for it to take place. At the micro level, teachers and their various understandings of the expected innovation(s) experience different realities, and this is precisely why Wedell argues that the projected change(s) cannot be uniform (pp. 30-32). Sanchez and Borg (2014) also make this point, explaining that even teachers working in a same school might have different interpretations and reactions, as examples provided in 7.2.2 will illustrate. Additionally, the significance of the need to reculture will be discussed in 9.3.3 along with the results. The next section narrows down

the scope of interest, and examines the role of contextual factors as well as a specific educational innovation, namely the implementation of a new curriculum.

3.3 Curriculum implementation

First, I begin by defining the terms commonly used in the field of curriculum implementation (3.3.1). After presenting three possible levels of curriculum implementation (3.3.2), I review the numerous factors that can affect curricular innovations before mentioning some key research results focusing on teacher beliefs and practices in the area of curriculum implementation (3.3.3).

3.3.1 Defining terms

I have already alluded to the issue of curriculum implementation, and the use of this term needs to be defined more precisely. For Nunan (1988, p. 8), it is related to “the planning, implementation, evaluation, management, and administration of education programmes.” It can also include the official teaching materials and instructional methods to be used (Shulman, 1986, p. 10). As for P. Grossman and Thompson (2008, p. 2015), it is a cover term that encompasses the state standards, long- and short-term schemes of work as well as course books and even the other materials used in class, whether created by the teachers or not. Beacco et al. (2010, pp. 9-10) also include several levels when referring to what curriculum entails: “international (supra), national/regional (macro), school (meso), class, teaching group or teacher (micro) or even individual (nano)”. All this goes to show that, in theory, curriculum planning is an interplay of several dimensions. As a result, it is essential to define what is meant by curriculum in a particular context. In my study of the Swiss context, the term curriculum refers to the official documents listing the state standards, i.e. the knowledge the students should achieve, known as Plan d'études romand (PER) and presented further in 3.4.3. As for the definition of a syllabus, it is narrower because rather localised at the classroom level. A syllabus indeed “focuses more narrowly on the selection and grading of content.” (Nunan, 1988, p. 8)

In the field of curriculum research, the study of curriculum change is commonly referred to as *curriculum implementation*, which gives rise to a certain ambiguity according to Snyder et al. (1992). Indeed, the term ‘implementation’ leads one to assume that the

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change is effective and that it is being carried out, but it is not necessarily the case. Studies have shown that it is not because an innovation is planned or imposed that it is actually taking place at a micro level (Wedell, 2009, p. 43). Thus, in order to stay in line with the terminology used in this area of study, and following H. Wang and Cheng (2009, p. 137), I will use the expression *curriculum implementation* to describe a process, i.e. the teachers' actions designed to help their students reach the overall objectives set up by the authorities. We must however bear in mind the underlying assumption that not all students will necessarily reach them. As mentioned previously in 3.1, another issue is also that the curriculum standards might be achieved by different means from the official ones. Teachers may indeed have individual ways of making materials work, or achieving good test results. A focus on tacit beliefs informing teacher practices may hence provide access to this fuzzy area.

3.3.2 Researching curriculum implementation: curriculum fidelity, adaptation and enactment

As far as curricular innovations are concerned, they can involve a wide range of changes, from teachers' role to a change of content (Snyder et al., 1992). Markee (1997, p. 46) defines them as a "managed process of development whose principal products are teaching (and/or testing) materials, methodological skills, and pedagogical values that are perceived as new by potential adopters." Furthermore, he also highlights their socially embedded aspect, which makes it a complex research area. Snyder et al. (1992) reviewed three common approaches used by researchers to investigate curriculum implementation. These approaches can be placed along a continuum, from curriculum fidelity to curriculum enactment at both ends, with curriculum adaptation in the middle. Their various theoretical implications are outlined next.

The researchers analysing a curriculum implementation from the fidelity perspective expect the teachers to deliver what is in the curriculum in a linear way and to scrupulously stick to it. The use of check-lists would therefore help analyse how their practices compare to the curriculum. As for researchers following the curriculum adaptation approach, they devote their attention to the adjustments made to the curriculum by the teachers to make it fit into their local context, and the curriculum change is consequently seen as a process. This case is less predictable since teachers

would make certain changes to the curriculum and supplement the teaching materials. The third and final approach places the teacher at the curriculum enactment end, where the teachers and the students work hand in hand to develop a curriculum matching the learners' needs. In this case, the researcher sees the curriculum change as an ongoing process, where the curriculum is brought to life by a bottom-up approach. Hence, depending on which position they embrace, researchers would adopt a different attitude towards the analysis of curriculum implementation.

In his empirical study based on Snyder et al.'s (1992) curriculum approaches, Shower (2010) analysed how college EFL teachers dealt with the curriculum and used the textbook. The data were collected using observations as well as pre- and post-observation interviews. The results demonstrated that teachers acted either as curriculum-transmitters (based on the fidelity perspective), curriculum-developers (following the adaptation approach) or curriculum-makers (following the enactment approach). More interestingly, Shower developed lists of strategies used in each of the three cases, but it was beyond the scope of their study to determine why the teachers, all trained and experienced, would choose an approach over another.

Macalister (2016) also considers the teachers' options regarding the use of textbooks as part of curriculum implementation. He explains that, at one end of the continuum, the teachers and learners negotiate what happens in the classroom by defining the objectives, selecting the material and compromising on the assessment processes. At the other end, teachers and learners are rigorously guided by examinations, a set textbook and a national curriculum. Therefore, it seems that the drivers depend on the context. In the last years of the Korean compulsory education system for instance, Parent (2011) found out that the teachers did not feel they had a lot of freedom, and very often thought that "the course book [was] the curriculum" (p. 190). Indeed, they followed it strictly and only supplemented it when they had some extra time. In 9.2.1.1, the various ways to accommodate the curriculum introduced in the current section will be applied to the data.

To sum up, this indicates that the teaching context plays a significant role since it might exert a strong influence on the teachers. Moreover, the researcher's position along the continuum influences the way they investigate the phenomenon of curriculum change. As

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a matter of fact, the degree of implementation will vary according to the standpoint adopted, and a certain behaviour that does not align with the fidelity perspective might be totally acceptable in the adaptation one. The issue here goes far beyond a matter of terminology, and the central question is to determine at what point a certain adaptation, development or enactment becomes non-implementation (Snyder et al., 1992, p. 431). This leads to the examination of possible factors that might affect curriculum innovation, and even lead to implementation failure.

3.3.3 Factors affecting curriculum innovation

The fact that beliefs and practices are closely related is now a well-established fact (Borg, 2009) as presented in 2.2.7. However, researchers are still unsure about how they affect each other, especially when there is a change of curriculum. This has led researchers to conduct empirical studies about the topic in two different areas: firstly in the field of mathematics and science, where enquiry-based instruction had to be introduced (Keys, 2007; Roehrig & Kruse, 2005; Smith & Southerland, 2007; Wilkins, 2008), and secondly in language teaching, where a shift towards a more communicative approach was expected in both primary (Carless, 1998; Kirkgöz, 2008) and secondary education (Kim, 2011; D. Li, 1998; Orafi & Borg, 2009; Shawer, 2010). Several researchers (mentioned below) have turned their attention to the reasons why curriculum innovations might not provide the expected results. They have come up with several possible factors influencing the outcomes of such changes, and here is an overview.

It can be due to a problem of management during the implementation (Everard et al., 2004) given that several actors are involved (Markee, 1997), and to teachers and their beliefs in particular (Carless, 1998; D. Li, 1998; Smith & Southerland, 2007; Woolfolk Hoy, Davis, & Pape, 2006; Xu, 2012; Zhang & Liu, 2014). They might indeed be reluctant to apply something regarded as too remote from their schema or context, might consider the change to be implemented as already familiar, or the way they have been teaching so far good enough, or they might even misunderstand what is expected of them (Spillane et al., 2002). Therefore, this raises questions regarding the teachers' preparation to welcome a curriculum innovation. Studies have demonstrated that teacher training and attitudes actually matter (Carless, 1998; Kirkgöz, 2008). Indeed, it seems that the more reflexive teachers are, the better prepared they will be to understand their practices and

then implement change (Liao, 2007; Sanchez, 2013; Voinea & Bota, 2015; Wilkins, 2008). Furthermore, a shortage of trained teachers is regularly mentioned as negatively affecting the teaching of a particular subject as well as curriculum implementation to a certain extent (Darling-Hammond & Liberman, 2012; Kirkgöz, 2008; Kocaman & Cansiz, 2012; Zappa-Hollman, 2007). When there are not enough trained professionals, schools indeed hire either untrained people or teachers having only attended a quick in-service training, which undoubtedly affects the quality of teaching. All in all, these factors mainly fall under one category, related to the human aspect, which is even more important for the success of a reform than concrete elements such as for example the teaching materials or class size according to Wedell (2009, pp. 24-25).

Another matter on which researchers agree is the essential role played by unclear planning and instructions, or to contextual factors (Smith & Southerland, 2007) such as for example the washback effect (Nishino, 2012). In the context of curriculum reform in China, Zhang and Liu (2014), whose main data originated from a large number of questionnaires and a few interviews, established that high-stakes tests and washback effect exerted much pressure on the teachers, as did the older teachers' own experience of the grammar-translation method. In a study conducted at secondary school in Iran, Tamimy (2015) also identified factors impeding the alignment of his participants' beliefs and practices, as for instance the lack of resources (time, technology) and materials. Conversely, in their study of two Argentinian secondary school teachers, Sanchez and Borg (2014) found that the alignment of their beliefs and practices was mainly due to the context that was not a constraint, and also partly to their experience and ability to reflect. Interestingly, all these studies have stressed the importance of contextual factors, as did X. Zheng and Borg (2014) who explored the beliefs as well as the practices of secondary school teachers of English implementing a new curriculum in China. Their findings showed that the implementation was strongly influenced by the curriculum materials, the teachers' beliefs about grammar, about teaching and learning as well as by the class size, student ability, time and examination pressure.

This shows that particular attention has been paid to teacher beliefs and how important context is, which means that studies in the field of cognition and curriculum implementation have to be situated in a well-defined context (Borg, 2003; Kagan, 1992; Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2006). Here, context is considered as "a multifaceted construct"

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(Spillane et al., 2002, p. 404), including, at the macro level, the political and social constraints imposed upon schools and teaching; at the micro level the local setting as well as the environmental conditions, not forgetting the teachers' interactions with their environment (Smith & Southerland, 2007, p. 400). It appears then that both the broad and narrow contexts of the teaching condition need to be described to develop an accurate portrait that will provide the researcher with a full view of the situation. Consequently, an in-depth portrayal of the context in which this research project took place is presented in 3.4 (macro context) and 4.3 (micro context). In the discussion chapter, 9.2.1 and 9.2.2 will be dedicated to the role of contextual factors and to the teachers' core beliefs influencing the curriculum implementation in the Valais.

This section has outlined the most salient issues emerging in the literature about curriculum implementation, and it seems that a detailed and careful analysis of a particular teaching context combined with an analysis of the teachers' beliefs and personal understanding of a reform might provide insight into the way a desired reform is being implemented. I next present the context of the study where many changes have recently occurred.

3.4 An example of curriculum implementation: the Valaisan context

I begin this section with a short presentation of the Swiss context (3.4.1) before moving on to a historical overview of the Swiss language education policies (3.4.2) highlighting the most recent decisions that have led to the introduction and harmonisation of English teaching (3.4.3). Indeed, English has now successfully established itself in the Swiss cantons, where it is taught at compulsory school in the Valais (the canton where I collected the data) in addition to German. This leads to the final parts that focus on the language curriculum (3.4.4), as well as on the current teaching situation and teaching materials (3.4.5). My aim is to offer an overview that enables the reader to establish an accurate mental picture of what teaching is like in this particular setting where there have recently been many changes pertaining to the teaching of English.

3.4.1 The general context of Switzerland

Switzerland and its four national languages has found a “territorial solution to multilingualism” (Spolsky, 2009, p. 154). Indeed, each canton is responsible for its own language policy, for its educational system and hence also for its language educational policy, whose key issues are discussed below. Coordination at the national level is sought thanks to the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (CDIP), where the twenty-six ministers of education come up with political declarations, make recommendations and reach inter-cantonal agreements. Moreover, the ministers of education at the head of French-speaking and bilingual cantons also meet at a regional level to take decisions. This is called the Intercantonal Conference of Ministers of Education in French-speaking Switzerland and Tessin (CIIP). The current situation of the French-speaking part of the Valais regarding the teaching of German and English nowadays is the result of the decisions taken at the national, interregional and cantonal levels. Accommodating English to the school curriculum was made possible thanks to language planning which takes on its full meaning in Switzerland, where it can be seen as an “organised pursuit of solutions to language problems” (Fishman, 1974, p. 79). The following sections discuss the governmental decisions that have led to the present situation (a summary of the key dates and overview of the Valaisan compulsory education system is provided in Appendix B).

3.4.2 Historical overview of the introduction of English at compulsory education

In 1975, the CDIP stated that the first foreign language to be taught in French-speaking Switzerland was German (CDIP, 1975, p. 27), which started to be taught at primary school in the Valais. As for English, it was only introduced in 1987 as an optional course in the last year of compulsory school in the Valais (Le Grand Conseil, 1987)¹. This decision was in harmony with the document called *General Concept for Language Teaching* drawn up by a group of experts appointed by the CDIP in 1998. In this document, they did not only recognise the importance of national and foreign languages but also decided to generalise the teaching of English as a third language, a national one still being the recommended

¹ However, the students who decided to continue their studies normally had English as a main subject at high school.

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second one. This was confirmed in 2003 by the CIIP who stated that German had to be taught from the third year of primary school and English from the first year of lower secondary school, or even from the fifth year of primary school if possible (CIIP, 2003a). The Valais introduced English in the first year of secondary school as a secondary subject at the beginning of the school year 2003-2004, and cantonal objectives were developed accordingly. However, there was no global vision yet, and every canton could make local decisions. For example, the 2006 *Cantonal Concept for Language Teaching* stated that English had to be taught in heterogeneous classes in the first year of secondary school and then in homogenous classes according to the students' level (Service de l'enseignement, 2006). As for German, it was still taught from the third year of primary school and regarded as a core subject in lower secondary school, where it was – and still is – assessed by cantonal tests.

This shows that despite the fact that English was generalised and made part of the curriculum for all 11-year-old pupils, it was still not as privileged as German, a national language that remains the sole foreign language taught as a core subject in lower secondary school, which can be seen as a linguistic protectionist policy (Ferguson, 2006). Thus, it is not without significance that only German is tested at the cantonal level, illustrating which language is given priority by the government. Indeed, such a standardised procedure “serve[s] as a major tool for determining the status and power of specific languages in society, and especially perpetuating national languages.” (Shohamy, 2006, p. 95) Next I wish to consider the various steps that have led to a coordination of language teaching across French-speaking cantons.

3.4.3 Towards harmonisation: Harmos and the PER

In 2004, still willing to harmonise language teaching in Switzerland, the CDIP developed a work programme taking into account teaching objectives, assessment and teacher training among others. Its aim was to coordinate language learning at the national level (CDIP, 2004). This harmonisation strategy was taken up in the Inter-cantonal Agreement about Compulsory School called *Harmos* (CDIP, 2007). Approved by the Valais, *Harmos* entered in force in August 2009 (CIIP, 2007) once at least ten cantons had accepted it. From then on, the signatory cantons had six years to implement the agreement. So far, most of the Swiss cantons have managed to introduce a national language as well as

English in the third and fifth year of primary school, now called fifth and seventh Harmos (from now on referred to as 5H and 7H, as presented in Table B.1 in Appendix B) (CDIP, 2015, p. 22). Shohamy (p. 79) recalls that, to be better implemented, language education policies are often turned into curriculum and course books, and this is exactly what has happened in Switzerland, as outlined next.

Whereas the Harmos agreement homogenises the structure and aims of compulsory school at the national level, the development of two curricula has been necessary to standardise the objectives to reach, one for the German-speaking part, the other one for the French-speaking part of Switzerland. The final version of the latter, called PER, meets the national requirements in regard with compulsory school and defines the levels to be achieved at the end of each cycle². This curriculum ensued from the CIIP's 2003 *Declaration About the Finalities and Objectives of State School* and the *French-Speaking School Convention* (CIIP, 2007). The PER (CIIP, 2010a) was adopted by the CIIP in 2010, and was gradually introduced in the Valais from 2011 onwards. Before its introduction, all the teachers at compulsory school attended a short training during which they could familiarise themselves with it, both at the level of its general organisation and at the level of the particular subjects they were teaching (Germanier, 2011). Since 2011 then, the pupils start learning English in Year 7 at the age of 10. This first generation of pupils arrived at lower secondary school in August 2013, which required the English section of the PER to be updated (CIIP, 2012), which shows that this curriculum had an evolving nature (CIIP, 2013). I next explore the key features of the PER regarding English as well as the teaching materials developed accordingly.

3.4.4 The language curriculum

Interestingly, as pointed out by de Pietro, Gerber, Leonforte, and Lichtenauer (2015), the linguistic situation of Switzerland had evolved considerably due to mobility, migration, and globalization since the last official curricula were released in the 1970s and 1980s. This has actually been taken into consideration in the PER, that has not only added English to the Swiss school language curriculum, but that has also adopted a pluralistic approach

² cycle 1: 1H-2H-3H-4H, from age 4 to 8; cycle 2: 5H-6H-7H-8H, from age 8 to 12 (8H=end of primary school); cycle 3: 9H-10H-11H, from age 12 to 15 (11H=end of lower secondary school)

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to languages (Daryai-Hansen et al., 2015). This means that the objective is now to develop the student's plurilingual repertoire that does not only include French (the language of schooling), German (L2), English (L3), but also the students' heritage languages as well as ancient languages (CIIP, 2012, p. 6). It appears then that this new language curriculum is much more inclusive regarding languages. Furthermore, this integrative curriculum also encourages the students to think about the possible relationships between languages, and to engage with the cultures they represent, thus emphasising the importance of language awareness and intercultural understanding. Ultimately and in a more general way, a plurilingual repertoire is presented as an asset in the life of any citizen, which is reminiscent of the Council of Europe. Therefore, language learning is presented as having various benefits in terms of personal development (Mitchell, 2010). In the general comments of the PER, it is put forward that the knowledge of several languages can be regarded as an asset for the students' future professional life as well as for their social life (CIIP, 2012, p. 6), which seems to acknowledge the emerging global role of English. Similarly, it is stated that English should allow the students to cope when they travel (p. 59) whereas foreign language learning should develop their positive attitudes "towards the target language and the people who speak it" (p. 19). This consequently seems to suggest that the focus is on Anglophone countries when it comes to culture, listening and reading in the target language (pp. 18, 43, 45). So while the PER does not clearly present English as a global language, it does not necessarily deny it this status.

This was for the overarching vision. Regarding the teaching objectives of English for lower secondary schools, they are presented in twelve pages and organised by key concepts (CIIP, 2012, pp. 10-11):

- Understand diverse oral texts related to everyday life³
- Autonomously read texts written in common language⁴
- Produce diverse oral texts related to everyday life: sustained monologue and interaction⁵

³ Comprendre des textes oraux variés propres à des situations de la vie courante...

⁴ Lire de manière autonome des textes rédigés en langage courant...

⁵ Produire des textes oraux variés propres à des situations de la vie courante: s'exprimer oralement en continu et prendre part à une conversation...

- Write diverse texts about familiar topics or of personal interest⁶
- Observe how language works and get familiar with the basic tools necessary to understand and produce texts⁷

We can see that there is an emphasis on the four skills with an additional section on the language structure, which shows that the curriculum has a communicative orientation, and this is also the case as far as the teaching materials and assessment are concerned (as explained in 3.4.5). Each section provides broad descriptors of what should be covered in class during lower secondary school (Years 9-10-11), as well as the required minimum knowledge every student should have achieved by the end of Year 11. Finally, some guidance is provided regarding classroom pedagogy for each skill, with the intention of fostering good practice (Mitchell, 2010). Furthermore, the expected learners' achievements as labelled in the Common European Framework of Reference and European Language Portefolio are also provided. Finally, it is worth mentioning that the various languages have all been grouped in a single section of the PER, and that the curriculum has been developed for all languages according to the same model, providing attainments in terms of linguistic competence and language knowledge. From these languages, English is the only one with an emerging global role.

Despite the fact that the political direction and the forces of globalisation have opened a path for English in the curriculum, which corresponds to the official policy, there has not been any detailed account of what has happened in the field since the PER has been released, apart from two reports (Schedel & Bonvin, 2017; Singh & Bonvin, 2015) about the pilot phase of the new teaching materials. Consequently, I hope that this study will complete the picture and give us insight into the tacit side of the policy as well.

3.4.5 Current teaching in the Valais and *English in Mind*

In order to optimise the way the cantons would implement this new language curriculum, they were required to develop common educational materials and resources that were PER-compatible (CIIP, 2010b). Regarding the teaching of English, the classes I observed in

⁶ Ecrire des textes variés sur des sujets familiers ou d'intérêt personnel...

⁷ Observer le fonctionnement de la langue et s'appropriier des outils de base pour comprendre et produire des textes...

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year 11H were still using the previous course book, *New Hotline* (NH) by Hutchinson (1998), introduced in 2003-2004, whereas *English in Mind 9e*⁸ (EiM) (Puchta, Stranks, & Parminter, 2015a) was currently used in 9H and 10H. It has now been generalised at all levels since August 2017. This international course has been adapted for French-speaking Switzerland by Sue Parminter, an author working for Cambridge University Press, in order to match the requirements of the PER in terms of subject matter and pedagogy. She had to make many changes to ensure the books matched the curriculum. It was not just about supplementing the international version, but above all about grading and organising this new course book and associated teacher's book. The teaching material is now composed of a teacher's resource book with audio CDs, a student's textbook, a workbook, a language builder that focuses on the grammar and vocabulary to be learnt, extra handouts and tests. It also includes a DVD-Rom that serves as a presentation tool. The Swiss version of *English in Mind* adopts a communicative, task-based and functional approach to learning (CIIP, n.d.), and the objectives to reach after the three years of lower secondary school are formulated using the CEFR levels. This language course clearly aligns with the PER, it focuses on the skills and includes differentiation. Indeed, activities of various levels aiming at the same objective are at the disposal of the teachers who are encouraged to consider their students' level. As there is unfortunately no document that describes how the international editions of *English in Mind* (Puchta & Stranks, 2004, 2010) were adapted for use in the French-speaking part of Switzerland, the following description is based on a comparison of the different versions and on information kindly provided via email by Sue Parminter, the adaptor. She reported that it took a few years to adapt the international versions to the Swiss curriculum, and that it involved a focus group as well as pilot teachers and classes. In her view as an author, "it was an incredibly valuable process and the resulting books really are a group effort." The following section focuses on *English in Mind 9e* (Puchta et al., 2015a), which was used by the two teachers referred to in Chapter 8.

English in Mind has been adapted to be aligned with the PER, and to ensure follow-up on work the students had previously done with *More* at primary school. In order to take into account the students' previous knowledge, the Swiss textbook starts at a slightly higher

⁸ <https://eimciip.cambridge.org/about/9e/course-info> accessed 26 April 2019

level than its international counterpart. For instance, the present simple is presented at the very beginning of the textbook whereas this is not the case in both international versions (Puchta & Stranks, 2004, 2010) where it is introduced in units 3 and 4 respectively. In response to the need of having a course book per school year, the number of units has also been reduced to match the syllabus. While the units are structured relatively similarly in the international and Swiss versions, the Swiss course book innovates in several areas. First, it offers four interdisciplinary sections (about geography, history, biology and technology). Secondly, it often refers to the vocabulary bank and grammar reference, as well as to the language builder and workbook, each time mentioning the exact page(s) to turn to (see Figure 6 in 8.1.1 and Figure 7 in 8.1.2). Thirdly, the projects are no longer presented at the end of the textbook but are integrated in the round up sections at the end of every module. Fourthly, some “focus” boxes are designed to raise the students’ awareness about specific grammatical rules. For example, students are encouraged to reflect on the prepositions normally used with times, days, times of day, months, dates and years (Puchta et al., 2015a, p. 29). Finally, I would say that the main difference between this edition and the international ones concerns the appendices. Indeed, a first appendix of 10 pages provides speaking activities for pair work. The next appendix summarises the grammar in 15 pages while the following one is a vocabulary bank dedicated to words regarded as particularly difficult. The textbook ends with a list of irregular verbs as well as French-English and English-French wordlists.

As far as the adaptation of the workbook (Puchta, Stranks, & Parminter, 2015b) is concerned, I would say that its originality comes from the proposed set of mixed-ability activities. Indeed, the students can choose between three different levels of difficulty for a same learning objective. At level one for example, the correct answer needs to be circled, while the students have to fill in the blanks with the correct answer at level two, and write a full sentence at level three. In addition, every unit presents, in French, a short section focusing on language learning strategies (an example is provided in Figure 9 in section 8.2.2) as well as a “watch out” section that emphasises common errors made by French speakers. These pages were produced by Sue Parminter who was able to consult the Cambridge Learner Corpus database.

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Another important element of the English educational materials is the language builder (Parminter, 2015), which is a vocabulary and grammar record that the students have to fill in. Every unit has a section called “language links” where a notion or a function (ex: asking for permission, saying years) are presented in parallel in English, French and German. This is in accordance with the integrative curriculum whose aim is to raise the students’ awareness about the relationships between languages as previously mentioned in 3.4.4. Such a reference booklet is not available in the international versions of *English in Mind* but it is regarded as essential by the teachers, as the data analysis will show (for example in 7.3.4 and 9.1.2.1).

As far as the teacher’s book (Parminter, Reilly, Hart, Puchta, & Stranks, 2015) is concerned, apart from the ‘Memo from Mario’ pages that are based on the international versions, it was written specifically for the CIIP version from scratch. Since the teacher’s books written to accompany the primary school teaching materials *More* were very popular, she followed the same structure to write the teacher’s book for the CIIP version of *English in Mind*. This is why it provides numerous ideas for warmers, coolers, and a games bank, among others. As for the teaching tips, the format and structure of the notes and the optional activities, they were all developed with feedback from the focus groups. Finally, to complement this teacher’s book, there is also a website for teachers and students that is unique to the Swiss version.

As previously explained in 3.4.3, German and English teaching in the Valais is presently guided by principles coming from Harnos and by the objectives from the PER. It must be added, however, that the 2009 *Cantonal Law about the Transitional Cycle* (Le Grand Conseil, 2009) has greatly influenced the way languages have been taught recently. Indeed, since this law has entered into force, the teachers should focus on the four skills in class and assess the students accordingly. This means that language in use should mainly be assessed with the productive skills rather than in isolation. In other words, communication comes first. As a result, if the message is understandable, the students should get the average grade: “in assessment, the student’s capacity to communicate must be prioritised over formal accuracy”⁹ (CIIP, 2014, p. 3). This is an innovation that

⁹ “la capacité à communiquer démontrée par l’élève est prioritaire dans l’évaluation par rapport à l’exactitude formelle”

teachers do not all implement in the same way according to the evaluation of the pilot phase (Singh & Bonvin, 2015).

Another impact of this law (Le Grand Conseil, 2009) concerns the school organisation. In the first year of lower secondary (9H), English was taught to a whole heterogeneous class three times a week (article 24). In the second and third years (10H-11H), English classes were divided into two small heterogeneous groups of 10 to 14 students so as to favour communication (articles 25 and 26), three times a week in year 10H and twice a week in year 11H. This new system was gradually put into place at the beginning of the school year 2011, as was the PER¹⁰.

This division of classes created a shortage of qualified English teachers, which is why the canton offered lower secondary teachers (teaching any subject) the opportunity to attend language training workshops so as to become proficient enough to teach English as a foreign language. The same had already happened when English was first introduced in 2003-2004. What is more, with the recent introduction (2013-2014) of English in the fifth year of primary school (7H), numerous schoolteachers also needed language training. We can consequently see that the canton has made sustained financial efforts to train its teachers in English, the training being mainly related to language skills. It must also be noted that before the implementation of the new PER-compatible educational means, i.e. *More* in primary schools (Puchta et al., 2013) and *English in Mind* at lower secondary schools, all the English teachers attended a two-day didactics training. During this training, the emphasis was put on the importance of the four skills by the trainers, on the use of inductive grammar and games, on ways to teach vocabulary and on the online resource bank available among others. The teachers, experienced ones in particular, were also encouraged to read and use the teacher's resource book described as a treasure of modern teaching tips in order to implement the new expected way of teaching. The training was given by the teachers who had piloted the course book, by the person in charge at the cantonal level and by Sue Parminter.

¹⁰ It must be acknowledged that slight changes were made to this organisation the year after the data were collected.

3.4.6 Summary

The way foreign languages are encouraged to be taught nowadays in Switzerland is not new. As early as 1975, the CDIP came up with recommendations and decisions about how to teach the second national language. They highlighted the importance of the four skills, motivation and differentiation, and emphasised the need to teach high-frequency words and strategies. They also mentioned, among others, that grammar was not as important as communication, that it was better for the students to discover it and that students had to be trained to become autonomous language learners (CDIP, 1975, p. 31 and following). This also applies to the teaching of English according to the curriculum (3.4.4), and the canton has recently provided some new teaching materials (described in 3.4.5) that should help the teachers implement these recommendations.

Overall, it appears that numerous efforts have been directed towards the time arrangement to fit English in compulsory education, towards the implementation of an English curriculum and textbooks for primary and lower secondary schools, both at the cantonal and interregional levels (as presented in 3.4.2, 3.4.3, 3.4.4). The decision to give priority to German, however, is still in place. Indeed, German is a core subject in 10H and 11H and it is assessed through cantonal examinations (relatively similar to the GCSE exam in the UK) at the end of Cycle 3, when the pupils are 15. This is not only because it is a bilingual canton, the upper part of it being German speaking, but it is also due to the fact that priority must be given to national languages (as previously explained in 3.4.2). English is then pushed into the background, being only a foundation subject such as PE, history, geography, home economics, art and music. Parents and students are well aware that German marks are more important than English ones to successfully finish the school years, so there is not much pressure regarding the teaching of English.

To conclude, it seems clear that “the visible aspects of the context” (Wedell, 2009, p. 25) are conducive to welcoming change. There are indeed adequate teaching resources, an official language educational policy and curriculum, small to reasonable class sizes, and no particular pressure due to high-stakes examinations. However, as explained in 3.3.3, those aspects are not the only ones that matter, and change in people should not be overlooked. The Valais has now a relatively large number of English teachers (about 210), but there is a great variety among them, since they have not all received the same

training to become teachers, and language teachers in particular, as pointed out in 3.4.5. (this will be developed further in 4.3.3, where the participants and their training will be presented). There has been wide ranging research into the characteristics of teacher change, and this is precisely what the next section is about.

3.5 Teacher training, development and experience as possible agents of change

In the 1980s, it appeared necessary to professionalise teaching in the United States. This was done by raising the admission criterion and by improving the training (Bullough, 2001) on the one hand, and by identifying the knowledge base for teaching (Shulman, 1987) (as defined in 2.3) on the other hand. Yet, even nowadays, not every country has clear standards defining what a qualified teacher is, and teachers are still treated unequally around the globe with regard to their status, their salary and also their training (Darling-Hammond & Liberman, 2012). In this last section about change, I explore the beliefs of pre- and in-service teachers (3.5.1), the role of teacher education programmes (3.5.2) as well as the role played by experience (3.5.3).

3.5.1 Pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs

Borg (2003) draws our attention to the fact that pre-service teachers may enter teacher education with an idealistic and unsuitable understanding of what instruction implies. This view is also held by Sanchez (2013) who claims that student teachers, with their own prior language learning experience, have clear-cut representations of what good and bad teaching is. Several studies provided evidence that pre-service teachers entered training with beliefs formed during their own schooling (Busch, 2010; Özmen, 2012). Apparently, this “apprenticeship of observation” (Lortie, 1975) leads them to teach either using the strategies they found useful when they were language students themselves, or in the same way they learnt foreign languages (Wilkins, 2008), even though they might have been able to identify drawbacks in the techniques used (Sanchez, 2013). These are thus challenges that teacher education programmes should consider. Given the powerful impact of trainee teachers' pre-existing beliefs on their professional development (Richardson, 1996), an essential role of teacher training institutions is to acknowledge them and to bring them to the surface (Cabaroğlu & Roberts, 2000). This is indeed

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essential if the training programmes want to positively influence the student teachers' beliefs (H. Zheng, 2009). And this does not only apply to the pre-service level, but to the in-service one as well.

Whereas teachers starting a teacher education programme are influenced by their own schooling, it is actually more complicated when it comes to practising teachers whose beliefs are under the influence of their previous training and teaching experience as well (Farrell & Ives, 2015; Fives & Buehl, 2012; Liao, 2007). In their study of 192 pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs in Turkey, Kocaman and Cansiz (2012) found that the former were more focussed on themselves and on keeping the flow of the lesson than the latter, who were more student-centred. Furthermore, the trainees assumed that professional competence was more important than personal characteristics to be successful in language teaching, which was not the case for the more experienced participants. Thus, the message emerging suggests that pre-service and in-service teachers hold different beliefs, and as will be demonstrated in 3.5.2 and 3.5.3, training and experience can actually influence them.

Talking about pre-service candidates in particular, Fives and Buehl (2012) suggest that their beliefs might still be insecure enough to be possibly influenced by their future practices in class among others. At the end of the day however, it is very difficult to uncover the origin of each belief held by teachers, or to identify to what extent these are modified by experience and training (Kocaman & Cansiz, 2012). Yet, it is likely that a change of behaviour on a long term basis is only possible if accompanied by a change of beliefs (Kagan, 1992), what a well-designed training could possibly trigger.

3.5.2 The influence of training on teachers

New trends, ideas or instructional methods in teacher development have more chances to be taken on board by participants who share the underlying assumptions behind them, which might not often be the case (Donaghue, 2003). If they do not hold beliefs that correspond to the activities presented, being simply exposed to them is seen as insufficient (Sanchez, 2013), what Donaghue (2003, p. 344) describes as a mismatch between input provided during training, uptake by the participants and output in practice. As for the reasons why teachers do not apply what they learn during training sessions, several reasons have been put forward apart from beliefs. We can firstly

mention the context and its traditions, then the lack of participants' permeability to new ideas as well as their lack of flexibility and inventiveness to implement innovations, what Hiver and Dörnyei (2017) refer to as "language teacher immunity". Another reason could be the fact that participants might not understand the rationale behind what is being presented to them. Additionally, the quality of the training provided can also be questioned because if its content is too theoretical, the teachers might consider it inapplicable in class (Donaghue, 2003; Sanchez, 2013). It appears then that the success of a given training or teacher education programme depends on a number of factors, but in any case, "the influence of the diverse histories of teachers" must not be overlooked (Lortie, 1975, p. 67). It must also be noted that teachers will be more willing to try a particular teaching practice in class if they hold a positive attitude towards it as well as if they believe in its effectiveness (Wilkins, 2008).

Regarding belief change, reflective practice is regarded as potentially influential (Donaghue, 2003). Whatever the teacher development course, pre-service teacher education or in-service training, research has shown that it will have a limited influence on the participants unless it allows them to get a deeper understanding of their practices and beliefs, which can be done thanks to a thorough reflection (Wilkins, 2008). Reflective practice can be seen as twofold. There is on the one hand the reflection on the trainees' own "schooling experiences" (Sanchez, 2013, p. 53) as well as the reflection that goes with their teaching practices (Xu, 2012). Indeed, looking at one's practices with the benefit of hindsight, comparing what was planned and what has actually happened, and why, might help to uncover beliefs that can then be further probed. This can be done using videos (Kagan, 1992), reflective journals or a priori/a posteriori analyses templates (Özmen, 2012). Sanchez (2013) mentions that Argentina and Switzerland have already acknowledged the value of reflective practice and therefore included it in their pre-service teacher education programmes. According to Donaghue (2003) and Kagan (1992), once the trainees' beliefs made explicit, a successful training programme should challenge them before giving the candidates the chance to "examine, elaborate, and integrate new information into their existing belief systems." (p. 77)

Several studies have analysed the impact of professional development on teachers. Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000) studied how 25 student teachers with a wide range of former experience changed their beliefs as a result of attending a PGCE secondary course.

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Their analysis revealed eleven different possibilities of belief development and change. Busch (2010) also provided evidence that professional coursework including a reflection and the tutoring of an ESL student can trigger a change of trainee's beliefs. As for Özmen (2012), he identified both the practicum and the reflective approach as having the greatest impact on the student teachers' beliefs. In contrast, Borg, Birello, Civera, and Zanatta (2014) analysed how pre-service trainees' beliefs changed after they attended an ELT methodology course in their fourth year of teacher education using an innovative way of collecting data (drawings combined with comments and interviews). Their findings did not show any radical change, but the beliefs the trainees had formed in the English language teaching methodology course the year before were reinforced or developed. This study shows that the knowledge acquired during the training course positively influenced their conceptions of effective EFL lessons, but we must bear in mind that they did not take the pre-service teachers' practices into account, which means that we do not know whether they would actually teach according to their beliefs. Indeed, Borg (2003) warns that a cognitive change of beliefs might not necessarily be accompanied by a behavioural change, in which case there will be discrepancies between what pre-service teachers say or believe in with regard to teaching and what they do when practicing, which may be a way to pass theoretical exams (Borg, 2009). Additionally, Busch (2010) calls for caution since we cannot tell for sure whether the newly acquired beliefs are only provisional or well anchored.

While all these studies focused on pre-service training, Borg (2011) investigated to what extent six in-service teachers' beliefs were influenced by an intensive 8-week training programme. His findings emphasised the importance of determining what is actually meant by 'impact', whether it necessarily implies a major change or whether a minor one can still be regarded as impact (p. 378). Overall, the evidence of his study demonstrated that the training influenced the participating teachers but to various degrees, from bringing implicit beliefs to a level of awareness to belief development and change. In contrast to these studies that have all provided evidence that teacher education can influence teachers' beliefs, some others were not able to identify any major effect (Borg, 2005; Peacock, 2001). Borg (2005) mentions as a possible reason the fact that the participants' beliefs and the program were aligned, and hence did not need to change,

while Peacock (2001) hypothesises that the trainees' beliefs formed at secondary school were so strong that they were resistant to change.

These mixed findings could be due to the different contexts of training where these studies took place. However, the evidence suggests that beliefs can actually change provided that they are tackled appropriately, which means that policy makers and boards of education should devote some energy to addressing teachers' beliefs by providing them with some training before and while any reform is conducted if they want to give it its best chance of actually being implemented (Verloop et al., 2001; Zhang & Liu, 2014). What happens too often though is that they only organise "one-shot workshops and disconnected training" (Fullan, 1993, p. 16). This is not enough for a full understanding of the expected changes or for becoming trained if new principles must be implemented, because some changes require the teachers to actually adopt new skills. As a conclusion to her study focusing on curriculum change and teacher training in Turkey, Kirkgöz (2008, p. 1859) advocates that the training provided to teachers has to be continuous and set over several school years after the introduction of the innovation in order to be effective. Her point is that teachers need to have a good command of the new teaching procedures they are expected to implement to feel secure enough to try them in class (p. 1873). Orafi and Borg (2009) reached the same conclusion observing that teachers with a lack of understanding were not able to satisfactorily implement a new curriculum. According to Richardson's (1996, p. 110) review, belief change can either be the result of some kind of teacher training, as just reviewed, or a "natural process" ensuing from experiences gained in teaching. For this reason, several studies have investigated novice or experienced teachers' beliefs, the extent to which novice and experienced teachers' beliefs differ, as well as the role of experience in belief change.

3.5.3 The role of experience

First, I would like to review how novice and experienced teachers have been defined in the literature. In previous research, novice teachers are often regarded as such when they have less than 3 years of experience (Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Gatbonton, 2008; H. Zheng, 2013). Experienced teachers with experientially informed beliefs were reported to have more than 3 years of experience (Farrell & Bennis, 2013), career teachers at least 4 years of experience (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007), and those with craft knowledge at least 5

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years (Keys, 2007). As for Barrot (2016), his experienced participants have a Master's degree and at least 15 years of teaching experience, which suggests a lack of agreement.

Various studies in the field yielded contradictory but nevertheless significant findings regarding the role of experience on beliefs and practices. Farrell and Ives (2015) investigated the relationship between the beliefs and practices of a novice English teacher who had only two years of experience teaching English for academic purposes. They found out that most of his beliefs and practices converged which he explained by the fact that, first, the course book and his professed beliefs were to a large extent aligned, and second that some of his influential beliefs were rooted in his own experience as a learner (p. 606). Mok (1994) investigated the influence of experience on the teachers' change of cognitions and he took 3 years of teaching as cut-off point. The findings revealed that the participants were influenced not only by their own experience as learner, but also by their teaching experience. Furthermore, the evidence only showed minor differences regarding beliefs about teaching between the groups of novice and experienced participants, and it did not succeed in pinpointing changes of beliefs after the teachers had finished their practicum, which suggest that this is a slow process that does not easily happen without reflective practice. Similarly, in their study focusing on foreign language teachers' stated beliefs and practices about listening pedagogy, Graham et al. (2014) did not find any differences based on the participants' experience and training.

Conversely, other studies provided evidence that teachers with a different degree of experience had different beliefs. Interested in language teachers' beliefs about effective teaching, Kissau et al. (2012), compared the beliefs of their 222 participants taking 5 years of experience as a dividing line. The survey results did not bring to light any significant differences between the two groups, and it did not either between the trained and untrained teachers. However, the interviews revealed that experienced teachers focussed more on grammar and had less issues with classroom management than the less experienced ones. Untrained L2 teachers had also more difficulties to put their beliefs into practice. Another research investigating Chinese junior high school English teachers' beliefs showed that veteran teachers were less open to accepting the teaching principles launched with the new curriculum than those who started teaching when it was released, or those who were trained to implement the constructivist approach (Zhang & Liu, 2014). Finally, Farrell and Bennis (2013) found that the beliefs of their very experienced

participant tended to converge with his classroom practices but there were also some instances where they diverged. Indeed, while the teacher reported to prefer practice activities to be communicative, grammar was only practiced communicatively in one of the three lessons observed, which could be due to time pressure. As for the novice teacher of their study, who had been teaching for only two years and a half, his beliefs tended to diverge from his classroom practices but there were also instances where they converged as well. In this case, divergences were attributable to his lack of experience as well as to his individual characteristics.

3.5.4 Summary

To sum up, this section has illustrated that teachers with a different training and experience background might hold different beliefs worth investigating. All in all, these findings are aligned with Borg's (2006) framework presented in 2.4. They show that experience might influence beliefs, practices, and the congruence between them. There is indeed evidence that the teachers' own schooling, their practicum, and teaching experience are influential. Furthermore, it appears that experience is a complex notion that is not so easily measurable. The evidence also suggests that training needs to be done in a particular way to successfully allow the teachers to become aware of their beliefs before questioning and altering them. However, there is still considerable ambiguity regarding the exact role of experience and training on teacher beliefs, as well as regarding their role as a possible factor triggering belief change. This study has yielded very interesting results regarding the role of training and experience, and these will be discussed in detail in 9.3.1 and 9.3.2.

3.6 Concluding remarks

Chapters 2 and 3 have outlined the most relevant issues emerging from the literature on curriculum implementation, on teacher beliefs and their relation to teacher practices, as well as on the influence of training and experience on teacher cognition. This has set the scene for my research, showing that both the study of beliefs and that of curricular reforms have not only been addressed in their respective fields, but that they have also been studied as two sides of the same coin, where beliefs influence the extent to which a curricular reform is being understood and implemented by teachers.

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I end this chapter highlighting that the focus of this research is the role of teacher beliefs in a context of curricular change. I am expecting the intended English curriculum to be influenced by the teachers' internal curriculum, i.e. the way they understand it, as well as by their beliefs. I wish to explore how the intended curriculum becomes the enacted curriculum, also called "curriculum 'in action'" (Nunan, 1988, p. 4) once implemented in class. In other words, from all the factors that could influence curriculum implementation, I have decided to focus on beliefs, teachers' experience and training. The teacher cognition focus is therefore a way to understand the tacit and official impact of the curriculum and language policy. All this makes it a very exciting case, and I intend to give the field insight into the power of beliefs when the teachers are not under the influence of heavy external constraints such as exams, social and institutional pressure. I have chosen the Swiss context to conduct this study because an externally forced change is taking place, which makes it an interesting setting to explore teacher beliefs. Moreover, secondary schools are under-represented in the existing body of literature on beliefs (Borg, 2015b), and even though two reports (Schedel & Bonvin, 2017; Singh & Bonvin, 2015) make an assessment of the way EiM was being implemented during the pilot phase, no assessment including the study of beliefs has been conducted in this language teaching context. The following two chapters present the research design and methods selected for that purpose.

Chapter 4 Research Design

Now that the key concepts have been defined and that the major issues related to beliefs and curriculum have been reviewed, I would like to move on to the research design used to conduct this study. This chapter first presents the research questions (4.1) and methodological approach (4.2). Then, an in-depth portrayal of the local setting and participants is provided (4.3) before concluding with some ethical considerations (4.4).

4.1 Research questions

Moving from the general issue of exploring a curricular innovation, from understanding teachers' practices and their underlying beliefs, I have designed four research questions combining these elements for guiding this research project (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 77).

1. What are the teachers' beliefs about learning, teaching, and the curriculum?
2. To what extent do beliefs and practices inform each other?
3. How do the teachers' beliefs affect the way they implement the curriculum?
4. What influence do training and experience have on the teachers' beliefs and practices?

As highlighted by Brinkman and Kvale (2015, p. 127), *how* questions are often about human experience and require qualitative data to be answered. However, quantitative methods give the researcher access to a larger number of informants (Creswell, 2014, p. 78). As a result, I have decided to conduct a case study using mixed methods to answer these research questions, as the next sections explain.

4.2 Research approach

Different methodologies give access to different sets of data, which is why careful consideration was given to the choice of the methodological approach. In this section, I first review how beliefs have traditionally been investigated (4.2.1), then I justify why I decided to conduct a case study (4.2.2). Finally, two different research traditions are

explored, and I justify the chosen research design while pointing out potential issues related to my choices (4.2.3, 4.2.4).

4.2.1 Methodology used to research beliefs

As Borg (2015a) states, the study of teachers' beliefs has gone up consistently since 2000, with a significant increase since 2010. In his recent reviews (Borg, 2009, 2015a), he pays particular attention to the data collection methods used in the field, and it appears that even though qualitative research is used in the majority of the cases (Borg, 2015a), mixed-methods studies yield good results as well. Indeed, Borg (2012, p. 18) contends that "quantitative analyses of language teacher cognition can be productively deepened through qualitative work, typically in the form of follow-up interviews with a sub-sample of questionnaire respondents". In the studies presented in his reviews, the most common methods to collect the data are interviews (pre, post, stimulated recall), observations and questionnaires (Borg, 2012, 2015a). Clearly, this is also the tendency in the studies I discussed in the literature review, and which Borg did not include in his reviews. On the other hand, more creative methods have also been used, such as journals (Farrell & Ives, 2015), self-report instruments (Erkmen, 2012), drawings (Borg et al., 2014) and metaphors (Wan, Low, & Li, 2011; Williams & Burden, 1997). The repertory grid technique has also been favoured by some isolated researchers such as Donaghue (2003).

Moreover, Borg (2018) identifies two possible research designs for the study of beliefs and practices. The most common one takes the teachers' beliefs as a starting point. Their practices are then compared and contrasted with their beliefs, which tends to emphasise a gap and inconsistencies between both. For instance, Farrell and Bennis (2013) summarised teacher beliefs and practices into tables in order to compare them. Farrell and Ives (2015) also used the teachers' stated beliefs that emerged from the interview as a point of reference, hoping to see them enacted in their practices. The teaching practices were compared from one lesson to the next using a table, before being combined with their beliefs. Even though many beliefs and practices converged, not all of them did. The second and less popular research design starts with the teachers' practices that are then explained thanks to their beliefs. In her study of a teacher of English as a first language teaching writing to 12-13-year-old students, Watson (2015) found that the teachers' beliefs closely matched her practices. The possible explanations she identifies are the low

external constraints –the participant was quite free to teach how she wished and there were no high-stakes examinations– as well as the research design.

Finally, Borg (2018) has also stressed the important of distinguishing between different types of beliefs (as summarised at the end of 2.4) when researching them. Different instruments might actually elicit different sorts of beliefs, such as questionnaires and interviews focusing on stated and conscious beliefs, while observations give access to enacted beliefs.

Concerning the number of lessons observed to investigate teacher beliefs, it usually depends on the studies. While two classroom observations were not regarded as sufficient by X. Zheng and Borg (2014), researchers have based their findings on three (Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Phipps & Borg, 2009), four (Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017), six (Farrell & Ives, 2015), eight or nine (Kirkgöz, 2008; Orafi & Borg, 2009; Watson, 2015), and even ten observations (Sanchez & Borg, 2015). This informed my decision to observe the participants for six lessons, as further developed in 5.1.2.

4.2.2 Defining case study

According to Yin (2014, p. 16), a case study explores “a contemporary phenomenon (the ‘case’) in depth and within its real-world context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident.” For him, the contextual conditions are therefore of significant importance in order to understand a phenomenon fully. This view is also shared by Casanave (2010, p. 67) who stresses that the case is embedded in its context and that a combination of data would be ideal to obtain a detailed portrayal. For Merriam and Tisdell (2016, p. 37), a case study is “an in-depth description and analysis of a bounded system.” In order to grasp what is meant by case or bounded system, we can refer to Stake (2006, p. 1), for whom “[a] case is a noun, a thing, an entity; it is seldom a verb, a participle, a functioning.” Furthermore, the object of study, i.e. the case, should be finite as regards either the time needed to collect the data, the number of participants (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) or the geographical area concerned (Creswell, 2013).

In this project, the unit of analysis is the state lower secondary schools of the French-speaking part of the Valais. As for the reason why a case study was chosen, it is because a

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case study is especially relevant in order to describe what is happening and how it is happening (Yin, 2012, p. 5). Merriam (1998) also stresses the relevance of a case study when a process is at the centre of attention; this is the fact in this study as the case investigated is the process of curriculum implementation. Hence, using a case study approach allows me to investigate a particular problem, i.e. the role of the teachers' beliefs in the implementation of a new curriculum in a particular context, which will extend our understanding of the phenomenon (Stake, 1995). In order to provide different perspectives on the issue addressed, several teachers, i.e. multiple subcases or "embedded units" (Yin, 2012, pp. 7-8), have been selected within the bounded site of the canton. Therefore, we can state that this is a single case because it is a "*within-site study*" (Creswell, 2013, p. 97) (original emphasis)¹¹. What is more, this case study can be regarded as instrumental (Stake, 1995), because it will allow us to comprehend something beyond the participating teachers and the case itself. Indeed, our interest lies in the teachers' beliefs in relation to the teaching curriculum, and this case study aims to inform our understanding of this external phenomenon (Berg & Lune, 2012; Casanave, 2010).

Finally, it must be noted that various types of information have been collected, using both quantitative and qualitative methods, which Yin (2012) regards as particularly relevant in order to examine a case. The quantitative analysis reflected quite a complex picture, and the qualitative analyses gave me the opportunity to look differently at this complexity. I am now going to discuss the choice of using mixed methods in order to collect the data.

4.2.3 Mixed methods: description and limitations

As stated in 4.2.1, beliefs are traditionally researched using qualitative methods. The present study is primarily qualitative but I also decided to use a questionnaire for a number of reasons. First, the use of a questionnaire enabled me to have access to a wide range of teachers who could possibly volunteer and take part in the second phase of the study. Second, this provided important general information such as the teachers' stated beliefs, experience and background, thanks to which I gained an insight into the teaching population in the Valais. It also allowed me to draw a picture of the observed teachers before the observations actually started, and we could then discuss some of their

¹¹ Multiple cases would be a multisite study, which does not apply here.

questionnaire answers during the interviews. Finally, the questionnaire answers were used to situate the observed participants within a broader context. These reasons are referred to as sampling, completeness, context, and explanation by Bryman (2006, p. 106). Additionally, the use of mixed methods reinforces the reliability of the findings and hence their usefulness for stakeholders (Burch & Heinrich, 2016), what Bryman (2006) calls utility.

The interviews also provided the opportunity to investigate some issues raised by the questionnaire answers, in which case the qualitative data can be seen as “*illuminat[ing]*” (Gillham, 2007, p. 100) (original emphasis) the study. In fact, Gillham (2007) stresses that questionnaires do not allow the researchers to depict a real-life situation fully because they cannot answer why-questions. In purely practical terms, I do believe that the ‘de-compartmentalising’ of both research traditions, i.e. the combination of both approaches, actually maximises the results and that it ensures a better understanding of the problem (Creswell, 2015, p. 15). Indeed, mixed methods research addresses an issue from two different angles. As for the choice of giving priority to qualitative research when exploring teacher beliefs, this is what Borg (2012, p. 18) recommends because it allows a deeper analysis of cognition.

In order to define the type of mixed method design chosen here, we can turn to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) who present different types of research designs. Given that the actual mixing of the methods can occur in different ways and at different times, it is essential to define the role of each set of data in the overall project. The quantitative and qualitative components, called “strands” (p. 63), were collected the one after the other because of organisational constraints, but they do not result from each other. This design therefore does not correspond to Creswell and Plano Clark’s (2011) explanatory sequential design. The analysis of the quantitative data was conducted first in order to get an overview of the case, and the careful analysis of the qualitative data came afterwards. We can therefore say that this seems to correspond to a convergent design following Creswell and Plano Clark’s typology (2011). However, priority is given to the qualitative data, which is not the case in their convergent design where both have the same importance. This seems to confirm Guest’s view (2012) that typologies, even though appropriate, are unable to capture the whole range of possible designs. In this case, using Leech and Onwuegbuzie’s tridimensional framework (2009) proves to be a good

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alternative. This framework proposes to define a mixed-methods design according to three criteria: the level of mixing, the time orientation and the emphasis of approach. The present case study has therefore a partially mixed sequential qualitative dominant design (quan → QUAL). However, I want to stress that the methodology and questions of the qualitative phase of the study were not a result of the analysis of the quantitative data.

Feilzer (2010, p. 9) mentions that fully mixed studies are less common than partially mixed ones, and this study is not an exception. She also highlights that researchers who use mixed methods must handle the results and their interpretation with care, especially when they do not obtain homogenous results (p. 13). However, the positive side of combining qualitative and quantitative research methods is that it has the advantage of offering the researcher two different ways of accessing information (Brinkman & Kvale, 2015), what Burch and Heinrich (2016, p. 15) refer to as

complementary advantages of achieving greater precision and consistency in large-sample quantitative analysis and exploring phenomena in greater depth and detail, adding texture and contextualization, in qualitative research.

The quantitative research approach presents facts about a phenomenon, whereas its qualitative counterpart aims at explaining the phenomenon. The researcher using a mixed methods design and its dual analysis therefore experiences more pressure due to the need to master research skills in both domains (Brinkman & Kvale, 2015). Finally, the use of mixed methods implies that the paradigms underlying the traditional quantitative and qualitative research designs can be reconciled, which is developed further below.

4.2.4 Philosophical framework

In any given study, the way a particular research problem is addressed largely depends on the underlying philosophical assumptions. Indeed, researchers can have different views and understanding of the world, which influences how they conduct their research. These different “research culture[s]” (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007, p. 130) or traditions that guide the researchers’ actions in a particular field are known as paradigms (Kuhn, 1962). A paradigm is a “consensual set of beliefs and practices” (Morgan, 2007, p. 49) about what the nature of reality is (ontology), about what type of knowledge is explored (epistemology), and about how this knowledge can best be generated (methodology) (Taylor & Medina, 2013, p. 2). This means that studies conducted

following different research paradigms will pursue different objectives and generate a different kind of knowledge, hence the relevance for the researchers to situate themselves.

The two main research paradigms are traditionally the quantitative and qualitative research paradigms that are opposed in their essence. Indeed, the former is based on the belief that there is a universal truth and pre-existing objective knowledge that only need to be discovered and measured, whereas the latter presupposes that reality is multiple, that truth is relative and that knowledge has to be constructed (Creswell, 2015; Johnson et al., 2007; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Admittedly, a third and more recent paradigm is gaining ground according to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie's article entitled 'Mixed methods research: a research paradigm whose time has come' (2004). Johnson et al. (2007) actually hold the view that having a third paradigmatic world is desirable because every approach has different characteristics that can satisfy specific needs. Thus, even though mixed methods research is still in its early years, it seems promising (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009).

However, integrating two different paradigms as is the case in mixed methods research is not without implications from a philosophical point of view. Indeed, one must assume that beliefs that are apparently conflicting can coexist, and that knowledge can be discovered in different ways (Hesse-Biber & Johnson, 2013). In order to reconcile these two divergent philosophical stances and to combine both quantitative and qualitative research designs, most researchers turn to pragmatism. "A pragmatist would reject an incompatibility thesis and would claim that research paradigms can remain separate, but they also can be mixed into another research paradigm" (Johnson et al., 2007, p. 125), which gives the researchers some leeway, allowing them to position themselves somewhere along the continuum between these two paradigms. Feilzer (2010) goes further and states that the most important for pragmatists is to use methods that can give them the answers they need, whatever the methods chosen.

4.2.5 Summary

The purpose of this study is to uncover the teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning and to analyse how they shape their implementation of the new curriculum. To address this research problem, I have decided to conduct a case study (as defined in 4.2.2) that

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will allow me to do an in-depth analysis of my case, i.e. the state lower secondary schools of the Valais. What is more, since my aim is to contribute to the understanding of this complex area, I have decided to adopt a mixed methods research design (as described in 4.2.3). Indeed, I believe that it is entirely appropriate to rely on both quantitative and qualitative data, where the former can set the scene and pave the way for the main part of this research, as well as provide valuable information regarding the teachers' background on a large scale in the canton. As for the qualitative data, which is at the core of this study, it focuses on a few individuals whose beliefs and practices are explored and analysed in detail. Taylor and Medina (2013, p. 1) argue that “[n]o research paradigm is superior, but each has a specific purpose in providing a distinct means of producing unique knowledge.” I endorse this position and acknowledge that both the questionnaire and the interviews/observations provide different information that I consider complementary. Combined, they yield a better understanding of the case under study.

Regarding the philosophical assumptions underpinning this mixed methods approach (4.2.4), pragmatism prevails in the sense that “there is no problem with asserting both that there is a single ‘real world’ and that all individuals have their own unique interpretations of that world.” (Morgan, 2007, p. 72) To that extent, I do not align with the post-positivists who consider knowledge as mainly objective but still include some qualitative data into their research (Taylor & Medina, 2013). Instead, I consider myself on the side of qualitative researchers who accept to counterbalance possible weaknesses of a qualitative research design by combining methods (Johnson et al., 2007), which in turn allows greater flexibility and generates a dynamic approach (Burch & Heinrich, 2016).

4.3 The participants and their local context

In this section, I would like to present a detailed description of the local context and schools where the data were collected (4.3.1), as well as provide information about the sampling process (4.3.2) and participants (4.3.3).

4.3.1 The local context and schools

The eighty-nine participants who answered the online questionnaire and the seventeen participants who volunteered for the observations and stimulated recall (SR) teach both

in the lower and central part of the canton (the upper part being German speaking, it is therefore not included in the present study). The participants that have been observed are relatively well spread over the canton, which is not the case for the interview participants, as illustrated in the following table:

Table 1 Distribution of the Participants Among the Regions

	Regions	
	Lower Valais	Central Valais
Observations/SR (n=7)	3	4
Interviews (n=10)	9	1
Overall distribution	12	5

I also would like to add that seven districts (out of eight) are represented if we also take into account the schools where the interviewed teachers worked. And out of the twenty-two lower secondary schools of the French-speaking part of the canton, qualitative data were collected from half of them, as Table 2 summarises.

Table 2 Distribution of the Participants Among the Districts and Lower Secondary Schools

	Districts	Lower Secondary Schools
	Total number n=8	Total number n=22
Observations/SR (n=7)	6	6
Interviews (n=10)	5	7
Overall distribution	7	11

Furthermore, thirteen schools are located in the plain, nine in the mountain, and some are in towns whereas the majority are in villages. The sample we have in this study encompasses these different school characteristics in the sense that it reflects diversity. Yet, the town/village distribution is better represented than the plain/mountain one. There are in fact four informants teaching in towns and three in villages for the observations/SR, and five and five for the interviews. However, only three teachers from mountain schools took part in the qualitative study but they came from different valleys. The smallest lower secondary school, located in a mountain village, had just under 70 students when the data were collected whereas the biggest one, situated in a town, had

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almost 650. While pupils normally attend the six years of primary school in their home commune (village or town) until they are 12 years old, they often need to commute afterwards since lower secondary schools are regional. Indeed, they bring together students from different surrounding areas. For this reason, during their lunch break, some students stay at school where they have a hot lunch and a study period while those who have time to go back home often do so.

Contrary to what happens in the UK, there is only one type of lower secondary school in the Valais (i.e. state schools that all follow the official curriculum PER), and students do not get to pick which one they want to go to. They simply go to the local one. This is pre-determined by arrangements made between the schools and the villages/communes. This means that the students are automatically eligible for acceptance in their local lower secondary school. The only admission criteria is to have finished the 6th year of primary school successfully. I would also like to add that school security is less developed in the Valais than it is in the UK. Indeed, secondary schools have neither fences nor an intercom security device at the entrance of the premises. Visitors are welcome to report to the reception area (if there is one), but they do not have to wear a badge or sign a register.

Regarding the schools where the reported observations (Ch.8) took place, they are no exceptions and perfectly fit the above description. They are medium-sized schools, both are in the Rhône Valley and welcome students from the surrounding areas. In the Valais, every school sets its own timetable that partly depends from the public transports students use to come to school (trains and buses). However, one can generally say that students are at school from 8:00 to 11:30 and from 13:30 to 16:00 from Monday to Friday with Wednesday afternoons off. There are seven 45-minute periods a day, four in the morning and three in the afternoon (4 periods only on Wednesdays). The school year begins around 20th August and ends around 20th June. Students have got different subject teachers and a class teacher, but there are no teaching assistants. The main difference I have noticed between the two schools whose observations are reported in Chapter 8 concerns the collaboration between the English teachers. In one of the schools, they work together, progressing at the same pace and assessing the students using the same tests. In the other one, the situation is quite different and the teachers tend not to collaborate. Finally, schools do not normally organise extra-curricular activities, but these two schools, along with several other ones, are working closely with the cantonal office of language

exchange programmes that organises linguistic and cultural exchanges with German-speaking regions (Canton du Valais, n.d.-a). These two schools have respectively 9 and 14 English teachers. This difference comes from the fact that teachers normally teach more than one subject, and that some of them might only work part time (a full-time position corresponds to 26 periods of teaching). As previously mentioned earlier, some have a strong professional training as language teachers while others were mainly trained to teach other subjects. In this particular case, they must have attended the language classes organised by the canton in order to start teaching English.

A typical full class is made of up to 25 students while some language classes only have 10 to 14 students as explained in 3.4.5. The classrooms I visited were organised according to the traditional setting, with a board at the front and rows and columns of double desks. Further characteristics are presented in Table 3.

Table 3 Characteristics of the Classes Observed

Teacher	Year	Number of pupils	Comments about the seating plan
Mary	9H (full class)	24	The pupils are free to sit wherever they want
Florence	9H (full class)	20	2 pupils at each double desk
Ellen	10H (half class)	12	2 pupils at each double desk
	11H (half class)	12	2 pupils at each double desk
Anja	10H (half class)	12	1 pupil at each double desk
Sylvie	11H (half class)	10	2 pupils at each double desk
	11H (half class)	10	2 pupils at each double desk
Julie	11H (half class)	13	2 pupils at each double desk
Cathy	10H (half class)	12	1 or 2 pupils at each double desk

The classrooms were spacious enough to allow the teachers and the students to walk around easily, except maybe in Mary's class where the students' movements were restricted due to their high number.

Finally, not all the classrooms were equipped with an interactive whiteboard, but all of them had a beamer that allowed the teacher to project presentations, videos and make use of the course material available with EiM. Teachers normally teach the subjects they have been trained for at university at least as far as the main subjects are concerned

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(French, mathematics, science, German), but it is not the case for English, as already mentioned and developed next.

4.3.2 Sampling

Sampling refers to the process of selecting the participants for a study. Given that the present project uses mixed methods, two types of samples were necessary, which is common according to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009). In the quantitative part, I was looking for a diversity of participants and schools. However, as often, there was not any comprehensive list of English teachers in the Valais (Wagner, 2010), this is why the task to transmit the questionnaire was assigned by the Department for Education to the school directors who knew exactly who was teaching English in their educational institution. Whereas I expect the questionnaire to have reached all the target population, this cannot be checked since I did not contact the participants myself. Therefore, I cannot claim that this quantitative study is representative. This first stage of data collection proved to be essential since it directly influenced the second sample used for the qualitative research, it therefore constituted a sequential mixed methods sampling (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009) .

As far as the second phase of data collection is concerned, nonprobability sampling was used, and convenience sample in particular. As Borg (2012) points out, this type of sampling often occurs when language teachers are at the core of a study. Indeed, the mere fact that they are keen to participate and available makes them potential participants. This has been the case in this project where seventeen volunteers have been interviewed. As for the number of interviews that should be conducted to back-up a questionnaire, Gillham (2007) considers one interview for every ten questionnaires as good enough, so seventeen can be regarded as quite a substantial amount (since 89 teachers answered the survey).

Regarding the observations, out of these seventeen possible informants, seven were selected according to particular criteria, this is why we can define this sampling as “purposeful” in the sense that it was not only based on convenience (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012, p. 81). Indeed, given that this project addresses the role played by training and experience on the teachers’ beliefs and practices, I tried to select teachers with different training and amount of experience among those who volunteered, what Glaser and

Strauss (1967) define as maximum variation sampling (cited in Merriam, 1998, p. 62). My aim was to have a sample that is representative of the variety of teachers working in the Valais. Thus, the final sample includes fully trained, untrained and in-training participants as well as novice and experienced teachers. Merriam (1998) emphasises that, in a case study, the researcher might be required to sample twice: the first time in selecting the case, and the second time in sampling within a case, i.e. deciding which teachers to observe. As for the number of teachers I decided to observe, I followed Creswell's advice that "[i]t is better to select a few, rather than many, individuals or sites to study, to provide an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon." (2014, p. 256) For a case study research, he advocates to use 4 or 5 cases (Creswell, 2015), having 7 was consequently safe.

4.3.3 The participants

Eighty-nine English teachers filled in the questionnaire, out of which two third are females. The great majority teaches in the plain (74%) and only seven (8%) were currently in training at the teacher training college (HEP). Given that the number of teachers who volunteered to take part in the second phase of the data collection was higher than expected (n=18), it gave me the chance to select people with different background characteristics for the observations and stimulated recall (n=7). Another advantage of this large number is that it gave me some flexibility to schedule the school visits and interviews. Only one of the eighteen volunteers did not answer my emails about planning an interview, and she was finally taken out of the qualitative data collection (n=17).

Concerning the interviewed and observed informants, they were a group of teachers with various educational backgrounds and teaching experience, working in schools of different sizes (Appendix C provides a summary). All the observed teachers completed a training programme to teach English, but none of them had exactly the same profile. Indeed, two of them completed a teacher education programme lasting several years at a local teacher training college for teaching English after having done a Bachelor and Master's degree in English respectively. A third one was finishing her HEP after having obtained a Master's degree in German and English. A fourth one got a Master's degree in another foreign language and started teaching English after a long stay in an English-speaking country. As for the other three teachers, they attended an in-service training organised by

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the canton in order to develop their English skills. Two of them were already language teachers, which is not the case of the third one. As far as their experience is concerned, the participants' experience of teaching English stretches from none to 8 years. Finally, whereas some of them were currently teaching in years 9H and 10H, which means that they were already using EiM, those teaching in 11H were not. There was consequently a great variety within the teachers observed. Given that this research looks at the potential influence of training on teaching practices and teacher beliefs, the various teaching diploma and training mentioned in this section and in Appendix C are carefully described in Appendix D.

4.4 Ethical considerations

Before the research could be conducted, ethical approval had to be sought. Southampton University provides detailed guidelines and instructions about the issues to take into account when planning an empirical study involving individuals. Therefore, I followed the procedure of the ERGO system in order to obtain the Ethical Committee's authorisation (ERGO number 23245).

Before filling in the online questionnaire, the participants were provided with information about the purpose and nature of the research project to help them decide whether to participate or not in full knowledge of the facts (the information sheet and consent forms for the questionnaire, interview and observations are provided in Appendices E, F and G). They learnt what the study was about, why they had been chosen and what the different steps of the data collection would be. What is more, a strong emphasis was put on informing them about the confidentiality issues. They were also assured that the questionnaire was anonymous and that they were free not to participate. They had to give their consent online before accessing the questionnaire. At the end of it, they were requested to leave their contact number or email address in case they wanted to take part in the class observations and interviews.

For the second phase of the data collection, the participants who volunteered were informed at an early stage that it would be audio-recorded to give them the opportunity to opt out. They were also guaranteed that their identity would remain confidential thanks to the use of pseudonyms in reports and publications. Furthermore, it was also

made clear that the school in which they taught would not be mentioned at any moment, but that there was still a risk that they could be identified from comments made during the interviews. Their right to withdraw without giving any reason at any moment of the data collection was again put forward in the information sheet they received on the day when they gave their signed consent prior to the qualitative data collection.

It must also be added that I had to ask the school principals for their agreement given that I needed to visit several schools to conduct the observations and certain interviews. To do so, I simply sent them an email where I outlined the nature of my future visits and insisted on the confidentiality issue as regards not only the participating teacher but also the pupils in their class(es). Lastly, the pupils' parents were notified of my intention to visit their child's class for collecting data and they were informed that no identifying information would be used. What is more, I asked for their permission to transcribe their child's utterances in the context of the study (see Appendix H), which most of them accepted. In the nine cases of non-permission, the children's utterances were not transcribed, as agreed. Parents' consent forms were distributed by teachers before I went to conduct my observations. The next chapter is about the research methods.

Chapter 5 Research Methods

This fifth chapter first describes the instruments used to collect the quantitative (5.1.1) and qualitative data (5.1.2, 5.1.3). It also provides details about the various steps of the data collection procedures (5.2), an overview of the way the data were analysed (5.3) as well as a section on my own position as a researcher, and the importance of reflexivity (5.4). As for the concluding remarks (5.5), they deal with the issues of generalisability and researching multilingually.

5.1 Data collection instruments

Having considered various possibilities to collect the data, it appeared that the choice of instruments giving me access to both qualitative and quantitative data was the most appropriate for this research project as discussed in 4.2. Using both approaches indeed gave me the possibility to look at the situation from two different angles and to shift from a broad view to a narrower perspective. I start by presenting the questionnaire (5.1.1), its design, translation, piloting and administration, before discussing the key issues pertaining to observations and fieldnotes (5.1.2) as well as interviews (5.1.3).

5.1.1 The questionnaire

5.1.1.1 Description of the instrument

The first instrument used in this research project is a questionnaire. It was designed to access the teachers' professed beliefs about teaching and learning, and also to provide information about their training and experience. Given that the research questions also revolve around the curriculum, some questions about it and about the course book as well as some background demographic information have been collected, as you can be seen in the following table:

Table 4 Content of the Questionnaire

Area	Question number
Background information	I.1, I.7, I.8
Experience	I.2, III.4
Training	I.3, I.4, I.5, I.6
Curriculum	I.9, I.10, III.8
Professed beliefs	Section II
Teaching materials	III.2, III.3, III.5, III.6, III.7
Teaching preparation	III.1, III.3

The last two parts of this table, about teaching materials and teaching preparation (III.3 to III.7 in particular), are adapted from an existing questionnaire (Singh & Bonvin, 2015) developed during the pilot study of EiM. Getting information about the teaching materials is regarded as valuable because it can unveil some of the teachers' beliefs. Finally, as we have seen in the literature review in 3.3.3, an innovation is better implemented when its actors receive support, hence question III.1 about cooperation between teachers. Coming back to the structure of the questionnaire, I would like to add that despite Dörnyei's (2010) recommendation to finish off with the background information, I decided to put this part in the first section in order to make sure that as many people as possible would answer it. Furthermore, these questions are particularly non-threatening and allow the informants to start gently.

The second section is actually the main part of the survey. It focuses on the teachers' professed beliefs. This part has mainly been adapted from Kissau et al. (2012), itself an adaptation from Bell (2005) and her 80-item questionnaire about effective language teachers. From Kissau et al.'s 44 items, I only kept 20, those for which there was a correspondence in the PER. Their subscales were maintained as well. However, some items have also been drawn from other relevant studies about curriculum implementation and the role of beliefs (Carless, 1998; Zhang & Liu, 2014). Finally, some items based on the curriculum were created and added. This helped to ensure that there was about the same number of items in each subscale and that the minimum number of four items per subscale was reached (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012) (Appendix I shows the origin of the Likert scale questionnaire items and their correspondence with the PER). It must be noted that Items 5, 8, 11, 13, 19, 21, 24, 25 and 26 are negatively worded so as to ensure diversity (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). Moreover, Item 21 differs slightly from the original item because the modifier 'should' has been removed. The same applies to Item

24 where the non-specific adjective ‘most’ has been removed (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). Finally, the different items from the six subscales have been mixed in the final questionnaire to prevent a feeling of repetition. Now I move on to the various steps that allowed me to develop this final survey, its piloting and translation.

5.1.1.2 Piloting and translation of the questionnaire

The central part of the questionnaire is the second section, this is why it was developed first. Once the items of the Likert scales put together, six participants piloted it in English. They received two tables, both containing the same items but the first table was about ‘An effective English teacher...’ (Example: ‘*An effective English teacher* makes sure he/she completes the teaching syllabus’) whereas the second one was intended to collect information directly related to the participants, with the header ‘As an English teacher...’ (Example: ‘*As an English teacher* I make sure I complete the teaching syllabus’). I expected that the participants would differentiate between practices that they would judge ideal and their own practices. This did not happen at all, and the results were in most cases either identical or very similar. In addition, in their feedback, the informants noted how insecure they felt in having to complete two tables with the same items. They were under pressure to give coherent answers and also pointed out that it was too long. Since using two tables did not provide valuable data, and taking into consideration the participants’ comments, only one section dealing with the teachers’ ideal self and starting with “Ideally, an effective English teacher...” was kept. This also avoided the questionnaire to be too long, which would have been a weakness according to Dörnyei and Csizér (2012).

This first pilot study also revealed that the six-response option Likert scales was not the best. As a result, it was changed to a five-response option, which is actually the option Kissau et al. (2012) favoured. At the same time, this gave the respondents a neutral opinion option, what Brown (2001) considers desirable in certain cases. Here, I assumed that the teachers would have a clear-cut opinion and would therefore not chose the *neither agree nor disagree* option too often.

Once these decisions about the format made, the questionnaire still had to be translated into French. Ideally, the best would have been to ask the teachers to fill in the questionnaire in English, but their level of proficiency varied. Therefore, I translated the items and then asked two people to do their own translation. Then, we compared the

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translated versions to make a list of changes to improve the wording. Certainly, as stressed by Gillham (2007), the way the items and questions are worded influence the respondents' answers, this is why particular attention was paid at this stage. Thus, the help of these two people who had an excellent command of both languages turned out to be very valuable to develop a clear and "natural-sounding" (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012, p. 79) text in French, avoiding the pitfall of literal translation. A table presented in Appendix J shows some of the items for which our translations differed.

The French questionnaire was then given to five other people, whose task was to give me some more feedback. They commented on some items that were not clear enough according to them. The final questionnaire was then ready to be piloted a last time by two other Valaisan teachers who did not raise any issues (the final questionnaire is provided in Appendix K, in French and in English).

5.1.2 Observations and fieldnotes

My main research interest was to look at the way the curriculum was implemented by exploring the teachers' beliefs and practices, hence the need to carry out classroom observations. "Observation is a research method that enables researchers to systematically observe and record people's behaviour, actions and interactions." (Hennink, Hutter, & Bailey, 2011, p. 170) Regarding fieldwork variations (Patton, 2002), I can say that my role was overt in the sense that both the teachers and the students knew that I was there to grasp how English was taught. The classes were audio recorded and the equipment was visible: one recorder was on the teachers' desk and the other one on a desk at the back of the classroom. I was sitting at the back of the class without participating, and endorsed the role of an observer (the potential problems related to this will be addressed in 5.4). Since my presence was arranged in advance, the possibility that the teachers may have modified their routine must be acknowledged (Yin, 2012). Additionally, the participants might have been influenced by my presence in class (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016), which might have created anxiety (Patton, 2002), but I hope that having observed them five or six times allowed them to become accustomed to my presence. As for the focus of the observations, I decided not to follow a highly structured observation framework and to adopt a more holistic approach. The use of semi-structured observations gave me the opportunity to focus on what the lessons looked like

in relation to both the curriculum and the textbook, but in a non-predetermined or systematic manner (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). Interestingly, it also allowed me to bring my attention to critical incidents (Flanagan, 1949) that could then be discussed with the teachers. Critical incidents are defined as “particular events or occurrences that might typify or illuminate very starkly a particular feature of a teacher’s behaviour or teaching style for example.” (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 464)

The recorded observations were completed by ethnographic fieldnotes. Indeed, as McDonough and McDonough (1997, p. 112) put it, “[p]utting two sources of data together represents a move away from reductionist observation methods towards something one might usefully call elaborative description.” Taken in French or English, these fieldnotes were both descriptive and reflective (Creswell, 2014). Indeed, they did not only include the description of events observed in the classroom, but also personal feelings and views about what was going on in the classroom, about the teachers’ choices, about their way of teaching, about the students’ participation and behaviour, about possible questions to ask during the stimulated recall and themes to be analysed. They also allowed me to keep records of informal conversations I had with the teachers either before or after the observations and interviews. Fieldnotes are a database of crucial importance when conducting a case study because the researcher’s thoughts and perceptions help to build the case (Patton, 2002). Lastly, I would like to address the role of tacit knowledge when writing fieldnotes. Wolfinger (2002) reminds us that what is being observed is necessarily influenced by what we know, what we believe and what we expect. In a given situation, different researchers would consequently record different things according to their tacit knowledge. And such knowledge can either come from the researcher’s own personal life and professional experience or it can have been gained when observing other participants. In relation to this, I can say that some of my notes were made because I had observed something deviant from my own norms as a teacher (such as for instance classroom management, teacher efficacy, use of scaffolding, ways of giving the instructions). Some others were taken because I noticed something that differed from the other teachers observed during the data collection (implementation of differentiation in the class, high focus on communication, use of various games, well-prepared lessons to optimise the time). It follows from this that it is not only relevant to

consider salient facts when taking notes, but that the “document[ation] of omissions” (Wolfinger, 2002, p. 92) can also prove valuable.

5.1.3 Interviews and stimulated recall

Brinkman and Kvale (2015, p. 143) recommend the use of interviews in case studies about “a specific person, situation, or institution.” Therefore, the teachers professed beliefs were probed in a background interview (Barnard & Burns, 2012) during which they were asked to talk about their training, experience both as language learner and language teacher, classroom practices and knowledge of the curriculum. This interview was semi-standardised in the sense that most of the questions were predetermined and consistently asked to every interviewee. Yet I had the freedom to reorder the questions according to the direction the discussion was taking, to ask some extra ones and to seek clarifications (Berg & Lune, 2012). The objective of this introductory interview was twofold: to get a professional and educational background and to access their professed beliefs.

In regard to the choice of questions to ask, I decided to rely on two existing interview protocols designed to explore teachers’ beliefs in relation to the implementation of a new curriculum in science (Cronin-Jones, 1991; Roehrig & Kruse, 2005). As a result, I adapted two questions of the former, and five of the latter. I created the other questions about the curriculum, the teachers’ experience, practices and training. I piloted the questions with two language teachers, which allowed me to reword, edit and add some questions, as summarised in Appendix L. Piloting the interview twice also helped me to practise, and it gave me an idea of how long it would take (slightly more than 25 minutes in each case). However, I knew that it would probably last longer than expected when collecting the data (Wagner, 2010).

After having answered all the questions from the interview protocol (presented in Appendix M), the participants were also asked to explain some of their questionnaire answers, which could be regarded as a follow-up interview (Barnard & Burns, 2012). I asked for clarifications about some information that I found particularly interesting, unexpected, relevant or salient. The interviews were conducted in French. Let us now turn our attention to another type of interview, a prompted stimulated recall or

“anchored” (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 139) interview following what has been observed.

Since I was aiming to uncover the underlying reasons for the teachers’ in-class decisions, I chose to use stimulated recall, an introspective method that gives access to thought processes. Using this technique requires to assume that internal processes can be observed and that they can be verbalised by the participants (Gass & Mackey, 2000). In other words, the participants helped me to interpret what had caught my attention during the observations (McDonough & McDonough, 1997). The stimulated recall data were collected according to the protocol presented in the next section focussing on the data collection procedures.

5.2 Data collection procedures

In this section, I will describe the circumstances under which the quantitative (5.2.1) and qualitative (5.2.2) data were collected using the instruments presented above.

5.2.1 Details about the questionnaire administration

The link to the final survey, available electronically on ISurvey provided by the University of Southampton, was sent to the twenty-two lower secondary school principals by the Department for Education on 10th November 2016. Each school principal was then in charge of forwarding it to their English teachers’ professional email address. In this way, the survey was addressed to the participants by a reliable source, which normally encourages the people to participate (Fowler, 2009). However, this can potentially be seen as a disadvantage since the participants might have had the impression to be assessed by their superiors, which might have “provoke[d] socially desirable responses” (K. Richards, Ross, & Seedhouse, 2012, p. 123). The period to send out the survey was chosen carefully, and November was regarded as ideal.

Self-administered questionnaires such as this one, where the survey is emailed out and then filled in without the researcher’s supervision has its own problems according to Brown (2001). In fact, he mentions that we cannot be sure that the informants understand it well. However, I believe and hope that the various pilot phases (described in 5.1.1.2) helped to remove or rephrase unclear items. In addition, Brown (2001) points

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out the normally low answer rate of such questionnaires. In my case, forty teachers had answered by 20th November. I finally got eighty-nine questionnaires back, which corresponds to a participation rate of 42% (there were 210 English teachers), which was satisfactory. Indeed, based on Gillham (2007), I expected to get a response rate of about 50%. In order to complete the questionnaire, the majority of the participants needed 9 to 13 minutes, but some needed more time, which is explained by the fact that we do not know the conditions under which the participants answered the questions (Brown, 2001).

5.2.2 Steps of the qualitative data collection process and fieldwork practical constraints

The teachers willing to take part in the interview and observations were asked to leave their contact details at the end of the online questionnaire. Eighteen people did. I then sent them an email with the details of the data collection procedure, insisting on the fact that I was planning to observe them for about six lessons (of 45 minutes each) and that the observations and interviews/stimulated recalls would be audio-recorded. I also reminded them of the ethical considerations described in 4.4. Some of them did not answer the email, so, unwilling to insist, I only planned the visits with those who reaffirmed their interest.

Given the number of periods observed in the previous studies in this field (see 4.2.1), I had decided to observe each participants five or six times, which corresponds to two weeks in Years 9 and 10 and two weeks and a half in Year 11. This was not always possible due to last minute changes of plans, as explained in Appendix N that provides a summary of the observations and stimulated recall interviews data collection. All the visits were planned by Christmas 2016 to ensure that the data collection would take place from the school start in January until a week before the carnival break in February. The stimulated recall sessions were often conducted just after a period of observation because this suited the teachers' busy schedules. As a result, the interview and stimulated recall of the teachers I observed generally took place during the weeks when I observed them, but there were two exceptions (one with Ellen and one with Julie, as explained in Appendix N). The consequences will be discussed later when the limitations of this research project are outlined in 10.2. In order to clarify how the stimulated recall sessions were conducted, I decided to use the classification categories of introspection research from

Faerch and Kasper (1987) that Sanchez and Borg (2014) used to explain how they collected their own data, as presented in Appendix O.

As stated earlier, given that the teachers' participation was voluntary, I did not insist to observe those who did not answer my email. However, I emailed them again to invite them to take part in an interview, which ten out of eleven accepted. Thus, I was granted seventeen interviews altogether, and from these seventeen participants, seven teachers were also observed. The length of the interviews varied, with an average of 34 minutes. The shortest one lasted 20 minutes and the longest one 50 minutes. These interviews were also conducted during the six weeks of data collection in a place and at a time that suited the participants (Berg & Lune, 2012), i.e. in an empty classroom of their school (n=11), in a café (n=1) or at their place (n=5). Before starting the interview strictly speaking, I always tried to establish a rapport and put the participant at ease by asking some questions about their school, their classroom or students. I would like to add that all the interviews were recorded and that they took place in a quiet environment, except the one at the café. Yet, that teacher seemed comfortable and focused despite the fact that someone might possibly have overheard us (Berg & Lune, 2012).

Finally, to ensure I would not be overwhelmed by all the recordings I made during the six weeks of data collection, I decided to organise them on a regular basis, i.e. several times a week. Thus, the recordings were uploaded on a computer, labelled accordingly with the place, observation number, date, and topic of the lesson (*H1, 16.02, reading health*), then filed into different folders (observations vs interviews; week 1-2, 3-4, 5-6). Furthermore, I kept a log in which the dates and types of data collected were gathered.

5.3 Data analysis

The study draws upon both quantitative and qualitative data, and the methods of analysis were chosen to best answer the research questions. I start by giving a detailed account of the quantitative data analysis process (5.3.1) before moving on to the qualitative data analysis process (5.3.2).

5.3.1 Analysis of the quantitative data

The first step in the analysis was to prepare the data for the software package SPSS. With this aim in view, the questionnaire answers were exported from ISurvey into an Excel sheet and then into SPSS, where they were coded (ex: from 1 *strongly disagree* to 5 *strongly agree*; 1 *male*, 2 *female*, 3 *prefer not to say* etc.). The negatively worded items of the questionnaire were reverse coded (Items 5, 8, 11, 13, 19, 21, 24, 25, 26, 27). As for the coding of the missing data, following Fowler (2009, p. 146), I used three different codes. I also created new variables taking into account the teachers' experience and training (details are provided in Appendix P).

To answer the first research question, categories of beliefs (questionnaire part 2) were generated by means of a factor analysis (see results in 6.1.1). Once the factors had emerged, I used descriptive statistics to make group comparisons and examined whether English teachers with different training/experience (questionnaire part 1) shared similar beliefs or not (see 6.1.3). At this point, the teachers' reported practices (questionnaire part 3) were also described to get an overview of the way they chose the content of their lessons, in order to see whether the curriculum, their experience or training played a decisive role (see 6.1.4). Additionally, a few items among those that were excluded from the factor analysis were examined (see 6.1.5). Finally, multiple regression analyses (see 6.1.6) were carried out to explore to what extent training and experience, among others, could predict the extracted factors. I go on to describe in greater detail how factor analysis (5.3.1.1) and multiple regression (5.3.1.2) were used to analyse the data.

5.3.1.1 Factor analysis

Once the data had been adapted to SPSS, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted with the purpose of reducing the 31 variables (questionnaire part 2) to a smaller and more manageable number of components (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Indeed, the grouping of correlated variables allowed me to not only condense the data, but also to uncover factors that described the relations among the variables (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). The data were reduced using principal components analysis and the varimax method. The former is regarded by Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) as a good way to summarise the data set empirically. Components, most commonly referred to as factors (both words are used interchangeably here), are created by associating the variables that

correlate, hence allowing some structure to appear (Child, 2006). At the same time, in order to improve the interpretability of the clusters of factors, the rotation method varimax was applied (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). This procedure accentuates the variance of the factors by maximising the factor loadings, hence trying “to load a small number of variables highly on each factor.” (Field, 2013, p. 681) This widely accepted and extensively employed orthogonal rotation method (Gorsuch, 1974) was chosen over other methods because it resulted in more optimal and interpretable results.

Factor analysis does not only offer different extraction and rotation methods, it also involves a complex decision-making process regarding the number of factors to retain, which has been described as “critical” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014, p. 697). This is particularly the case in exploratory factor analysis where there is no hypothesised underlying theory predicting the factor structure since the factors emerge from the data. I consequently decided to rely on both the Kaiser criterion (Kaiser, 1960) and the scree plot test (Cattell, 1966). According to the former, only the components with an eigenvalue greater than one are significant and should consequently be kept (Stevens, 2009). This method is considered particularly relevant when the number of variables ranges from 20 to 50 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995, p. 377), which was the case here. As for the scree plot test, it recommends to keep the components that account for the greatest amount of variance in the data set, namely those above the break point (p. 329). Indeed, adding any other smaller factor to the dominant ones located on the left of the scree plot test does not enhance the value of the model (Gorsuch, 1974).

Another key point in factor analysis is factor loading. Whereas a loading of about .3 is widely used as the cut-off point above which a given variable is interpreted (Child, 2006), some researchers have considered it poor (Comrey & Lee, 1992). However, loadings exceeding .40 or .50 are considered meaningful by researchers (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991), while a loading of .45 is regarded as fair. I therefore decided to use .45 as cut-off value, which accounts for 20% of overlapping variance. When double loadings occurred, the best solution was selected after careful consideration. Once the factors had been extracted and the final solution confirmed, a reliability estimate was calculated for the Likert scales as a whole (Brown, 2011) as well as for every factor. A Cronbach’s alpha coefficient above .7 was expected for the former, and coefficients of at least .6 were expected for the latter (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 207), as reported in 6.1.2.

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Eventually, in order to obtain “estimates of the scores that subjects would have received on each of the factors had they been measured directly” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014, p. 703), factor scores were produced, in which missing cases were excluded pairwise. There are various possible options regarding the way to create factor scores, and each might yield different results (DiStefano, Zhu, & Mindrila, 2009; Grice, 2001). Using SPSS, I decided to compute regression-based factor scores as it gives the highest correlations between factor scores and factors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014), which increases validity. These standardised factor scores ($M=0$ / $SD=1$) were then used in the subsequent analyses, and as dependent variables in the regression analysis in particular.

5.3.1.2 Multiple regression

The objective here was to determine whether the outcomes of the teachers on the four factors (presented in the results in 6.1.1: General methodological variety, Planning and methodological choices regarding LT, Focus on meaning, Communication in the classroom) could be predicted. Concerning the selection of the predictors to include in the model, it was a particularly delicate task because the regression solution strongly depends on them. Ideally, these should correlate strongly with the dependent variable but as little as possible with each other, so as to account for different facets of the dependent variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Furthermore, the choice should be informed and based on theoretical assumptions (Field, 2013). In this research, I chose to include whether the teachers had studied English in lower secondary as a predictor because this could be related to apprenticeship of observation. I also decided to include the variables about training in language didactics as well as experience because of the importance of these two factors regarding teachers’ beliefs. The teachers’ familiarity with the curriculum was also regarded as a potentially decisive predictor, as was the training teachers had received in English even though this variable had not yielded any interesting results in the descriptive analyses of the individual groups.

In SPSS, the method chosen was standard multiple regression with forced entry, where the independent variables were entered in one block and at the same time in the equation (Field, 2013). Indeed, I could not rely on any strong theoretical background justifying in which order the predictors should have been added (hierarchical multiple regression). The above-mentioned independent variables being nonmetric, I had to

customise them to suit the regression analyses, and consequently created dichotomous variables called “dummy variables” (Grotenhuis & Thijs, 2015, p. 3; Suits, 1957, p. 548) (details about how these dummy variables were created are provided in Appendix P).

Ensuring that the data did not violate any assumptions is essential for multiple regression, therefore the data had to be checked for multicollinearity, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of observations (Field, 2013). Furthermore, outliers were identified and dealt with. As for missing data, they were removed listwise, i.e. I removed the cases with missing values to avoid having correlations with different numbers, which could have skewed the results. Regarding the sample size, having between 15 and 20 respondents per independent variable was enough to get a reliable regression analysis (Hair et al., 1995; Stevens, 2009). We now turn to the analysis of the qualitative data.

5.3.2 Analysis of the qualitative data

To analyse the qualitative data, I started by following the first steps described in Marshall and Rossman (2016, p. 217), namely organising and transcribing the data, which was an effective way of becoming familiar with the collected material. Since all the qualitative analyses are based on a transcription of the data (interviews, stimulated recall interviews and observations), it is necessary to take a closer look at what transcribing implies (5.3.2.1) before presenting how the qualitative data analyses were conducted (5.3.2.2).

5.3.2.1 Data transcription

A transcription is a constructed tool, a representation of an event, and developing it is therefore not a neutral act since its quality might influence the possible analyses (J. Green, Franquiz, & Dixon, 1997). The transformation of the oral language into a written form often results in a hybrid text that do no longer belong to any of these categories (Brinkman & Kvale, 2015). I would say that it is the case with the transcription of my data, where some features of imperfect speech, elisions, broken sentences and fillers have been kept, which causes some messiness. Pauses have not been mentioned, except when they were extraordinary long. Nevertheless, standard spelling has been respected. As for non-verbal features, only laughter and stressed words have been highlighted. This shows that, in my view, a transcription cannot be objective because the transcriber becomes at

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the same time an interpreter, especially since punctuation needs to be added to a long flow of oral speech (Harding, 2013). Consequently, it must be acknowledged that the written text and the oral speech do not totally correspond (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011), and that the written words are only an imperfect copy of what has been said. As suggested by Poland (2001), the quotes inserted in the main text of this thesis have sometimes been slightly edited to make them more readable, punctuation has been added, but these little changes only occurred after the analyses were completed.

Despite these apparent weaknesses of the transcription process, there are a number of positive aspects that are worth mentioning. The fact that the recordings were of high quality and that I conducted the interviews, observed the classes and transcribed the data myself can definitely be seen as an asset. Indeed, this gave me the opportunity to double check with the respondents, and to ask them to clarify their thoughts when necessary, or to confirm my correct understanding of what they were saying, what is regarded as very important (Poland, 2001). Secondly, the transcriptions were done over a long period of time to avoid fatigue. Furthermore, I had a very good knowledge of the context in which the respondents were working, we shared a cultural understanding. This, added to the fact that the interviews took place in our common first language, might have limited the number of misunderstandings during transcription (J. Green et al., 1997).

The aim of this research project was to identify what the teachers' beliefs are, I was therefore more interested in the content of the interviews/observations than in the way the information was provided, this is why the transcriptions show a rather low level of detail (Friedman, 2012), consistent with the use of thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Two bilingual people back-translated some extracts inserted in the results chapters and they also helped me translate some subtleties of the local oral speech into English (the multilingual nature of the research is acknowledged in 5.5). Some themes came to the surface during this phase of transcription and I go on to define thematic analysis before explaining how it was applied to the data.

5.3.2.2 Thematic analysis

Thematic analysis is a process that enables the researcher to see beyond what seems to be "random information" (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 3). It is a qualitative analysis method used "for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data." (Braun & Clarke,

2006, p. 79) Two different types of codes were applied to the data: top-down or “theory-generated codes”, as well as bottom-up or “in vivo codes” (Marshall & Rossman, 2016, p. 218) that are data-driven. The latter tended to emerge after the first cycle of coding, when I started to recognise patterns (Boyatzis, 1998) and recoded the data in a more refined manner. The encoding was performed using the computer assisted qualitative data analysis (CAQDAS) software NVivo (Version 11), which allowed me to efficiently organise and analyse over 300 pages of transcriptions as well as to conduct different levels of analysis. Once over 135 preliminary codes had been created, I clustered them into different categories, and identified themes in order to reach a higher conceptual level. It must be noted that these themes were only the product of classification, and not generally used for coding the data (Saldaña, 2015). The data were read repeatedly, and some recoding and rearrangement of codes were necessary during the analysis which was an ongoing process. Additionally, some new codes emerged while I was analysing the observed participants, trying to build up a profile for each of them. Analytic memos including my reflections and some possibilities of interpretation were written from the first day of coding, either in French or English. Following Braun and Clarke’s (2006) advice, I stopped coding when saturation occurred, when no new significant information could be extracted from the data. All the codes, their definitions and the themes are presented in a codebook in Appendix Q.

In qualitative analysis, “[r]eliability is consistency of judgment that protects against or lessens the contamination of projection” (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 146), which can be assessed by the means of intercoder and intracoder agreement (Brown, 2001). The former was conducted, and the results are presented in Appendix R. Schreier (2012) recommends assessing the level of reliability bearing in mind that varying degrees of consistency are possible since the all-or-none principle does not apply here.

5.4 Reflexivity

I have alluded to the emergent nature of knowledge in qualitative research in 4.2.4, and I finally wish to address how it influences the research process, focussing on the researcher’s role in particular. It is now widely accepted that the interpretative nature of qualitative research leaves considerable room for subjectivity (Dörnyei, 2007). Indeed, “the interviewer himself or herself is the main instrument for obtaining knowledge

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(Brinkman & Kvale, 2015, p. 97), and, more generally, “[t]he researcher is the conduit through which information is gathered and filtered” (Lichtman, 2013, p. 25). In an ideal situation, the researcher should be open-minded and should not have any preconceptions regarding the phenomenon under study (Dörnyei, 2007; Palaganas, Sanchez, Molintas, & Caricativo, 2017). However, in reality, this is not the case, hence the need for researchers to “better understand the role of the self in the creation of knowledge” (Berger, 2015, p. 220).

Commonly known as reflexivity, this process is that “of reflecting critically on the self as researcher” (Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2018, p. 143). It can be seen as “a continual internal dialogue and critical self-evaluation of researcher’s positionality as well as active acknowledgement and explicit recognition that this position may affect the research process and outcome” (Berger, 2015, p. 220). Furthermore, this concerns the various stages of the research process (p. 221), and the researcher should have “the capacity to operate *reflexively*” (Attia & Edge, 2017, p. 35) (original emphasis) from the early stages of research to the final ones. In other words, the researcher’s role does not only impact the data analysis and interpretation, but also the reasoning of previous decisions such as the design of the research questions and sampling. According to Merriam and Tisdell (2016, p. 249),

[i]nvestigators need to explain their biases, dispositions, and assumptions regarding the research to be undertaken. [...] Such a clarification allows the reader to better understand how the individual researcher might have arrived at the particular interpretation of the data.

For this reason, I am now going to be transparent about my own position as a researcher by presenting my background and relationship with the participants as well as the impact it had on the study.

As far as my background is concerned, I am from the Valais. I attended compulsory education and high school there before going to another canton to study at university. I started learning German in the 3rd year of primary school but only had to learn English when I started upper secondary education at the age of 15. While the focus for learning German was on rote memorisation (of dialogues, sentences, bilingual wordlists, grammar rules and irregular verbs), my first year of English was marked by the traumatic experience of the phonetic alphabet. Despite hesitant beginnings, I decided to become a secondary school language teacher, and consequently got a Master’s degree in English

and German language and literature. I then attended a teacher training college to get a teaching diploma (equivalent to a PGCE in the UK) before starting teaching in the Valais, where I worked for 10 years. When the new curriculum was implemented, I attended the compulsory training that introduced it to the practising teachers. A few years later, I had the opportunity to become a teacher trainer, and as such, provided guidance and advice to trainee teachers so that they could develop professionally while on school placement. Additionally, as a part-time lecturer in teacher education in a training college in the Valais, I taught English didactics and pedagogy to secondary pre-service teachers with a BA/MA in English. On a few occasions, I also organised in-service training as part of the teachers' professional development.

All this shows that I am extremely familiar with the context where the study took place, and that I know, from experience, how some of my participants were taught languages, and German in particular. I also have a comprehensive understanding of what it is like to teach, or to be trained as a teacher in the Valais. So although I endorsed the role of a complete observer doing overt research (Berg & Lune, 2012; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016), it is quite obvious from my background that I also had an insider perspective, and this dual role appeared as one of the greatest challenges I had to face during this PhD journey. At first, my insider perspective appeared as an asset since many former colleagues and trainees volunteered to take part in the research project while encouraging their own colleagues to participate as well. We must however bear in mind that the questionnaire was transmitted to all the English teachers by the school principals through the Department for Education, which might have been misleading regarding my role. Some might indeed have perceived me as an evaluator, an assessor, which might have elicited "socially desirable responses" (K. Richards et al., 2012, p. 123). My good knowledge of the context also seemed to be an advantage once I started the data collection, but it soon became clear that the participants did not necessarily see me as a researcher, especially those that were observed. Indeed, some saw me as a colleague, ending some of their sentences by "you know" during the stimulated recall interviews, and as a mentor, asking me to evaluate their lesson and to give them advice. Some admitted that they were happy to talk about their lessons in detail with me. Finally, I also sometimes felt like a language expert when they looked at me in class, waiting for me to validate the pronunciation of a word for example. So while my intention was clearly to wear the

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researcher hat and to withhold my judgment, I also had to deal with some role conflict issues since the participants seemed to see me as an insider. On the other hand, I have to acknowledge that this probably indicates a token of confidence, and Patton (2002) considers trust and rapport positive when collecting data. In such circumstances, Berger (2015, p. 230) explains the importance of reflexivity in these words:

Reflexivity when sharing participants' experiences [...] helps address the double sword inherent in the situation. On one hand, such familiarity may enable better in-depth understanding of participants' perception and interpretation of their lived experience in a way that is impossible in the absence of having been through it. However, at the same time, the researcher must remain constantly alert to avoid projecting own experience and using it as the lens to view and understand participants' experience.

Thus, aware of the bias I could bring to the study, I tried to reflect constantly on my role and on how it affected the various steps of the research process by writing analytic memos recorded by date in NVivo. Written in English or French in an informal way, these reflective notes were about what went through my mind as I was collecting and analysing the data. They included my thoughts on the participants, the setting, the data, as well as my actions and doubts, my struggles, my assumptions and decisions as well as the rationale behind them, and the way these shaped the research. It was at first new to me to put my thoughts down in writing, I therefore used Saldaña's (2015) examples of analytic memos to tap the full potential of what they have to offer. This, in turn, helped me to expand my practice of reflexivity. This issue will be tackled again at the end of the thesis (in 10.4), where I share my reflections on the research process and explain how my identity has been influenced by this PhD journey.

5.5 Concluding remarks

The mixed-method design of this study requires the use of both quantitative and qualitative criteria to evaluate the rigour with which it was conducted. I would argue that the detailed account of all the steps taken to design and pilot the instruments, as well as to collect and analyse the data allows for an assessment of the truthworthiness of this study. Nevertheless, I would like to make some final comments on the potential generalisation of the results and on the implications of researching multilingually.

As far as generalisability is concerned, the results obtained from the questionnaire analysis cannot be generalised based on statistical claims (Brown, 2001). Even though this

can be seen as a limitation, I do not see it as a threat to validity since the main objective of the questionnaire was to review the facts that were then analysed in depth in a second phase, as outlined in 4.2.3. The emphasis was on the particularity of the case. Yin (2012, p. 19) explains that a case study is more likely to be generalised to other situations rather than to an entire population given that it relies on analytic –and not statistical– claims. Thanks to a deep description of the participants and setting, the reader can then decide whether the findings are transferrable to their own context or not (Barnard & Burns, 2012).

Finally, an underlying theme reflected throughout this chapter is the multilingual nature of the research, to which we turn to now. Holmes, Fay, Andrews, and Attia (2013, p. 296) mention four different spaces researchers should be aware of when researching multilingually:

- 1) the researched context, in my case an English classroom in a French-speaking region;
- 2) the research context, in this particular instance an English-speaking university;
- 3) the researcher resources, i.e. English and French, but the only language used with the participants was French; and
- 4) the representational possibilities, which corresponds to the language used for the dissemination of the project.

The data were collected in a language that is different from the language used in the university I am enrolled at, which had several consequences. For example, the consent forms were written in French, but had to be translated into English to be approved by the ethics committee of the university. Some questionnaire items came from existing questionnaires, and had to be translated into French, while the final French questionnaire had to be translated into English since the thesis is in this language. The same applies to the interview questions. Those that were originally in English had to be translated into French for my participants, and the whole interview protocol had to be translated into English to be attached in the thesis as an appendix. The interviews took place in French, but both languages were used to create the nodes used to code the data (as Appendix R illustrates). All the nodes were eventually translated into English to homogenise the language of the coding book (as shown in Appendix Q). Regarding the fieldnotes, they were partly in French, partly in English, as were the reflective memos written in NVivo

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during the data analysis. In Chapters 6 and 7, the interview extracts are presented in French and English for two reasons. First, it is a way to reflect the multilingual nature of this research. Secondly, providing both the original versions and their translation is a way to represent the participants' "experiences in their full richness" (Holmes, Fay, Andrews, & Attia, 2016, p. 98), and to be transparent about the translation process, where some nuances might have been lost (p. 99).

Focusing on the methodological choices underpinning both the data collection and analysis (5.1, 5.2, 5.3), the objective of this chapter was to present the various steps of the research process. The issues pertaining to the researchers' role and reflexivity have also been addressed (5.4). The next three chapters present the research findings, starting with the quantitative ones.

Chapter 6 General Quantitative Findings from the Questionnaire

This results chapter presents the analysis of the data gathered by means of the questionnaire to answer the first research questions presented in 4.1. These questions address the teachers' professed beliefs about teaching, learning, the curriculum and the role played by the curriculum in the teachers' reported practices. These questions also investigate the role of training and experience on their beliefs.

This chapter is divided into two parts. The first one (6.1) focuses on the statistical analyses. It describes the factor analysis conducted to investigate what the teachers' professed beliefs are (6.1.1). After that, a short section analyses the internal consistency of the final scale (6.1.2). The next section presents the group comparisons (6.1.3), where the four previously extracted factors are compared across teachers with different characteristics. Then, the teachers' reported practices are analysed (6.1.4). Next, the results of some Likert scale individual items that were not included in the factor analysis are reported (6.1.5). Finally, the results of the multiple regression whose goal was to determine whether training and/or experience could predict some of the teachers' beliefs are presented (6.1.6), as well as the main limitations related to this quantitative study (6.1.7). The chapter then brings together the various results obtained and discusses them to start answering the research questions (6.2).

6.1 Statistical analyses

6.1.1 Factor analysis

Following the procedures described in the methodology Chapter (5.3.1.1), a factor analysis was carried out using the items of the Likert scale from the second part of the questionnaire (displayed in Appendix K). Aware of the numerous options available to the researcher conducting an exploratory factor analysis, I tried to explore several of them and consequently made numerous attempts (Costello & Osborne, 2005) before obtaining a satisfying result that was interpretable. Below, the rationale for the decisions taken to end up with the final version is outlined, and the four extracted factors are presented.

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First, given the exploratory nature of this factor analysis, some basic assumptions had to be tested. Following Child's advice (2006), the correlation matrix was checked because factor analysis is not considered appropriate for items that have no correlation above .3 with at least another item (Hair et al., 1995). It emerged that Items 5, 8, 17, 18, 24, 27, 29 had no correlation greater than .3, and they were consequently removed, as was Item 10 whose wording, with hindsight, was poorly formulated and ambiguous. After that, the 23 remaining items were subjected to a principal components analysis (PCA), and no indication about the number of factors to retain was entered into SPSS. Seven items with an eigenvalue greater than one were identified, which suggested a large number of factors. As for the scree plot, it was difficult to interpret because it showed several points of inflection. For Cattell and Jaspers (1967), the number of factors to retain equals the number of roots before the line starts dropping slowly and steadily, but it can indeed get complicated when the scree plot suggests two or more different breaks (Gorsuch, 1974). At that early stage, I tried to extract different numbers of factors using both the orthogonal and oblique rotation techniques. The latter, however, was inconclusive and hence not retained. There was also an issue with Items 30 and 31 that correlated with one another to form a factor made of only two items, which is not deemed acceptable (Child, 2006), or formed a factor with other items that were not related, which made the interpretation of this factor very difficult. For these reasons, these two items were removed as well.

Before conducting another PCA with the remaining 21 items, the suitability of the data was assessed using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and the Barlett's test of sphericity. The former value ($KMO=.71$) was above the .6 minimum recommended measure (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 676), and the latter was significant ($p<0.001$), which meant that the data were suitable for factorisation. Regarding the number of factors to extract, the Kaiser criterion method indicated a 7-factor solution if the components with an eigenvalue greater than one were kept (as shown in Appendix S.1), and the scree plot method revealed a 3-, 5- or 7-factor solution when counting the components above one of the three points of inflection (as displayed in Appendix S.2). Since a 5-factor solution did not yield interpretable results, I decided to go for a 4-factor model using a factor loading of .45 as cut-off value and the varimax rotation method. This model was chosen over the 3-factor model for various reasons. Firstly, its four factors

could be clearly interpreted. Interestingly, the 4-factor solution and the 3-factor solution shared two identical factors. Put together, the last two factors of the 4-factor solution formed the third one of the 3-factor model. Secondly, as illustrated in Table 5, the first factor explains 23.65% of the variance, the second one 9.32 %, and the last two factors 8.11% and 6.36% respectively. Since these four factors accounted for 47.44% of the total variance, this solution was better than the 41.09% of variance explained by the 3-factor model. According to Hair et al. (1995, p. 378), it would be ideal to get about 60% of the variance, which was obviously impossible here. However, since 18 out of 21 items had a loading greater than .5 in the 4-factor model, which is considered practically significant (p. 385), this solution was regarded as the best available variant.

Table 5 Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis Using PCA With Varimax Rotation of Teachers' Beliefs

Item number	Item label	Factors			
		1	2	3	4
16	Individual differences	.75			
4	Language and culture	.67			
15	Individual differences	.63			.40
12	Individual differences	.61			
9	Teaching strategies	.54			
7	Teaching strategies	.52		.42	
28	Curriculum	.45			
25	SL theory		.70		
13	Individual differences		.70		
23	SL theory		.59		
11	Teaching strategies		.58		
2	Language & culture		.50		
6	Teaching strategies		.46		
21	Assessment & grammar			.65	
19	Assessment & grammar			.64	
22	Assessment & grammar			.60	
20	Assessment & grammar				.66
14	Individual differences				.63
3	Language & culture			.50	.57
1	Language & culture			.42	.55
26	SL theory 2		.45		.47
	Eigenvalues	4.97	1.96	1.70	1.33
	Variance explained (%)	23.65	9.32	8.11	6.36
	Accumulated variance explained (%)	23.65	32.97	41.08	47.44

Note. Loading values <.40 were suppressed (N=86).

Table 5 presents the final 4-factor model with the factor loadings rounded to the nearest integer, the initial eigenvalues, percentage of individual variance explained as well as accumulated variance explained before rotation. In the matrix, five items have a double loading of .40 or above. Items 7 and 15 were placed within Factor 1 and Items 1 and 3 within Factor 4. In these four cases, the items were added to the factor for which their loading was the strongest. As for Item 26, whose loadings for Factors 2 and 4 were quite similar, it was added to Factor 2 for an interpretative reason, because it was more

meaningful in relation to the other items from this factor (see Appendix S.3 for a table including all the loadings).

Overall, four factors were extracted from 21 variables to represent the teachers' beliefs. Each factor had to be named according to the underlying dimension it represented. After careful consideration, the first factor with its seven variables was labelled *General Methodological Variety*. A high score indicates that the teacher promotes variety and the use of strategies in their lessons. The second factor, also made of seven variables, represents *Planning and Methodological Choices Regarding Language Teaching*. High scores indicate that the teacher follows CLT principles when planning. As for the third factor and its three variables, it was labelled *Focus on Meaning*. A high score indicates that the teacher puts the emphasis on communication rather than on form. Finally, factor four and its four variables correspond to *Communication in the Classroom*. Here, high scores indicate that the teacher promotes the use of English in class and gives the students the opportunity to express themselves. The final questionnaire grouped according to these four factors and with the statements to which the participants had to respond is available in Appendix S.4.

6.1.2 Checking internal consistency

The internal consistency of the final questionnaire was tested using Cronbach's alpha (α), which indicates to what extent the underlying constructs of the survey are being represented by the questionnaire items. The overall alpha value for the 21 items was .812, which is considered highly reliable (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 640). The Cronbach's alpha of each subscale uncovered by the factor analysis was also calculated, and the results are presented in Table 6 .

Table 6 Reliability Estimates of the Subscales of the Questionnaire About Teachers' Beliefs After Factor Analysis

Subscale	Number of items	Item number	Reliability estimate (α)
General methodological variety	7	4,7,9,12,15,16,28	.732
Planning and methodological choices regarding language teaching	7	2,6,11,13,23,25,26	.700
Focus on meaning	3	19,21,22	.568
Communication in the classroom	4	1,3,14,20	.683

The Cronbach's alpha values obtained for the first two subscales were satisfactory, $\alpha=.732$ and $.700$ respectively, whereas the value for *Focus on Meaning*, with $\alpha=.568$, does not reach the desired minimum of $.6$. This can be explained by the fact that they are only three items in this subscale. As for *Communication in the Classroom*, it is minimally reliable with $\alpha=.683$. Given that the overall value is very satisfactory, the low alpha of the third factor is not regarded as a problem, especially since this questionnaire was exploratory (Hair et al., 1995). If I had chosen the 3-factor solution, the last two factors above would have been merged, and the reliability estimate would have been much higher ($\alpha=.716$), but as explained earlier in 6.1.1, a higher percentage of variance was favoured.

6.1.3 Group comparisons

After the four subscales of teachers' beliefs had been identified, group comparisons were performed to investigate whether teachers with different backgrounds shared similar beliefs. With this aim in mind, the data were split into several groups. A mean of the factor scores was computed for each group in relation to each factor. Concerning the school type (plains $n=65$, mountains $n=16$, prefer not to say $n=5$), the results did not indicate anything noteworthy. As far as the teachers' training in English was concerned, no evidence of a pattern was found either, as the group with the highest/lowest score changed for each factor. It must be noted, however, that the number of participants in each group varied substantially (Fribourg $n=15$, Bachelor/Master's $n=28$, CAE/CPE $n=5$, InsEngl $n=30$, other/nothing $n=8$), which might have influenced the results.

As for the difference between the participants who had studied English in lower secondary as students ($n=29$) and those who did not ($n=56$), their results were very close to each other, and close to the mean for both Factors 2 and 3, that is *Planning and Methodological Choices Regarding Language Teaching* and *Focus on Meaning*. For *General Methodological Variety* however, the best results were obtained by those with a lower secondary experience of learning English ($M=.33$, $SD=.96$). The other group had lower scores but a very similar standard deviation on this same factor ($M=-.15$, $SD=.97$). As for *Communication in the Classroom*, again, those who had studied English in lower secondary ($M=.15$, $SD=.95$) answered in a more positive way than those who had not ($M=-.10$, $SD=1.03$), and this will be interpreted later (in 6.2.2).

As for the means obtained by the teachers depending on the didactics training they had attended, they are displayed in the following table.

Table 7 Means and Standard Deviations for Each Factor in Relation to the Teachers' Training in Foreign Language Didactics

Training	n	Factor 1		Factor 2		Factor 3		Factor 4	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Fribourg (Engl, Ger, Lx)	20	.09	1.25	.07	1.22	.33	.71	.02	.98
HEP (Engl, Ger, Lx)	24	.32	.76	.02	.90	-.06	.95	.32	1.10
In-service	13	-.14	1.10	-.04	1.17	-.03	1.14	-.20	1.00
Nothing/other	27	-.29	.91	-.11	.86	-.18	1.21	-.19	.96

These results revealed that, for Factors 1, 2 and 4, that is *General Methodological Variety*, *Planning and Methodological Choices Regarding Language Teaching* and *Communication in the Classroom* respectively, the participants who got a degree for language teaching from either the University of Fribourg or a teacher training college got higher scores. The mean of their results is always positive, whereas the means of the two other groups (in-service and nothing/other) are always negative. The difference is especially noticeable for the first factor about methodological variety, where the teachers who studied at a teacher training college (HEP) scored much better than those with no specific foreign language methodological training. Interestingly, for the third factor, *Focus on Meaning*, the participants with the diploma from the teacher training college scored noticeably lower than those who studied in Fribourg and, with a mean of $-.06$, come close to the teachers with in-service training and those with no specific training or another one. The

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respondents who studied in Fribourg do not only have the best score regarding this factor 3, but their standard deviation is also the smallest, suggesting that they answered in a relatively similar way.

Finally, when it comes to the teachers' experience in teaching English, the results demonstrated that participants teaching English for at least nine years scored overall better than the others. It must be noted that this group was the largest of all ($n=34$), and that seven of its teachers had also at least 9 years of experience teaching German or another foreign language, while three had 6 to 8 years of experience teaching German. There were not so many teachers with so much experience in teaching two foreign languages in the other groups, which brings us to the conclusion that these participants were overall the most experienced in teaching not only English, but other foreign languages as well. In addition, Table 8 illustrates that for Factors 2 and 3, their standard deviations were the smallest, which seems to suggest that their answers were more homogenous than those of the people with less experience.

Table 8 Means and Standard Deviations for Each Factor According to the Teachers' Experience in Teaching English

Experience (in years)	n	Factor 1		Factor 2		Factor 3		Factor 4	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
0-2	10	.11	1.03	-.67	1.36	-.30	1.07	.13	1.00
3-5	23	.07	.79	.08	.92	.00	1.36	-.38	1.27
6-8	17	-.44	.93	-.03	.95	.05	.95	.05	.85
≥ 9	34	.19	1.10	.18	.84	.08	.78	.20	.89

Teachers with the least experience got a particularly low score for factor 2 ($M=-.67$, $SD=1.36$), and there are two reasons for this. The first one is that only one participants out of the ten teachers obtained a positive mean, and the second one is that a participant got an extremely negative one (-4.07). However, interestingly, two participants had at least 15 years of experience teaching German and three had between 3 and 8 years of experience teaching German or another foreign language. This means that only five out of the ten teachers of this group had very little experience teaching a foreign language. For all four factors, the standard deviations of the 0-2 group was relatively high, which demonstrates that the respondents' answers were quite far apart. It must be highlighted

that the outliers were not removed from these calculation to better acknowledge the variety of the sample.

6.1.4 Descriptive analysis of the teachers' reported practices

Exploring the participants' use of the teacher's books, the way they follow the course books and the curriculum, their level of familiarity with it, how much they consult it, to what extent they rely on past experience, and whether they collaborate with colleagues was expected to help determine how teachers planned their lessons and what influenced their planning.

A) Use of the teacher's book

The results showed that, when planning, the teachers relied much more on the teacher's book of EiM than on that of NH. Indeed, out of the 75 teachers who had taught using NH, 46.7% (n=35) reported never using its teacher's book, a figure that drops to 1.2% (n=1) when it comes to the use of the teacher's book of EiM. Thus, the teacher's book of EiM was much more popular, with 74.4% (n=61) of the people using it at least regularly. Those who used NH teacher's book either on a regular basis (n=10) or always (n=3) were considerably fewer (17.3%), and no common background information in terms of training and experience common to all of them could be found to explain these results.

B) Use of the course books and extra activities

As for their use of the course books, 37.3% (n=28) stated that they never followed NH item by item, and 32% (n=24) maintained that they seldom did, which together represents almost 70% of the participants. However, this trend is reversed regarding the use of the new course book EiM by the teachers. In fact, about half the participants (51.8%, n=43) claimed to regularly follow it item by item, whereas 12% (n=10) reported to always follow it. Comparing the respondents' answers regarding their use of the two course books, it appeared that many follow EiM more strictly than NH. This is in line with the teachers' responses concerning the use of extra activities to supplement the course books. Indeed, 86.7% (n=65) of the teachers stated that they supplemented NH, compared with only 50.6% (n=42) of the participants who supplemented EiM. Taking a closer look at what extra activities they reported to add, while about 23% supplemented NH with listening, reading and speaking activities, slightly less than 10% of the

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participants added such activities focusing on skills with EiM. As for the other types of activities (games, magazines, films, culture, songs, projects etc.) they were mentioned about the same amount of times as supplements for both EiM and NH. It is also fundamental to note that 10 out of the 65 teachers supplementing NH did so with activities from EiM. Finally, the vast majority of the teachers (83.1%) reported to visit the teacher zone online, which is a special area related to EiM, and 45% of them relied on the official English website (HEP).

C) Use the PER

Since the introduction of the PER, 22 teachers (N=50) have claimed to have done some modifications in their teaching, 18 several modifications, and 9 many modifications. Only one participant reported not to have modified the way he taught at all. Interestingly, when asked what kind of modifications they made after the PER had been introduced, only seven participants (N=39) precisely commented on what the PER introduction changed for them. Seven other informants explicitly mentioned changes related to their use of the new textbook, and not in relation to the PER. As for the others, they commented on changes that can apply to both the introduction of the new textbook and the introduction of the new curriculum. This is analysed further in the qualitative analysis in 7.2. As for the changes they identified, they mainly stressed the importance of communication, and also the emphasis on the four skills as well as the implications these changes had on assessment (assessment from then on mainly on the four skills, and not so much on grammar and vocabulary anymore). Furthermore, it must be added that these results could not be explained by the teachers' training background or number of years of experience.

As far as the participating teachers' familiarity with the curriculum is concerned, 80.7% claimed to be (very) familiar with it (n=71), and only 19.3% (n=17) were (very) unfamiliar. From the eight who were very unfamiliar with it, three people had not attended a regular language didactics training but they reported to collaborate with other colleagues. Three others with either a language teaching degree or in-service training for English teaching stated, however, that they did not collaborate with other teachers. Regarding the teachers' use of the curriculum booklet, we can see in Table 9 that the majority of the teachers only used it from time to time and that regular users were few. The results

displayed in the table show a different pattern concerning past experience. Indeed, the teachers who did not rely on past experience remained a minority, and about 60% did regularly build on their previously gained experience.

Table 9 Descriptive Statistics of the Influence of the PER and Past Experience on Teachers When They Plan

Answer	Planning PER (n=89)		Planning past experience (n=87)	
	n	%	n	%
Never	15	16.9	2	2.3
Seldom	27	30.3	5	5.7
Sometimes	34	38.2	20	23
Regularly	12	13.5	53	61
Always	1	1.1	7	8

The experience they refer to is mainly their experience as English teachers. They mention both positive and negative previous experiences from which they draw inspiration for further lessons. Additionally, three participants pointed out that they relied on their own experience as learners, and only one mentioned being influenced by his training. Collaboration with other colleagues was also brought up as a positive and influential experience, but to a lesser extent. These different types of experience will be developed further in 7.4.1, in Chapter 8 as well as in the discussion.

D) Collaboration with colleagues

Finally, concerning the teachers' habits and their collaboration with colleagues, the evidence is that the great majority (83.3%, n=70) reported to collaborate to some extent. Only 14 people never or seldom collaborated, out of which six did not attend any particular training for language teaching, one did the in-service training and seven had a language teaching degree. Talking about the frequency of the collaboration, of the 70 teachers who claimed to work with other colleagues, only 31 indicated the collaboration frequency which is, for the majority (n=23), once or twice a month. Interestingly, around 50% of the teachers (n=44) did not provide the expected information. The main findings of the results presented so far will be summarised and discussed in 6.2.

6.1.5 Likert scale of individual items

While acknowledging the limitations of considering individual items of a Likert scale due to reliability issues (Brown, 2011; Carifio & Perla, 2007), the analyses conducted at the Likert item level provided considerable insights into the teachers' beliefs regarding the use of the curriculum. The results of the descriptive statistics are presented in Table 10. 40.2% of the teachers thought that the curriculum could be adapted according to their previous experience, and 8% strongly agreed with this idea (*Curriculum 27: Ideally, an effective English teacher adapts the curriculum according to his/her previous experience*). Furthermore, 31.8% of the participants disagreed with Item 28 (*Curriculum 28: Ideally, an effective English teacher looks at the curriculum regularly to make sure he/she follows it*), which suggests that they did not look at the curriculum very regularly. As for Item 29 (*Curriculum 29: Ideally, an effective English teacher makes sure he/she completes the teaching syllabus*), half of the participants agreed and 10.2% strongly agreed with the statement. If we combine the answers of both Items 28 and 29, it appears that several teachers did not look at the curriculum but still made sure they completed the syllabus, which is investigated further in the qualitative data analysis (in 7.2 in particular).

Table 10 Descriptive Statistics of the Questionnaire Items 27, 28 and 29

Answer	Curriculum 27 (n=87)		Curriculum 28 (n=88)		Curriculum 29 (n=88)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Strongly disagree	2	2.3	3	3.4	2	2.3
Disagree	9	10.3	28	31.8	16	18.2
Neither agree nor disagree	34	39.1	26	29.6	17	19.3
Agree	35	40.3	25	28.4	44	50
Strongly agree	7	8	6	6.8	9	10.2

Finally, Item 5 (*Ideally, an effective English teacher considers British English as being the model to be taught*) is worth mentioning in this section because it is the only item whose most selected answer was *neither agree nor disagree*, which corresponds to 34.1% (n=30) of the answers for this item. About a fifth of the teachers (strongly) agreed (21.6%, n=19) to the fact that British English is the model that should be taught at school. It can also be noted that 39.1% of the participants answered *neither agree nor disagree* to Item 27 mentioned above, as did 29.5% of the teachers for Item 28. This might indicate that these are sensitive areas. Amongst all the items of the questionnaire, these are in fact the

statements with the highest amount of indecisive answers, which points to issues analysed further in the next two results chapters.

6.1.6 Multiple regression

The objective of using multiple regression analyses was to determine whether the outcomes of the teachers on the four previously extracted factors could be predicted. The significance level was set to be $\alpha < .05$, and cases were excluded listwise when they were missing values. As far as the independent variables were concerned, the variables related to the teachers' training in English did not correlate well with any of the factors and could therefore not be used as meaningful predictors, contrary to what was originally expected. Furthermore, there were no significant results for Factors 2 and 3, whose correlations with the independent variables were too low. As for Factor 4, its correlations with the predictors were higher, but the results did not show anything noteworthy. Thus, only the results related to Factor 1 will be presented in this section.

First, an outlier (Participant 4), whose predicted score did not follow the general trend was identified for Factor 1. Its standardised residual of -3.225 was indeed slightly above three standard deviations (Stevens, 2009), which raised my attention. Keeping this participant would have violated the assumption of independent errors given that the Durbin-Watson statistic result was $.236$ when it should ideally have been close to 2 (Field, 2013). For these reasons, Participant 4 was not included in the multiple regression analysis of Factor 1. The other assumptions were then examined, and the correlation matrix (attached in Appendix S.5) was checked for multicollinearity, making sure that the predictors did not correlate among each other above $.7$ (Baguley, 2012). Finally, I assessed the normal distribution of Factor 1 ($N=85$) using both graphical and numerical methods (Miles & Shevlin, 2001), which means that the normal distribution of the first factor was first assessed thanks to a P-P plot before the skew and kurtosis statistics were computed (Miles & Shevlin, 2001). The normal probability plot showed that the distribution did not deviate too much from the diagonal (as illustrated in Appendix S.6). As for the skew and kurtosis, the former was $-.119$, and the latter $-.341$. These figures were relatively close to zero and they were smaller than twice their standard error, respectively $.261$ and $.517$ (Miles & Shevlin, 2001, p. 74), which meant that the data could be regarded as relatively normally distributed. The independent variables being

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nonmetric, there was no need to check either their normal distribution, linearity or homogeneity of variance.

The results of the regression of Factor 1 ($M=.078$, $SD=.940$, $N=80$) can be found in Table 11. The teachers' familiarity with the curriculum did not yield any convincing results and was therefore not included in the final model that took only three independent variables into account, namely at least nine years of experience teaching English, experience of learning English as a student in lower secondary and didactics training at the University of Fribourg or at the HEP.

Table 11 Predictors of Teachers' Beliefs on Methodological Variety

Variables	β	t	Sig.
At least 9 years of experience teaching English	.219	2.062	.043*
Studied English in lower secondary	.198	1.861	.067
Didactics training at the University of Fribourg/HEP	.261	2.469	.016*

Note. * $p < .05$

The results indicated that the best predictor was the teachers' training in language didactics ($\beta=.261$, $p=.016$). This variable significantly predicted teachers' beliefs regarding methodological variety, as did having at least 9 years of experience teaching English ($\beta=.219$, $p=.043$). This strongly suggests that teachers with a comprehensive professional training in language didactics have a mean regarding beliefs about methodological variety that is on average a quarter more positive than other teachers (.261). As for those with at least 9 years of language teaching experience, their mean is on average about a fifth (.219) more positive than the others. Altogether, the three predictors explained 15.6% of the variance in the teachers' beliefs regarding methodological variety ($R^2=.156$, $F(3,76)=4.678$, $p=.005$). In other words, the use of this model enables us to significantly predict the outcome variable, but only in a modest way since it leaves a considerable portion of variance unexplained.

Given that it was important to test the assumptions again before the model could be validated (Hair et al., 1995), linearity and homoscedasticity were checked. The residuals were examined thanks to the scatterplot (Appendix S.7), whose overall shape was satisfactory (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014, p. 162). The Durbin-Watson statistics was 1.951, which is close to the ideal value of 2. However, in the present case, the normal

distribution was no longer present, as shown in Appendix S.8. This model can therefore not be generalised, and this will be addressed again in 6.3. Before summarising, combining and discussing these results in 6.2, the limitations of the quantitative analysis are acknowledged and described.

6.1.7 Limitations

Most of the analyses presented in this chapter were based on the four factors obtained by means of the factor analysis. In this exploratory process, there were various options for me to select from, starting with the number of factors to retain. If I had decided to retain three factors instead of four, some of the results would have been different. Furthermore, the first two factors seem to be more reliable, not only because they consist of more items, but also because their reliability estimate is higher. The reliability estimate of the third factor was slightly too low, which would need to be addressed if the questionnaire had to be used again. It is also plausible that the choice and wording of the items may have influenced the results. Many of them could not be included in the factor analysis because they did not correlate well with any other ones, suggesting that the original questionnaire was not ideal. As for the assumption of normality, it only matters if the ultimate aim is to generalise the results (Field, 2013, p. 686), which is not the case here since the exploratory factor analysis was only used to describe the sample. Thus, the sample being not representative, the results are not generalizable.

Another downside of the questionnaire concerns the item loadings. On the one hand, double loadings should ideally be avoided. On the other hand, high loadings should be sought because they indicate that “the variable is a pure measure of the factor” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014, p. 702). In other words, no double loading with several high loading on each factor tend to be regarded as strong data (Costello & Osborne, 2005), which I unfortunately did not manage to get in this study. It has been established that the sample size determines the significance of a factor loading (Field, 2013, p. 681), and Hair et al. (1995, p. 385) have put forward the difference between practical and statistical significance. With a sample size of 85 participants, as is the case in this research project, they have noted that only a factor loading of at least .60 is statistically significant, which is corroborated by Stevens (2009, p. 332). From a more practical point of view though, a .50 loading accounting for 25% of the variance is regarded as “practically significant” (Hair et

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al., 1995, p. 385). Even though several items had a high loading on the corresponding factor, it was unfortunately not the case for all the 21 items of the questionnaire. Finally, another source for possible limitation is my choice of using factor scores because they are influenced by the factor loadings. What is more, factor scores are difficult to compute for other samples, which makes replication difficult (Hair et al., 1995). This was not regarded as a problem given that this questionnaire would need to be modified and piloted again before being used again anyway.

As far as the descriptive analyses as concerned, I regret that ANOVA could not be used because the data were not normally distributed. Its use would have determined whether the differences were statistically significant. Another source of uncertainty has been identified in the third part of the questionnaire, where different questions assessed the teachers' collaboration, and where the answers were not always coherent from one question to the next. When asked how often they collaborated, the teachers who said they met their colleagues once or twice a month ticked *regularly*, *sometimes*, and *seldom*. This shows that frequency is relative and this discrepancy is therefore a source of unreliability in the methodology used. Furthermore, as explained in 5.2.1., the time needed by the participants to answer the survey varied, and I realised during the interviews that some answers were erroneous, which indicates that the circumstances in which the questionnaire was filled in might not always have been ideal.

As for the multiple regression analysis, it was based on the factor analysis, which means that the model completely depends on the questionnaire. As for the amount of variance explained, it was not very high. This is because the predictors did not have a very high correlation with the first factor, and the R^2 cannot be higher than this value (Stevens, 2009). Had the correlations been stronger (not among themselves, but with the factor), the variance explained would have been higher. Finally, we must not forget that “[r]egression analyses reveal relationships among variables but do not imply that the relationships are causal.” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014, p. 158) Factor 1 was particularly interesting because it was relatively normally distributed, which allowed me to enter it in the regression analysis. Had the other ones been as well, I could also have explored their potential predictors, but contrary to expectations, there were not. Further data collection would have been needed to come closer to normal distribution overall, which would also

have allowed me to investigate whether the different means between groups were significantly different or not.

6.2 Bringing the quantitative results together

The data examined so far provide evidence that allows to grasp the complexity of the situation in the canton of Valais, and this section offers a thorough analysis of the quantitative research findings presented in the present chapter to start answering the research questions (outlined in 4.1).

6.2.1 Teachers' beliefs uncovered

The exploratory factor analysis (6.1.1) brought to light four distinct areas of beliefs, and each of them represented a different dimension, namely beliefs regarding general methodological variety (Factor 1), beliefs about planning and methodological choices in language teaching (Factor 2), and finally beliefs with a focus on meaning (Factor 3) as well as those dealing with communication in the classroom (Factor 4). This study has neither confirmed Kissau et al.'s (2012) grouping of the questionnaire items, nor the subscales of their questionnaire. Indeed, items that were merged to form a variable in their study did not necessarily form a cluster in the factor analysis here, as Table 5 has shown. This can be explained by the fact that the items have not only been translated, but also modified, some were added and others removed. Contrary to expectations, the items pertaining to the curriculum were not strong enough to come up as a factor; for the most part they did not even correlate strongly with each other, aside from Items 30 and 31. This might be due to the fact that practising teachers did not see the curriculum as very relevant once they consider themselves familiar with it, which was the case for most of them as illustrated in the analysis (6.1.4). Consequently, it seems clear that, for most participants, the use of the curriculum is not related to effectiveness (this issue will be further investigated in 7.2 and 8.2.4). Nevertheless, the fact that the teachers associated the curriculum with their previous experience was quite significant (6.1.4, 6.1.5), and this will be explored further later (in 7.4). Another plausible reason for the absence of a factor pertaining to curriculum is the wording of the items, which is one of the limitations of this study.

6.2.2 Beliefs and experience

The examination of the relationship between the teachers' beliefs (i.e. the four extracted factors) and different demographic groups provided meaningful results overall (6.1.3). A difference of mean scores based on the type of schools the teachers were working at could not be identified. This could be due to the fact that these two kinds of schools were not different enough to yield significant results, which is likely in this Valaisan context. Indeed, even though the data were collected in schools located both in villages and small towns (see 4.3.1), I would argue that the teaching contexts were quite similar. Another possibility would be that the respondents' workplace is something external to them, contrary to their training and experience, and not exerting as much influence.

The teachers who learnt English in lower secondary school had more positive beliefs regarding two factors out of four. Indeed, this cohort obtained a positive mean score for *General Methodological Variety* and *Communication in the Classroom*, which was not the case of the other cohort. A plausible reason for this might lie in the greater freedom and variety of teaching methods they encountered when studying English at lower secondary, where it was a secondary subject with no final state exam. Those who did not start English in lower secondary school most probably started at high school, where English was a main subject with a final exam, which undoubtedly added some pressure both on the teachers and on the students, which will be analysed from a qualitative perspective in 7.4.1.1 and discussed in Chapter 9. For the other two factors though, the means of both groups were very close not only to each other, but also to the mean ($M=0$), suggesting that the difference of beliefs between the two cohorts had faded. Finally, it is worth mentioning that having studied English in lower secondary did not turn out to be a significant predictor of the first factor, as the multiple regression analysis revealed (6.1.6).

Another type of experience considered in this study is the amount of experience the participants had in teaching English (6.1.3). The average mean scores for the teachers with at least 9 years of experience teaching English were higher across the four factors, indicating that these teachers' beliefs were closer to what the curriculum prescribes. As a result, this study clearly indicates that teachers who have been teaching English for at least nine years tend to have more positive beliefs about language teaching broadly speaking. On the other hand, the analysis did not reveal any consistent results regarding

the novice teachers. In fact, teachers with the least experience scored low both on Factors 2 and 3, suggesting that CLT principles were not necessarily followed when they planned their lessons, even though half the participants of this group had at least 3 years of experience teaching another foreign language. Thus, unfortunately, this study was unsuccessful in demonstrating that novice teachers behaved as a group and obtained similar results across the four factors. These results will be compared to earlier research in 9.3.2. Finally, given that the findings are based on a limited number of participants with little experience, the results should therefore be treated with caution. So far, the evidence points toward the idea that the teachers need a minimum of 9 years to go through the various stages leading to their highest possible level of proficiency, as discussed later in 9.3. As for the respondents who obtained a low score after several years of experience, it seems they need more time than the others to develop positive beliefs towards teaching and learning. However, we cannot rule out that these inconsistent results were caused by atypical answers from some respondents. All in all, the cut-off value of 9 years is consistent with the result of the multiple regression analysis. Indeed, the fact of having taught English for at least 9 years significantly predicted the teachers' beliefs regarding the first factor (*General Methodological Variety*) at a 5% level (6.1.6).

6.2.3 Beliefs and training

Similarly, the multiple regression analysis (6.1.6) indicated that having a language teaching degree from either the university or an HEP was a significant predictor of the outcome of Factor 1, the strongest one indeed. As was shown in the group comparisons (6.1.3), the means of these teachers were positive seven times out of eight, while the means of the teachers with another type of training or no training were constantly negative. This implies that the former had beliefs that were closer to the tenets of the curriculum. What is more, the difference between the highest and lowest means for three of the four factors was relatively high, even though the gap was not statistically significant. The training provided to obtain a teaching degree at university or at a teacher training college is more structured and it consists of more hours than in-service training, which seems to have played a role in the participants' scores. In other words, the results confirm that the teachers with no language teaching degree behave as a group in a

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particular manner. So far, it is encouraging to see a difference of scores between the teachers with a language teaching degree and those without. The poor performance in all four factors of the non-specifically trained group (n=27) confirms that training does matter.

Interestingly, the teachers' training in English language did not yield convincing results (6.1.3), and I could not determine which teachers had the most positive or negative views based on their background in learning English. This could be explained by the fact that the participants' English was good enough, and that once they have reached a certain threshold, it does not matter anymore. Or even more simply, I could argue that the teachers' level of English does not make much of a difference and that other factors not assessed here could play a more important role, such as for instance confidence. This striking observation is worth mentioning because it is often thought that what truly matters is the teachers' level in the language they teach, which is not supported by the evidence here.

6.2.4 Teachers' reported practices

The analysis of the teachers' reported practices (6.1.4) revealed that the participants relied much more on the teacher's book of EiM than on the teacher's book of NH. The reason for this may be that NH had been used for over a decade, which means that many teachers were quite familiar with it. In addition, most of the participants reported to supplement NH to a considerable extent, and might consequently not have needed its teacher's book that much. As for the fact that every participant but one reported to use the teacher's book of EiM, this did not come as a surprise given that this course book had just been introduced when the data were collected. This tendency to rely on the EiM course material was confirmed by the fact that more teachers followed EiM item by item. Surprisingly though, half the teachers using EiM supplemented it with other materials, even though it was rated as a (very) good course book overall. A reasonable explanation for this may be that teachers were very fond of some activities they used to do with the previous course book and, convinced that they worked well for their students, decided to keep them. This, again, emphasises the importance of experience, and it is consistent with the results indicating that teachers added games, songs, films, magazines and projects to their lessons with both course books. If the teachers felt that something was

missing in this new course book, it would also justify why they decided to supplement it. This also seems to be in line with the findings according to which several teachers added listening, reading and speaking activities with NH whereas very few did with EIM because such exercises were provided. The analysis of the interviews and observations in the next two chapters will provide more information on the matter. Overall, we can say that the participants appeared to be dynamic in the sense that they made use of their experience and of many different resources at their disposal to improve and vary their teaching, which will be confirmed by the interview data presented in 7.2.2.

Although the vast majority of the participants claimed to be familiar with the curriculum, few of them actually reported to use the curriculum booklet when planning. There were hardly any participants who were not familiar with the PER and did not collaborate with colleagues, which was reassuring. Further analyses of some single items gave us some valuable information about the teachers' use of the curriculum. Just under half of them thought that the curriculum could be adapted to their previous experience and about a third did not think that it was necessary to read the curriculum regularly to make sure they followed it. This confirms the fact that many teachers did not refer to the curriculum when planning. Finally, while many participants admitted not to consult the curriculum on a regular basis, 60% stated that an effective teacher has to complete the syllabus. This apparent lack of coherence is analysed further in the interviews (see 7.2). It will also help to determine what the syllabus actually is for the teachers. It could be what they agree to do as a team or what is in the textbook, among others. The curriculum might well be an official booklet, but the syllabus might be something more local. The relatively high percentage of respondents who selected *neither agree nor disagree* to two items related to the curriculum further indicates that this needs to be delved into.

Collaboration seems to be a well-established habit for the majority of the participants (and the nature of their collaboration will be explored further in 7.2.2 and 7.4.1.4), even though only half of them reported the frequency with which they met their colleagues. The poor response rate here is not fully understood. A plausible interpretation could be that the informants were afraid to collaborate less than their employer expected them to. Most of them stated to meet other colleagues once or twice a month. As for those who reported not to collaborate at all, few of them were teachers with no training, which is encouraging.

6.3 Concluding remarks

This section has presented the findings of the quantitative data analysis to address the research questions, and the most important results are summarised as follows. Four different types of beliefs related to teaching and learning have been uncovered. Surprisingly though, curriculum did not seem to be related to teacher expertise and effectiveness in a very powerful way because it did not emerge as a factor. Concerning the alignment of these beliefs with the curriculum, the results offered evidence that teachers with different training and experience held different beliefs (which will be investigated further in 7.3, 7.4.1 and 8.1 in particular). Indeed, the teachers who had studied English in lower secondary held beliefs that were closer to the curriculum for two factors. The group with the most positive beliefs, i.e. beliefs closer to what the curriculum says, had been teaching English for at least 9 years. My study suggests that after having taught for 9 years, differences in beliefs tend to fade, and so arguably teachers have reached a plateau of expertise (Randall & Thornton, 2001), and therefore tend to have more positive beliefs whatever their training. However, the data did not provide any evidence that allowed me to determine what the critical threshold is regarding novice teachers. Further data would be needed to try to identify the amount of experience under which novice teachers would have behaved as a group across the four factors.

The findings also indicated that the participants with a language teaching degree held beliefs that were closer to the curriculum. It is good to see that training matters, and that a long, consistent training related to language teaching yields promising results. The respondents whose main training was related to teaching, but not language teaching, generally obtained mean scores that were less in accordance with the curriculum. The teachers' training in English did not seem to affect their beliefs as much as their training in didactics though. This evidence has led me to conclude that if the canton has some money to invest, it would seem better to inject it on a language pedagogy course rather than on a language course, since it seems to play a more significant role according to the evidence. These findings demonstrate how important training and experience are, which was confirmed by the multiple regression analysis. The role of experience and training will be analysed from a different perspective in Chapter 8, where the beliefs and practices of two teachers with different backgrounds will be explored.

What also emerged from the results is that the teachers made sure they completed the syllabus even though they did not regularly look at the curriculum, which is examined further in the next results chapters (7.2, 8.2.4) to understand how they do so. When there is a curriculum change, people do not let go of everything on the first day of the new school year, it takes some time and experience is powerful. Indeed, the results showed that they used it and continued to plan certain types of exercises, what was illustrated by the fact that they already supplemented the new course book EiM.

The aim of the quantitative questionnaire-based data presented in this chapter was to gain a full picture of the situation in the Valais before looking at its complexity using qualitative analysis to which we turn now. The following chapter focuses on the teachers' core beliefs (7.1, 7.2), on the way they conceptualise the curriculum (7.2), on belief change (7.3), and on the factors affecting how they implement the new curriculum (7.4). This chapter will deepen our understanding of the role of training and experience as well as of the relationship between the teachers' beliefs and practices.

Chapter 7 Group Findings: Teachers' Reported Beliefs and Practices

The analyses presented so far (Ch.6) have highlighted that they might be some tacit practices regarding the use of the curriculum, and that training and experience are influential. In order to confirm and explain these results, as well as to get a thicker description of the case (as defined in 4.2.2) and to analyse it from another perspective, the present chapter is mainly based on the seventeen interviews conducted with the participants. Thematic analysis as defined in 5.3.2.2 has been used to examine the qualitative data here. The analysis of teachers' beliefs and practices can shed light on the impact of curriculum change, and while this chapter deals with reported beliefs and practices, observed practices and their underlying beliefs will be the main focus of attention in Chapter 8.

Here I first present the teachers' reported beliefs about their role(s) as teachers and the role(s) of English (7.1). Then, moving to something more specific, I discuss the teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the new curriculum (PER) (7.2) before going on with the way they responded to the implementation of EiM (7.3). Details about the relationship between beliefs and practices in a context of change will be provided. To finish off with, two factors affecting the implementation of the new curriculum/course book will be examined, namely experience and classroom management (7.4).

7.1 Teachers' reported beliefs about teaching in general

I decided to start by looking at the teachers' reported beliefs about teaching in general to set the scene for subsequent analyses. I would argue that the beliefs presented here are overarching ones underpinning the teachers' actions, and as Nespor (1987, p. 325) has advised, if we want to understand the way teachers teach, "the goals they pursue" must not be overlooked. In this section, I therefore discuss the teachers' beliefs about their roles (7.1.1) and the role of English (7.1.2).

7.1.1 Participants' beliefs about their role(s) as teachers

Analysing the roles the teachers think they play in class allowed me to gain an insight into some of their beliefs. Most of the answers were given when the participants answered interview questions 5 and 10 (see appendix M), but not only. There were some other passages in the interviews where I could directly infer what role they were playing (ex: Bryan, Anja). The teachers' roles that emerged from the data analysis are the following:

A) Preparing the students for their future life

Ten out of seventeen participants see it as their responsibility to prepare the students for active life, hence the importance of prioritising what will, according to them, be of use to the student's future everyday life. As a result, they try to provide the students with practical tools that will allow them to get by later, such as being able to communicate in simple situations, at the restaurant, at the train station or when shopping. Maya (INT-38) goes even further, stressing that it is essential for her to teach subjects that she considers useful, and English is definitely regarded as such: "l'anglais je suis sûre à 100% qu'ils vont tous l'utiliser par la suite" [*I am 100% sure they will all use English later on*]. She also shares this view for mathematics and science, the two other subjects she teaches, in contrast with history that she does not consider useful for ordinary life. There is some evidence here that English is genuinely regarded as part of the basic equipment with which the students should be armed to face life, and the role of English will be developed further in 7.1.2 and 8.2.4.

B) Fostering the students' curiosity towards the language and its culture

An example of this second role is provided by Alex (INT-18-20), who highlights that he sees it as his duty to introduce the students to the culture of the country whose language they learn. The objective is to provide them with the basics in case they want to go to the country to attend a language course. This view is not an isolated one. Indeed, I have been very surprised to discover that many teachers feel responsible not only for making the students enjoy English and come to class with pleasure, but also for giving them the desire to continue learning it: "qu'ils soient capable dans la mesure où ils ont envie de continuer, d'avoir un terreau fertile" [*to make sure they have a good foundation in case*

they feel like studying English further] (INT-Bryan-72). It is as if the teachers were laying the foundation for the students' future learning, as explained by Cathy:

Extract 7.1 INT-Cathy-40¹²

qu'ils prennent goût à la langue, dans une optique aussi peut-être de continuer après, de prendre des cours, de leur donner envie de partir à l'étranger pour apprendre une langue

to get a taste for the language, with a view maybe to continue afterwards, to take lessons, to give them the wish to go abroad to learn a foreign language

However, even though several teachers might share the belief that their role is to make the students want to continue their language education, not all of them have the same objective. Some, like Alex, Bryan and Cathy, only want to open the students' mind to another language and culture, while others are more academically oriented. In fact, both in the questionnaires and in the interviews, several participants shared their worries about the fact that a focus on communication is to the detriment of grammar and vocabulary (as further developed in Role E), which is negative for the students who want to pursue their studies and go to high school. For example, one argues (INT-Anja-54) that it is impossible to continue learning English without any good vocabulary and grammar knowledge. This role seems to be in contradiction with the first role presented, where the emphasis was on preparing the students for everyday life. Apparently, some teachers rather want to prepare them for high school, so it could be argued that teachers may be oriented towards language use or language knowledge.

C) Guiding, helping and encouraging the students

A third role that many teachers have mentioned or implied is that of being a guide (INT-Louise-22), a coach (INT-Sabine-28), somebody who supports the students (INT-Romy-38). This can be done by providing the students with tools such as strategies (INT-Frank-20), by getting to know them well to provide adequate help in class (INT-Ellen-56), and even by identifying with them. For example, Romy (INT-20), who has recently started learning Spanish, says that this experience has positively influenced her teaching because as a Spanish beginner, she has become much more aware of the difficulties of talking or

¹² Extract 7.1 (first extract of chapter 7) INT (from the Interview) Cathy (participant's pseudonym) 40 (line number)

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writing in a foreign language. The same applies to Mary and her empathy for weak students, as the analysis of her observations will show in 8.1.2. Another feature of this role involves helping the students to gain confidence, to increase their awareness of the fact that making mistakes is part of the learning process:

Extract 7.2 INT-Louise-20

je pense que c'est notre rôle aussi d'enseignant, c'est de leur montrer qu'on peut parler, si c'est faux c'est pas grave, on apprend en faisant faux

I also think that it is our role as teachers to show them that we can speak, and if there are mistakes it does not matter, we learn making mistakes

This is a very important aspect that concurs with some other data from the interviews, where teachers emphasised that students feel more confident to speak English now that they start learning it in primary school and now that they use EiM. This is mainly because the error status has changed with the new curriculum and teaching materials, the stress being more on communication than accuracy. Florence insists a lot on the right to make mistakes in class, as the analysis her observations illustrates (8.2.3). The outcome seems to be positive since many participants have noticed that their students are henceforth less shy, more willing to try, as these two extracts demonstrate:

Extract 7.3 INT-Joel-64

de voir un élève qui n'a jamais osé poser une question ou dire quelque chose qui tout à coup se lance à dire quelque chose en anglais, je trouve que c'est vraiment riche

to see a student who never tried to ask a question or to say something who suddenly decides to say something in English, I find it really enriching

Extract 7.4 INT-Maya-72

certaines parlent tout faux, mais au moins ils osent tous déjà, donc ça c'est quelque chose qui est super parce qu'ils osent et ils s'en sortent bien franchement

some students speak badly, but at least they all attempt to speak, so this is already something that is great because they try, and they are doing well to be honest

Maya (INT-78) further explains that before, the introvert students felt discouraged to talk because the teacher tended to point to their mistakes, but now that they are not systematically interrupted by the teacher, they feel more self-confident which, in turn, boosts their motivation to speak in English. As a result, this role of the teacher appears as

decisive, setting the ground for the students to dare to express themselves. Eventually, I would like to go on with Julie who lends particular importance to the teachers working in the third year of lower secondary in the sense that they should not only help the students develop self-confidence, but also help them grow as adults:

Extract 7.5 INT-Julie-28

en 3ème [...] j'ai l'impression qu'on est surtout là pour les soigner, pour les orienter, pour leur redonner confiance, pour les ancrer aussi dans l'actualité, dans leur futur rôle de citoyens aussi

in the 3rd year [...] I have the impression that our role is above all to heal them, to direct them, to restore their confidence, to anchor them in reality and in their future role as citizens

Florence (INT-24) also thinks that it is her role to consider her students' complex personality, such as their worries or familial problems. I had the opportunity to observe these two participants and could see them act as they describe, as very considerate and understanding teachers, good listeners. These examples emphasise the emotional side of guiding, as do the following examples.

The data also provided evidence that the teachers are generally very concerned with keeping students going, as confirmed by Mathieu (INT-34) who says he always tries his best to take all the students with him. Teachers are often doing their best to prevent students from giving up, by boosting their confidence for example, as we have just seen, by giving positive feedback or by enhancing their motivation among others. They are aware that this matters a lot for students. Teachers have to work hard to prevent students from thinking that they are not making any progress, because if they do, they might give up, as Sylvie explains:

Extract 7.6 INT-Sylvie-24

j'ai l'impression que quand les élèves décrochent ou abandonnent après c'est très difficile de leur redonner la motivation

I have the impression that when the students loose interest or give up, it is then very difficult to motivate them again

Once a student stops trying, the teacher has got no leverage, no more opportunity. Teachers have, in their personal strategies, a way of dealing with low achievers, such as Frank for example, who admits reading the instructions and give a student with dyslexia more time during the examinations "pour ne pas la dégoûter" [*not to put her off*] (INT-

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Frank-22). He does so because his objective is to make sure the student keeps coming to the English class with pleasure.

D) The entertainer function

The next role, which is not as important as Roles A, B and C, but on which about half the interview participants agreed, is that the teacher's job is to bring dynamism to the class in order to make the whole teaching process work, hoping of a successful outcome. Anna mentions this characteristic five times, as did Mathieu, who goes further and compares teaching languages to acting. Interestingly, both see this feature as innate, in the sense that some people might not assume or feel comfortable in such a role. Yet, Anna (INT-24) shows some optimism and points out that the teachers who do not have this skill can still work on it.

E) The corrector function

The teacher's role as somebody who checks and corrects is ranked after the above-mentioned ones, which I did not expect. This role also involves ensuring that the students engage in the activities, and that they work and behave well. This can be done by walking around the classroom a lot (INT-Cathy-38), what all the observed teachers did, and by checking that they do their homework (INT-Romy-72). Several teachers explained that it was difficult for them to let go of error correction, something required with EiM, because they have the impression to lose control (INT-Maya-20). To maintain control of what his students learn, Frank (INT-8) admits asking them to recite the new vocabulary they had to learn from time to time. Maya explains why it is so difficult for teachers to let go in these words:

Extract 7.7 INT-Maya-10

quand on a appris avec une méthode assez carrée, c'est difficile de laisser le flou, c'est difficile de ne pas corriger les erreurs

when we have learnt using a structured method, it is difficult to let it go, it is difficult not to correct the errors

There is indeed strong evidence in the data that the teachers learnt the foreign languages they speak, mainly German and English, in a very traditional way. Accuracy was the priority, with a specific emphasis on memorising long lists of vocabulary and grammar rules:

Extract 7.8 INT-Cathy-2

mais à l'époque c'était vraiment important [la grammaire], fallait pas faire une faute [...] on a été élevé là-dedans

but back in the day [grammar] was very important, we could not make a mistake [...] that is the way we were brought up

As for vocabulary, Mathieu (INT-6) remembers that it was like cramming: “on dormait presque avec le livre de vocabulaire allemand” [*we practically slept with the German vocabulary book*]. For Alex, who is a young teacher in his thirties, the most difficult is to not systematically correct grammar and tenses, because he has always had the impression that grammar and tenses were essential, and that without them it becomes useless to learn a language (INT-Alex-26-30), which was already mentioned in Role B. These examples show that teachers are conflicted, an issue that will be raised again in the discussion (9.1.2.2, 9.2.1.2).

To sum up, some roles were mentioned by the great majority of the participants, such as preparing the students for ordinary life, giving them the incentive to study English further, helping, guiding and encouraging them. Other less prevalent roles were also referred to, such as making the language class more dynamic, checking and correcting the students' work. Chapter 8 will offer a deeper analysis of the way two teachers implement their roles in class. Apart from all these roles, only four participants brought up the teacher as knowledge transmitter. I would also like to add that the evidence suggested that the teachers' beliefs and practices regarding their roles were reported to have evolved thanks to experience, as is the case with Sabine (INT-28) and Ellen (INT-20). Indeed, they described how they shifted from teacher-centred lessons towards a more student-centred organisation where the students are given more space and are less passive. This section has outlined the most salient teachers' roles emerging from the data, and next I would like to address the participants' beliefs about the role of English.

7.1.2 Participants' beliefs about the role of English

This part is the most data-driven one of this research project. Indeed, I had not initially planned to look at the participants' beliefs about the role of English, but I realised that it was something worth investigating while I was analysing the data. First, as presented in 6.1.5, many respondents chose a neutral answer to the fifth question of the questionnaire

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about the type of English to be learnt. I therefore paid particular attention to interview question 18 that was about the expected students' achievement in English at the end of compulsory education. It turned out that many participants (Louise, Maya, Mary, Joel, Mathieu, Cathy, Anja) hoped their students would be able to communicate when they go to an English-speaking country or if they meet a native-speaker. For these seven teachers, it may be assumed that the reason why English is taught in the Valais is to speak with natives, either in Switzerland or in an English-speaking country, but especially in England (no other English-speaking countries were mentioned). Two of these seven participants did not only mention England, but a much more specific place: London. In the questionnaire, two other participants also said that the most important feature of the new curriculum for them is to enable the students to communicate with native-speakers in an English-speaking area, which shows that people who did not take part in the interviews also share this view. The results consequently point to the probability that these participants are not necessarily aware of the debate regarding English with a native-speaker focus in contrast to English as a language of wider communication. This might therefore influence the teachers' beliefs about how English should be spoken and taught. Apparently, for the two participants who mentioned London, there is some kind of native-speakerism since they also commented on the fact that they are neither bilingual (INT-Anja-18), nor native (INT-Cathy-50). The former admitted that she questioned her level of English and the accuracy of her pronunciation when she started teaching, aware that she might speak English with a strong French accent (INT-Anja-18). Another participant, Mary, also has an issue with her pronunciation, as analysed in detail in 8.1.1.

Interestingly, the other teachers who mentioned the importance of the accent were also those who believed that English is to talk with natives (except Joel). Hence, it appears that the belief that English is taught to speak with native speakers is related to the importance of having a good accent in English. Regarding the accent, Anna and Ellen both remember having been introduced to Received Pronunciation (RP) during their professional training and high school respectively. Anna realised during a listening comprehension from EiM that RP is not necessarily the target to aim at:

Extract 7.9 INT-Anna-66

on a eu, dans l'unité 3, un listening où justement y'avait tout plein d'accents et je me suis dit finalement que le but c'est de comprendre cet anglais, qu'importe l'accent finalement

in unit 3 there was a listening exercise with many different accents, and it made me realise that the objective is to understand English whatever the accent after all

This realisation was made possible thanks to the teaching material, which seems to have caused Anna's reconsideration. We will come back to belief change induced by a certain type of awareness raising episode later on, in 7.3.2. As for Ellen, she had been told at high school that RP was the "ultimate accent" (INT-Ellen-58) someone could wish for. This is actually what she believed in until she spent a year in the United States where she realised that the American accent was much more comfortable for her. And this directly influences her practices now because she tries to use listening activities where the people have different English accents in class. However, in the interview, she only referred to the accents of speakers from the inner and outer circles (Kachru, 1985) –Indian, Australian, South-African, Canadian– and did not seem to consider the accents from people living in the expanding circle where English is a foreign language. Sabine (INT-56) also stressed out that she likes to introduce her students to different types of accents in class.

In contrast to those who believe that English can mainly be used to speak to natives in England, Ellen explains that it would allow her students to communicate in "a foreign country" (INT-Ellen-32). Julie, Sylvie and Romy see it as a way to communicate "all over the world" (INT-Romy- 26), in which case it would be used as a lingua franca. Louise even acknowledges the use of English as a way to communicate with Swiss-German people within Switzerland (INT-Louise-38). Julie clearly acknowledges the role of English as a lingua franca (SR1) since she showed her students a video where it is used as such (OBS-1). Alex also explicitly mentions the use of English as a lingua franca both in the questionnaire and in the interview (INT-2). However, it seems that he struggles to consider this view when he teaches because he is still very much influenced by the way he learnt English (as already mentioned in 7.1.1 and further developed in 7.3.1). As for Florence's view, English will not only enable the students to communicate when they travel, but it will also generate job opportunities (INT-Florence-10-20). Indeed, she thinks that knowing English will be her students' greatest asset once they start looking for a job,

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especially if their teacher has taught them some political or cultural aspects (INT-Florence-28-34), as carefully analysed in 8.2.4.

In the discussion (9.2.1), I will argue that these reported beliefs about the teachers' roles and the role of English are core beliefs that shape the teachers' philosophy of teaching and the way they implement the curriculum. I next explore the teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the PER.

7.2 Teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the curriculum

The quantitative analysis of the questionnaires showed that most of the participants do not consult the PER to plan, and this might be because about 80% of them regard themselves as (very) familiar with the curriculum (6.1.4.C). Yet, the quantitative data indicated that the teachers make sure they complete the syllabus (6.1.5). What is more, the descriptive statistics did not only show that about half of them think that the curriculum can be adapted to previous experience, but also that they rely on experience quite a lot when planning. To have a better understanding of these results, the interviews have been analysed and the information pertaining to the teachers' use of the curriculum is presented in this section that I have decided to organise according to two different types of curriculum, namely the official curriculum and the hidden one. The former corresponds to practices that follow the official guidelines, whereas the latter does not necessarily. When teachers realised that there was a mismatch between their local context and their needs, they decided to follow "an alternative hidden curriculum" (Holliday, 1992, p. 405). This curriculum and its tacit practices are guided by practical reasons, as exemplified in 7.2.2. But let us first consider the official curriculum.

7.2.1 The official curriculum

During the interviews, the participants mainly mentioned the PER when I directly asked them about it, whereas they spontaneously mentioned the syllabus several times. By syllabus, they mean the official guidelines provided by the person in charge of English at the department level corresponding to the dividing up of the course book units over the school year. This seems to indicate that the syllabus plays a role that is much more

important than the PER in the sense that they rely on it in their everyday practice. Indeed, it helps them do their annual planning, as the following extract shows:

Extract 7.10 INT-Ellen-28

bon déjà je suis les objectifs qui nous sont donnés, si on doit faire de tel chapitre à tel chapitre, je le fais de toutes façons

first I follow the objectives we are given, if I have to cover from this chapter to that chapter, I do it anyway

Since several interviewed teachers mentioned paying particular attention to the syllabus, making sure they follow it, the quantitative findings according to which they make sure they complete the syllabus is confirmed (6.1.5). Consequently, teachers appear not to rely on the official curriculum, but on something much more local, yet still official, the cantonal syllabus. Once the teachers know what the general objectives are regarding language teaching, once they have checked the syllabus for long-term planning, they are more inclined to follow the course book for short-term planning, as this participant explains:

Extract 7.11 INT-Joel-36

il a beaucoup joué au début quand il est sorti [...] et ce qui était nouveau pour nous c'était qu'il était plus axé sur l'oralité. donc j'en ai pris compte dans mes planifications à long terme si on veut, après pour chaque cours, je me base plus sur la méthode, les livres, que sur le PER

it played an important role at the beginning when it was released [...], and what was new for us was that it emphasised the oral skills. so I took it into account in my long-term planning, but for each class I rely more on the course books than on the PER

Regarding the innovations brought by the PER, the teachers seem to agree, and they show a good understanding of the major changes. They mention that this new curriculum has to be seen as a baseline stating the minimum attainments the students are supposed to acquire. What is more, the fact that it is organised around the four skills with an emphasis on communication is also acknowledged as a new and governing principle, as is the fact that grammar and vocabulary should be tested in context rather than in isolation. The main difficulty they highlight is that the textbook did not change when the new curriculum was introduced, which caused a problematic mismatch. The different schools and teachers dealt with it in different ways from 2011 until the use of EiM was generalised, as discussed in the following section.

7.2.2 The hidden curriculum

When the new curriculum PER was introduced in 2011, the teachers still had to use the old course book NH that was not aligned with it. Since teachers did not receive clear guidelines about how to deal with this bad fit, they responded to it in different ways, taking measures either at the school level, or at the individual level. The main difficulty was that, from then on, the teachers were not only supposed to follow the annual distribution provided by the cantonal syllabus and the course book, but they were also expected to consider the newly introduced curriculum. In the data, I have identified five different ways of dealing with this situation that lasted until EiM was finally introduced, which harmonised the practices. Some teachers/schools decided to follow the course book and to ignore the PER, waiting for the new course book to be implemented, while others preferred to align with the PER to some extent, and consequently adapted the syllabus and course book. Finally, it must be noted that some people also favoured some other scenarios situated between these two extremes, as I am going to present now. I have organised the teachers' reported changes in practice by ascending order, starting with the case of a participant who did not change anything, and finishing off with one who did many amendments to his practices and the syllabus.

A) In the first scenario, the teachers continued to teach according to the course book and the official syllabus, focussing on transmitting content, and ignoring the PER:

Extract 7.12 INT-Cathy-26

avec NH aussi, je prenais les livres comme c'était marqué et on avait un livre par année et ils étaient pas PER compatibles donc tant pis

with NH as well, I followed the books, we had to cover a different book every year, they were not PER-compatible but never mind

Extract 7.13 INT-Alex-22

avec NH on faisait confiance à la méthode aussi, on faisait confiance un peu trop à la méthode, trop je sais pas, mais on faisait confiance

with New Hotline we trusted the course book as well, we trusted it a bit too much, too much I am not sure, but we trusted it

In these two extracts, we can see that the teachers decided to blindly follow the textbook, sometimes even lacking some critical thinking towards it.

B) The second scenario had been followed by all the English teachers of a same school, which shows to what extent collaboration can be powerful in some places at a local level. In this case, the teachers had also decided to ignore the PER, preferring to follow their own syllabus, one that they had developed over the years.

Extract 7.14 INT-Romy-46

non, parce que NH on l'a utilisé pendant 10 ans donc on a mis en place un mode de fonctionnement et puis quand le PER a été mis en place, on n'a pas modifié notre fonctionnement, honnêtement je l'avoue

we used New Hotline for 10 years, and we had established a way of working, and when the PER was implemented, we did not change our way of working, honestly, I have to admit

Interestingly, Romy acknowledges the fact that they did not make room for the new curriculum in their practices. And she does so as if she was confiding it to me, ending her sentences with “honestly, I have to admit”. This shows that despite the teachers’ understanding of what the new curriculum entailed, they consciously decided to overlook it to continue using the functioning and adjustments they had set up. In this example, the teachers only worked with colleagues at the school level, which shows the powerful influence of the local context.

C) The same applies to the third scenario, where a teacher and his colleagues adapted the cantonal syllabus for practical reasons, not following the recommended dividing up of the units over the three years of lower secondary school to make it less stressful.

Extract 7.15 INT-Bryan-60

avec NH on avait décidé de désobéir [...] y'avait beaucoup [à couvrir] en 1ère et en 2ème et puis très peu en 3ème donc on avait décidé de désobéir au plan prévu [...] par l'animation

with New Hotline we had decided to disregard the planning [...] since there was a lot [to cover] in the first two years and very little in the 3rd year, we had decided to disregard the plan [...] made by the resource person for English

Here again, the participant is aware that their practices were not following the official guidelines, therefore we can speak of tacit practices. In this case, the PER was ignored, and the cantonal syllabus restructured. However, the teachers of this school were still following the official textbook New Hotline

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D) Then, in some other schools, the new curriculum was considered to some extent, and some slight changes were made to ensure the objectives of the PER would be met in terms of content despite the use of a course book that was not aligned. We are talking about small adaptations whose objectives were to accommodate the textbook to the PER, such as for example reading at least a graded reader a year, and not insisting on the past continuous that was in a unit the teachers had to cover but not in the new curriculum. What is more, the teachers were encouraged to give their students a list of communicative objectives for each lesson, so as not to solely focus on grammar and vocabulary. These changes had been listed by the person in charge of English at the school level, and the teachers were spurred to implement them (INT-Sabine-32).

E) Finally, in the fifth scenario, the PER is taken into consideration, but this comes at the expense of NH that is no longer or barely used. Indeed, a teacher designed his own teaching material that was not based on the textbook. He created a new syllabus when the PER was released and made his decision official, as explained here:

Extract 7.16 INT-Mathieu-18

on a eu l'arrivée du PER, et par rapport à ça on a pu établir un programme un peu différent de ce qu'on faisait avant. aujourd'hui j'ai mon programme qui est péro-compatible si on peut dire, mais qui ne suit pas la méthode, et j'ai discuté avec l'inspecteur, avec mes collègues, et par rapport à ça j'ai construit moi-même des séquences où l'axe principal a toujours un but oral

with the implementation of the PER, we established a programme that was slightly different from what we used to do before. today I have my programme that is aligned with the PER but that does not follow the course book. I have spoken with the school inspector, with my colleagues about it, and I have built teaching sequences focussing on the oral

As for some other teachers, they decided to start using EiM in the last year of secondary school even though it had not yet been officially implemented at that level (SR1-Julie).

With the advent of EiM, it seems that things settled down and that there was a harmonisation of practices. Indeed, the introduction of the new course book that focuses on the four skills and on communication greatly facilitated the implementation of the PER according to the teachers' testimony:

Extract 7.17 INT-Romy-50

honnêtement on n'a pas changé notre manières de faire quand le plan d'études a changé. on était en attente des nouveaux moyens, donc on savait que c'était une transition

honestly, we have not changed our way of doing when the curriculum changed. we were waiting for the new teaching materials to be released, so we knew it was just a transition phase

Another teacher also acknowledges that the real change took place when they started using the new course book EiM. This following abstract illustrates the uncomfortable situation described by the teachers torn between the curriculum on one side, and the imposed course book that does not match the curriculum on the other side. Teachers were conflicted. This loyalty problem seems to have been solved with the use of the new teaching materials that is PER-compatible, what Maya found comforting:

Extract 7.18 INT-Maya-64

mais moi j'ai vu quand même plus ces changements avec la nouvelle méthode en fait. parce que pour nous, les changements découlent de la nouvelle méthode parce qu'appliquer le plan d'études et la communication avec l'ancienne méthode c'était difficilement possible. on créait beaucoup de documents annexes, mise en place de jeux etc., mais c'est vrai que du coup on s'éloignait de la méthode et c'était dur de savoir dans quelle mesure on pouvait s'éloigner de la méthode qui était recommandée et dans quelle mesure on était obligé de faire les exercices. par exemple les exercices du WB, c'était très souvent de la grammaire pure, donc on nous demandait de faire de la grammaire en lien avec les autres compétences, mais c'était pas ce qu'on nous proposait dans le cahier d'exercices et est-ce qu'on avait le droit de s'éloigner de ce cahier ou pas, c'était difficile à savoir [...] on essaie de gérer au mieux le mixe des deux. maintenant c'est beaucoup plus simple, [...] au niveau méthode, c'est beaucoup plus en accord avec ce qu'on nous demande de faire

as for me, I have seen the changes with the new course book much more. because for us, the changes have ensued from the new course book because implementing the curriculum and the communicative skills with the previous course book was hardly possible. we created lots of extra handouts, games etc., but at the same time we moved away from the course book. and it was difficult to know to what extent it was allowed to move away from the prescribed course book, and to what extent we had to do the exercises, for example the exercises from the workbook. it was very often pure grammar, we were asked to link grammar with the other skills, but it was not what was at our disposal in the workbook, and whether we were allowed to move away from this workbook or not, it was difficult to know [...] we are doing our best to mix both. now it is much easier, [...] the textbook is much more aligned with what we are asked to do

When she says that they were doing their best to blend the old course book with the new curriculum, she admits, as did Romy before, that some adaptations were necessary to

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follow the official guidelines as well as possible. As I have just shown with the five different scenarios, the different practices can be placed along a continuum, and this will be discussed in 9.2.1.1.

Having presented the different teachers' responses to the advent of the new curriculum when it was launched, I go on to examine the way they use the curriculum booklet when planning now that EiM has been implemented. Here again, the data indicate some tacit practices that confirmed the quantitative results. Indeed, many teachers do not use the PER consistently when planning their lessons, which is in line with the results presented in Table 9 in 6.1.4. This extract, where the participant openly says that he seldom reads the curriculum, summarises the majority of the teachers' view:

Extract 7.19 INT-Anja-40

le PER honnêtement on ne l'ouvre pas souvent, ça je dois avouer. il est là, on sait qu'il est là, on connaît les grandes lignes, mais je vais pas aller voir les détails pour faire ma planification quotidienne

honestly, we do not often open the PER, I have to admit. it is there, we know it is, we know the main ideas, but I will not go to check the details to do my daily planning

The fact that she knows the document outlines shows a relative level of familiarity, characteristic that she shares with many other teachers of the canton since the great majority consider themselves familiar with the curriculum. Another participant concurred with the fact that it is not necessary to consult the curriculum once one knows it:

Extract 7.20 INT-Sylvie-28

alors c'est vrai que là le plan d'études [...] je l'ai vraiment en tête donc je ne le consulte pas très régulièrement mais je le connais bien

I must say that I really know the curriculum inside out [...] so I do not refer to it very often, but I know it well

Thus, the PER is seen as an overarching document that it is not worth reading regularly. Several teachers even admitted that the PER does not play any role at all when they plan their lessons because they know that the new course book EiM is based on the curriculum. This information was indeed given to the participants when they attended a compulsory two-day training just before EiM was released.

Extract 7.21 INT-Maya-62

j'avouerais que comme on m'a dit que la méthode était parfaitement en accord avec le plan d'études, j'ai pas ouvert cette année (rire)

I have to admit that since I was told that the course book is perfectly aligned with the curriculum, I have not opened it this year (laugh)

Extract 7.22 INT-Anna-40

aucun rôle (rire), aucun rôle (rire) non parce que maintenant on se dit que c'est fait, c'est adapté, donc on est pas sans cesse à regarder. on suit le livre

no role (laugh), no role at all (laugh), because now it is done, it is adapted, so we do not need to look at it all the time. we follow the course book

Extract 7.23 INT-Mary-66

je regarde pas puisque pour moi la méthode elle a été faite... parce qu'on a eu une formation et à la formation euh on nous a vraiment bien dit, on nous a prouvé, montré que la méthode elle était faite en suivant quasi à la lettre le plan d'études je me suis dit bon ben voilà, ça c'est une chose de faite, moi je vais pas vérifier le boulot de professionnels

I don't look at it, for me the course book has been done... because when we had the training for English in Mind, we were proved, told, shown that the course book was designed to follow the curriculum almost to the letter. so I told myself, that's it, this is done, I am not going to check the job done by professionals

These three teachers see the course book as an instrument of the curriculum and therefore follow it. Furthermore, it is worth noticing that the interview question about the curriculum made five of the seventeen participants laugh when they told me that they did not rely on it. They even emphasised their answers using expressions such as “frankly”, “honestly”, “I must admit”, as if they felt there were official and tacit ways of thinking about it, acknowledging that their practices did not necessarily follow the official guidelines, which reinforces the existence of the hidden curriculum. This shows that once teachers know what to teach, in this case which units of the books they need to cover in a school year, they do not feel the need to go back to the governmental guidelines and general objectives, which will be developed in the discussion (in 9.2.1.1). Next, I would like to provide a summary that outlines the beliefs underpinning the various practices described in the last two sections.

7.2.3 Summary

This analysis of the participants' reported practices establishes that the teachers tend to rely on a document that is more local than the general curriculum, i.e. the cantonal syllabus. This was not only the case when NH was still in use, but it is also the case now that teachers use EiM in class. All the examples above mainly focus on what to teach, barely on how to teach it exactly. The curriculum does not only provide guidelines regarding which linguistic competence and language knowledge to cover, but also what type of classroom pedagogy should be applied. Yet, this has not been discussed by the teachers who only showed their understanding of the general changes. So for them, the curriculum is regarded as an overarching document providing the foundations for teaching, something that does not need consulting once one considers oneself familiar enough with it. And now that the textbook has been specifically designed to match the curriculum, it seems that it has even become negligible.

Regarding how the teachers welcomed the release of the PER, the data showed that there has been a transition phase during which, due to a lack of official guidelines, the teachers had to juggle the old course book, syllabus and curriculum. Obviously, this phase of change allowed the teachers to have their own reading of the situation that they interpreted in different ways, as exemplified with the five scenarios presented in 7.2.2. For some of them, the textbook and the syllabus had to be followed strictly; for others, some minor changes were made to try to take the PER into account. Still others took liberties with either the syllabus, adapting it at the school level, or even with both the syllabus and the course book, creating some new teaching material based on the PER. The message emerging is that it is an acceptable practice not to follow official documents, and to come up with a new organisation that suits the teachers and students better. I would argue, however, that this is especially feasible in schools where there is a good collaboration between teachers because it is important that they all act in unison on this and take the same course of action. Another contextual factor that enabled the teachers to depart from the official guidelines is the fact that there is no cantonal or external examination in English. As a result, the English teachers have more freedom than the German ones in the sense that the students' grades in English do not carry much weight since it is not a core subject (as explained in 3.4.2, 3.4.6). Having discussed the

participants' beliefs and practices regarding the PER, I would like to narrow down the focus and turn to their responses towards the introduction of EiM.

7.3 Reported belief changes in relation to the implementation of *English in Mind*

The design and implementation of the curriculum was a first step towards a harmonisation of the objectives in the French-speaking part of Switzerland, the ultimate aim being to homogenise the structure of compulsory school at the national level. In order to optimise the way the cantons would implement the PER, common educational materials and resources were developed. What emerges from this study, both in the questionnaires and in the interviews, is that the vast majority of the teachers are delighted with the new teaching materials. In this section, I would like to address the way the teachers have welcomed this new wave of change, and the focus shifts from the general to the specific. Having previously established how different participants welcomed the new curriculum (7.2), I would like to go on by presenting the key issues relating to the implementation of EiM. Its implementation has actually been seen as a revolution (INT-Maya-24), conversely to the introduction of the new curriculum.

Since it is a complex task to understand the nature of a curricular implementation, I would argue that, in the context of this study, the best way to do so is to look at the teachers' reported changes of beliefs and practices. Teachers' beliefs are at the core of this section, where I discuss how the participants have taken the required changes on board, and how their beliefs have been affected as a result. The evidence is based on the interviews, and some of the beliefs were made explicit, while some others were inferred from the described practices. Instead of simply listing the changes made by the teachers, I decided to organise them according to different types of belief change inspired by the literature (2.2.5).

7.3.1 Belief perseverance

Belief perseverance implies that beliefs are not easily changed, and this has been observed a few times in the data. Alex, for example, acknowledges that even though the

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new teaching materials urge the teachers to evolve, this seems to be very unlikely for him:

Extract 7.24 INT-Alex-12

on reste quand même comme on est. et la manière de faire est quand même en nous, je ne crois pas qu'elle change tellement [...] j'ai pas beaucoup changé de manière de voir les choses

we stay the way we are. and the habit is engrained, I don't think that it really changes [...] I haven't changed my point of view a lot

It is as if there was some kind of determinism pushing him to act in a particular way. He explains having difficulties dealing with the fact that the teaching methods have drastically changed since he was a student. He provides an example about the tenses that have always been presented as essential in his own experience as a learner (INT-Alex-26), and clarifies that for this reason, he struggles not to correct the students and consequently still does (INT-Alex-28). We can therefore hypothesise that his own schooling is influencing him.

Anna recognises that teaching with a new course book is a big change (INT-Anna-24), especially since the presentation tools make planning and teaching much easier (INT-Anna-28). Apart from that, she seems to minimise the changes that are expected from the teachers in these terms: “dans la manière de faire ça ne change pas grand chose, à part qu'elle est plus basée sur l'oral” [*the way of doing is quite similar, except that the textbook focuses more on the oral skills*] (INT-Anna-28). The fact that it is communicative oriented represents a great shift from NH, but this does not seem to be acknowledged here. This might be due to a lack of understanding of the new policy. Anna also concedes that she does not think that she has changed much since she started teaching (INT-Anna-24). This is likely to indicate that she does not perceive the implementation of the new course book as something significantly different from what she was doing before.

The analysis also revealed traces of belief perseverance regarding vocabulary learning. Just like Alex, Louise and Anna mention that they are still very much influenced by the way they themselves learnt foreign languages when they were younger. In the interview, Anna highlights that she cannot so easily “hide” or “bury” the vocabulary that has always been something extremely important (INT-Anna-14). As for Louise, she assesses two ways of testing it in these words:

Extract 7.25 INT-Louise-28

on essaie d'éviter cette évaluation français-anglais pour le vocabulaire, chose que je faisais quand même de temps en temps, pis maintenant on essaie plus de mettre en situation dans un contexte et d'utiliser le vocabulaire dans un texte. [...] et là aussi je fais ma vieille, et je fais des trucs anciens. j'avais choqué un intervenant l'autre fois à la formation pour *English in Mind*, le gars qui animait le vocabulaire. je disais que moi de temps en temps je faisais un vocabulaire pur !!! ohh, au secours! mais pour moi ça passe par là, j'ai l'impression que ce que nous on a vécu en tant qu'élève, ce qui a marché pour nous on pense que ça va marcher pour les autres

we try to avoid a French-English assessment of the vocabulary, which I used to do from time to time, but now we are trying to contextualise the vocabulary, to use it in a text. [...] and there too, I keep my old habits and I do my old stuff. I had shocked a trainer during the training for English in Mind, the man who was presenting the vocabulary workshop. I told him that I still sometimes tested the vocabulary literally!!! help! but for me this is a necessary step, I have the impression that what we went through as students, what worked for us is also going to work for others

The extract indicates that Louise is aware of the different available possibilities to test the students' knowledge of the vocabulary, the old and new methods, but does not succeed in letting go of the old one completely, as recommended by the new curriculum and course book. However, she manages to incorporate a new practice about the assessment of vocabulary. In this case, we might be in the presence of conflicting beliefs that could however still co-exist since they complement each other. This issue will be discussed further in 7.3.5.

Another instance of belief perseverance has been identified by an older teacher, Anja. She regards grammar and vocabulary as the bases on which language learning should be grounded. For her, this is especially true if the students want to continue to high school. It is for this reason that she explains the grammar in French and tests the vocabulary in a traditional way, providing, as a justification, the fact that these are "old reflexes" (INT-Anja-12). Furthermore, this seems to be rooted in her own experience as a learner:

Extract 7.26 INT-Anja-10

[ma propre expérience d'apprenant] influence quand même beaucoup, parce que quand on a discuté avec l'animateur lors des réunions qu'on faisait pour la nouvelle méthode, il nous disait "laissez tomber la grammaire, n'apprenez pas le vocabulaire, favorisez le speaking, le listening et tout ça", mais moi j'arrive pas ! je peux pas enseigner quelque chose si j'ai pas une bonne base, quelque chose de solide dessous, et pour moi la grammaire et le vocabulaire c'est quelque chose de solide, [...] d'ailleurs vous avez vu que j'ai interrogé un gamin ici devant, ce qu'on ne devait jamais faire selon la nouvelle méthode

[my own experience as a learner] has a strong influence, because when we discussed with the resource person for English during the meetings for the introduction of the new teaching materials, he told us 'forget about grammar, don't learn the vocabulary, favour speaking and listening activities, and all that', but I cannot! I cannot teach something without a solid foundation, something solid, and for me grammar and vocabulary are solid, [...] besides, you have seen that I quizzed a kid here at the front of the class what should never be done according to the new way of doing

Extract 7.27 INT-Anja-16

c'est ma méthode, je trouve qu'elle est pas mal [...]. c'est vrai que je ne suis pas contre le changement, mais pas absolument

it is my way of doing and I think it is working quite well [...]. it is true that I am not against change, but not necessarily

In these last three extracts, there is evidence that Louise and Anja had an opportunity to confront their beliefs during in-service training, but that this was not enough for them to take a fully new perspective on board, which will be discussed further in 9.3.1.

To sum up, in the data so far, there is evidence that belief perseverance is mainly related to grammar and vocabulary, and mainly due to the teachers' past experience as learners and lack of reflective practice during training.

7.3.2 Awareness raising resulting in a change of beliefs and practices

In this category, the teachers show a new understanding of a particular notion or process thanks to some sort of realisation. In other words, they develop their ideas and see things from a new perspective, as we have previously seen with Anna in extract 7.9. Therefore, a change of belief is the prerequisite for a change of practice. Cathy, for example, suddenly realised that having the students copy down the vocabulary and grammar in their notebook was no longer pertinent:

Extract 7.28 INT-Cathy-20

c'est du boulot pour rien finalement. autant passer ce temps-là à faire des jeux, de l'oralité, des choses comme ça. ce qu'on fait plus en grammaire on peut le faire dans autre chose

it's a waste of time at the end of the day. might as well spend this time to do games, oral activities and things like that. the time we do not spend on grammar anymore can be spent on something else

I do not know how she became aware that this time could be spent on activities she considered more relevant. My best guess is that it is related to the introduction of the

new teaching materials because important language aspects are now provided in the books. Her belief about the necessity of writing the grammar down has been altered and adapted to the context. She admits that it has been very difficult for her to change her way of doing at the beginning (INT-Cathy-8), but that she is now very happy to have moved away from the way she was taught because it is more “pleasant” and “varied” (INT-Cathy-50).

Joel also realised after having taught a few years that there were students with different profiles and it is not because a particular technique allowed him to be a successful language learner, in this case learning the vocabulary by heart (INT-Joel-12) or translating sentences (INT-Joel-26), that it applies to everyone. He has consequently distanced himself from that. Sabine also experienced this change of belief when she started working as a supply teacher. At that time, having no training and no specific pedagogical knowledge, she mainly focussed on grammar because she did not know how else to organise her lessons. She admits having been dubious about her way of teaching: “peut-être que ça me rassurait à quelque part, mais j’étais quand même pas en accord avec ce que je faisais” [*maybe it reassured me somehow, but I still disagreed with what I was doing*] (INT-22). This example shows her dissatisfaction and some contradictory beliefs, which probably allowed her to positively embrace the training she received at the teacher training college where she could develop her professional knowledge.

As for Ellen, she heard about communicative approaches during her 3-year-long teacher education training, and found them so interesting that she decided to move away from traditional teaching methods to be in line with the communicative approaches (INT-Ellen-8). She went on to admit that she feels very well now, not feeling any tensions between the way she learnt and the way she teaches, which is not the case of all participants. She also explained that, when necessary, she does not hesitate to adopt a focus on form pedagogy to work on a particular objective because she believes that the “magic recipe” is a “cocktail” of different ways of doing (INT-Ellen-10).

In the interview, Florence (INT-22) compares the way she teaches English and German, and stresses that she teaches the latter in a much more rigorous way, mainly focusing on grammar and rules. She explains that it is when she started teaching English using EiM that she realised that exercises focusing on communication could and should also be used

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in the German classes. Her plan is then to start transferring activities from one language to the other.

Finally, Romy explained that the two-day training she attended for the introduction of EiM raised her awareness regarding the difficulty of consistently using the 3rd person singular -s for A1 and A2 learners: “ça m’a fait tilt” [*the penny dropped*] (INT-Romy-22). Indeed, she realised that her Spanish grammar would be assessed with a very bad mark because she is still at an early stage despite the fact that she can communicate in this language. “On a été trop sévère trop longtemps” [*we have been too strict for too long*] (INT-Romy-24), she declared.

In conclusion, we have seen examples where the teaching material (Cathy), teaching experience (Joel and Florence), pre-service training (Ellen), and in-service training (Romy) raised the participants’ awareness and influenced their beliefs and practices.

7.3.3 Change of behaviour resulting, or not, in a change of belief

This refers to teachers who accept to change their practice, and according to the results, also change their belief, or not. Sabine, willing to welcome the new curriculum, decided to tell her students to no longer write down the grammar and vocabulary. She explains that she was not convinced at the beginning, fearing that “they would not know well enough” (INT-Sabine-10). However, she had to admit that they showed a good command of the language even though she had changed her teaching practices, which convinced her to continue this way.

As for Maya (INT-76), she explained that she tried to impose English as the classroom language when she used to teach with NH, but would give up after a few months because her students were obviously too shy and not interested in speaking English in the classroom. The situation seems to be quite different now that the students have a better level and are more willing to talk in the target language, which in turn reminds her to speak only English, and which encourages more introvert students to do so as well. In her view, it is working much better now, which encourages her to believe that it is definitely possible to lead most of the classes in English. A change of behaviour, here speaking English in class beyond the first few months of school, showed positive results, which triggered a change of beliefs.

In both cases, we can say that the teachers have tested a new particular practice, have been satisfied with it, and have decided to go on using it. Both are relatively experienced English teachers, Sabine has been teaching for 3 to 5 years and Maya for more than 10 years. This might suggest that even though they had already developed their belief system about teaching, they have still been able to change some of it, convinced by a successful outcome. This is not the case of Anna's colleague though. She rushed headlong into the new course book when it was introduced, willing to open her mind to a different way of teaching English. A year later though, not convinced by this new method, she decided to come back to her old way, asking them to write down and to learn the vocabulary more seriously (INT-Anna-32).

7.3.4 Change of behaviour resulting in temporary beliefs

Alternatively, teachers can be willing to try something new in their classes, but might not have tested it long enough to make a definitive conclusion. In this case, their beliefs might still be temporary. Maya explains that she does not ask the students to copy the vocabulary and grammar down anymore since they have it in their language builder. Besides, she has stopped assessing them formally in writing. However, I could feel that she was still struggling with this new method even though she was fully aware of its positive aspects, as the following extract illustrates:

7.29 INT-Maya-86

je pense que ça va tenir parce que **j'arrive à me dire...** en fait **j'ai compris** que c'était une branche éducative et culturelle et que le but c'était qu'ils parlent anglais. [...] **si je continue à me répéter ça ça va tenir.** maintenant pour quelqu'un de carré comme moi, c'est difficile de laisser un peu de flou (rire). **mais on s'y fait,** c'est juste que la transition est un peu une lutte (rire). **mais on s'y fait** aussi parce qu'on voit que les élèves ont beaucoup plus de plaisir et que le niveau est meilleur. **donc en se rappelant tout ça, on arrive à tenir bon.** c'est mieux que de savoir sa grammaire et de ne pas pouvoir l'utiliser. donc je suis consciente des bienfaits

I think it is going to work because I say to myself... I understand that it is not a main subject as the aim for them was to speak English. [...] if I continue to tell this to myself, it is going to work. for someone as rigid as myself, it is hard to let go (laugh). but I try, it is true that this change is a bit of a battle (laugh). but I do it anyway because I see that the students have more fun and the level of their language is better. so remembering all that, I think it will work. it is much better than knowing grammar and not knowing how to use it. so I am aware of the good results

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The same applies to Cathy (INT-8) who told me that it was very difficult for her to change her way of teaching at the beginning, and that she sometimes still struggles. Both these teachers seem to be on the right track, but since they have expressed how difficult it is still for them, there is a risk that they might go back to previous practices. Then I would argue that the beliefs they are developing regarding the new practices have not been tested yet, and are therefore unfixed, unstable. As a result, the new practices and their underlying beliefs cannot and should not be regarded as fully acquired yet because a loop back such as that described by Anna about her colleague at the end of 7.3.3 is still possible. The accounts given by several participants so far have brought to light some conflicting beliefs that I would like to turn to next.

7.3.5 Co-existence of conflicting beliefs

The literature review revealed that it is conceivable to hold some conflicting beliefs, and some evidence from this research project supports this. It is indeed especially likely if they are kept apart for each other. If they are not, this might create tensions such as those described by Maya in extract 7.29. As for Romy, she manages to live in peace with her conflicting beliefs. She first describes the way she learnt languages when she was herself a student, and then examines the way she is now teaching English to her students. Her conclusion is that both ways cannot be compared because they are fundamentally different (INT-Romy-26). She came to the same conclusion again later in the interview, explaining that it is not reasonable to use a 30-year-old perspective, i.e. the perspective she was assessed with when she was at school, to measure what the students know now:

7.30 INT-Romy-60

c'est quelque chose de plus difficile pour nous, c'est vrai, on a l'impression que certains sont nuls, qu'ils ne savent rien alors que c'est quelque chose de différent

it is something more difficult for us, it is true, we have the impression that some [students] don't get it, that they do not know anything, but it is different

Stating that these are two different things suggests that they are not at the same level and should therefore not be compared. This might suggest that Romy's conflicting beliefs are in two different belief systems (as illustrated by Figure 11 in the discussion in 9.1.2.1), or in two different sub-constructs of a same belief system, concepts that were exposed in 2.2.3 and will be discussed further in the discussion (9.1.2).

Another example is about the use of drill in class. Alex states that he has always loved using drill, both when learning languages himself, and when teaching English (INT-Alex-6). He acknowledges that he sometimes still uses it in class, but tends not to anymore. Indeed, he recognises that EiM helps him create a distance between what he experienced as a learner and how he is supposed to teach now (INT-Alex-8). Later in the interview, he mentions drill again (7 times altogether), highlighting that it is a perfect way to correct small mistakes the students keep doing, such as saying “go at”:

7.31 INT-Alex-30

sans drill, on peut dire toute l'année la même chose. “to go to”, je pense que j'ai dit 1000 fois dans chaque classe et ils ne savent jamais. [...] si on fait un exercice de drill, 15 minutes, après je pense que c'est bon, donc est-ce qu'il faut le faire ou pas, est-ce qu'il faut accentuer là-dessus ou pas, c'est toujours la question

without any drill, we can repeat the same thing all year. “to go to”, I think that I have told them 1000 times in each class and they never know it. [...] if we do a repetition exercise, 15 minutes, then I think it is ok, so do we have to do it or not, do we have to insist on that or not, it is always the question

However, he claims that despite the conviction that this type of exercise is worth, he feels uncomfortable to ask the students to do some drill (INT-Alex-34), and I think that it shows the conflicting beliefs he holds. On the one hand he is persuaded that doing drill is efficient, but on the other hand he is aware that it is not a technique that he is supposed to rely on too much.

I would argue that the examples of Ellen and Louise cited earlier (in 7.3.2 and 7.3.1 respectively) also show the existence of conflicting beliefs. Indeed, Ellen explained that she could easily live with the fact that she teaches in a different way than she was taught, and Louise feels comfortable using both a traditional and a communicative method. For Maya and her provisional beliefs (7.3.4) though, the co-existence is not as easy as it is for others, and I would maintain that it is because she has not restructured her belief system to welcome some new beliefs yet. As was explained in the literature review (2.2.5, 3.2), assimilation and accommodation often go hand in hand in the case of a successful belief change.

7.3.6 Summary

To sum up, it appears that the results are mixed. According to the data, some teachers are hermetic to any form of change, while some have changed and are very happy with it, whereas others are still struggling, testing new practices and testing their beliefs as well. Therefore, it seems that the latter are still in the trial phase. I would like to point out that all the participants engaged in at least some parts of the new teaching approach, which is essential. Indeed, as the analysis has shown, a positive change of practice can potentially trigger a change of beliefs, which confirms Wedell's view (2009, p. 18). In the present case, the two-day training the teachers attended when EiM was introduced might not have taken their feeling and pre-existing beliefs into account, as could be understood from Louise's and Anja's account (in 7.3.1). What is more, it must be acknowledged that reculturing takes time (Wedell, 2009, p. 17), and that some teachers with temporary beliefs might need more than one positive experience to change their beliefs and practices for good. And again, as in 7.1.1, the data has shown that teachers are conflicted. All these issues will be discussed further in Chapter 9.

According to the participants' accounts, belief change is likely in practicing teachers and it is mainly due to professional development and experience. For this reason, and since experience seemed to shape many of the teachers' beliefs, the next section focuses on factors influencing the implementation of the new curriculum in the context of this study, and experience is one of them.

7.4 Factors affecting the implementation of the PER and *English in Mind*

I have already touched on the importance of experience, both in the literature review and in the data analysis so far. Both experience and contextual factors were mentioned a lot in the interviews, as you can see in the coding book, where I created many different child nodes for these two concepts (see Appendix Q). As a result, I decided to dedicate this section to these issues, starting with experience and training. Indeed, they influence the teachers' general beliefs as well as the way they have welcomed the changes of curriculum and course book.

7.4.1 Experiences and training

The role of prior experience in teachers' beliefs is overwhelming, as previous research has shown (3.5.3). Furthermore, the evidence from this study so far points towards the idea that both practices and experience reciprocally inform teachers' beliefs, which aligns with Borg (2009). Talking about experience, the focus can be on the years of experience, or on the types of experience. I decided to focus on the nature of the experience described by my participants. Indeed, they extensively commented on it and I thought it would be a good occasion to try to understand this concept in my context, for a particular subject (Kagan, 1992). Taken together, the results suggest that prior experience is a cover term for different kinds of classroom experience that I am going to develop next.

7.4.1.1 Own experience as a learner and apprenticeship of observation

The numerous years teachers have spent at school as language learners have left traces (P. L. Grossman et al., 1989) in the sense that they have all normally learnt at least two foreign languages during their education, which has made their experience richer. This led to the development of beliefs about what it is to be a student, most probably a good one since they all pursued their studies, and what it is to be a language teacher (Lortie, 1975). It must be noted that many participants were strongly influenced by the way they learnt German. German was indeed the first foreign language for most of them, and the way they learnt English was not very different anyway, as they explained. Romy, Sylvie and Julie reported to have managed to create a distance between the way they were taught and the way they teach, and Maya is trying to distance herself from it now that it is required by the new teaching approach. Joel was especially influenced by his own learning experience when he started teaching but has now managed to do things differently. Ellen was very much influenced by her own experience as a learner until she started the teacher training college. Finally, Louise and Anja are positively influenced by what they experienced as learners in the sense that they tend to reproduce the effective principles in their own classes. Anja clearly explained that her own experience is of paramount importance to her. Her favourite teacher when she was a learner was very tough, but she recalls having learnt (German) extremely well with him. Now, as explained in 7.3.1, she considers it her responsibility to teach the language well, with an emphasis on grammar and vocabulary in case the students want to continue to high school.

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Interestingly, three participants mentioned their experience as adult learners as well. I have already mentioned Romy, who studies Spanish and has become more tolerant regarding accuracy. As for Cathy, she explained how she became aware, while she was spending two years as an adult in an English-speaking country, of the discrepancy between what she learnt at school and what people say in everyday life. During her stay abroad, she realised that “I’m good” (INT-Cathy-40) is widely used whereas she used to be told off if she did not say “I’m fine” at school. This can be regarded as a very valuable experience in terms of confronting classroom language use to real life use. As for the last participant who extensively mentioned her own experience (Mary), her case will be analysed extensively in the next chapter (8.1).

With regard to apprenticeship of observation, several participants have a very positive memory of some of their English teachers, and two even decided to teach English, because they have been influenced by them in an extremely positive way (INT-Joel-16-18, INT-Sabine-2-18). Likewise, Florence has decided to take up several learning strategies that she discovered with her own English teacher in her classes, as will be analysed further later (8.2.2). As for Frank (INT-4), he liked his teachers because they talked in the target language in class, and Julie (INT-16) because they adapted the book that was not very good to make it more interesting. It must be added in passing that most teachers mainly referred to their high school experience, and barely mentioned the way they learnt at university, which is likely to suggest that the first experience was the most influential. The next section is about the participants’ first steps into the professional realm.

7.4.1.2 The early days of career: supply teaching, pre-service training and practicum

The participants who were trained as language teachers at the teacher training college (HEP) or at the university, as well as those who were trained as primary school teachers, mentioned their practicum during which they had to teach under the supervision of a mentor as extremely positive. Those who only attended a theoretical training (CRED, English language courses) or who were given some English periods when there was a lack of English teachers did not have such an experience, as Cathy’s account illustrates:

Extract 7.32 SR12-Cathy-2

c'est ça qui était un peu frustrant, parce que j'avais que de la théorie finalement, et j'ai eu aucune pratique dans cette formation-là. **la seule pratique que j'ai eue c'est le souvenir de mes enseignants et j'ai fait beaucoup de remplacements**, donc ça m'a un peu aidée

*this was a bit frustrating because I only had theory and no practical in this training. **the only practice that I had was the recollection of my teachers, and I worked a lot as substitute teacher**, so it helped me a bit*

She could only rely on her apprenticeship of observation and on the experience she developed while doing some supply teaching. Another participant who did not get the opportunity to do any practicum for teaching English admitted relying mainly on the course book (INT-Louise-16) and on her more experienced colleagues, which she found useful not to feel helpless. Mathieu (INT-14), who had yet a solid university training to become a language teacher, also remembers having relied on colleagues a great deal. He explains how they worked as a team and supported each other, which allowed him to learn how to teach in the field.

Coming back to supply teaching, several participants who worked as substitutes attested that it was a nightmare when they started teaching without proper training: "I was a bit lost [...] it was hell" (INT-Sabine-20). On the one hand, it allowed them to gain some field experience, but they felt helpless and incompetent. Sylvie (INT-18) explains that she wanted to implement changes in her practice, but that she lacked the necessary knowledge and tools to do so. She acknowledged that she was probably reproducing in class what she had herself experienced as a learner, i.e. much writing and no group activities. She admitted twice that the teacher training college consequently equipped her with procedural skills. She could then build up on these and reinforce her knowledge thanks to everyday practice over the years until feeling comfortable (INT-Sylvie-20). Sabine (INT-20) and Ellen (INT-16) felt lucky that they had the opportunity to do their pre-service professional training on the job. This allowed them to develop their practices and conceptual knowledge at the same time, which they saw as an advantage to the extent that it was not too abstract. This confirms the fact that student teachers need to be able to draw a parallel between theory and practice (Sanchez, 2013, pp. 52-53) in order to deepen their understanding. Florence (INT-52) also started teaching without any formal training and makes a very revealing comment regarding her professional growth when she started her teacher education:

Extract 7.33 INT-Florence-52

oui pour moi le fait d'avoir enseigné avant sans avoir de formation, je pensais faire juste pis finalement je me suis rendu compte que je faisais faux et pour tout déconstruire ça m'a demandé beaucoup d'énergie, peut-être plus d'énergie que si j'étais arrivée sans aucune expérience

and for me, having taught before being trained, I thought I was doing well but finally realised I was not, and to break down everything, it took me a lot of energy, maybe more energy than if I had started without any experience

We have a very interesting case of realisation here, where Florence describes how the intake of the new information required her to reorganise her old schemes. I would argue that it is a very clear case of assimilation and accommodation (2.2.5). And the fact that she depicts it as tiring enables us to gauge the scale of the task. This change was made possible thanks to the knowledge she gained during her teacher education programme as well as thanks to self-evaluation, reflective practice, and the practicum, which will be discussed in 9.3.1. After these first on-the-job experiences, the participants started to have their own classes, which provided them with more practice to learn from.

7.4.1.3 Does practice really make perfect?

Actual practice has also been considered a type of experience that can count (Kocaman & Cansiz, 2012). We have already seen in 6.1.5 that teachers make decisions regarding the exercises they choose to do in class according to previous experience, among other criteria. Many participants have expressed their high level of familiarity with NH, which allowed them to plan and teach in a very informed way, as well as complement the book, as we have seen in 6.1.4. Yet, the introduction of the new course book seems to have reduced the experience gap between the teachers, putting them all in the same boat. Maya (INT-50), Sabine (INT-30), and Florence (INT-38), with respectively over ten, six and three years of experience, confessed that they would need some time to get to know the course book and all the available resources to make the best possible choices. The way students react can also best be anticipated thanks to experience, but it appears that even though more experienced teachers might have a better pedagogical content knowledge, they might still need to experiment and make their own mistakes when they use a textbook or do an activity for the first time. Frank acknowledges how difficult it is to anticipate what is going to happen in class despite careful planning:

Extract7.34 INT-Frank-28

la 1ère fois lorsqu'on teste l'exercice, on l'a préparé à la maison, on se dit ouais ça va marcher, ça va pas marcher, ça va durer tant de minutes etc. on expérimente un peu, faut pas rêver. avec l'expérience, je pense on est toujours moins éloigné de ce qu'il va se passer, on arrive à prédire

the first time we try an exercise in class, it was prepared at home, we think it is going to be ok, or not, we can anticipate how long it is going to last etc. we experiment a little bit, we can't kid ourselves. with experience, I think we are always closer to what will happen, we can predict

He clearly acknowledges that experience helps the teachers know what to expect, but it seems that experience is relatively context dependent. A change of course book, number of students or teaching approach might indeed force the teachers to go back to square one. Bryan (INT-42-44), who has more than 9 years of experience teaching English, explains that they are amateurishly experimenting what the new course book has to offer, and that they will need to stand back to judge their own work after a while to make some amendments. He goes further and compares his students to guinea pigs. The class sizes are still relatively small, about 9 to 15 students, therefore he thinks that it gives them a better opportunity to test different teaching principles (INT-Bryan-52).

Since the implementation of the new curriculum, the teachers have been asked to take into account the students' mixed abilities. Very few resources were yet at the teachers' disposal to do so in the first years with NH, which has drastically changed with the advent of EiM, as Frank reports:

Extract 7.35 INT-Frank-18

au niveau de la différenciation y'a tout qui est fait. si l'enseignant doit encore s'occuper de construire ça, c'est énorme. alors qu'on ait des moyens d'enseignement à disposition qui soient valables, de qualité, avec justement cette différenciation déjà proposée, l'enseignant il est là pour enseigner, on a certes tous essayé de passer 25 heures pour faire nos dossiers et de proposer une différenciation, mais si c'est déjà fait l'énergie n'est plus à se concentrer là-dessus mais plus sur la relation avec les élèves et à faire passer ça

regarding differentiation, everything is provided. if the teacher also needs to create such activities, it is a huge job. so having valuable and good quality teaching materials at our disposal with mixed-ability exercises [means that] the teacher is there to teach. but we have all tried to spend 25 hours preparing mixed-ability exercises, but if it is already done, we can use our energy to develop a relationship with the students and to deliver the material

The decided advantage of having everything ready now is that the teachers can henceforth put themselves into teaching, and focus on the students more, which shows

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the emotional side of teaching again. However, the problem is that the teachers have not necessarily been trained to deal with such activities, which requires some practice. Anna (INT-46) has been teaching for more than 10 years but she estimates that she might well need about a year to learn how to deal with differentiation that requires a new way of managing the class, to which we will come back in the last part of this chapter (7.4.2). Florence (INT-30) is also groping her way along regarding mixed-ability activities, and she is especially struggling with the correction of exercises, as is Romy (INT-32) who happily sets up such activities but has not found an ideal way to correct them yet. What I found extremely positive though is that all of them reported to have tried possible courses of action to implement differentiation in their classes, which shows that they are trying to take part in this reculturing.

The data also suggest that teachers do not only see classroom experience as a way to develop their teaching strategies, but also as a place to improve their language proficiency (INT-Mary-18) with regard to vocabulary (INT-Julie-8), fluency (INT-Alex-2) grammar and language awareness (INT-Cathy-16). All this may mean that even though practice does not necessarily make perfect, it plays a large part in making the teachers have a better understanding of what they are dealing with, it helps them develop their pedagogical content knowledge and curriculum knowledge.

7.4.1.4 Other types of experience

Finally, some other types of experience were revealed from the data, such as collaboration, transfer from other subjects and “feeling”. With respect to collaboration, the teachers have reported to work together to some extent, but the degree of collaboration varies from one school to the next, which confirms previous results from this study (6.1.4.D, 7.2.2). Only one interviewee admitted that teachers do not collaborate in her school, which she greatly regrets, because in her view, it would be in their own good to share practices. The other ones mentioned that they shared activities and exchanged about their practices. Ten out of seventeen stated that they especially worked together to prepare tests, which sometimes also reduced their freedom to teach, as this extract illustrates:

Extract 7.36 INT-Joël-46

les 4 compétences à chaque fois, dans chaque unité on les évalue, ça on a décidé entre nous ici. personnellement j'étais contre, parce que ça fait quand même 4 examens par unité, ça veut dire qu'on passe une semaine à faire des examens, mais voilà, c'est la collaboration ! mais par contre du coup ils doivent tout travailler et ça c'est bien

here we have decided to assess the four skills every time, in every unit. personally, I did not agree because with four exams per unit, the students are being examined for a week, but that's it, that is collaboration! but they consequently have to work on everything, and this is good

Julie felt positively influenced by another type of experience. She explained that being a PE teacher can definitely be considered an advantage when it comes to teaching mixed-ability classes. Indeed, PE teachers have to make the students work both in groups and individually, they have to set different objectives for students with various abilities while still being mindful of health and safety issues. For these reasons, she admits having transferred her skills developed while being a PE teacher for teaching languages. As a result, she did not feel she had to start from scratch when she had to implement differentiation in her classes (INT-Julie-48).

A last account of experience that emerge from the data is the feeling teachers have, and on which they base their decisions, something that can be compared to going with the flow. They refer to it as “a feeling” (INT-Ellen-30), some kind of intuition that seems to be a real outcome of experience and that will be explained in 9.3.2.

7.4.1.5 Summary

In this section, I have presented an overview of what the teachers refer to when they mention experience, and Ellen happened to nicely summarise all of them in her account:

Extract 7.37 INT-Ellen-18

c'est grâce à la formation que j'ai beaucoup évolué finalement, grâce aux échanges avec les collègues, avec les MFs, c'est grâce à ça qu'on peut évoluer, c'est grâce à la pratique quotidienne qu'on se rend compte de ce qui fonctionne, de ce qui ne fonctionne pas, mais c'est clair qu'avant d'entamer la formation, j'appliquais clairement ce que moi j'avais reçu comme patrimoine si je puis dire

it is thanks to my training that I have improved a lot, thanks to the discussions with colleagues, with the teacher mentors. it is thanks to all that that we can improve, we realise what works and what does not thanks to daily practice, but it is clear that before I started my training, I was clearly reproducing what I had gone through as a student

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In brief, the factors influencing teacher beliefs reported by Borg (2006) are all present here: the experience as learner, professional development and teacher education as well as ongoing practice in class and collaboration with colleagues. Section 9.3.2 will address these aspects in the discussion. For now, we turn to another factor influencing the implementation, namely classroom management.

7.4.2 Classroom management as an emerging issue

I did not expect classroom management to emerge as an issue in the context where this research project was conducted, but it did, and problems related to time management and class size are examined here.

7.4.2.1 Time management

As we have seen in 6.1.5 and 7.2.1, teachers are always very concerned with keeping up with the syllabus, and many have revealed that EiM is so dense, with so many resources, that they absolutely have to select (INT-Cathy-10) what to do and what to leave out, which is not “a real problem” (INT-18) according to Frank. In his view, teachers are lucky to have a wide range of activities to choose from (INT-Frank-30), especially since whatever they choose, it will always follow the curriculum requirements. Some other teachers feel “oppressed” (INT-Florence-34) by all this material because they have the impression to be constantly running late, or because they are already a month behind the schedule (INT-Bryan-58). Anja, for example, has decided not to supplement what is at her disposal (INT-Anja-28) given the lack of time, while others apparently still supplement it, as the quantitative results have shown (6.1.4.B). Bryan summarises the situation very well by saying that teachers have to “make choices” (INT-62). Interestingly, several participants have reported to use iPads (INT-Mathieu-42, INT-Julie-44) and computers (INT-Frank-8, INT-Cathy-32) with their students despite the tight schedule.

In their accounts, some participants complained from the insufficient time at their disposal. As a result, they left out end-of-unit projects with NH (INT-Cathy 32) or vocabulary games, as Anja justifies:

Extract 7.38 INT-Anja-28

à la HEP ils nous disent de faire des jeux, d'introduire des warmers et coolers, mais on n'a pas le temps de faire ça, si je fais un warmer au début du cours j'en ai pour 10-15 min, c'est foutu le cours, après je peux plus enseigner le reste, donc j'essaie d'éviter ce genre de trucs

at the teacher training college they tell us to do games, to introduce warmers and coolers, but we do not have time to do so. if I do a warmer at the beginning of the course, it takes about 10 to 15 minutes, then the lesson is ruined, I cannot teach the rest. therefore, I tend to avoid these kinds of stuff

For her, a vocabulary game is an activity that can only be added spontaneously at the end of a lesson if time allows, but it is not a proper activity that deserves to be put down in a planning. This might be related to her view of her teacher's role (as presented in 7.1.1.B and 7.4.1.1), and to the fact that she does not see the benefits of such activities. Again, it seems that the two-day training she attended when the new teaching material was introduced did not take her own existing beliefs into account, and that she could consequently not take the new information on board (as presented in 7.3.1).

Another participant pointed out that she does not have enough time to practice the vocabulary in class, saying that they "have, in inverted commas, only 3 hours [a week]" (INT-Mary-16). But on the other hand, it is surprising that this school spends a week and a half doing assessments at the end of every unit when English is not a core subject assessed by external examinations. It appears then that the teachers' beliefs regarding the unnecessary to evaluate their students' progress extensively has not been addressed during training either. Apart from a lack of time, several participants have also complained about the number of students per class.

7.4.2.2 Class size

When the data were collected, the largest possible class would have 24 students in the first year and 9 to 15 students in the second and third year of lower secondary. Yet, the participants have put forward both in the interviews and in the questionnaires the fact that small classes are better to teach in a communicative way, and exploring this issue revealed some interesting beliefs.

Romy (INT-78) for instance attested that warmers and coolers are difficult to implement in classes with over twenty students, especially when they are some students who do not behave well or when the period is at the end of the day/week, a time when the students

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are less focussed. She explains that these activities work better with small groups because it is easier to calm the students afterwards. She also stated that for her, it is easier to keep speaking English in class with ten than with twenty students. Indeed, she sees it as a real challenge to make sure all of them would understand her if she speaks in English in a large class (INT-Romy-80). She also commented on the fact that she would not plan a communicative activity for every lesson with a large group (i.e. 20 to 24 students maximum) (INT-Romy-86-88). When I asked her why not, she admitted that it would increase the level of noise beyond a manageable level, which refers to her personal preferences. Conversely, Joel stressed that he was used to teaching in a relatively noisy environment as a PE teacher, and that this was not a problem for him (INT-Joel-30). Coming back to Romy, she finally advanced that with twenty students,

Extract 7.39 INT-Romy-88

c'est difficile de vérifier la tâche effectuée par les élèves. [...] automatiquement je perds déjà du temps en discipline et pas en corrigeant des fautes. l'efficacité elle est pas la même

it is difficult to check the task done by the students. [...] I automatically waste time dealing with discipline and not correcting mistakes. the efficiency is not the same

I would argue that this relates back to her role as a teacher, and to her belief of self-efficacy. In her view, self-efficacy has to do with error correction apparently. Thus, it seems that it is more important for her to correct the students' mistakes than to give them the opportunity to do a speaking activity. Therefore, she would not plan such activities with what she considers a large class. Louise made a comment that was very similar, explaining that when twenty students are working in pairs, the teacher can only listen to one group at a time, and can consequently not check what the others are doing, which is especially detrimental if they speak French instead of focussing on the activity (INT-Louise-34). Alex also noted that in a class of ten, three or four are very active and participate well while the others need to be stimulated. In a class of twenty though, he pointed out that the same number of students is active whereas a much greater number is doing nothing, waiting for some encouragement (INT-Alex-42). This is indeed the case if the teacher has a frontal type of teaching, but if the students work in pairs, in groups or even individually, I think that the number would not be such a problem. In this third case, the class size is also seen as an impediment.

To sum up, I would argue that in all three cases, the teachers' beliefs are limiting them. It is understandable that it is more convenient, less stressful and less noisy to teach in a class of ten students, but it is a pity that the fear of losing the control prevents them from planning speaking activities in larger groups. The data suggests that the teachers really want to go on with small groups, since eight mentioned it in the interview and seven in the final box of the questionnaire where they could leave a comment. For Bryan (INT-44) though, having small groups is seen as an opportunity to try various teaching principles recommended with EiM. This would enable him to gain some experience that would help him plan if one day he gets twenty students in his class, which shows that not every participant holds limiting beliefs regarding what can be done with what is considered a relatively large class in this context.

7.5 Summary

The main findings are now summarised, and I indicate where they will be discussed in the discussion chapter (Ch.9). The evidence provided in 7.1 suggests that the teachers hold a wide variety of beliefs regarding their roles. This seems to indicate that some reculturing has taken place since the teachers do not see themselves as mere knowledge transmitters and error correctors, although in practice, some teachers are still struggling to let go of the way they were taught (discussed later in 9.2.1.2). What is more, the limiting view that English is taught to speak with natives and to succeed at high school turned out to be quite widespread (developed in 7.1.2 and discussed in 9.2.1.3). As for the teachers' beliefs and practices about the implementation of the PER and EiM investigated in 7.2, the analysis of the transition phase brought to light the tacit practices of the teachers who were following a hidden curriculum. There is evidence to suggest that the teachers tended to rely on the syllabus and on the course book more than on the curriculum, which adds to the findings of Chapter 6 according to which they relied on their experience more than on the curriculum (the teachers' beliefs about the curriculum will be discussed in 9.2.1.1).

Conducting this research during a period of change also gave me the opportunity to analyse how beliefs and practices influence each other, as 7.3 has shown. The data analysis revealed the existence of belief perseverance, the co-existence of conflicting beliefs and the importance of raising teachers' awareness, as well as the existence of

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some limiting beliefs presented in 7.4.2, such as time management and class size (these issues will be discussed in 9.1.2 and 9.2.2). Finally, some influential factors shaping teacher beliefs were presented in 7.4.1, namely different types of experience and training that could also potentially instigate change, as discussed further in 9.3.

This chapter was about the reported beliefs and practices of seventeen teachers and it revealed some interesting facts that will be examined in detail in the next chapter, where beliefs and practices are analysed jointly. Indeed, Chapter 8 focuses on two teachers to provide a fine-grained analysis of their way of implementing the curriculum. The salient themes that have been addressed so far will again be considered, but at the individual level and in relation to the participants' practices as well. The focus will be on the importance of the teachers' roles (8.1.2, 8.2.2, 8.2.3), the role of English (8.1.1, 8.2.1, 8.2.4), of experience (8.1.3), and of the role of their own schooling (8.1.1, 8.1.2, 8.2.4). Issues pertaining to curricular innovation will also be considered (8.2.4). Finally, time management and the relationship between beliefs and practices will also be mentioned in different parts of this last results chapter.

Chapter 8 Individual Findings: The Relationship Between Beliefs and Practices

So far, I have explored the participants' stated beliefs and professed practices. In this last results chapter, I wish to emphasise the role of enacted beliefs and observed practices. Indeed, I am going to analyse the practices of two teachers I have observed while attempting to identify the beliefs underpinning them. These two individual case studies will contribute to enhancing our understanding of teacher beliefs and practices. Moving from the general to the particular is indeed a way to explore the teachers' situated beliefs, and to gain a deeper insight into the case under study.

Mary and Florence have been selected for several reasons (their background information can be found in Appendix C). First, they have been teaching for a different number of years. Second, they attended different training courses to become English teachers. Finally, the analysis revealed that these teachers were representative in the sense that their teaching was driven by different key features, which I thought would be of particular interest. These teachers are also part of those that I observed the most (five observations for Florence and six for Mary), which has its importance as discussed in 9.1.3. My objective here is to capture the complexity of these two participants, to show how their "beliefs in action" (Borg 2018, p. 77) emerged from the data, and possibly also how these beliefs are uniquely connectable to their training and experience. Additionally, I will investigate how these two teachers' beliefs are organised and connected to their practices, as well as develop some of the issues already presented in Chapter 7 at the individual level such as experience (in 8.1.3) and the implementation of the new teaching materials and curriculum (in 8.2.4).

It is well established that the comparison of stated beliefs and observed practices often yields unconvincing results due to the inconsistencies of their relationship, as explained earlier (2.2.7, 4.2.1). In the present chapter, the beliefs underlying the teachers' behaviours, also referred to as "attributed beliefs" (Borg, 2015a, p. 495), have been inferred from the classroom observations and confirmed thanks to the interviews and/or stimulated recall interviews in order to limit the risk of misinterpretation.

8.1 Mary

Mary is an experienced lower secondary teacher. She has been teaching French and other subjects for several years. However, she is a novice English teacher since she had been teaching it for four months when she welcomed me in her class, which is why I decided to investigate the role of experience in her practices. When the Department for Education faced a lack of English teachers in the canton of Valais, they offered English language classes to in-service teachers who were willing to start teaching this subject, and Mary told me that she seized this opportunity. After teaching the same subjects for several years, she was in need of renewal and she saw these English classes as a perfect solution to break from routine. At first, her main objective was only to develop her skills and to improve her English, but she soon realised that she found fulfilment in attending these language classes. Very dedicated and eager to improve, she went to learn English abroad in the UK four times during her holidays to complement her language training. Given the pleasure she had to study English, the prospect of teaching it aroused her enthusiasm because she knew it would give her extra opportunities to practice (INT-18). She consequently applied to get some teaching hours, and obtained two periods of 45 minutes per week with 12-year-old students learning English for the third year. Overall, she considers herself very lucky to have had this opportunity, and when the data collection took place, she was still taking some private conversational courses to progress because she still did not feel very confident with her English (INT-40). This shows that she was really making her best to benefit from the opportunity offered by the Department, and to improve her level of English as well, investing both time and money.

In class, Mary follows the book since she considers it to be the curriculum, as extracts 7.23 showed, and she keeps pace with her more experienced colleagues regarding the time spent on each unit because they do the same end-of-unit tests. As a result, she progresses page by page, adding some extra speaking activities or games provided in the resource pack or in the teacher's book to motivate the students to come to her class, as she sees it as her teacher role (INT-56). I am now going to present some of the classroom practices I found out were the most relevant as well as the enacted beliefs underpinning them.

8.1.1 Pronunciation and vocabulary matter

I realised that pronunciation would be important to Mary in the interview, when she discussed at length her own negative experience as a language learner at school. Indeed, she explained how tough it was for her to start learning English at the age of 14, since everything was oral during the first few months, which means that she could not use the written form of the language as a support and felt therefore very unsettled (INT-4). The most striking fact she shared was her very negative experience regarding vocabulary learning and her acquisition of the English pronunciation. As a student, she used to work out the pronunciation of the new words from their spelling, as she did for the other Germanic language she was learning. Consequently, her English pronunciation was very bad, native speakers could not understand her (INT-100), and she did not remember having been told how to improve her pronunciation in class:

Extract 8.1 INT-Mary-10

et puis comment j'apprenais? ben je lisais le mot en anglais c'était pathétique. (...) je lisais l'anglais comme en français donc j'apprenais mes mots comme je les avais lus, et ça je trouve que c'est dommage. ça c'est vraiment dommage parce que c'est des choses qui restent longtemps

how did I learn? I read the word in English, it was pathetic. (...) I read English as if it was French so I learnt the words how I had read them, and I find that it is a shame. it is a real shame because these things stay with you a long time

According to her, this has had a long-lasting effect in the sense that she still considers her English accent as relatively bad. The difficulties she encountered with the English language were not limited to pronunciation, but also applied to communication and specially to understanding native speakers of English (INT-12). Indeed, she used to learn her vocabulary very well in writing (INT-10-Mary), but could not recognise the words when they were spoken. She considers that her poor listening skills have always been a “handicap” (INT-4). This is a strong word and she mentions it a second time, indicating how impaired she felt, even as an adult (INT-22). Therefore, around 2012, she decided to “re-learn” English (INT-4-6), as explained in the introductory paragraph, and it seems that she is making the best of it.

Now that she is an English teacher, she admits to putting a particular emphasis on vocabulary because she considers that it is the role of the school to provide the students with some basic vocabulary (INT-96). Both this statement as well as her own personal

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history drew my attention to the way she handles vocabulary and pronunciation in class, and I could indeed observe that she really focussed on both a lot. Indeed, she planned various activities designed to have the students use the new words of the unit (using vocabulary games and speaking activities, asking them to read a text/the questions of the exercises aloud, practising with dialogues, and eliciting the new words they had to learn orally). Regarding the fact that they spent a lot of time on vocabulary in class, Mary explained that it had not always been the case. Indeed, they did not at the beginning of the year and her weak students performed very badly at the first reading and speaking tests, mainly because they did not know their vocabulary according to her (INT-52). This is especially detrimental to low-achievers who tend not to do their homework very well, as extract 8.2 illustrates. Learning from this experience, she decided to insist more in class from Unit 3 onward, which seems to have positive outcomes:

Extract 8.2 SR456-Mary-76

parce que si on leur demande à la maison ils font pas et finalement les élèves faibles ils sont toujours aussi faibles. là j'ai l'impression que petit à petit quand je parle en anglais ils sont moins choqués qu'au début de l'année (...) ils osent me dire quand ils ont pas compris la question, mais de plus en plus, je me rends compte qu'ils ont compris

because if we ask them to do it at home they do not, and weak students remain weak, basically. now I have the impression that little by little, when I speak in English, they are less shocked than at the beginning of the year (..) they even tell me when they have not understood the question, but more and more I realise that they have understood

Another interesting fact that I observed and that she commented on in this extract is the fact that the main language in class is English. Indeed, despite her low confidence (extract VIII.1), Mary does her best to speak English, even if they are sometimes some inaccuracies in her grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, as for example here:

Extract VIII.1 OBS5-Mary¹³

good morning ! such a beautiful sun and I have to close the shutters. it's not shutter because shutter is les volets mais je sais pas comment on dit ça. [*the shutters but I do not know how to say that*]

¹³ Extract VIII.1 (first observation extract of Chapter 8), OBS4-Mary (from the fourth observation of this participant)

The word she wanted to say here is “blinds”, but overall it seems that it is more important to her to communicate in English with some mistakes than to use French because she wants to give them some input of the language. In addition, she also expects her students to speak English in class, which works quite well despite their limited vocabulary.

With respect to pronunciation, she insisted on the numbers by asking her students to count all together several times (OBS-5) and sometimes interrupted an activity whose emphasis was on communication to focus on form. It was for example the case (OBS-4) when she made a long digression about numbers in the middle of the following reading exercise:

The history of pop

This week:
John Lennon and the man who wanted an autograph

Death in New York

Ex-Beatle John Lennon was born in England in 1940, but he was in the United States in 1980. On 8th December, he and his wife, Yoko Ono, were in New York. That afternoon they were on their way to a recording studio to record a new song. There was an American man called Mark Chapman in the street. In his hand there was a piece of paper and a pen. 'Mr Lennon,' he said. 'Can I have your autograph?' John Lennon signed his name on the piece of paper and Chapman walked away. In the evening, John and Yoko were in front of their apartment building. There was a man at the door. It was the same man. It was Mark Chapman. This time there wasn't a pen in his hand, there was a gun. 'Mr Lennon!' he said. Suddenly there were five shots from the gun and John Lennon was dead. He was only 40 years old. Three minutes later the police were at the apartment building. Mark Chapman was still there. His only words were, 'I shot John Lennon.' Why? No one really knows.

Next week: the Beatles' last concert

- b** Read the website again. Are the sentences true or false?
- 1 Yoko Ono was John Lennon's girlfriend.
 - 2 They were in New York on 8th December 1980.
 - 3 It was the last day of John Lennon's life.
 - 4 Mark Chapman was John's friend.
 - 5 There were two shots from the gun.
 - 6 The police were there in five minutes.

Figure 5 English in Mind 9e, Student's book (Puchta et al., 2015a, p. 28) Copyright Cambridge University Press 2015. Reproduced with permission of CUP through PLSclear.

As can be seen in Extract VIII.2, she also drew the attention of the class to false friends during a speaking activity (displayed in Figure 6).

Extract VIII.2 OBS4-Mary

- T: and where were you ?
 S: at the cinema
 T: at the cinema, and you ?
 S: at the library /ɪ/
 T: at the library /aɪ/, yes, what's a library ? do you know what's a library ?
 S: bibliothèque [library]
 T: very good, very good, be careful, in English a library is not une librairie [a bookshop], a library it's
 S: bibliothèque [library]
 T: bibliothèque en français [library in French]. A bookshop is a library, eh a bookshop est une librairie [is a library], but a library is a une bibliothèque [a library]

4 Speak LB pages 33, 36 and 37
WB pages 34-35

Work with a partner. Read the questionnaire and ask and answer the questions.

Last weekend

On Saturday	On Sunday
1 Where were you at ... 06.15 ? 16.45 ? 22.00 ?	3 Where were you at ... 09.00 ? 13.30 ? 20.15 ?
2 Who were you with ... in the morning? in the afternoon? in the evening?	4 How were you ... in the morning? in the afternoon? in the evening?

Figure 6 English in Mind 9e, Student's book (Puchta et al., 2015a, p. 27)
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A final example of the emphasis she places on pronunciation is taken from the correction of a listening activity (presented in Figure 7 in 8.1.2), as exemplified in this extract:

Extract VIII.3 OBS1-Mary

- T: comment tu sais? [how do you know?]
 S: ils ont dit shoot /u:/ [they said shoot /u:/]
 T: ils ont pas dit shoot /u:/ , ils ont dit shot /ɒ/ [they did not say shoot, they said shot]
 S: shot /ɒ/

In these cases, the language was suddenly treated as an object, which is reminiscent of a focus on form pedagogy. In her view, vocabulary and pronunciation clearly take

precedence over spelling and grammar, she mentions it twice (INT-101 to 104 and SR123-38). It is probably for this reason that she keeps reminding the students to pay particular attention to vocabulary and to use good learning strategies. Mary wants her students to be given space to talk and receive feedback in class, especially with regard to pronunciation. The following extract shows how important it is for her to give weak students the opportunity to practice in class. She is commenting on the fact that she sometimes asks them to read a text out loud in class but that she cannot always do it because it is time consuming. However, she sees it as a very valuable activity:

Extract 8.3 SR123-Mary-18

ça permet à certains élèves qui ne parlent pas d'être obligés de prononcer des mots à haute voix. (...) y'a des gamins qui essaient, qui travaillent, qui apprennent leur voc, mais jamais ils les prononcent. et même s'ils les prononcent, personne peut les corriger à la maison, parce que personne ne parle anglais. donc je trouve bien, oui, y'en a quelques-uns qui font l'effort qui pourtant ont de la peine et ils sont contents d'être interrogés finalement

it allows certain students who do not speak to have to pronounce the words aloud. (...) some kids try, they work, they learn their vocabulary, but they never pronounce the words. and even if they do, nobody can correct them at home because nobody speaks English. so I think it is good, yes, some of them have difficulties but yet they make the effort, and they are happy to be quizzed finally

It could be that the importance she grants to pronunciation comes from her experience and her belief regarding the role of English. Interestingly, she does not consider the use of English as a lingua franca, but only as a tool to communicate with native speakers, as the following example illustrates.

Extract 8.4 INT-Mary-12

déjà je sais que si vous allez euh dans un pays anglophone et que vous [...] prononcez les mots à la française, les gens ne vous comprennent pas! donc finalement c'est inutile d'apprendre une langue étrangère si elle ne vous sert à rien. et puis la même chose, vous ne comprenez pas les gens, vous comprenez que les étrangers qui parlent comme vous, voilà donc pas très utile (...) et du coup j'insiste vraiment avec les élèves

to start with, I know that if you go to an English-speaking country and [...] pronounce the words in a French accent, people do not understand you! then it is useless to learn a foreign language if you cannot use it. and similarly, you do not understand the people, but only the foreigners who speak as you do, so not very useful (...), so for this reason I really insist a lot with the students

It seems that there is some native-speakerism going on here, which is not only shaping her self-evaluations, but also her assessment of her students as we can see in extract 8.4.

Chapter 8

She is not the only participant to clearly state that English is taught at school to communicate with native speakers, several other participants mentioned it, as discussed in 7.1.2. This is worth exploring, and we will come back to it in the discussion chapter (9.2.1.3). Next, we are going to take a closer look at an issue that has been touched upon in extract 8.2, that of helping students, and weak ones in particular.

8.1.2 Weak students deserve special attention

Thanks to the observations, I noticed this second salient characteristic of Mary, that of paying attention to weak students. Indeed, I could notice that she did her best to meet her weak students' needs on several occasions, as extract VIII.4 shows. They were doing a pre-listening activity (see section a in Figure 7 below) about the Beatles when a weak student asked a question focusing on form:

Extract VIII.4 OBS1-Mary

T: look at the picture and answer. can you read the first question please X.

S: 'where were the Beatles from'?

T: em do you understand? do you understand the question?

S: un petit peu, 'where were' c'est déjà quoi? [*a little bit, what is 'where were'?*]

T: ça veut dire [*it means*]

S: pourquoi y'a deux fois? [*why is there twice?*]

T: est-ce que c'est écrit deux fois la même chose? [*is it written twice the same?*]
where and were. where and were. it's not the same. this one and this one (she writes them on the board with /e/ for where and a schwa for were). this one is where, this one is were. it's not the same. do you know some words the same like this? (pointing at where) where?

1 Listen

a Look at the pictures and answer.

- 1 Where were the Beatles from?
- 2 How many of them were there?
- 3 Do you know their names?
- 4 Do you know any of their songs?

b ▶ **CD1 T23** Listen. What do you hear?

- a radio show
- a History lesson
- a family conversation

c ▶ **CD1 T23** Listen again and check your answers to Exercise 1a.

d ▶ **CD1 T24** Read and match the music words with the sentences. Then listen and check.

concert drummer group
musician singers songs

- 1 The Beatles were an English rock ... of the 1960s.
- 2 The two lead ... were Paul McCartney and John Lennon.
- 3 *Yesterday* is one of their most famous ...
- 4 Their last ... was in 1969 in London.
- 5 John Lennon was a great ...
- 6 Ringo Starr was the ... in the group.

LB page 32
WB page 33

Figure 7 *English in Mind 9e, Student's book (Puchta et al., 2015a, p. 26)*
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CUP through PLSclear.

She then went on, eliciting several question words from the students, and conjugating the verb 'to be' in the present tense with them before noting that here it is in the past (which was an objective of the lesson). This whole episode where she answers the question lasted over 4 minutes. When I asked her to tell me more about this incident during the stimulated recall, she said that she had not foreseen this question and that she had not planned to explain the difference between 'where' and 'were' (SR123-62). However, she felt that it made sense to spend some time on this here because more than one student might have needed an explanation:

Extract 8.5 SR123-Mary-60

c'est 1 sur 24 qui me demande, mais si lui il demande, ça veut dire que c'est quelque chose qui concerne, qui peut concerner un grand nombre d'élèves

it is one out of twenty-four who asks the question, but if he asks, it means that it is something that concerns, that might concern a greater number of students

This shows her concern to provide adequate help to her students. What is more, she admitted having been very happy that this particular student asked the question because it showed that he is particularly focused and eager to learn despite his schooling difficulties (SR123-52). I also think that it suggests that the teacher has established a safe space in the classroom.

All this goes to show that she intentionally focused on form here to provide a comprehensive explanation to a question that several students might have. She also saw it as an opportunity to revise the question words and the verb 'to be' in the present tense as well, since she likes systematic learning and regrets that it is no longer a popular way of teaching (she mentions it five times in the stimulated recalls). Hence, her objective here was to give an explanation that was as thorough as possible, and she apparently only focussed on form for the sake of clarity. Interestingly, the first distinction she made between 'where' and 'were' was a phonetic one, writing the phonetics on the board and repeating the two words. Her 12-year-old students had only been learning English for two and a half years and did not know phonetics, therefore it surprised me. What is more, the fact that 'were' is pronounced with a schwa is related to the fact that the word is not stressed in that particular sentence, which is quite an advanced notion. I thought she might have distinguished these two words using phonetics because, as we have seen before, pronunciation really matters for her, which was confirmed in the following course when she repeated that 'were' and 'where' were not pronounced in the same way (OBS-2).

A course later, the students did a speaking activity where they had to ask each other questions starting with 'Where were you...' (OBS-3). At the end of the exercise, when Mary realised that they had not answered with a complete sentence, hence failing to practice 'I was', she decided to repeat the verb 'to be' again, writing its conjugation with the students on the board, both in the present and in the past tense, insisting also on the subject pronouns. During the stimulated recall, she justified her decision and explained

that students with learning difficulties tend not to see the structure of the language if the teacher does not help them to (SR123-6). Altogether, she mentioned weak students 15 times in the stimulated recall interviews, which is much more than the other teachers I observed. Therefore, I thought this might be one of her core beliefs.

Now coming back to Mary's own experience of learning English in lower secondary school, it seems that she got an advantage out of it, that of knowing what the learners, and especially the weaker ones, are going through, as the following extract demonstrates:

Extract 8.6 INT-Mary-40

les difficultés que je vis moi sont certainement les mêmes pour les élèves. oui, tout à l'heure on disait, on parlait de ce que mon expérience d'apprenant, en quoi mon expérience d'apprenant m'aide à enseigner, ben justement, je sais quelles sont les difficultés qu'on peut rencontrer en tant qu'apprenant d'une langue étrangère et j'essaie autant que possible de comment on va dire, d'aider les apprenants qui ont de la peine

the difficulties I am going through myself are certainly the same for the students. yes, earlier we were talking about my experience as a learner, how my experience as a learner helps me teach, so precisely, I know what difficulties a foreign language learner can face, and I try as much as possible to, how to say that, to help the learners who have trouble learning

She mentions as an example the fact that switching from one subject and one language to the next, i.e. from a French course to an English course, is difficult for her, and thus potentially for the students as well (INT-40). Furthermore, she thinks that it is important to provide good explanations about how the language works to weak students in particular, and to give them learning strategies as quickly as possible so that they can try to overcome their difficulties (INT-44). She also empathises with beginners who might feel like fools when they do not understand much of the language. Again, she says that she has often experienced this herself with English, and still does:

Extract 8.7 SR123-Mary-6

parce que quand on est un nouvel apprenant ou quand on apprend une langue tout au début, c'est comme si on était, moi je me sens souvent comme ça en anglais, comme si j'étais une demeurée

because when you are a new learner, or when you learn a new language at the very beginning, it is as if you were, I often feel like this in English, as if I was half-wit

In this excerpt, it seems that she regards herself as a language learner more than as a teacher, which is related to the fact that she admitted her weaknesses regarding the

English language on several occasions (problems of translation and pronunciation, grammatical inaccuracies), as extract VIII.1 illustrated.

8.1.3 Experience as a teacher

Besides her experience as a learner, Mary commented on her experience as a teacher of other subjects. Indeed, even though she was a novice English teacher, she could rely on her former teaching experience not only to plan her English lessons, but also to critically analyse what happened in class. Teaching French as a foreign language to migrant children, she realised that it was better for weak students to be engaged in short activities rather than in a single long one, what did not seem to be the case in scientific topics or when working in one's own mother tongue. Drawing on her experience of teaching French as a foreign language, Mary consequently believed that it is more efficient to plan several short activities in her English classes as well (INT-32), which I could observe. I must admit that I am not sure that these observations were a proof of this stated belief though, because this is how the book is organised and she happens to follow it. Mary also stated that the stimulated recall interviews, as a post-facto rationalisation, allowed her to reflect on her teaching. During one of them, she explained that, with hindsight, she should have planned the activity where the students had to discover the use of 'in, on, at' followed by time expressions in a different way. Indeed, she had asked the students to deduce the rule looking at only one example of the different uses of these three prepositions:

Prepositions of time: at, on, in

Highlight the time prepositions. Then complete the rules.

- 1 Where were you at nine o'clock?
- 2 The man was there again in the evening.
- 3 John Lennon was born in 1940.
- 4 He was in New York on 8th December 1980.
- 5 I was at school on Monday.
- 6 My birthday is in April.
- 7 I wasn't at home at the weekend.
- 8 My grandad listens to the radio at night.

*Figure 8 English in Mind 9e, Language Builder (Parminter, 2015, p. 38)
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However, she worked out that, in this instance, one example was not enough (SR456-108). When I asked her how she came to this conclusion, she based her analysis on her

experience of teaching a scientific subject, comparing how to discover an English grammatical rule with a science experiment.

Extract 8.8 SR456-Mary-110

est-ce que c'est parce qu'on a une fois que ça marche tout le temps ? c'est ce qu'on leur apprend en science, je fais une découverte, je remarque que si je couche ma bouteille, mon eau forme une droite horizontale, est-ce que ça marche dans toutes les bouteilles, est-ce que ça marche avec n'importe quelle quantité d'eau, avec n'importe quel liquide [...] mais c'est ça découvrir une règle, c'est pas de dire à ben là la ligne elle est horizontale, point

is it because it works once that it always works? this is what we teach them in science, I make a discovery, I notice that if I lay down a bottle, the water forms a horizontal line. does it work with any kind of bottle, any quantity of water, any type of liquid [...]? this is what it means to discover a rule, it is not to state that the line is horizontal, full stop

Interestingly, she also relied on her extra-curricular experience gained as a ski teacher. During her ski lessons, she used to tell the beginners to picture the place where they wanted to go to set it as a target, and she uses the same technique to encourage the students to learn and remember the vocabulary (SR123-168). Mary thinks that this also works very effectively in to help the students memorise words or patterns in a systematic way, and she indeed used it to give the students an opportunity to memorise the conjugation of the verb 'to be' written on the board in class:

Extract VIII.5 OBS3-Mary

T: take your eyes, take your camera, imagine you take a camera and take a picture of this, take a picture, take a picture, take a picture ! close your books ! (she hands out blank pieces of paper)

S: j'ai perdu la photo madame [*I have lost the picture miss*]

T: (...) try to write what you remember. essayez de vous souvenir ce que j'avais écrit au tableau [*try to remember what I had written on the board*]

(The teacher walks around the class and goes to a weak student to see what her answers are and tries to encourage her)

T: va rechercher la photo, concentre-toi, va la rechercher. essaie de te souvenir [*try to remember the picture, focus, remember it. try to remember*]

T: tu n'as pas fait une bonne photo, elle est un peu floue ta photo, tu veux en faire une autre ? [*you did not take a good picture, your picture is a bit blurred, do you want to take another one?*]

The student can apparently not remember the verb very well and Mary uses the metaphor of the photograph to draw her attention to it. All this seem to indicate that, even though she is a novice teacher in English, she heavily relies on her former experience which shows the powerful influence of experience.

8.1.4 Summary

To sum up, Mary's own experience as an English learner was marked by several negative aspects: problems in oral comprehension both at school and in an English-speaking environment, difficulties in learning new words with a correct pronunciation, and in pronouncing well enough to be understood by native speakers. On the other hand, these problems allowed her to discover the pleasure of learning English as an adult. In her view, they gave her a better understanding of what weak students are going through. In a sense, she is sharing the identity of learner with her students. Mary opted in for the challenge of teaching English, and she does not only need to be a proficient user of the language, but she also needs expertise about how to teach it. The data demonstrate that she seems to feel like a language learner rather than a language user, and that she does not feel very confident in her expertise yet, due to her status of novice teacher of English. This teacher has a very good relationship with the students, and she can rely on her experience in language learning, as well as on her experience as a teacher and its associated legitimate authority. And this makes her a teacher of students rather than just a teacher of language.

As far as her beliefs are concerned, it seems that her belief regarding the role of English, i.e. that English is to communicate with native speakers in an English-speaking country, is a core belief. Indeed, the data analysis revealed that she has a deep conviction about that, and I would also argue that it is a primary belief (Green, 1971) from which other associated beliefs ensue since it influences the way she assesses the importance of pronunciation and vocabulary. The second core belief I have identified is her need to support weak students, she is indeed keeping all students going so that they do not give up. Again, it seems that this main belief leads to derivative ones (Green, 1971) that therefore inform classroom practices such as the importance of spending time on vocabulary in class, systematic learning and repetition, using English in class, and focus on form. Finally, I cannot tell for sure, but it seems that these two core beliefs are rooted in her own experience as a language learner since Mary, talking about the impact her own experience as an English learner has on her teaching, says that it is definitely influential (INT-12). Now we turn our attention to another teacher whose training and experience are quite different.

8.2 Florence

She started learning German and English at lower secondary and continued until university where she studied foreign languages applied to trade and economy, which made her aware of the important role of foreign languages in the world of work. For this reason, she considers that her approach to languages is more practical than that of the people who studied English literature at university (INT-20). Furthermore, she travelled a lot, which gave her the opportunity to improve her oral skills (INT-4). This played a key role since the focus of her studies was mainly on the written aspect of the language. She was holding a position of responsibility in the private sector when she decided to change her lifestyle and start a new training to become a language teacher. The influence of this experience will be illustrated in 8.2.1 and 8.2.4. She was in the middle of her third and final year of teacher education when I observed her. We can see that her profile is quite different from Mary's one in the sense that she did not only study the languages she teaches at university, but that she also received a formal English language teacher training. Furthermore, it seems that her own experience as a language learner was enjoyable, and that she considers herself as a language user now, showing confidence in her use of the language and a good command of PCK, which is not yet Mary's case as illustrated previously.

Regarding her role as a teacher, Florence considers that it is her duty to help her students develop themselves and to accompany them in their learning, leading them to the answer and not providing the answers herself (INT-24). In class, I could see that her lessons were planned with great care to help the students reach the objectives set, and I could notice that she used a lot of scaffolding, and insisted on the strategies a lot, as presented in 8.2.2. Another very salient trait of her teaching is also the right to make mistakes, which is developed in 8.2.3.

8.2.1 The power of routine

The five observations I conducted in this class all started with the same routine where she asked the students how they were before going on with the date, the time, what the weather was like and eliciting some other general information as well, as in the following extract:

Extract VIII.6 OBS1-Florence

(The students are standing in silence, the teacher is very energetic)

T: good afternoon everyone

Ss: good afternoon mrs X¹⁴

T: how are you today ?

Ss: fine and you ?

T: I'm fine thank you. what's the date today ? X

S: today is the 10th of Janu (she stumbled)

T: january

S: january 2017

T: ok, is it monday, tuesday, wednesday ?

S: tuesday

T: tuesday, would you please go to the board and write the date. so this is a brand new year, what do we say when it's a brand new year. there was something last christmas that we were singing (she sings) "we wish you a merry christmas we wish you a merry christmas we wish you a merry christmas and a ?"

Ss: happy new year

Florence's rationale for starting this way is twofold. First, she believes that it reassures the students (SR23-2), and second, she wants them to form the habit of using the language and some basic formal aspects such as the date and the time, as she explained in the stimulated recall:

Extract 8.9 SR23-Florence-2

c'est quelque chose qui leur servira quoi qu'il arrive, que ce soit de manière écrite s'ils doivent rédiger des courriers, ou que ce soit de manière officielle dans d'autres circonstances. donc j'y attache une grande importance

it is something they will use whatever happens, whether it be in writing, if they have to write any correspondence, or whether it be in an official capacity in other circumstances. for this reason, I attach a lot of importance to it

Knowing about her past as a company employee, I got the impression that she was referring to the world of work in this extract, where we can see that she anticipates the fact that the students will unfailingly need English at some point. For this reason, they also need to be able to write the date correctly according to her, therefore there is always a student going to the board to write it down at the beginning of the class during this little routine exercise. Concerning where she stands regarding the importance of spelling, she refers to her experience as an employee, stressing that it is important to know how to

¹⁴ X replaces the teacher's name here, and a student's name three lines further down

spell words properly when one has to use English at work. On the other hand, she also admits that she likes the language per se:

Extract 8.10 SR23-Florence-36

donc c'est bien la communication à l'oral mais j'ai travaillé aussi dans des entreprises, donc je sais la place qu'occupe l'écriture dans une entreprise, que ce soit des lettres officielles, des emails officiels et j'estime que le message doit pas être trop abîmé. après j'aime bien l'orthographe, j'aime bien les mots quand ils sont bien orthographiés, je suis consciente que c'est pas primordial et qu'ils arriveront à se faire comprendre, mais je me dis que tant qu'à faire autant leur donner les bonnes bases dès le début

communicating orally is good, but I have also worked in companies, therefore I know how important it is in a company for official letters and emails to be written correctly, and I think it's important that the message isn't too messed up. apart from that, I quite like spelling, I like words when they are spelt correctly, I am aware that it is not essential as they will manage to be understood, but I am their teacher, I think it is worth giving them a good grounding from the beginning

Consequently, it is likely that her beliefs about the role of English as well as her own work experience influence the fact that she had set up this routine to start her lesson.

Regarding the general role of languages, she explained in the interview that when she was younger and did not know what job to do later, she was told that languages would allow her to do any job (INT-10). This did not only influence the fact that she decided to study both German and English at university, but it still appears to be having some effect now that she is a teacher, as extracts 8.9 and 8.10 above show. As I said when I introduced Florence, her lessons are very well prepared in the sense that she is able to anticipate the questions the students might have extremely well and that she can scaffold accordingly, as I am going to present in the next section.

8.2.2 Scaffolding and the use of strategies

From the seven teachers I observed, Florence is the one insisting the most on teaching and learning strategies. In extract VIII.6, she provides the student with a selection of answers (Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday) from which they have to choose, which I could also observe on several other occasions. She also draws the students' attention to cognates (OBS-1-2), tells them to choose the answer by a process of elimination (OBS-2), reminds them to work step by step (OBS-2), gives them the script of a listening exercise to

help them (OBS-2-5), and encourages them to use a highlighter pen (OBS-5) to single out the information of the following text:

7 Read

Look at the pictures, read the article and write the colours.

Clothes in London

People in Britain wear all kinds of clothes – London is one of the world's centres for fashion. But some people wear special clothes when they're at work. Here are some examples.

5 In London you sometimes see British policemen with tall blue hats or helmets – they're the traditional British 'bobbies'. But these days, police officers in Britain usually wear black and white hats. They also wear black trousers and shoes, and white shirts.

10 In front of Buckingham Palace you can see the soldiers who guard the Palace and the Queen. They're called Coldstream Guards, and they wear their famous uniform of red jacket, black trousers and shoes, and a big black hat. (The hat is called a Busby.) The guards are also famous because they stand very still and never smile or talk!

15 In the business centre of London, you hardly ever see the traditional 'city gent' with his dark clothes and black bowler hat. Now, men who work in the city wear shirts and ties of different colours – but favourite colours are still grey or dark blue for trousers and jackets.

STRATÉGIES DE LECTURE

Lire pour repérer des informations spécifiques

- Trouve la partie du texte qui contient les informations sur chaque photo.
- Cherche les mots clés. Par exemple dans le texte de cet exercice, les mots clés sont des vêtements et des couleurs.

Figure 9 *English in Mind 9e, Workbook (Puchta et al., 2015b, p. 30)*
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In addition, she does not only mime words to help her students guess what they mean (OBS-1-2), but she also uses a lot of drawings. For example, she drew several opposite adjectives (OBS-1), what a bowler hat is (OBS-2), and how to differentiate between pretty and handsome (OBS-5). She explained that when she was herself learning English, her teacher used to draw a lot (INT-12), a strategy that she describes as “anchored” (INT-14), and this is how she justifies the fact that she relies on it as well. She also regularly uses humour and mnemonics to help the students remember some words and expressions:

Extract VIII.7 OBS1-Florence

T: on peut aussi dire que la personne elle est petite, elle est courte sur pattes, si ça peut vous aider à vous en souvenir, d'accord ? (les élèves rient) elle est courte sur pattes, elle est short. ok ?

T: we can also say that the person is short, short-legged, if it can help you remember, ok? (the students laugh) she is short-legged, she is short. ok?

In the second class I observed, she had planned to do a listening exercise from the workbook (as illustrated in Figure 10) about two people in a clothes shop.

6 Listen

▶ CD3 T15 Listen to a girl in a shop and **circle** the correct answers.

Shopping for clothes

1 The girl wants a ...	a dress	b shirt	c sweatshirt
2 It's ...	a black	b grey	c green
3 It costs ...	a £54	b £45	c £49
4 She wants size ...	a 10	b 12	c 16
5 She tries on ...	a a top	b trousers	c a skirt

Figure 10 *English in Mind 9e, Workbook (Puchta et al., 2015b, p. 30)*
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I could notice that she spent a lot of time on the pre-listening activity, asking them to read the answers provided, eliciting chunks that they could expect to hear as well as words that would probably be used in the dialogue. The following extract shows how she uses humour to elicit the question 'can I...?':

Extract VIII.8 OBS2-Florence

T: et vous, vous vous souvenez quel genre de question on retrouve dans les magasins ? vous je vous dis toujours que vous êtes des petites [*and you, do you remember what type of questions are used in shops? I always tell you that you are little*]

Ss: canailles /kanaj/ [*rascals*]

T: canaille, donc [*so*] 'can I' /kæn aɪ/ (she writes it on the board)

In the stimulated recall interview, she told me that she finds it important to prepare the students carefully before a listening exercise to contextualise the activity. In her view, giving them the opportunity to reactivate their knowledge about a topic is one way of getting the students into condition (SR23-16). She also explained that she prepares the exercises with the students for the following reasons:

Extract 8.11 SR23-Florence-12

pour être sûre d'obtenir aussi le plus de réussite, qu'ils se sentent à l'aise, et pas qu'ils souffrent pendant l'écoute

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to ensure I obtain as much success as possible, to ensure they feel comfortable and do not suffer while they are listening

This shows that she uses scaffolding as a way to keep her students on board and to give them a chance to do well, this is why I assume that it is one of her enacted beliefs.

Furthermore, she stated that this kind of anticipation stimulates weaker students to participate, which she finds extremely positive:

Extract 8.12 SR23-Florence-16

et tout le monde participe et ça ouvre la porte à la participation à un plus grand nombre d'élèves, les questions sont plus ouvertes, donc même les élèves en difficulté peuvent participer de manière très active. donc eux ils apprécient, et ils sont mis en valeur, et tout le monde y trouve son compte

and everybody participates and it encourages even more students to participate, the questions are more open, so even low achievers can participate in a very active way. they consequently like it, and they are valued, and everybody benefits from it

Extracts 8.11 and 8.12 illustrate how much she cares about her students. The observations allowed me to see that effective teaching strategies are not the only principles that she implements in class to help and guide them. Like Mary, she absolutely wants to keep the students going and consequently pays attention to the pre-requisites they need in order to complete the tasks successfully. As a result, she does not only focus on strategies, but more generally on anticipating probable difficulties and on scaffolding. By thinking ahead and by using her experience, she can anticipate and avoid many problems the students might have had otherwise. To foster this sense of achievement though, I noticed that Florence uses a lot of French. Indeed, while the main activities are conducted in English, the pre-tasks and the strategy awareness activities are mainly in French, a language that she thinks her students find reassuring (SR23-6). Therefore, while she speaks English fluently, it seemed to me that she used it much less than Mary in class. On the other hand, she manages to have her students work in a very effective way, both in writing and orally, individually, in pairs or in groups, and this applies to both high and low achievers in contrast to Mary who mainly focused on the latter. An example of differentiation is given in the following section whose emphasis is on the classroom atmosphere where respect and the right to make mistakes prevail.

8.2.3 The classroom as a place for dialogue: respect in class and the right to make mistakes

I noticed during the observations that Florence is very inclusive and keeps reminding her students that it is allowed to make mistakes. In the following extract, she gave one of her weak students the opportunity to give an answer but he remained silent despite her encouragements:

Extract VIII.9 OBS1-Florence

T: which drawing means dark, what do you think X ?

S: xxxx

T: dark, correct, which one means fat, fat, X ? fat, what do you think ? you may try, ne t'inquiète pas si tu te trompes, c'est pas grave [*don't worry if you make a mistake, it's ok*]. try something, which one would you say ? fat ? (the student remains silent) même si tu te trompes c'est pas grave du tout X ! [*even if you make a mistake it is completely fine!*]

Similarly, she addressed the whole class after the listening exercise presented in Figure 10 in 8.2.2 to ask them whether they needed to listen to the track a third time to complete the exercise successfully:

Extract VIII.10 OBS2-Florence

T: vous voulez une 3^e écoute ? [*who needs to listen a 3rd time?*] who needs a 3rd time ? qui a besoin d'une 3^e écoute, on a le droit de dire, vous vous souvenez ? [*who needs to listen a third time, you are allowed to say it, do you remember?*] nobody ? sure ? X, no ? ok, we are gonna try to find the answers

The enacted belief underpinning these two episodes as well as other very similar ones might be that in her view, a classroom is a place where everyone must feel comfortable and treated with respect (INT-68). For her, it appears that the right every student has to be heard is associated to the fact that making mistakes is part of the learning process, and that students should not be judged for their mistakes. For this reason, she explained that she also makes sure low achievers have an opportunity to participate in class. Talking about the fact that she asked a dyslexic student to read a text aloud in class, she said:

Extract 8.13 SR1-Florence-20

y'a pas de moquerie, pas de jugement, j'ai vraiment insisté là-dessus pour que les élèves soient sympas, et je trouve que ça fonctionne bien

there is no shaming, not judgment, I really insisted on that to make sure the students are nice and I think that it is working well

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The observations allowed me to identify several episodes where she encouraged some students apparently weak to take part in the lesson actively, helping them as much as she could to give them a feeling of achievement. To do so, she also plans mixed-ability exercises as for example during the fifth observation where only advanced students had to give a short oral presentation on famous people while the other ones were listening for cultural information (SR45-4). At the end of the lesson again, she handed out two different worksheets, downloaded from the resource pack, for a same listening activity. In the stimulated recall interview, she explained that these exercises designed for heterogeneous classes generally reward weaker students because they can participate as much, if not more, than stronger ones (SR45-30), which is a way to be respectful to all of them.

8.2.4 Implementation of *English in Mind* and the PER

Concerning Florence's view on the new curriculum, she acknowledges that even though it is essential for the teachers to have a thread to follow, harmonising too much is "killing creativity" (INT-32) according to her. She mentions for examples that she prefers to design her own warm-up activities and decide how to introduce them instead of relying entirely on the teacher's book (fieldnotes).

Similarly, whereas all the interviewed participants praised the new course book EiM that follows the curriculum (as explained in 3.4.5), Florence does not like the fact that most of the teachers seem to follow it quite strictly to make sure they reach the curriculum objectives. I found her account particularly enlightening given that she is the only interviewee who actually questioned the advantages of working with teaching materials that support the curriculum, as this extract illustrates:

Extract 8.14 INT-Florence-58

si tout le monde suit le même programme, ça fait des cours très uniformisés et moi j'estime qu'on a chacun une personnalité différente, alors je trouve ça très très bien peut-être que des enseignants qui ont besoin d'être très cadrés ça les rassure de suivre à la lettre chaque exercice et chaque suggestion, mais moi je crains un petit peu l'enfermement, pis j'ai besoin d'avoir une liberté mais ça m'empêche pas d'y revenir

if everybody follows the same syllabus, the courses are very standardised, and I personally hold the view that everybody has a different personality. I find it very good that some teachers who need a structure are reassured thanks to it, and

follow each exercise and each suggestion to the letter, but I am afraid this might bring some limitations, as for me, I need some freedom but it does not prevent me from coming back to it

What Florence demands here is the right for teachers to express their personality in planning their teaching. For example, she regrets that they do not have the time to talk more extensively about the cultural aspects presented in the course book (INT-34), and admits that she had spent a whole period on the American presidential elections because she “could not do differently” (INT-32). She conceded that once she is more familiar with the new teaching materials, and has gained some experience working with it, she hopes to find her own “operating mode” (INT-38) that is aligned with the curriculum. She claims to know it very well thanks to her didactics training where they insisted on it a lot (INT-36). Moreover, she looks forward to knowing what the programme of the three years of lower secondary school is to have a better overall understanding (INT-46). For the time being though, she said that she abstained from teaching the way she would like because she felt like she had to teach following EIM and the curriculum (INT-36).

Coming back to Florence’s beliefs, it would appear that she believes in the fact that differences should be valued and enhanced rather than minimised. As following a book to the letter does not provide the teacher with much space for personal choices, she admitted to feel quite “frustrated” (INT-34-36-44). This need to acknowledge differences applies to both teachers, who according to her should be allowed some more freedom in their teaching, as well as to students, as she explained:

Extract 8.15 INT-Florence-28

j’ai de la peine à me dire qu’il faut que tous les élèves apprennent les mêmes choses, les mêmes textes parce que j’ai pas envie d’en faire des petits robots et finalement s’ils arrivent dans une entreprise plus tard et qu’ils ont tous exactement les mêmes compétences ils pourront moins se compléter que si quelqu’un, même s’il a suivi le même cursus scolaire mais qu’il a eu des entrées différentes

I have difficulty in telling myself that all the students should learn the same things, the same texts because I do not feel like making little robots, and if they finally work in a company later and all have exactly the same skills, they will not be able to complement each other as well as if somebody, even with the same education, was taught differently

Here again, she puts forward the fact that the ultimate objective is to prepare the students for their working life, and that this can best be achieved by promoting diversity at school. This really seems to mean a lot to her, and she reported to have insisted in class

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as well. She said that she had told the students to respect each other, telling them that different people have different skills which allow them to complement each other (SR1-18).

8.2.5 Summary

Florence's stated belief about her role as a teacher, which is to guide the students and lead them to the answers, seem to be key and to guide her practices, therefore I would argue that it is a core belief. The peripheral beliefs associated to this one would be those underpinning the fact that she implements various informal strategies (visual aids, humour, mnemonics), elicitation, anticipation, and scaffolding to provide them with the necessary tools to meet the objectives of the activities she sets up. She also establishes an atmosphere of respect in her class, which is likely to reflect her second role as a teacher, that of helping her students to develop themselves. The observations showed that this can best be achieved by careful planning and by respecting the students' differences as well as difficulties.

Regarding her beliefs about the role of English, I showed that she is very much aware of the world of work and that she wants to teach them English for everyday life as well as for their future job, which also seems to be a core belief. This seems to be why she therefore relies on the effectiveness of repeating the date and time every day at the beginning of the class. For this reason, she finds it frustrating to follow the curriculum because it harmonises the practices while she would like to have more freedom. Indeed, she wishes she could cover the programme according to her own agenda, spending time on facts that she finds relevant or on what she feels students need. She could potentially do it, and I think that this belief is a limiting one because nobody actually prevents her from taking some liberties. Therefore, I would argue that she compromises on her belief about the right to express her personality as a teacher to follow the course book and syllabus.

Having observed several teachers using EiM though, I can say that the courses are far from being "standardised", as Florence emphasises in extract 8.15. Indeed, some include mixed-ability exercises, some pair/group work, some activities with the computers or iPads, and others do not. Additionally, the teachers prepare, introduce and run the activities differently, with means that the outcomes of a single lesson, and hence unit, can vary a lot from one class to the next. Consequently, I would say that even if she complies

at the macro level, following the course book and syllabus, I could definitely see her own personal touch in class. While she now follows the course book, she gave me the impression that once she knows the entire lower secondary school materials, she might take a few liberties, which might reconcile her beliefs and reduce the tensions between them. Finally, it appeared that some of her beliefs, the use of strategies and the importance to prepare the students for the job market for example, can be connected to her own training and experience.

8.3 Concluding remarks

The objective of this chapter was to present and understand some of the teachers' observed practices thanks to the analysis of their stated and enacted beliefs, and to describe their relationship. I only focused on what I felt was of particular importance to them since I wanted to show their identity in action. The beliefs I have presented in the present chapter were uncovered in two different ways. On the one hand, the teachers sometimes insisted on a specific aspect during the interview, and I realised afterwards, during the observations, that it was indeed something that largely influenced their teaching, so I looked at the stimulated recall interviews to see how they justified it. On the other hand, I also noticed that while I was coding the observations, I had to create some new nodes for each observed teacher. Since some nodes were particularly salient for some participants, which seemed to indicate that they were teaching following a particular pattern. I therefore decided to pay attention to what seemed to be important features of their personality as teachers, as Appendix T illustrates. It contains a table of Mary's and Florence's salient practices and beliefs as well as the way I identified them.

By analysing these two participants' practices and the beliefs underpinning their actions, I could gain an insight about the reasons why they teach the way they do and show their complexity, which is important for a better understanding of the case under study. As shown in Appendix T, it is thanks to the observations that I was able to uncover most of the teachers' beliefs. I would consequently argue that I made the right methodological choice when I decided to include observations in my research design (discussed further in 9.1.3). Furthermore, I would add that another advantage of using observations is that it allows the researcher to make assumptions about how beliefs are organised. It is impossible to know for sure, but I would say that both Mary and Florence believe in their

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students' ability, which in turn encourages them to boost their weaker students to keep them going. To do so, Mary insists on vocabulary, pronunciation, and repetition in class. As for Florence, she scaffolds and uses strategies to help them overcome potential difficulties. What these two teachers believe their students' needs are also influence their practices. For Mary, the students need to learn English to speak with native speakers, hence the importance of pronunciation, while for Florence it is mainly to prepare them for the job market and for their life in general, hence the need to value and respect their differences.

The participants' beliefs about the role of English and about their role as teacher mentioned earlier, as well as their beliefs about their students' ability and needs seem to be core and overarching beliefs encompassing other associated ones that were directly observable in their practices. This would then confirm the fact that beliefs are organised in belief systems, and that core beliefs are more general beliefs (discussed further in 9.1.2). In this analysis, the core beliefs mentioned are invisible, impossible to observe, and had to be deducted from observed practices and their underpinning beliefs that happened to be peripheral. In other words, while a teacher can compromise on the effectiveness of repetition for example, they would be far less inclined to compromise on their own role (discussed further in 9.2.1). What this chapter has shown is also that some beliefs that were stated in the interviews were at the same time enacted ones, driving teachers' actions as for example Mary's pronunciation. The relationship between beliefs and observed practices is therefore a complex one that is worth analysing.

Regarding the role of training and experience, on which we will come back in the discussion in 9.3, Mary, who does not know the PER very well, finds it very convenient to follow the book page by page. As for Florence, she puts forward the fact that she has heard so much about the curriculum during her training at the teacher training college that she considers knowing it well enough to be entitled to deviate from the book, which she has not allowed herself to do very often so far. It appears then that she follows the official curriculum and course book slightly against her will, which might change once she knows the whole programme better. This seems to confirm the quantitative results (from 6.1.4 and 6.2.4) according to which teachers need some time to get used to a new course book before departing from it. This is not the case of Ellen, who is another participant I observed, and whose profile is very similar to Florence's. One of the main differences

between them is that Ellen happily substitutes some exercises from the book with her own activities without feeling bad about it, and it works very well because the activities she chooses aim at the same objectives as the ones in the book and her lessons are extremely well prepared. These results also link with section 7.2.2 where we saw that teachers react differently to the curriculum, departing from it with various degrees of freedom, which results in the fact that there is a gap between the intended official and hidden enacted curriculum (discussed further in 9.2.1.1). Finally, the analysis also showed that Florence is a confident language user, which however does not necessarily show through in class where she uses French quite a lot, whereas Mary is still on a trajectory of development, trying to gain some confidence in her language use and teaching, on which we will also come back in 9.2.1.3 and 9.3.

Chapter 9 Discussion

The present chapter discusses the results from both the quantitative and qualitative analyses and brings them in relation to discussions raised in earlier research regarding the conceptualisation of beliefs (Ch.2), the implementation of a curricular change and teacher change (Ch.3), as well as to additional issues that arose during the analyses. Since the findings are structured around themes and research methods, I have decided to organise this chapter around the research questions presented in 4.1. As a result, I start by focusing on the teachers' beliefs, their conceptualisation and relationship to practices (9.1). Then I move on to the influence of these beliefs on the new curriculum implementation (9.2) before addressing the role played by training and experience in the development of teacher expertise (9.3). I acknowledge that there is overlap between these different themes but aim to cluster them in order to present clear responses to the original research questions. I would also like to add that some new references will be introduced in this discussion chapter. Indeed, while the literature presented in Chapters 2 and 3 informed my starting point for conducting this research, it appeared that the discussion would benefit from some extra references related to the results obtained.

9.1 Characteristics of teachers' beliefs and their relationship to practices

The first two research questions addressed the beliefs teachers hold about learning, teaching and the curriculum, as well as the extent to which beliefs and practices inform each other in a context of change. To answer these questions, the complex nature of beliefs (see 2.2.1, 2.2.2, 2.2.6) was taken into consideration and various types of beliefs were explored thanks to a questionnaire, interviews, stimulated recall interviews (stated, conscious beliefs), and observations (enacted, attributed beliefs). In this section, I first focus on the wide variety of beliefs about learning and teaching that the study has brought to light (9.1.1) before going on with the conceptualisation of beliefs (9.1.2). Finally, the complex relationship between beliefs and practices is addressed (9.1.3).

9.1.1 Teachers' beliefs about learning and teaching

The quantitative findings and the factor analysis in particular (6.1.1) revealed four main areas of beliefs: General Methodological Variety (F1), Planning and Methodological Choices Regarding Language Teaching (F2), Focus on Meaning (F3), and finally Communication in the Classroom (F4). As mentioned in 6.2.1, the factors that emerged from the data analysis do not correspond to Kissau et al.'s (2012) grouping of the questionnaire items nor to the subscales of their questionnaire. The clusters that were revealed thanks to the factor analysis are indeed quite different from those of the original questionnaire. This might partly be because their questionnaire was slightly modified (some items were removed, others added) and translated. However, the most plausible reason could lie within the context-dependent nature of beliefs and the idea that different beliefs might be activated in different environments, as previously hypothesised (Fives & Buehl, 2012; Skotte, 2015). This suggests that caution should be exercised when a questionnaire on beliefs designed for a specific context is then used elsewhere.

The thematic analysis of the interviews, stimulated recall interviews and observations revealed some other and more detailed stated and enacted beliefs about the curriculum (7.2, 8.2.4), the four skills, assessment (7.3.1, 7.4.1), classroom management (7.4.2, 8.2.1), experience (7.4.1, 8.1.3) and training (7.4.1.2, 7.3.2), second language acquisition, knowledge and use of the language (7.1.2, 8.1.1), lesson planning (7.3.1), teachers' roles (7.1.1), the use of resources (7.3.1, 8.2.4), strategies (8.2.2), students' characteristics (8.1.2), affective factors and feelings (8.2.3) and teaching principles (8.1.1, 8.1.2, 8.2.1) (see Appendix Q for a detailed list of nodes). I would argue that the emergence of these diverse beliefs compares well with previous results in the field (Tamimy, 2015) although the present findings differ to some extent with Bell's (2005), Liao's (2007), as well as Zhang and Liu's (2014) studies that also found beliefs about corrective feedback, self-efficacy and students' roles respectively.

All in all, without any surprise, this research project confirmed the existence of a wide variety of general beliefs about learning and teaching providing additional support to previous studies. However, the most remarkable result to emerge is the evidence that teacher beliefs seem to be shaped by training and experience. This highlights just how important these two factors are, as further addressed in 9.3. Moreover, given the central

role of beliefs pertaining to the implementation of the new curriculum, the teachers' roles and the role of English, I have decided to discuss them specifically in 9.2. I now turn to emphasising the relevance of acknowledging the complex organisation and nature of beliefs when researching them.

9.1.2 Conceptualising teachers' beliefs

This study has revealed the complexity of the belief system organisation, the dynamic nature of beliefs as well as the importance of differentiating between central and peripheral ones, as discussed below.

9.1.2.1 The dynamic nature of beliefs and belief change

The questionnaire results indicated that teachers with different backgrounds held beliefs with different strengths (6.1.3), which was confirmed by the analysis of the observations (Ch.8). This corroborates the theoretical assumption that beliefs are organised in systems and that their importance depends on their location within these systems (see 2.2.2, 2.2.4; T. Green, 1971; Rokeach, 1968). Figure 11 and its 'orbit' metaphor aims at providing a visual representation of the way I conceptualise beliefs. The core belief is at the centre while its associated peripheral beliefs are moving around it. This figure illustrates the dynamic nature of beliefs, showing that a belief that is core in a particular context can become peripheral (or the other way round) thanks to training and/or experience.

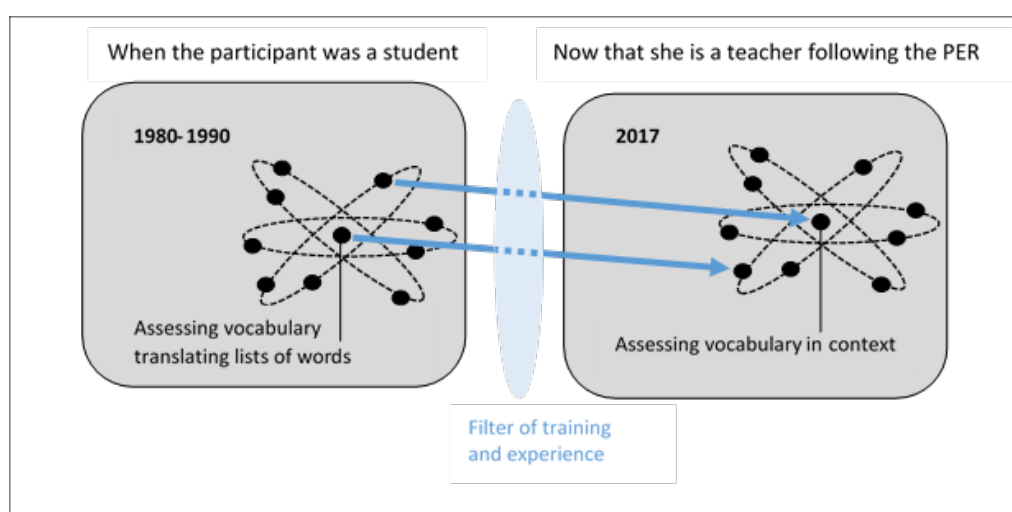


Figure 11 Visual Representation of the Dynamic Nature of Romy's Beliefs About Assessment

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Furthermore, the evidence (7.3.5) suggested that the weight (Borg, 2018) of a particular belief may change at a given time, hence the blue arrows above illustrating that a core belief can become peripheral to give way to a more powerful one. The dynamic nature of teachers' beliefs as presented by Fives and Buehl (2012) is therefore also confirmed.

In addition, the evidence demonstrated that beliefs can change (7.3) but that it is not a straightforward process. In 7.3.2.1, I reviewed different examples of belief perseverance where some teachers reported not to have changed their practices at all because the influence of their own experience as learners was too strong (Pajares, 1992), even though the context was favourable. An exception to this was Louise, who now teaches vocabulary in context although she still assesses it using translation, which could be regarded as an "elaboration" (Kang & Cheng, 2014) since she refined her existing belief, or an "addition" (Cabaroğlu & Roberts, 2000), an incorporation of a new belief. There is also evidence that the teachers' awareness (7.3.2.2) was raised in different ways, thanks to the teaching material, teaching experience, pre-service training, or in-service training. The participants' growing awareness influenced their beliefs and sometimes also their practices, as for example Cathy, who realised that asking the students to copy down the grammar and the vocabulary had become a waste of time given that everything was provided in their course book and language builder. This constitutes a "pseudo change" in Cabaroğlu and Roberts' (2000) terms. It means that the belief (about the necessity to have everything in writing) is kept, but that it no longer guides her practices since the context has changed. I would argue that "pseudo" indicates that it is not a real change since only the practices are altered, not the belief behind it in that case. The example of Joel, who understands during his teaching experience that rote memorisation and translation are not efficient ways of learning for all his students, illustrates what has been labelled "disagreement" (Cabaroğlu & Roberts, 2000). In this case, a new belief is formed once one realises that the old one does not work. Spillane et al. (2002, pp. 418-419) refer to it as "dissonance, or dissatisfaction" since in this case the change of belief is prompted by a realisation that "an existing model" is inefficient. Feryok (2010) goes even further and highlights the importance of professional training as a factor that can foster "cognitive dissonance" (p. 277) in the sense that teachers who are willing to implement some new teaching principles in class expose themselves to this tension that might result in awareness and belief change, ultimately triggering new practices. A good example of this was Ellen (in

7.3.2), who reported a “re-ordering” (Cabaroğlu & Roberts, 2000) of beliefs, where teaching according to communicative approaches was suddenly prioritised over a more traditional method thanks to her 3-year didactics training. This professional development made her aware of alternatives to what she had herself gone through as a student. With hindsight, I realise that categorising these different types of belief change is not as interesting as identifying what can trigger such changes, and, more importantly, that it might not do justice to their complexity.

Taking in a new teaching approach is challenging and constitutes an effort in the sense that it implies a restructuring of existing beliefs and practices, and the risk is that implementing agents simply reduce the new ideas into “minor variations of what is already understood rather than as different in critically important ways.” (Spillane et al., 2002, p. 396) The perceived difference is consequently too small to lead to a proper change of practices. This seemed to occur once in the data (7.3.1), when Anna diminished the importance of changes required by the new curriculum and course book, twisting the information so that her existing beliefs could stay unaffected (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 22). Indeed, we saw in 2.2.5 and 3.2 that accommodation and assimilation (Nisbett & Ross, 1980) are required for a successful implementation of change. It could also be that Anna was already teaching following the new requirements, or that she was immunised against change, seeing it as a coping strategy as Hiver and Dörnyei (2017, p. 419) explain:

While, language teacher immunity is a useful defence mechanism that allows L2 teachers to function in a hopeful and constructive way, maladaptive immunity may be a leading factor which inhibits teacher change and growth, and contributes to the pervasive conservatism and rigidity in the language teaching profession.

In their view, immunity is indeed a way to cope with the stress and challenges that come with the profession (p. 406).

The examples provided in 7.3.3 regarding a change of behaviour resulting, or not, in a change, of beliefs support Fives and Buehl (2012, p. 489) who argue that it is essential to have some positive experiences in order to trigger a belief change. Conversely, a teacher who tries something new and realises that it does not work, will see their initial belief reinforced (Nisbett & Ross, 1980) and might go back to previous sets of practices, which is exactly what the data illustrated. As for a change of behaviours resulting in temporary beliefs (7.3.4), I would argue that it occurs when teachers are willing to try something

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new in their classes but might not have tested it long enough to make a definitive conclusion, hence these are best considered “transitional beliefs” (Buehl & Beck, 2014, p. 72). In this case, their beliefs might still be as unstable as those of novice teachers who are still constructing and reorganising their belief systems to increase consistency (Fives & Buehl 2012).

To sum up, the results are in general agreement with Borg (2009) since the beliefs and practices of this study exert an influence on each other. More importantly, we have demonstrated that the practices have a decisive role to play to bring about a change of beliefs. Furthermore, the findings offer powerful evidence that belief change is possible, which is in line with previous studies (Borg, 2011; Carless, 1998; Kang & Cheng, 2014; Özmen, 2012). However, one downside here is that the great majority of changes were reported by the participants in the interviews and could only be verified for the teachers observed. This study has also confirmed different types of change first established by Cabaroglu and Roberts’ (2000) taxonomy. It is indeed fundamental to acknowledge that a change is not either present or absent, but that various nuances might offer a better grasp of the phenomenon. As for the greatest hindrance to change, the evidence suggested that it was the participants’ own experience as learners, which will be discussed in 9.3.

9.1.2.2 Core and peripheral beliefs

Overall, the results support the notion that a belief is a subtle construct that cannot be regarded as homogeneous (Borg, 2018). For this reason, different instruments are necessary to access different types of beliefs. Based on the evidence presented, I would argue that the distinction between core and peripheral beliefs, which assumes an organisation of beliefs in systems and attachments to these of different strengths (Pajares, 1992) (see 2.2), is essential in order to get a thorough understanding of the teachers’ practices. The results indeed revealed that the teachers’ philosophy of teaching was shaped by their beliefs about the curriculum (7.2, 9.2.1.1), the teachers’ roles (7.1.1, 9.2.1.2) and the role of English (7.1.2, 9.2.1.3) that all underpinned their practices. These beliefs were core for all the observed teachers at some point, and based on the interviews, likely to have the same powerful influence for the other ones as well. We can see that these beliefs are generic and overarching, which corroborates previous findings

where core beliefs were found to be about learning in general (Phipps & Borg, 2009), and about EFL teaching objectives and learning processes (H. Zheng, 2013). X. Zheng and Borg (2014, p. 218) also found that the teachers' implementation of a task-based curriculum was influenced by "their beliefs about aspects of language teaching and learning", even though they did not refer to them as core.

The analysis of the classroom observations further demonstrated that individual teachers also held some personal core beliefs that were uniquely connectable to their training and experience (as was the case with Mary in Ch.8). This contrasts with Gabillon's theoretical framework (2012) where core beliefs are social and explicit as opposed to peripheral ones that are personal and implicit. Indeed, some core beliefs were shared by several teachers (7.1, 7.2, 8.1.2, 8.2.2) while other more personal core beliefs were not, as for example the role of pronunciation and vocabulary for Mary (8.1.1), which was only core for her because of her difficult experiences as a language learner.

It is also worth mentioning that these core and peripheral beliefs are triggered and prioritised according to context (Borg, 2003), as exemplified in Figure 11 (in 9.1.2.1) and 12 (9.2.1). This characteristic, combined with the fact that they are dynamic and organised in clusters (2.2.3), makes the analysis of beliefs using the core-peripheral dichotomy very complicated. As a matter of fact, it seems impossible to produce a mental map of somebody's beliefs using this distinction since different beliefs might be core in different contexts. This refers to their dynamic nature and to the fact that they are context-dependant. Thus, there seem to be some kind of uncertainty and fuzziness that the researcher has to accept when researching teacher beliefs.

Regarding the tensions that might arise between beliefs, the empirical evidence supports the claim that depending on the combination of certain beliefs, these can variously either co-exist well or oppose each other according to the situation where they are activated. Teachers are therefore conflicted, as the evidence has shown on several occasions. When there were the American elections, Florence did not feel like following the curriculum anymore, which created a tension between her core beliefs. Indeed, it was important for her to cover the news in class but she also firmly believed that she had to follow the course book. In this instance of conflicting beliefs, one (following the course book) was relegated to the level of peripheral one and her core belief that it was essential to present

this cultural event to her students took the lead, which concurs with Zheng's (2013) findings. As a result, a belief can potentially be either core or peripheral, and then consequently either fixed or dynamic, it all depends on the context that activates them and on the tensions between them (Basturkmen, 2012). This corroborates the statement made by Kalaja and Barcelos (2003, p. 26) regarding belief systems that are regarded as "not linear or structured, but complex and embedded within sets of beliefs forming a multi-layered web of relationships", and this is exactly why it is difficult to untangle them and to go to the bottom of their organisation.

To sum up, it is essential to acknowledge the multifaceted nature of beliefs, the fact that they are organised in clusters with different weight and that their relationships fluctuate depending on the context. Then the reasons why apparently conflicting beliefs can co-exist and why beliefs and practices do not always match become more apparent, and I next discuss the implications this has for research.

9.1.3 Researching teachers' beliefs and practices

Apart from the reciprocal influence of beliefs and practices mentioned in 9.1.2.1, I would argue that their relationship should also be problematized with respect to methodology. Unlike other researchers (Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Farrell & Ives, 2015), I took the non-linearity of the belief-practice relationship (Hopkins, 2016) into account and did not use the participants' stated beliefs as predictors of their practices. Instead, I let their enacted beliefs emerge from the observations, what only a few researchers have done so far (see for example Watson 2015). The main benefit of this research design is that it uncovers a lesser number of discrepancies, as recently highlighted by Borg (2018), since teachers' practices are explained in relation to their attributed belief and not the other way round. Another advantage is that beliefs and practices are explored together, in context.

The participants' observation provided insights into how they would implement their beliefs in class, and often, clusters of beliefs (i.e. patience, scaffolding, grading difficulties, positive feedback, mixed ability activities) as well as the corresponding overarching individual core belief (importance of fostering student autonomy for Ellen for example) only became apparent since their practices were taken as a starting point. This backs up Buehl and Beck's statement (2015) that beliefs, depending whether their role is to filter, frame or guide (Fives & Buehl, 2012), might not easily be observable in class since they do

not directly underpin actions. In this particular example, Ellen helped her students become autonomous by applying various teaching principles tending towards this objective. I would argue that a focus on practices helps the researcher understand how particular beliefs are implemented, and how strongly these beliefs are held by the participants.

It is also fundamental to note that the salient aspects of the teachers' practices could only be identified since a sufficient number of classroom observations were conducted. In the last decade, researchers have used different numbers of observations in their studies about beliefs and practices as summarised at the end of 4.2.1. In this research project, it is only after the analysis of at least four observations that a particular teacher could start to be seen as both unique and similar to other participants. The extra one or two classroom observations would only help me confirm the attributed beliefs (Borg, 2015a). For this reason, the three participants who were not observed for more than four lessons were not chosen as cases in Chapter 8. Some recent studies (Liviero, 2017; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2016) rely on only two observations, which should be regarded as a limitation in my view. My point here is that the teachers' core beliefs underpinning their classroom practices seem to become visible after at least four observations. In other words, my data analysis suggests that a certain number of observations is needed before the teachers' beliefs are evidenced.

Thus, the data analysis demonstrated that there is a certain advantage of taking observations as a starting point provided that enough observations are conducted. Indeed, it enables the researcher to avoid separating beliefs and practices that are complexly intertwined, and these can more successfully be investigated in context. I will next focus on the most powerful of their beliefs, those that seemed to influence the way the participants implemented the curriculum.

9.2 Curriculum implementation

The third research question asked about the role of the teachers' beliefs in shaping the implementation of the new curriculum. In this study, three beliefs that were key and consequently also very influential for all the participants observed were identified: the teachers' beliefs about the curriculum (9.2.1.1), about their roles as teacher (9.2.1.2) and

the role of English (9.2.1.3). I am now going to discuss them as well as some other beliefs that acted as limiting the curriculum implementation (9.2.2).

9.2.1 Core beliefs influencing curriculum implementation

For greater clarity, Figure 12 illustrates the three core beliefs emerging from the study situated in their context, and their influence on the implementation of the intended curriculum. Whereas the teacher’s role is mainly activated in class (7.1.1), the evidence demonstrated that the role of the curriculum was often decided at the school level by teachers collaborating together (7.2.2), while the role of English is embedded in the greater cantonal context (7.1.2). The findings additionally showed that these beliefs were mainly developed through experience acting as a filter shaping them, and to a much lesser extent through training.

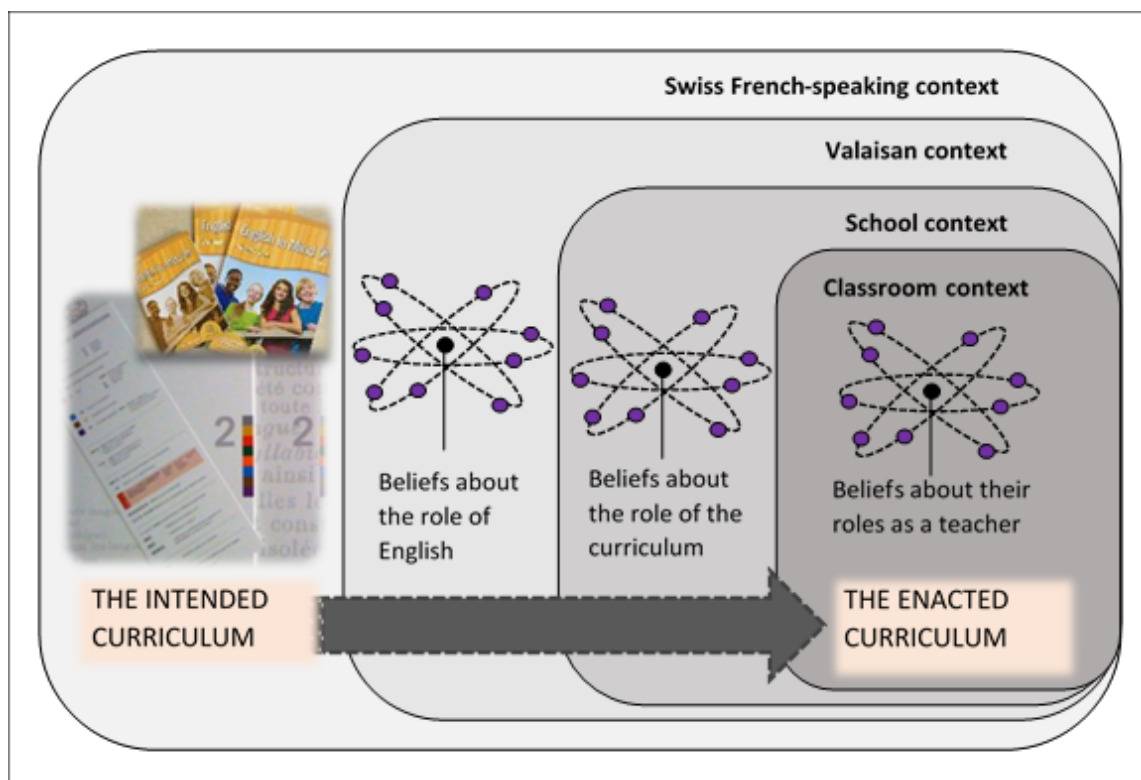


Figure 12 Key Core Teacher Beliefs Situated in Their Context and Through Which the Intended Curriculum Becomes the Enacted Curriculum

In their framework presenting supports and hindrances pertaining to the belief-practice relationships, Buehl and Beck’s (2015) also take into account the district and national levels, which would not make much sense here. As for Beacco et al. (2010), they recommend not to forget the individual level when analysing the different dimensions of

curriculum implementation, which would correspond to the personal characteristics of individual teachers, namely to their training and experience among others. Next, I explore the key issues related to these three core beliefs.

9.2.1.1 Teacher beliefs about the curriculum

Apart from beliefs about learning and teaching, the study also sheds light on how the teachers conceptualise the curriculum. Both the quantitative (Ch. 6) and qualitative findings (7.2) demonstrated that the syllabus is more important than the curriculum. Indeed, most of the teachers reported to rely on something more local than the PER for their long- and medium-term planning. This concurs well with Smith and Southerland's study (2007, p. 418) whose findings suggest that teachers make sure they cover the content as required by official documents (the cantonal syllabus) but do not necessarily follow them about how to teach (the PER).

Beliefs about the curriculum during the transition phase

Regarding the fact that the curriculum and course book were not aligned for several years, the five scenarios of section 7.2.2 illustrated that different teachers and schools had different ways to deal with this phase of transition. This supports Snyder et al.'s (1992) theoretical perspectives outlined in 3.3.2 and Shaver's findings (2010) regarding the teachers' ways to implement a curriculum in particular. The five scenarios that emerged from the interviews indeed cover a broad spectrum of possibilities regarding the implementation of the curriculum and use of the textbook, which was confirmed by the observations. For example, Mary and Anja seem to act as curriculum-transmitters since they follow the book linearly and therefore approach the content in a very predictable way. Their practices aligned with Shaver's curriculum-transmission strategies, apart from the fact that Mary does not rely on the teacher's book very much. As for the five other observed participants, they can all be regarded as what Shaver called curriculum-developers. I would however prefer to use the word curriculum-adapters because the final official curriculum has been set out by the authorities, and the teachers might adapt, but not develop it. Labelling the Valaisan teachers following it with some flexibility developers might suggest that the curriculum is still under construction, which is not the case. Finally, a participant who reported to be designing his own material could be categorised as curriculum-maker (7.2.2.E), but since he ensured that the objectives from

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the PER were reached, it was not a completely bottom-up process. The findings also confirmed that several teachers, at the individual level, built on the materials and only used them as a scaffold once familiar with them, which aligns with P. Grossman and Thompson (2008).

Through the analysis, it appeared that the adaptation approach (Snyder et al., 1992) where the teachers made adjustments to fit their local context, was the most favoured one. These findings also echo Spillane et al.'s framework (2002) where teachers are not only driven by their individual cognition but also by their situated cognition informed by the context. Both the qualitative (7.2) and quantitative (6.1.4) evidence indicated that teachers do not often work in isolation but that they collaborate, either at the school level or in smaller groups, which influenced what they made of the new curriculum, as illustrated by Figure 12 where we can see the significance of the school community and culture. This is in line with Skotte (2015) who emphasised the social aspect of teaching and argued that “classroom practices [...] are social, and not the exclusive outcome of any individual’s actions”(p. 26). The different practices exemplified by the five scenarios could be placed along a continuum. However, this continuum is not as long as the one described by Macalister (2016). Indeed, in his study, the teachers were either completely free at one end, or working towards state exams at the other end, but this is not the case in the context of this research where there are no English state exams. However, different teachers and schools adopted various reactions, hence some discrepancies between the intended curriculum and the enacted one during the transition phase. This has been referred to as “hidden curriculum” (Holliday, 1992, p. 405) whose characteristic is that it empowers teachers to better take their needs and the needs of their students into consideration.

Beliefs about the curriculum since the implementation of EiM

When talking about the curriculum, we are not only taking into consideration the PER, but also the textbooks and teaching materials (see the definitions of curriculum in 3.3). Now that EiM is progressively being introduced in the classrooms, both the curriculum and the course book are aligned and aim at the same objectives. This makes the teacher’s life much easier given that they do not need to juggle two different and opposing documents (as shown by the data in 7.2.2). Empirical studies have yielded quite consistent findings in

regard to the importance of the material in implementing a new curriculum. For example, X. Zheng and Borg (2014) put forward that their three participants followed the detailed guidance on teaching principles of the teacher's book which helped them to implement the desired curriculum. Parent (2011, p. 190) found out that for the Korean middle school teachers, "the book is the curriculum" since they follow it very closely in order to progress together. Likewise, this study confirms that the great majority of the participants relied on both the teacher's book and the textbook (6.1.4, 8.2.4).

However, there is evidence that teachers have their own individual ways of supplementing the course book based on their previous experience (as exemplified by the questionnaire data 6.1.5). It has been demonstrated that they also make materials for achieving good results, which is in contrast to Macalister's (2016) argument that the textbook is often considered as the curriculum and not analysed critically. The contexts are nevertheless different as Macalister refers to teachers working towards tests, which is not the case here. However, some participating teachers strictly followed the course book, and several reasons can be brought forward to explain this phenomenon. First, it could be that they follow it simply because their beliefs appear to be in line with it (Farrell & Ives, 2015). Further options are that they already feel overwhelmed by all the materials provided which demotivates them to include anything else, or that they appreciate being guided by them since the resources provide the activities as well as pedagogical and procedural advice (P. Grossman & Thompson, 2008). Material support is as a matter of fact a great way to reduce workload (Carless, 2003) and assist untrained and inexperienced teachers in particular (Kirkgöz, 2008). It could also be that they want to familiarise themselves with what is at their disposal before moving beyond it (P. Grossman & Thompson, 2008) or that they lack the knowledge and/or resources to design their own activities (P. L. Grossman et al., 1989). Finally, inexperienced teachers might also see it as their duty to "cover the assigned material efficiently and thoroughly" (J. C. Richards & Pennington, 1998, p. 186).

To summarise the evidence, it appeared acceptable practice not to follow the official documents (either PER, syllabus or NH) during the transition phase in particular. Many teachers were indeed guided by something much more local, their school community of teachers and their experience. I would argue that this was made possible given the fact that state lower secondary school teachers of English have a certain amount of freedom

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in the Valais since English is not part of the core subjects, that it is not driven by cantonal examinations and that parents do consequently not exert a powerful influence in this context (as further developed in 9.2.1.3). Since the implementation of EiM, teachers use the course book much more (as demonstrated in 6.1.4) although several of them still follow their school culture of collaborating for tests in particular (as extract 7.36 illustrated). This suggests that the local context exerts a powerful influence and that it should not be undermined when a curricular change occurs. Additionally, granting the teachers some autonomy seems to be positive in the sense that it allows them to make decisions that will benefit the students, a point raised in the implications in 10.1.

9.2.1.2 Teachers' roles

The different teacher's roles taken on by the participants were directly related to the educational goals they were pursuing (as exemplified in 7.1.1, 8.1.1, 8.1.2, 8.2.1, 8.2.2, 8.2.3). While some teachers were oriented towards the students' future, some of these roles were more focused on what happens in class. The data brought evidence that the participants are slowly moving away from the teacher's traditional role of transmitting knowledge (Wedell, 2009), which is present but has not been given priority. The evidence suggested that what really matters in the classroom is the social emotional side of teaching, and it confirmed that teachers have complex roles and are, in turn, providers, planners, managers, controllers, assessors, diagnosticians (Harmer, 2012; Parrot, 1993) but also motivators, entertainers and knowledge transmitters. This is in partial agreement with Barrot's (2016) study where two of the five ESL teachers interviewed also had as an objective to form citizens, and two wanted their students to be able to communicate well. In his study, another participant goal was to develop their students' awareness about the reasons why they use language, which is a role that was not confirmed by the present study. Besides, my findings are partly in line with Nishino (2012) in the sense that the participating teachers also promoted their own individual goals in their classes, and were eager to develop their students' English level and personal development (7.1.1, roles A-B-E). However, it must be noted that the contexts (Japan) and levels (high school) were different. All in all, the analysis of teacher beliefs revealed that they are socially oriented and tend to want the best for their students.

Unlike Ellen who happily teaches using both the communicative approach and some focus on form pedagogy, the data also suggested that some teachers were conflicted because the reform pushed them to focus on communicative competence at the expense of elements that they regarded essential, such as grammar and vocabulary (7.1.1 roles B and E). This corroborates Underwood's (2012) results with Japanese high school teachers who also felt that the implementation of the national curriculum reform was to the detriment of grammar knowledge. My participants all reported to have learnt both German and English in a very accuracy-oriented manner, which is likely to play a role in their understanding of the notions of accuracy and correctness. Another type of conflict originated from the discrepancy between what the teachers wanted to do in class and what they actually did, which was the case of Florence (8.2) who prevented herself from teaching according to what she thought was the best for her students in order to closely follow the new course book. For Buehl and Beck (2015), this might have negative consequences in the long run. As for the correction function, which seemed to be well-established for some of my participants, it seems to have been an obstacle to the implementation of group, pair-work or even games and speaking activities (7.4.2). These types of activities indeed require the teachers to acknowledge that their students can learn without immediate correction and while doing meaning-focussed activities.

The teachers' roles are the visible side of the teachers' underlying views of learning and teaching since they impact on how a lesson is designed, how it progresses and how teacher decisions are made (J. C. Richards, 2017). This raises the importance of classroom management and lesson planning thanks to which teachers can set up effective and student-centred activities required by current teaching methods, which Kiely (2015, p. 208) regards as a new challenge for teachers since the focus has shifted from the knowledge of the language itself (see also 9.3.3). Indeed, this requires some organisational and planning skills that not all the teachers might have depending on their training and experience. A reason that might have prevented the participants to implement certain type of activities is indeed their lack of knowledge about how to do it (Buehl & Beck, 2014), as discussed further in 9.3.1. The teachers' level of English could also play a role here, since if it is not good enough, written activities might be easier to deal with in the classroom. Finally, I would like to add that the teachers' focus on

accuracy does not only depend on how they see their own role, but also on their beliefs regarding the role of English.

9.2.1.3 Role of English

Through the analysis, a striking feature of my findings was the role attributed to English by the participating teachers. Many of them indeed see it as a future high school core subject that will allow their students to succeed in their studies (7.1, 7.3.1). The fact that the participants only mentioned high school –and not any other schools the students could go to and where English would also become a core subject– suggests that they might be highly influenced by their own schooling since the great majority of them actually went to high school. This idea will be developed further in 9.2.2 and 9.3.2 since it is a belief limiting to some extent the implementation of the new curriculum.

The analysis of the participants' view on the role of English showed that the Valaisan teachers are generally aware of the different varieties of English but not all of them acknowledge the “global status of English” (Sifakis & Yasemin, 2018, p. 462), even those who studied English at university level or attended a teacher training college. Indeed, many participants still hold the belief that their students are mainly going to use English with native speakers (as presented in 7.1.2). Furthermore, it seems that the teachers who have stressed the importance of having a good accent and a satisfying level of grammar knowledge in English still regard themselves as language learners as opposed to competent users (Llurda, 2018), and are consequently less confident in their use of the language. It could be the case of Cathy, Mary and Anja, who think that it would be ideal to speak English as natives do, which demonstrates that they still feel like “incomplete learner[s] of standard native English” (Llurda, 2018, p. 520). It must be noted that they neither studied English at university nor attended a teacher training college for teaching English, which might be an underlying reason for their assumption. Consequently, raising awareness to the diverse use of English is something that would be worth adding to the teachers' professional development, as recommended by Dewey and Patsko (2018).

Addressing what lower secondary school students think about foreign languages is also of interest, as this extract demonstrates:

Extract 9.1 INT-Cathy-50

ceux qui savent qu'ils veulent faire un apprentissage ou qui sont en échec scolaire ils voient moins l'intérêt d'apprendre la langue, de connaître l'anglais finalement, exemple s'ils veulent faire maçons, ils se disent "à quoi ça va me servir!"

[the students] who know that they want to do an apprenticeship or those who are failing see less the advantage of learning a foreign language, of knowing English after all. for example if they want to be builders, they ask themselves "what good is this to me!"

Julie (SR1), who works in a school that is quite different in terms of background, said the same about her students. She also reported that they do not like English, do not take it seriously as it is not a core subject, and do not involve themselves deeply, which was confirmed by the observations. This is in line with Copland, Garton and Burns' (2014) study where teachers reported to have to deal with their young learners' lack of motivation about learning English. As for the next extract, it illustrates that English is not necessarily regarded as essential in terms of job and career:

Extract 9.2 INT-Mathieu-14

mais j'ai l'impression, et ça c'est positif, que plus on va de l'avant moins y'a besoin de donner un sens à l'anglais. plus ils sont conscients que l'anglais c'est nécessaire, c'est partout, c'est utile, ça va leur rendre service [...]. les premières années c'était pas comme ça. en plus ici on est dans une vallée, je sentais bien qu'il y avait un discours à la maison qui disait "bof, qu'est-ce que tu veux faire avec cet anglais!"

I have the impression, and it is positive, that as time moves on, the less it is necessary to justify learning English. the more they are aware that English is necessary, that it is everywhere, that it is useful, that they will need it [...]. the first few years it was not like this. moreover, here we are in a valley and I could feel that the discourse at home was "uh, what do you want to do with this English!"

This echoes Spolky's (2009) statement that parents are likely to be influenced by community beliefs regarding which foreign languages are an asset and should be taught depending on the economic success of the latter in a given place. Besides, as Grin (2014) conclusively demonstrates, national languages are more widely spread than English in the professional sphere in Switzerland, a statement that is based on robust studies. So even though some Swiss-German cantons would like English to be given priority over French (Spolsky, 2009, p. 106), the data prove otherwise in the Valais, where it is not "associated with social and economic mobility" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2012, p. 302). In fact, the school context where the data were collected is very local and we are far away from places where

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English is required for wider communication. However, extract 9.2 above is particularly vivid since this teacher, who has been teaching for more than 10 years, has noted a change of attitude through his career regarding the parents' and students' mindset towards English. Beliefs are likely to be changing, but the process seems to be slow.

In the PER, except where English is regarded as a benefit for travelling purposes (2012, p. 59), the focus rather seems to be on the English-speaking world (p. 43) and cultures (p. 45), not acknowledging English as a lingua franca in a sustained way. Teachers showing some sign of native-speakerism (8.1) might be oriented towards the past, when English was mainly used to address native speakers. Finally, it would be very interesting to know who, among the participants, has already experienced some successful interaction in English with non-native speakers, in other words some ELF interaction. Indeed, it seems that this type of experience might help challenge the belief that only people with a more or less native-like pronunciation are intelligible, as a study by Y. Wang and Jenkins (2016) demonstrated.

All in all, beliefs about English, its role, the variety that should be taught and the way to do it best are brought by pupils, parents and teachers into the school system. Some of these beliefs seem to have been generated by the context while some others by the people's training and experience of learning languages, and German in particular.

Regarding the teachers' beliefs, I would say that a larger awareness of the role of English as a lingua franca and some reflective thinking might help them distance themselves from their own experience and be more objective regarding the role of English. Some possible lines of action to reach this objective will be put forward in the conclusion in Chapter 10.

9.2.2 The role of contextual factors and limiting beliefs

In the Valais, lower secondary school teachers have a considerable autonomy, they do not suffer parental pressure and societal expectations regarding English, as it is not a core subject. In addition, they have been offered curricular materials which is an advantage (Carless, 1998). Despite these encouraging external factors, the findings highlighted some beliefs that were completely unexpected in this context and that shaped the implementation of the new curriculum, namely the influence of subsequent high schools, as well as beliefs regarding classroom management (7.4.2).

High-stakes examinations have a powerful influence on the way given curricula are implemented since there is a washback effect in many countries such as Japan (Nishino, 2012), Libya (Orafi & Borg, 2009), and China both at lower and upper secondary schools (Zhang & Liu, 2014; H. Zheng, 2013). Interestingly, even though the contexts are very different, my findings support Underwood's results (2012) regarding the teachers' lack of realistic perspective about what the students do next. Indeed, the Japanese senior high school teachers were keen on using the grammar-translation method to give their students the opportunity to be accepted in a prestigious university, although very few of them applied (apparently only 15 out of 1000). My results similarly provided evidence that there are some shared beliefs at the cantonal level about the need to focus on accuracy and vocabulary to prepare the students to go to high school as mentioned earlier, while only 13% of them¹⁵ took this path in one of the schools where the data were collected. This perception of an accountability towards the students' future was unexpected, but it is in line with studies in other contexts, such as in South Korea, where Parent (2011) demonstrated that in the last year of compulsory education, teachers prepare their students for high school, which appears more justified because 97% of the students actually go to high school.

On the other hand, some teachers applied critical judgment and checked what their students wanted to do after compulsory education, as Cathy (INT-50) who stated that in her class she could spend more time on projects since most of her students would not go to high school. This highlights the pressure the teachers feel of preparing their students for high school even though, if they take this path, there is no English entrance examination. This might be related to the teachers' roles (9.2.1.2) and their need to prepare their students well for the next stage of their education. I would argue that English (a foundation subject) is treated as German (a core subject) here, and that this might be due to the teachers' own experience as learners, which will be discussed in 9.3.2. These high-stakes external examinations appear to exert an influence since previous research found that the teachers had more autonomy where there were no such tests. First, Lam and Kember's (2006) study of secondary school art teachers in Hong Kong

¹⁵ This corresponds to 26 out of 204 students in one of the participating schools at the end of the year when the data were collected.

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illustrated that teachers would teach with more freedom. Second, Watson's (2015) study confirmed that teachers with no such exams had beliefs that actually matches their practices, which might also have been favoured by the way she collected her data, as explained in 4.2.1. Regarding assessment, the results provided evidence (7.2.2, 7.4.2.1) that there are also some shared practices at the school level, emphasising again the social aspect of classroom practices and the role of the context as illustrated by Figure 12 in 9.2.1.

Some other contextual factors affecting teachers' beliefs were presented in 7.4.2, such as time management and class size, and I would argue that these are also limiting beliefs in the context of the present study where teachers are not dealing with large classes and do not have to prepare their students for state exams. Analysing the implementation of a new curriculum in a secondary school class in South Korea, D. Li (1998) discovered that having 48 to 50 students in class prevented the teachers from implementing their beliefs which in turn prevented them from implementing the intended curriculum. In my data, some teachers such as Romy would avoid speaking activities with 20 students to help reduce noise and behavioural problems, which would at the same time allow her to stay in control. To make the most of the context, one of my participants reported to plan communicative activities from the new curriculum with his small groups first to assess what would work well and be "feasible" (INT-Bryan-44) with a class of about 20 students. Regarding time management, this study highlighted that teachers feel pressured by the large amount of resources available or by following the pace set by more experienced colleagues. This is not an isolated case and other studies (Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Parent, 2011; H. Zheng, 2013) had revealed that time constraints could prevent teachers from teaching following their beliefs.

9.2.3 Summary

This study concurs with previous findings where the teachers "filter the content and pedagogy of the new curriculum according to what they felt was feasible and desirable in their context" (Orafi & Borg, 2009, p. 250). Context is thus important (Borg, 2003), yet not as important as what the teachers make of it, how they interpret it, and how they position themselves within their context, what Sanchez and Borg (2014, p. 52) call the "*teacher constructed context*" (original emphasis). Indeed, the findings demonstrated that

the intended curriculum was influenced in a unique way by the teachers' conceptualization of the notion of context as well as by their core beliefs (9.2.1) to become the enacted curriculum (Keys, 2007), as illustrated by Figure 12.

Policies are much more than documents, they are part of a dynamic process where teachers, guided by their beliefs, enliven them in the classroom (Menken & García, 2010). The findings add a nuance to the claim that teachers are the last links of the curricular implementation chain (Parent, 2011; Shohamy, 2006) and point to the necessity of adding the students in the equation since they are also involved in the policy negotiation in class (Menken & García, 2010, p. 1). I would argue that the students' beliefs regarding the role of English and the implementation of change in general cannot be ignored since the way they respond (as seen in 9.2.1.3) is determining as well for the success of the implementation given that they actively participate in the process (Fullan, 2007) in being "potential adopters or resisters" (Markee, 1997, p. 79). In the Valais, cantonal tests are influential (Shohamy, 2006), they impact language priorities and give a higher status to German to the detriment of English, of which parents and students are well aware. It is then possible to differentiate between the teachers' individual and situated cognition (Spillane et al., 2002). Here, I would argue that the former corresponds to the teachers' understanding of the context based on their training and own experience, which, as we have seen, is powerful. As for their situated cognition, it comprises the various social contexts and informal communities outside and inside their school. Blended together, these two sets of cognitions frame the teachers' sense-making in implementation and guide their steps. In other words, they correspond to the teachers' understanding of the various levels of the context (Figure 12). This is aligned with Carless (1998, p. 354), who argues that the contact with colleagues as well as the more general framework in which teachers work, such as "the values and norms of the society", play a determining role.

Finally, the results offered persuasive evidence that there was space for tacit practices in this Valaisan context given the lack of social and test pressure regarding the teaching of English. More significantly, the evidence showed that contextual factors such as class size and time management were not directly influencing the implementation, but the teachers' beliefs about these factors were, which is unprecedented and confirms the role of beliefs that filter information, frame understanding and guide actions (Fives & Buehl, 2012). The analysis further showed that the teachers' decisions to depart, or not, from

the official course book were informed by an attempt to teach according to what they thought good teaching is, which aligns with J. C. Richards (1996, p. 286) who claims that teachers are not simply involved in passing the curriculum content on to their students, but try at the same time to “implement a personal philosophy of teaching.” The teachers were committed to their students, and concerned to teach in the best possible way according not only to their beliefs, but also to their knowledge, training and experience, to which we turn now. This explains why change can hardly be uniform, and “carried out to differing degrees of conformity to the official documents.” (Wedell, 2009, p. 31)

9.3 Teachers’ professional growth

To answer the last research question, this section focuses on teachers’ professional growth to see how their expertise can be developed thanks to training and experience.

9.3.1 Training and the role of knowledge

In contrast with earlier findings (Borg, 2005; Peacock, 2001), it has been established that pre-service training can trigger a belief change thanks to a reflective approach (Busch, 2010) combined with a practicum (Özmen, 2012; Yuan & Lee, 2014). In other cases, pre-service training was found to only reinforce or develop the trainee teachers’ beliefs (Borg et al., 2014). This study is consistent with previous results since the knowledge and awareness gained during pre-service training introduced the student-teachers with some alternatives to what they had so far considered the only truth, hence triggering a welcome change of practices and to some extent of beliefs as well (7.3.2, 7.4.1.2). This restructuring was made possible thanks to constant self-evaluation and reflective practice, two tasks that were required along the practicum, regarded as essential for teacher development (J. C. Richards, 2017) during teacher education programmes. And as Sanchez (2013, p. 53) points out, these practices, present in Swiss teacher training colleges, have positive outcomes and should be generalised. My findings also corroborate Liviero’s (2017) results where a participant’s beliefs changed thanks to the theoretical and practical training provided during the PGCE. It must be noted that the practicum was mentioned several times as a positive experience allowing the trainee teachers to develop their practical knowledge to tackle the classroom challenges (as in 7.4.1.2 for example).

Though I did not make it salient in the data analysis, the results provide evidence that training is important for the knowledge base of teaching as defined by Shulman (1987) in 2.3.1. Indeed, the quantitative findings showed that language teachers share common beliefs, which suggests that training matters (6.1.3, 6.2.3). Thus, the well-spread idea that having a good level of English is enough to be able to teach it as a subject is challenged here. Interestingly, the teachers' training in English was not identified as essential regarding beliefs since the quantitative results showed that the teachers' training in English did not account for any differences in beliefs. However, the observations suggested that teachers who did not study English at university were without exception less confident in their use of the language, which seemed to affect their identity as teachers (J. C. Richards, 2017). Indeed, the participants who were trained English language teachers were more confident than the others.

Certain aspects of pedagogy are transferable and language teachers share some characteristics, which could explain why they held more positive beliefs overall. However, I would argue that PCK (2.3.1) is specific to teaching a particular subject (Abell, 2008), a particular language. Though there is a movement that favours a pluralistic approach to languages and fosters transfers (Daryai-Hansen et al., 2015), the qualitative findings and my observations in particular suggest that there are limits to that (8.1.3). Indeed, being a trained teacher of German or French as a foreign language is not of any help when trying to anticipate the students' difficulties regarding a particular aspect of English, for assessing their level at a given point, or for identifying the pre-requisite needed for a certain task. PCK is not easily transferable given its context-, topic- and person-specific nature (Van Driel & Berry, 2012), and novice teachers need to develop it to gain expertise (Grossman & Thompson, 2008). In her study about the implementation of a new curriculum in Turkish primary education, Kirkgöz (2008) found that though her participants were trained English language teachers, their pedagogical competence was limited to teaching adults and they consequently lacked the knowledge to teach younger learners. I would argue that the same applies to teaching different languages, and the role of training to develop PCK is very relevant and specific, possibly more relevant than assumed.

In-service training has also been regarded as influencing teachers (Borg, 2011), but to various degrees. When we reviewed some example of belief perseverance in 7.3.1, it

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appeared that the teachers could not change their beliefs despite having received a short in-service training when the new curriculum and teaching materials were implemented. This can first be due to the nature of the in-service training that did not 1) take into account the participants' existing beliefs (Sanchez, 2013); 2) help them understand how to apply the new principles in class (Carless, 1999); 3) help them develop positive beliefs towards the new approach (Wilkins, 2008); or let the teachers practice in their classrooms (Wedell, 2009). Alternatively, it can be because their own experience was too influential (Zhang & Liu, 2014). Cathy reported (INT-50) that this training "taught her to do differently", but it must be emphasised that she considered herself ready to embrace the change. Other teachers might need more time and opportunities to reflect on the required changes before embracing them, which might happen with experience.

All in all, it seems that the initial pre-service training did not only equip the trainee teachers with procedural skills and the knowledge-base of teaching, but that it also ensured they could reflect on their beliefs and practices, which the short in-service training organised at the time of the implementation did not do. For this reason, I would argue that this training did not reach its full potential and that it could be reinforced by some continuous support to the teachers, as further explained in the implications in 10.1.

9.3.2 Experience

During the data analysis, the importance and role of experience has repeatedly been mentioned, which aligns with studies providing evidence that experience filters curriculum implementation (Orafi & Borg, 2009; X. Zheng & Borg, 2014). This study also supports Tamimy's (2015) findings illustrating that life experiences shape teachers' identities and hence beliefs. It also confirms Farrell and Bennis (2013) who provide evidence that more experienced teachers are guided by teaching experiences in their practices (8.1.2). The analysis of the observations further demonstrated that an untrained and inexperienced teacher is less-well equipped to scaffold their students' learning and implement mixed-ability activities, this may be why they tend to slow down and teach at a level that is adapted for weak students. Öztürk and Gürbüz (2017) have identified different types of experience having an impact on teachers' beliefs and I would like to focus on some of them now.

First, the teachers' own experience as learners (7.4.1.1) is mentioned by the majority of the participants presented in 7.3.1 as an impediment to change. It was also very influential for the observed participants regarding what they do in class (8.1, 8.2). In the case of Mary, who was not a successful English learner from the beginning, reference can be made to an "anti-apprenticeship of observation" (Moodie, 2016) since her intentions are clearly to depart from the way she started learning English. Thus, depending on their personal experience, teachers seem to develop various kinds of beliefs about the role of English among others (as previously discussed in 9.2.1.3). This confirms a previous study where a teacher was guided in her practices by the needs she had herself as a learner (Smith & Southerland, 2007). The qualitative-based data also demonstrated that the teachers want their students to do well in the institutional context when they pursue their studies, which is a limiting belief (9.2.2) since many of them will take another path or do not regard English as an important subject (9.2.1.3). I would argue that this is mainly due to the teachers' personal experience that has never been challenged, which could be done through professional development. Indeed, many participants put in parallel English and German, whereas these two languages are clearly not at the same level in the Valais in terms of their status or the reasons for being taught. Talking about experience, Fives and Buehl (2012, p. 486) remind us that the "length and nature of the experience" is likely to have a major impact, in line with Lortie's (1975) notion of apprenticeship of observation. The teachers' long experience of learning languages –and German in particular– could explain why it has such a significant impact on their beliefs and practices, hence enhancing the importance of their own education.

The data also showed that the teachers made extensive use of their personal practical knowledge (Clandinin, 1986; Clandinin & Connelly, 1987) acquired through experience (7.4.1.3, 7.4.1.4). Those who attended a practicum (7.4.1.2) for teaching English gained in confidence, which increased their self-efficacy, while those who did not mainly used their other experiences as teachers (8.1.3). In their study, Sanchez and Borg (2014) acknowledged that the teachers' ways of teaching grammar had to be influenced by their past 30 years of teaching but concluded that such information was difficult to elicit. The same can be said of "intuitive knowledge" (Maxwell, 1998), that several participants have mentioned (7.4.1.4) and that emerged as a very real outcome of experience.

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Regarding the experience that builds up year after year, a marked observation to emerge from the quantitative-base data is that teachers share some positive and similar beliefs after nine years of teaching (6.1.3), whereby I would argue they can be considered experienced. Time consequently seems to flatten the individual differences and variations of training in terms of beliefs. Regarding the number of years necessary to be considered experienced, we have seen in 3.5.3 that the dividing line in existing studies seems to be quite random and not based on evidence. The same applies to defining novice teachers. Farrell (2009) defines novice teachers as having completed their pre-service teacher training. In previous research, novice teachers were often described as such when having less than 3 years of experience (Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Gatbonton, 2008; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007), which cannot be confirmed by the present study where consistent results for this group could not be identified (6.1.3). A possible explanation for this result lies in the fact that the ten novice English teachers, who had been teaching English for up to 2 years, are very different in terms of training and experience and some were still attending pre-service teacher education. The fact that they did not behave as a compact group is consequently not a surprise since I did not manage to collect data from a rather homogeneous group of inexperienced teachers. Alternatively, it may be assumed that the concept of being a novice is not as straightforward as it seems. Randall and Thornton (2001) argue that teachers go through different phases of various lengths during their development, moving forward in their teacher “life cycle” (p. 34). According to them, teachers start as novices, then become advanced beginners, before going through the competent and proficient phases before being mainly driven by intuition once they have become experts. The quantitative evidence of the present study points toward the idea that the teachers need a minimum of 9 years to go through these various stages and share common positive beliefs about teaching. I would argue that this rather long time lapse corresponds to the time teachers without a solid professional training as language teachers need to develop PCK, which is a slow process (Abell, 2008). The observations also allowed me to confirm Randall and Thornton’s (2001, p. 34) claim that different teachers move from one stage depending on their capacity to evolve, which they do not only base on their own pace, but also based on their best possible “self”. We can therefore hypothesise that some participants moved beyond the ‘novice stage’ faster than others, hence the mixed results. Another round of data collection would be needed to test this hypothesis.

9.3.3 Concluding remarks

In the Valais, the innovation in the teaching of English also turned out to be an innovation in the qualifications of English teachers. Since the demand of English teachers increased faster than the supply, knowing English was seen as sufficient for qualifying teachers already on the job as being English teachers even with no formal professional training for teaching English in particular. The transition phase being over, the teachers are now expected to comply with the curricular reform and to change their practices accordingly, what they are seeking to do. However, it also showed that the teachers were improving along their own individual route towards becoming the best possible teacher within the limits imposed by their own personalities. Goodson (2003, p. 85) identifies three categories of teachers in the profession: the “elite” group (10-20%), the “mainstream” (60-70%), and the “borderline” (10-20%) ones, which could account for various individual degrees of commitment in making efforts to act in accordance with the new curriculum. Changing the way one teaches is an effort and this seems to suggest that not everybody would put in the necessary energy to do so, either because of their personality, or because they have become immune to change (Hiver & Dörnyei, 2017).

The qualitative and quantitative evidence also highlighted the importance of shared or collective beliefs (Borg, 2018; England, 2017) in moderating what happened at the school level in the process of implementation (6.2.4, 7.2). It demonstrated that the school culture could be powerful in some places in the sense that teachers would make sense of the implementation as a community thanks to collaboration. At times, collaboration also impacted how assessment was conducted. I would argue that following the school culture and prioritising collaboration were core beliefs established at the detriment of other beliefs they held about how to teach English. A positive role of collaboration was reported to be that of reducing the workload in this context of change, since teachers could rely on the tests or adapted syllabus prepared by others (Carless, 2003). Another even more significant role of collaboration that emerged from previous studies (Kang & Cheng, 2014; Nishino, 2012) and that this one also corroborates is that of developing teacher growth. Indeed, collaboration allows teachers to learn from colleagues, which is an informal opportunity for developing expertise from which the school and the students can benefit (Mawhinney, 2010). This demonstrates that teachers have not only the possibility to learn

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from experience and training, as developed earlier, but they can also do so thanks to colleagues (7.4.1.2, 7.4.1.5).

It appears then that trainee teachers, novice teachers and teachers implementing a new curriculum are likely to share some characteristics. Indeed, they are all pushed and challenged in their habits and certainties and have to balance their pre-existing beliefs with potentially new desired practices. Teacher change might then equate to teacher growth, which “entails more than simply adding new concepts to the teacher’s knowledge base; it [...] involves [...] a more radical change in the teacher’s conceptual change” (Kubanyiova, 2012, p. 36). Moving from a linguistic accuracy approach, where grammatically accurate sentence construction is essential to a more communicative approach where errors have another status is a fundamental and difficult change as illustrated by several results of this study. As illustrated by Wedell’s (2009) characteristics of different educational cultures, the purpose of education, the teacher and learner roles as well as the definition of knowledge are different in transmission based and interpretation based cultures. In the former, the teacher identity is related to correcting grammar, spelling, and other aspects of accuracy. This has been a cultural way of being a teacher in the Valais for a long period of time. When teachers are suddenly asked to also focus on communication, language use and meaning as well, the teacher’s role “is becoming much more complex”, as acknowledged by Bryan (INT-40). Teachers have to acquire some new methodological skills in particular, and change their beliefs to sustain what can almost be regarded as an identity shift given the “cultural ‘gap’” (Wedell, 2009, p. 98) between the two approaches, hence a need for reculturing, a concept introduced in 3.2. This might imply various degrees of adjustment depending on the size of this cultural gap between where the teachers come from and where they have to go to.

Teacher learning is a trajectory where different stages line up. Experiences inside and outside educational contexts as well as training account for who a teacher is (Farrell, 2017). Once in the profession, the development of expertise also seems to be linear based on the “life cycle of a teacher” (Randall & Thornton, 2001, p. 34) introduced in 9.3.2. This study has demonstrated that the diversity of experiences influences teacher beliefs and practices, but also that people are different with what they do with it.

9.4 Summary

This chapter discussed the findings presented earlier (Ch.6-7-8). Section 9.1 focused on the characteristics and conceptualisation of teacher beliefs, showing that they are dynamic and that they should not all be regarded as similar. Section 9.2 was more practical, it highlighted the role of core beliefs and contextual factors in relation to the process of curriculum implementation. It was demonstrated that teachers hold a wide variety of beliefs, that core ones are embedded in a specific context and have a more powerful influence on the way the curriculum is being implemented. Finally, Section 9.3 discussed the impact of training and experience on teachers' beliefs and practices. The next and final chapter summarises the whole study and emphasises its contribution.

Chapter 10 Conclusion

This last chapter first presents the aims and key features of this study before summarising the main findings and their contribution to existing knowledge (10.1). Then, a number of potential limitations are outlined (10.2) before concluding with some recommendations for future research (10.3), and some personal reflections (10.4).

10.1 Key findings and implications

Against a backdrop of curriculum and materials change, I have set out to investigate the role of teacher beliefs. The primary aim of this study was to examine what the teachers' beliefs were, and to what extent these beliefs affected the way they implemented the curriculum. This study also set out to explore the relationship between their beliefs and practices as well as the influence training and experience exerted on them.

This study took place in the Valais, Switzerland, during a period of curricular changes. EiM, a new course book developed in accordance with the recently introduced curriculum (PER), was being progressively implemented in state lower secondary school at that time. The data were collected in a transition phase, which allowed me to gain insight into the English teachers' responses towards these changes. A case study approach (Creswell, 2013; Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2012) was favoured to describe this process of curriculum implementation in a delimited geographic area, i.e. in the French-speaking part of the canton of Valais. Using mixed methods (Creswell, 2015) where the qualitative data enriched and deepened the findings from the quantitative questionnaire-based data enabled me to focus on the issues that emerged progressively, and to undertake a deeper analysis of teacher beliefs (Borg, 2012).

The quantitative analysis of the eighty-nine questionnaires presented in Chapter 6 sought to determine what the lower secondary English teachers' reported beliefs and practices were, as well as what role training and experience played. The qualitative analysis of the seventeen interviews presented in Chapter 7 was a first step towards enhancing my understanding of the complex picture revealed by the questionnaire analysis. In the last results chapter (Ch.8), I presented a qualitative narrative account of two teachers' beliefs and practices based mainly on observations and stimulated recall interviews, emphasising

how teacher thinking is uniquely connected to their training and experience, hence trying to capture the situated complexity of teaching in a changing situation at an individual level as well. I go on to summarise the main contributions of this study, and mention possible practical and theoretical implications.

A) Firstly, investigating teachers' beliefs to evaluate an innovation has proved to be useful. A focus on beliefs and practices, and on how the teachers conceptualise the curriculum in particular, has shown that the curriculum standards may be achieved by different means from the official ones (6.1, 7.2, 8.2.4). It has emerged that

- the teachers do not consider the use of the curriculum as part of their effectiveness whether very familiar with it or not;
- the teachers are guided by something much more local than the PER. They mainly rely on the syllabus and on the colleagues with whom they collaborate to adapt it to their context, as well as on their previous experience.

Their practices consequently followed both the official and hidden curricula, which illustrates that it is acceptable not to follow the official documents in circumstances when a new organisation that suits the teachers and students better can be implemented. It was argued that this was made possible thanks to the lack of social and institutional pressures regarding the teaching of English at that level in the Valais, which allowed autonomous teaching practices.

In my view, these results constitute a significant step towards trusting the teachers and granting them more autonomy. The implementation of a standardisation is about compliance, and ensuring the same standards does not necessarily ensure the best quality. Therefore, I think that initial training and teacher professional development should focus on helping teachers acquire language teaching skills that can be blended with their own personal preferences that will then colour the curriculum when contextualised. Indeed, it seems sound to accept different levels of conformity in order not to limit the agency of professionally trained teachers engaged in doing their best as long as they implement the "spirit" (Carless, 1999) of the desired methodology. In fact, this study provides evidence that the teachers express their creativity and professionalism thanks to tacit practices that allow them to meet the needs they think their students have.

B) Secondly, the power of some locally situated beliefs have been found to limit the teachers' actions despite favourable broader contextual factors (7.1, 7.4.2). Several participants involved in this study indeed believed that some teaching principles could not be implemented because of the class size (20-24 students), the time constraints (sometimes self-imposed by collaboration with colleagues), or the students' need to perform well in case they go to high school (which only a minority do). These results were not expected, and I think that they should be kept in mind in future work about beliefs and curriculum implementation conducted in settings where the contextual factors are not necessarily favourable. Indeed, such studies might conclude by saying that the teachers could not implement the desired changes because of the context, which might be true, but my study demonstrates that even in an apparently favourable context, the teachers' beliefs of what is possible or desirable can be very influential and limiting. Practically, this could be addressed by developing the teachers' pedagogical and instructional knowledge and by raising their awareness of the role of English.

C) Thirdly, the findings suggest that teachers with different training and experience are different in terms of beliefs (6.1). While beliefs tend to converge after at least nine years of experience, contrary to expectations, this study did not demonstrate that the novice teachers behaved as a group. There is further evidence that experience is a term that encompasses different types of experience (7.4.1) that all have an impact on teacher beliefs, and the participants who were not professionally trained as English teachers were especially influenced by their own experience as learners (7.3.1, 8.1). Furthermore, the results support the idea that experience and training are important in terms of change. Both can potentially trigger a change of belief, or at least a change of practices that might, ultimately, also result in a change of beliefs (7.3.2). It can also be argued that both have the potential to make a language user develop the necessary skills to become a language teacher. In the case of a curriculum implementation that pushes a particular teaching approach, training and classroom experience can act jointly and assist the teachers in reculturing, even though the findings highlighted that a two-day in-service training where the new teaching material was introduced did not have a very strong impact on all the participants (7.3.1).

These observations have three main implications. The first one is about research development and concerns the classification of teachers as either experienced or novice

in empirical studies, where it has been established that these categories are not used consistently. My study has shown that these theoretically constructed groupings might not be supported by empirical evidence, and I would therefore encourage researchers to pay attention when establishing who can be regarded as a novice and as experienced. The next implications, practical and based on the evidence that professional training matters, could possibly support teacher trainers. To raise teacher awareness about the influence of their own schooling in terms of language learning, I would recommend using a language learning autobiography in combination with peer observations. The former will give the teachers an opportunity to critically think about the way they have learnt the languages they know, and how it has affected them. It should also include a section about the perceived roles of these languages and about their experiences in using them to communicate in Switzerland or abroad. I see two advantages in this task: it encourages reflective thinking in a personalised way and does not require the teachers to participate in a training session. Additionally, just as pre-service teachers learn to gain confidence in their newly acquired practices during the practicum with a mentor, I think that this can also offer promising results when a new curriculum needs implementing. Indeed, there is a lot to learn from expert teachers, and teachers who are successful in implementing new teaching principles could be observed by less confident ones. This might in turn stimulate change, and help the latter develop their own practices and beliefs, or at least encourage them to reflect. Again, this could easily be organised at the school level, and some discussion sessions could be planned at the cantonal level from time to time to share concerns and successful episodes. This would indeed foster collaborative discussions among practitioners teaching in very similar contexts, which has advantages (Walsh & Mann, 2015). The use of videos as a reflective tool could also be considered (Hüttner, in press). Finally, based on this research, I genuinely believe that following a pre-service training in the specific topic that will be taught is essential. This would provide plenty of occasions to discuss issues related to language correctness and native-speakerism among others. Even though this was not the focus of my study, the evidence suggests that the professionally trained English teachers were the least influenced by native-speakerism principles. What is more, they had a better PCK, therefore I would contend that training teachers specifically for the language they want to teach is sound.

D) Fourthly, the last key findings add to a growing body of literature on researching teacher beliefs and provide encouragement for starting the analysis with their practices rather than with their stated beliefs. With this study, considerable progress has been made regarding the conceptualisation of teacher beliefs since the results have highlighted that working with different categories of beliefs, the core-peripheral dichotomy in particular, offers a better understanding of the phenomenon under study. The central or peripheral location of a belief indicates, in theory, how amenable they are. In practice though, the evidence supports the context-dependant nature of beliefs since a same belief can potentially have a different weight in different contexts. Besides, when a tension arises between different beliefs, some might change their place in the belief system to relieve it.

Taken together, these findings highlight an important role for the central-peripheral dichotomy and the notion of context. So instead of analysing the discrepancies between teacher beliefs and practises, a promising application of this twofold approach would be to analyse teacher practices to identify what their overarching beliefs are and how they relate to peripheral ones. I think this distinction has the potential to help the researchers look beyond individual practices and to identify the teacher sets of beliefs that form the backbone of their teaching. Additionally, to move forward in the field, I suggest that beliefs should not be treated as all the same. Regarding the relationship between beliefs and practices, I would argue that researchers would get a much better understanding of what is going on in the classrooms if they would not only take the stated beliefs as a starting point, trying to assess the observed practices against them, but would also allow enacted beliefs to emerge from the observations, hence moving away from the consistency-inconsistency between beliefs and practices (Borg, 2018).

Overall, I believe that my findings have improved our understanding of the conceptualisation of beliefs and of the power they exert in a context that allows some leeway. Moreover, this study has documented the way the new curriculum is being implemented in the Valais, and the value of its contributions also lies in the practical and theoretical applications that have been outlined, despite several limitations presented next.

10.2 Limitations

I am aware that several limitations may have influenced the results obtained, and those pertaining to the quantitative instrument and analyses have already been addressed in detail in 6.1.7. Other weak points regarding the qualitative instruments and procedures also need to be considered, such as the time lapse between the observations and the stimulated recall interviews, that differed from one participant to the next, and ranged from one hour to several days as mentioned in 5.2.2, which might diminish the validity of the data (Gass & Mackey, 2000; Lyle, 2003). Another weakness lies in the type of information elicited by the stimulated recall itself, which is not a “thinking *in* (classroom) practice”, but a “thinking *on* such practice” (Skotte, 2015, p. 21) (original emphasis). As a result, it might not always have been an accurate account of what happened, but rather a post-facto rationalisation, especially since I worked from the transcriptions and not from video recordings. Finally, I would like to mention the challenges of working with mixed methods for researching teacher beliefs. Bearing in mind that beliefs are context-dependent, it may be assumed that the beliefs elicited by the questionnaire and those reported by the teachers or elicited thanks to the observations are not the same. This is inherent in the conceptualisation of beliefs, and I would argue that using mixed methods is consequently a way to look into “different dimensions of the interrogated phenomenon” (Feilzer, 2010), rather than a way to triangulate findings. All these elements illustrate that the use of mixed methods did not come without any challenges, and I would finally like to mention some other more general potential shortcomings.

Despite several references to teacher knowledge, the main emphasis is very much on beliefs. I am aware that the various components of the more encompassing term of teacher cognition would have been worth considering as well, but I wanted to reduce the scope of the study, which is also why personality factors were not taken into consideration. Second, I decided to adopt a cognitivist perspective even though two more recent approaches were open to me, namely an interactionist perspective (L. Li, 2013, 2017) as well as a socio-cognitive one (Burns, Freeman, & Edwards, 2015; Kubanyiova, 2012). The former regards beliefs as an outcome of the teacher-student social interactions and uses conversational analysis, while the latter advocates a shift from the individualist view of teacher cognition to “an alternative lens as emergent sense making in action” (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p. 436) which stipulates that constructs should not

be investigated in isolation, and that cognition, practice and students' learning should be studied jointly. Finally, I acknowledge that curriculum innovation and teacher change could not fully be explored within only three months of fieldwork. These long-term processes could nevertheless be addressed in future research.

10.3 Further research

My study focuses on the role of beliefs in the implementation of a new English curriculum, and it would be of particular interest, in the future, to actually assess to what extent the teachers have managed to reculture. The amount of time teachers need to comply to the new curriculum and teaching material before an assessment is conducted has its importance (Snyder et al., 1992). Orafi and Borg (2009) investigated the role of teacher beliefs on the curriculum implementation once they had been teaching with it for at least five years, while Wedell (2009) also recommends waiting for five years, emphasising repeatedly that such curricular changes take time, which had been noted previously (Markee, 1997). Teachers might indeed need several attempts to successfully implement newly introduced teaching principles (Kirkgöz, 2008), so investigating some of the teachers involved in the present study in a few years would also bring a better understanding of the process of change. It would also make sense to analyse how the implementation has affected beliefs and practices in other French-speaking cantons, where the context might be slightly different. An analysis of the Italian- and German-speaking cantons, that are also implementing a new communicative curriculum, would complete the picture and reveal how English is being perceived in these other Swiss regions, and how it influences the implementation process overall. Investigating the students' and parents' beliefs about the role of English is also an area that could be developed. Further research is also recommended in order to establish the exact role of the communities of practice (Wenger, 1998) to which the teachers reported to belong and that influenced their practices. Finally, future work would also be needed to establish whether temporary beliefs triggered by the change of curriculum stick in time, and whether novice teachers improve their practices thanks to the material at their disposal, as found out by P. Grossman and Thompson (2008).

10.4 Reflections on the research process and final words

While section 5.4 was about how I may have influenced the research process, I now wish to conclude by explaining how the research has shaped me, a process known as “retrospective reflexivity” (Attia & Edge, 2017, p. 35). First, I have learnt that the world of beliefs is a fascinating one whose complexity should not be underestimated. Once aware of the various characteristics of beliefs, I thought it would be possible to categorise my participants’ beliefs explicitly, which, with hindsight, was naive. Similarly, when I came across an article classifying the different types of belief change (Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000), I felt quite inspired by this attempt to organise something that is, by definition, extremely complex. This research has shown that there is a lot of hovering between different positions, and that the uncertainty and fuzziness is part of the belief-practice relationship. I realised during the data analysis that the dynamic nature of teacher beliefs made it impossible to picture them precisely, and that my initial philosophical stance had been too positivistic. As a researcher, I had to accept and deal with this ambiguity.

The quantitative part of this empirical study has also taught me that, even though there is a truth waiting to be discovered, there are numerous ways to bring it to light, and I had to exercise flexibility when things did not go according to plan. All in all, I can say that this PhD journey has given me the opportunity to develop my identity as a researcher. This project has greatly contributed to my own professional development, not only as a researcher, but as a teacher and educator as well, since I have had to navigate between my different identities (as already alluded to in 5.4).

As a final word, I also would like to mention that, unfortunately, I have not been able to do justice to all my participants and include a detailed account of all of them in this research project given the large amount of data generated by the fieldwork. My choices were guided by the need to select participants and excerpts that would help me answer the research questions in the best possible way. Furthermore, though I might sometimes seem critical of some participants’ beliefs and practices, I would like to insist on the fact that my aim was solely to describe the reality of the curriculum implementation in a context where teachers with different backgrounds are doing their best to handle the challenges facing them, and I am very grateful for their warm welcome during this demanding period of change.

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Appendix A Teacher knowledge

Table A.1 Parallel Between Shulman's (1987) Knowledge Base and Elbaz's (1983) Practical Knowledge

Shulman's categories of the knowledge base	Elbaz's practical knowledge
Content knowledge	Subject matter knowledge
General pedagogical knowledge	Subject matter knowledge: learning and study skills as subject matter OR instructional knowledge
Curriculum knowledge	Knowledge of curriculum
PCK	Subject matter knowledge: learning and study skills as subject matter OR instructional knowledge
Knowledge of learners and their characteristics	Knowledge of the milieu
Knowledge of educational contexts	Knowledge of the milieu
Knowledge of educational ends	Knowledge of curriculum/of the milieu

Appendix B Valaisan compulsory education system and key dates regarding the introduction of English

Table B.1 Valaisan Compulsory Education System

System before <i>Harmos</i>	Since <i>Harmos</i>	Pupils' age
1 st year nursery school	1 Harmos or 1H	
2 nd year nursery school	2H	
1 st year primary school	3H	From age 4 to 8
2 nd year primary school	4H	
3 rd year primary school	5H	
4 th year primary school	6H	
5 th year primary school	7H	From age 8 to 12
6 th year primary school	8H	
1 CO: 1 st year lower secondary school	9H	
2 CO: 2 nd year lower secondary school	10H	From age 12 to 15
3 CO: 3 rd year lower secondary school	11H	

Table B.2 Main Key Dates Related to the Introduction of English at Compulsory School

1975	CDIP	German is the first FL taught in the French-speaking part of Switzerland
1987	Valais	English is introduced as an optional course in the last year of compulsory school (3CO)
1998	CDIP	Decision to generalise the teaching of English as an L3
2003	CIIP	English starts to be taught with NH in the first year of lower secondary school (1CO)
2006	Valais	English is taught in heterogeneous classes in 1CO and homogenous classes in 2CO and 3CO
2008	Valais	The Valais approves <i>Harmos</i> , the intercantonal agreement on the harmonisation of compulsory education
2010	CIIP	The new curriculum PER is adopted by the CIIP
2011	Valais	The PER is gradually introduced in the Valais, and German is taught in small groups (9H) as well as English (10H, 11H)
2013	Valais	English is introduced in primary school, in year 7H
2015	Valais	The first pupils having started English at primary school arrive at lower secondary school. Introduction of <i>English in Mind</i> in year 9H. Update of the PER
2016	Valais	<i>English in Mind</i> is introduced in year 10H
2017	Valais	<i>English in Mind</i> is introduced in year 11H

Appendix C Information about the qualitative participants

Table C.1 Observed Participants' Background Information

Name	Training	Years teaching English	Currently teaching in	Years teaching another FL	Degree of familiarity with the PER
Mary	Master's degree in French as a foreign language In-service training for English	none	9H	4 years	not very familiar
Florence	Master's degree in German and English HEP	3-5 years	9H	3-5 years	very familiar
Ellen	Bachelor's degree in English HEP	6-8 years	10H and 11H	3-5 years	familiar
Sylvie	Master's degree in English HEP	6-8 years	11H	none	familiar
Anja	In-service training for English	6-8 years	10H	none	familiar
Julie	Teaching diploma for German (Fribourg) In-service training for English	3-5 years	11H	15-20 years	familiar
Cathy	Master's degree for foreign languages Diploma for pedagogy (CRED)	5-6 years	10H	6-8 years	not very familiar

Only one male participant was observed. To keep his anonymity, I have used a female pseudonym for him in this research.

Each type of training is explained in Appendix D.

Appendix D Teacher training

Professional training courses to become secondary school language teachers:

1) University of Fribourg

Teaching diploma for teaching at lower and/or upper secondary school

These diplomas include modules on the language knowledge (English, German or Lx) and a professional training (pedagogy, methodology, practicum). These are full-time training courses that the participants can enter once they have obtained their high school certificate.

2) Teacher training college (HEP)

Teaching diploma for teaching at lower and/or upper secondary school

After having obtained a Bachelor's or Master's degree in English/German/Lx language and linguistics, the participants attend this part-time training course that focuses on pedagogy, methodology and practicum. The participants often have a part-time job as teachers in parallel to their studies. The training lasts for at least two years.

Other courses :

3) In-service training

It is a language course attended by professionally trained teachers who were not English teachers but wanted to start teaching this subject. This course was organised by the canton to deal with a shortage of English teachers. It focuses on the knowledge of the English language. An in-service course about methodology was also organised, it consisted of a few meetings where some CLT principles were presented. Some examples based on NH, the course book in use at that time, were also provided.

4) Primary teacher training college (Ecole normale)

Only few of my participants had attended this training to obtain their teaching certificate. This is the former training course to become primary school teacher. It has now been replaced by a training at the teacher training college (HEP).

5) Distance learning centre (CRED : Centre romand d'enseignement à distance)

Only few of my participants had obtained their teaching certificate from this centre. This was a theoretical pedagogy course that led to a teaching certificate. This training does not exist anymore. It was replaced in 2004 by a training at a teacher training college (HEP).

6) Two-day didactics training course about the implementation of *English in Mind*

As explained at the end of 3.4.5, all the Valaisan English teachers were invited to attend a compulsory training course presenting *English in Mind* and how to teach following CLT principles.

Appendix E Information sheet

E.1 Information sheet in English

Title: The implementation of the English curriculum in state lower secondary schools in the Valais

Researcher: Coralie Clerc

Student number: 27847144

ERGO reference number: 23245

Please read this information carefully before deciding to take part in this research. If you are happy to participate you will be asked to sign a consent form.

What is the research about?

My name is Coralie Clerc. I am a doctoral student at the University of Southampton, UK. This research project, which is not related to your employer, is about the implementation of the PER (new curriculum for the French-speaking part of Switzerland) by the English teachers at lower secondary level in the Valais. It will be conducted in two phases.

The purpose of the first one is to collect information about the English teachers of the canton and their habits as regards teaching English (number of years of experience, training, practices etc.). So as to have a reliable account, it is important that a maximum of teachers takes part.

The second phase consists of observing and interviewing volunteer teachers (you will have the opportunity to volunteer at the end of the online questionnaire if you are interested) so as to get more detailed information. This information will make it possible to examine how the PER is being implemented in English classes, what role experience and training play in this implementation and how teachers welcome *English in Mind*.

Why have I been chosen?

You are currently teaching or used to teach English at lower secondary school in the Valais and your point of view is consequently of high interest for this study.

What will happen to me if I take part?

November 2016: The lower secondary English teacher of the will be invited to fill in an online questionnaire. The first part of it aims to collect some general information. The second part is about the teachers' practices and the curriculum. The questionnaire can be completed in 10 to 15 minutes. At the end of the questionnaire, the teachers can volunteer to take part in the second phase of the project. To do so, they will have to give their details or contact number. They will be contacted in December and more information will be provided.

January, February or March 2017: The teachers who have volunteered will be observed (between 4 and 6 periods) in their classes during English lessons (the observations will not be video recorded, only audio-recorded with the participants' agreement). Three

interviews will follow (one before the observations, one during and one at the end of the observations.)

Are there any benefits in my taking part?

Participating gives you the opportunity to reflect, to share your experience, your doubts and beliefs as regards teaching English. Furthermore, it will allow us to assess the implementation of the new curriculum (PER) in this subject. Finally, from an academic point of view, this will allow us to study the complexity of an innovation (curriculum implementation and new course book) in a particular context (the Valais).

Are there any risks involved?

There are very few risks regarding the questionnaire. However, even though the data are anonymous, you could possibly be identified from comments made during the interviews. In order to reduce this probability, the school in which you teach will not be mentioned. What is more, you are entitled to refuse to talk about issues that might embarrass you.

Will my participation be confidential?

1st Phase → Online questionnaire: The information collected will be confidential. The questionnaire is anonymous and the data will be kept on a computer locked by a password. As regards the teachers volunteering to take part in the second phase of the research project and who provide their details or contact number at the end of the questionnaire, they will be coded and only the researcher will have access to the list of names and codes.

2nd Phase → Classroom observation and interviews: The participants' names will not be displayed in any report or publications because the researcher will use pseudonyms. The data and recordings will be kept under lock and key or on a computer that is locked by a password.

What happens if I change my mind?

You may withdraw at any time without your legal rights being affected and without being required to give a reason. To do so, you only need to let the researcher know (contact details). All the data related to you will be deleted.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact the Chair of the Faculty Ethics Committee, Prof. Denis McManus (contact details).

Where can I get more information?

You can either contact me directly (contact details), or contact my supervisor, Dr Julia Hüttner (contact details).

This study cannot be undertaken without your help, this is why I thank you in advance for filling in the online questionnaire.

E.2 Information sheet in French

Titre du projet de recherche: La mise en œuvre du PER en anglais dans les écoles publiques du secondaire I en Valais

Nom de la chercheuse: Coralie Clerc

Numéro d'étudiante: 27847144

Numéro de référence ERGO: 23245

Veillez s'il vous plaît lire ces informations avec attention avant de décider si vous allez prendre part à ce projet de recherche. Si vous êtes d'accord de répondre au questionnaire, vous serez invité/es à donner votre consentement.

Quel est l'objet de ce projet de recherche?

Je m'appelle Coralie Clerc et je fais actuellement un doctorat à l'Université de Southampton (UK). Celui-ci est sans lien direct avec votre employeur et porte sur la mise en œuvre du PER par les enseignants d'anglais au Cycle d'Orientation en Valais. Ce projet de recherche sera mené en deux phases. La première a pour but d'obtenir des informations sur les enseignants d'anglais du canton et leurs habitudes quant à l'enseignement de l'anglais. Afin d'avoir une vue d'ensemble représentant la réalité, il est important qu'un maximum d'enseignants participe en répondant à ce questionnaire. La deuxième phase consiste à observer et à interviewer des enseignant/es volontaires afin d'obtenir des informations plus détaillées qui permettront d'examiner comment le PER est mis en œuvre dans les classes d'anglais, quel rôle l'expérience et la formation jouent dans cette mise en œuvre et comment les enseignants accueillent la méthode *English in Mind*. (Vous pourrez vous porter volontaire à la fin du questionnaire en ligne si vous êtes intéressé/es.)

Pourquoi avez-vous été choisi/e?

Vous enseignez ou avez enseigné l'anglais au CO en Valais et votre avis est par conséquent d'un grand intérêt pour cette étude.

Que se passera-t-il si vous décidez de participer?

Novembre 2016: Les enseignant/es d'anglais du secondaire I en Valais sont invité/es à remplir un questionnaire en ligne. Il n'y a pas de bonne ou mauvaise réponse, le but étant simplement d'obtenir une vue d'ensemble. Le questionnaire peut être rempli en 10 à 15 minutes. A la fin du questionnaire, les enseignant/es souhaitant participer à la deuxième phase de ce projet de recherche pourront laisser leurs coordonnées. Ils/elles seront contacté/es en décembre et de plus amples informations concernant les observations et entretiens leur seront fournies.

Janvier, février ou mars 2017: Les enseignant/es volontaires accueilleront la chercheuse dans leur(s) classe(s) d'anglais pour 4 à 6 périodes (les observations ne seront pas filmées, simplement enregistrées de manière audio avec votre accord). Ces observations seront accompagnées de 3 entretiens (avant, pendant et après les observations).

Quels sont les avantages à ce que vous participiez?

Le fait de participer à cette recherche vous offre une occasion de réfléchir et de partager vos expériences, vos doutes et vos croyances en ce qui concerne l'enseignement de l'anglais. De plus, cela permettra de faire un bilan quant à la mise en œuvre du PER dans cette branche scolaire. Finalement, d'un point de vue plus académique, cela permettra d'étudier la complexité d'une innovation des programmes (mise en œuvre du PER et d'*English in Mind*) dans un contexte particulier (le Valais).

Quels sont les risques?

Les risques en ce qui concerne le questionnaire sont minimes. Bien que les données soient anonymes, vous pourriez être reconnu/es par l'un ou l'autre commentaire fait durant les interviews. Afin de réduire cette probabilité, l'établissement dans lequel vous enseignez ne sera pas mentionné. De plus, vous êtes libre/s de ne pas répondre aux questions qui pourraient potentiellement vous mettre dans l'embarras.

Votre participation sera-t-elle confidentielle?

Phase 1 → Questionnaire en ligne: Les informations fournies seront confidentielles. Le questionnaire est anonyme et les données récoltées seront conservées sur un ordinateur protégé par un mot de passe. Pour les enseignant/es se portant volontaires pour les observations/entretiens, les coordonnées fournies à la fin du questionnaire seront codifiées et seule la chercheuse aura accès à la liste des noms et des codes.

Phase 2 → Observations de classe et entretiens: Les noms des participants ne paraîtront dans aucun rapport ou publication puisque la chercheuse emploiera des pseudonymes. Les données et enregistrement seront conservés sous clé ou sur un ordinateur protégé par un mot de passe.

Que se passe-t-il si vous changez d'avis?

Vous pourrez mettre fin à votre participation à tout moment sans conséquence négative ou préjudice et sans avoir à justifier votre décision. Pour ce faire, veuillez me prévenir (contact details). Tous les renseignements et données vous concernant seront alors détruits.

Que pouvez-vous faire si quelque chose se passe mal?

Dans le cas où vous souhaiteriez formuler une plainte, vous pouvez contacter la personne en charge du Comité d'éthique de l'Université, Prof. Denis McManus (coordonnées).

Où pouvez-vous obtenir de plus amples informations?

Vous pouvez soit me contacter directement (coordonnées), soit contacter ma superviseure, Dr Julia Hüttner (coordonnées).

Votre collaboration est précieuse pour me permettre de réaliser cette étude, je vous remercie donc pour votre participation.

Appendix F Internet participation and consent form

Please read this information carefully before deciding whether to take part in this research. You will need to indicate that you have understood this information before you can continue. You must also be aged over 16 to participate. By ticking the box at the bottom of this page and clicking 'Continue', you are indicating that you are aged over 16, and you are consenting to participate in this survey.

Veillez s'il vous plaît lire les informations avec soin avant de décider si vous voulez prendre part à cette étude. Vous devrez indiquer que vous avez compris les informations avant de pouvoir continuer. En cochant la case en bas de cette page en cliquant sur 'Continuer', vous confirmez que vous avez plus de 16 ans et que vous consentez à participer à cette étude.

Description of research

This research is about the implementation of the PER (new curriculum for the French-speaking part of Switzerland) by the English teachers at lower secondary level in the Valais. The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect information about the English teachers of the canton and their habits as regards teaching English (number of years of experience, training, practices, use of the curriculum etc.). So as to have a reliable account, it is important that a maximum of teachers take part.

Description du projet de recherche

Ce projet de recherche porte sur la mise en œuvre du PER par les enseignants d'anglais au Cycle d'Orientation en Valais.

Ce questionnaire a pour but d'obtenir des informations sur les enseignants d'anglais du canton et leurs habitudes quant à l'enseignement de l'anglais (nombre d'années d'expériences, formation, pratiques de classe, emploi du PER etc.). Afin d'avoir une vue d'ensemble représentant la réalité, il est important qu'un maximum d'enseignants participe.

I have read and understood the information about this study. I also understand that data collected as part of this research will be kept confidential and that published results will maintain that confidentiality. I may withdraw from the study at any time by closing the webpage. I finally understand that if I have any questions about my rights as a participant in this research, I may contact Prof. Denis McManus (contact details), Chair of the Faculty Ethics Committee, University of Southampton.

J'ai lu et compris les informations relatives à cette étude. Je comprends également que les données récoltées dans le cadre de cette recherche seront confidentielles et que les résultats publiés respecteront cette confidentialité. Je peux mettre fin à ma participation à tout moment en fermant la page internet. Enfin, je comprends que si j'ai des questions à propos de mes droits en tant que participant, j'ai la possibilité de contacter Prof. Denis McManus (coordonnées), responsable du comité d'Ethique, Université de Southampton.

I certify that I am 16 years or older. I have read the above consent form and I give consent to participate in the above described research.

Je certifie avoir plus de 16 ans. J'ai lu le formulaire de consentement ci-dessus et je donne mon accord pour participer à la recherche décrite plus haut.

Appendix G Interview and observation consent form

G.1 Interview and observation consent form in English

CONSENT FORM (FACE TO FACE: Version 1, 1st August 2016)

Title: The implementation of the English curriculum in state lower secondary schools in the Valais

Researcher name: Coralie Clerc

Student number: 27847144

ERGO reference number: 23245

Please initial the boxes if you agree with the statements:

I have read and understood the information sheet (version 3) and have had the opportunity to ask questions about the study.

I agree to take part in this research project and agree for my data to be used for the purpose of this study and in related publications.

I agree to be observed in class and I give my consent for the lessons to be audio-recorded.

I agree to be interviewed and I give my consent for the interviews to be audio-recorded.

I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without my legal rights being affected.

Data Protection

I understand that information collected about me during my participation in this study will be stored on a password protected computer and that this information will only be used for the purpose of this study. All files containing any personal data will be made anonymous, real names will be replaced by pseudonyms.

Name of participant (print name).....

Signature of participant.....

Date.....

G.2 Interview and observation consent form in French

FORMULAIRE DE CONSENTEMENT (Version 1, 1^{er} août 2016)

Titre du projet de recherche: La mise en œuvre du PER en anglais dans les écoles publiques du secondaire I en Valais

Nom du chercheur: Coralie Clerc

Numéro d'étudiant: 27847144

Numéro de référence ERGO: 23245

Merci d'inscrire vos initiales dans les cases si vous êtes d'accord avec ces affirmations:

J'ai lu et compris la feuille d'information (version 3) et j'ai eu la possibilité de poser des questions sur ce projet de recherche.

Je suis d'accord de prendre part à ce projet de recherche et j'accepte que les données récoltées soient utilisées dans le cadre de cette étude ainsi que dans les publications associées.

J'accepte d'être observé(e) en classe et je donne mon accord pour que les leçons soient enregistrées de manière audio.

J'accepte de participer aux entretiens et je donne mon accord pour que ceux-ci soient enregistrés de manière audio.

Je consens librement à participer et j'ai pris connaissance du fait que j'ai le droit de mettre fin à ma participation sans conséquence négative ou préjudice.

Protection des données

J'ai pris connaissance du fait que les informations récoltées à mon sujet pendant ma participation seront confidentielles et qu'elles seront uniquement utilisées pour mener à bien cette étude. Toutes données personnelles seront rendues anonymes grâce à l'emploi de pseudonymes.

Nom du/de la participant/e (en caractère d'imprimerie)

Signature du/de la participant/e.....

Date.....

Appendix H Information sheet for parents and consent form

Chers parents,

Je mène actuellement un projet de recherche à l'Université de Southampton (GB) dans le cadre d'un travail de doctorat. Celui-ci porte sur la mise en œuvre du plan d'étude en Valais pour l'enseignement de l'anglais. L'enseignant/e de votre enfant ayant accepté de collaborer, je vais observer sa classe pendant 6 périodes, du ___ au ___ février 2017. Lors de mes visites, je ferai un enregistrement audio des leçons afin de réaliser une transcription écrite fidèle à la réalité. Bien que mon centre d'intérêt soit l'enseignant/e et ses pratiques en classe de langue, des voix d'élèves seront présentes sur les bandes sonores. L'enseignant/e concerné/e et moi-même serons les seules personnes à les entendre. Le nom de l'établissement ainsi que le nom des élèves ne seront mentionnés à aucun moment dans ce projet de recherche approuvé par le Département.

Pour toutes informations supplémentaires, vous pouvez me contacter au + coordonnées.

Je vous remercie pour votre compréhension et vous adresse mes meilleures salutations.

Coralie Clerc (la chercheuse)

L'enseignant/e d'anglais

- J'accepte que les paroles dites par mon enfant pendant les cours d'anglais soient retranscrites anonymement dans le cadre de ce projet de recherche.
- Je refuse toute contribution de mon enfant à ce projet de recherche, ses interventions ne seront donc pas retranscrites.

Nom de l'élève:

Date:

Signature:

Appendix I Origin of the questionnaire items

Table I.1 Origin of the Questionnaire Items and Their Correspondence With the PER

Original items and source	Items of my questionnaire	Correspondence in the Swiss curriculum (PER)
LANGUAGE AND CULTURE		
5. Uses the TL as the main language of communication in the classroom. Kissau et al. (2013)	1. Uses the TL as the main language of communication in the classroom.	Privilégier la communication en langue cible et exposer l'élève le plus souvent possible à l'anglais parlé et cela dans des situations variées (p.43) Utiliser la langue cible comme langue de communication en classe (p.47)
6. Provides opportunities for students to use the TL in and outside of school. Kissau et al. (2013)	2. Provides opportunities for students to use the TL in class.	Privilégier la communication en langue cible (p.43)
7. Encourages foreign language learners to speak in the TL from the first day of instruction. Kissau et al. (2013)	3. Encourages foreign language learners to speak in English from the first day of instruction.	Encourager l'élève à s'exprimer en langue cible (pp.47 et 49)
8. Gives examples of cultural differences between the student's first language and the target language. Kissau et al. (2013)	4. Gives examples of cultural differences between the student's first language and the target language.	Choisir des textes favorisant la découverte des cultures anglophones. (p.45) Fournir aux élèves des outils qui leur permettent à la fois de comprendre leur diversité linguistique et culturelle et de relier entre elles les langues qui en sont l'expression (introduction) Le contact avec la langue et la culture se fait de diverses manières, en variant les supports et les contenus. (p.18)
	5. Considers British English as being the best accent to be taught.	Sensibiliser l'élève à la diversité des accents du monde anglophone (p.43)
TEACHING STRATEGIES		
1. Uses small groups so that more students are actively involved. Kissau et al. (2013)	6. Uses small groups and pair work so that more students are actively involved.	Privilégier les situations favorisant la communication élève-élève (pp.47 et 49)

Appendix I

Original items and source	Items of my questionnaire	Correspondence in the Swiss curriculum (PER)
3. Gives learners tasks to complete (e.g. labelling a picture, filling in blanks) while reading or listening in the TL. Kissau et al. (2013)	7. Gives learners different tasks to complete (e.g., MCQ, matching, open questions etc.) while reading or listening in the TL.	Compréhension orale: Varier le type de tâches proposées (questions à choix multiples, questions ouvertes, appariements, ...) (p.43) Varier les types de tâches liées à la compréhension de la lecture (p.45)
6. Asks students to find out unknown information from a classmate or another source. Kissau et al. (2013)	8. Translates the words that the students do not understand.	Autonomie Faire accéder au sens sans nécessairement passer par la traduction (p. 45) Recours aux moyens de référence (p.45)
8. Uses computers (e.g., computer-based exercises, e-mail, Internet resources). Kissau et al. (2013)	9. Give students the opportunity to use computers, iPads or mobile phones (e.g., computer-based exercises, Internet resources, recordings etc.).	Recours aux moyens de référence (p.45) Favorise l'utilisation de moyens de référence informatiques (correcteur d'orthographe, dictionnaire en ligne, etc.) (p.51)
	10. Gives the students opportunities to practice grammatical structures so that they can improve their level of English.	Exercer les structures grammaticales pour permettre à l'élève d'améliorer ses propres productions (p.51)
	11. Gives the same importance to all the words to be learnt.	Vocabulaire et orthographe: Distingue le vocabulaire actif du vocabulaire passif (p.53)
INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES		
1. Plans activities to meet the needs of foreign language students with a variety of interests. Kissau et al. (2013)	12. Plans activities to meet the needs of foreign language students with a variety of interests.	
2. Plans different teaching strategies and activities depending on the learners' age. Kissau et al. (2013)	13. Plans the same teaching strategies and activities for every learner of a same classroom.	
3. Encourages students to explain why they are learning the TL and how they learn best. Kissau et al. (2013)	14. Encourages students to explain how they learn best.	
4. Teaches foreign language students to use various strategies to improve their vocabulary learning (e.g.,	15. Teaches various strategies to improve their vocabulary learning.	Varier les stratégies d'apprentissage (p.53)

Original items and source	Items of my questionnaire	Correspondence in the Swiss curriculum (PER)
<p>creating a mental picture of the word, memory aids). Kissau et al. (2013)</p>		
<p>5. Teaches foreign language students to use various learning strategies (e.g., self-evaluation, repetition, draw a picture). Kissau et al. (2013)</p>	<p>16. Teaches various language learning strategies (e.g., self-evaluation, repetition).</p>	<p>Les élèves doivent être amenés à gérer leur apprentissage d'une façon de plus en plus autonome, en se familiarisant avec diverses stratégies d'apprentissage et en appliquant celles qui conviennent le mieux à leurs besoins personnels. (p.19) Favoriser la mise en place de stratégies d'écoutes (p.43), de lecture (p.45), de production orale (p.47), de production écrite (p.51)</p>
ASSESSMENT AND GRAMMAR		
<p>1. Understands the basics of linguistic analysis (phonology, syntax) as they apply to the TL. Kissau et al. (2013)</p>	<p>17. Understands the basics of linguistic analysis (phonology, syntax) as they apply to the TL.</p>	<p>Sensibiliser l'élève aux caractéristiques propres à l'anglais parlé (accent tonique, intonation, phonèmes, liaisons, contractions...) (p.17) Exercer la discrimination des sons (p.53) Eviter de calquer l'utilisation des temps en anglais sur l'utilisation des temps en français (simple past, present perfect, ...) (p.53)</p>
<p>4. Grades written assignments mainly on the amount of errors in grammar. Kissau et al. (2013) 26. Grammatical accuracy should be the main criterion to measure students' spoken and written language production. Zhang & Liu (2013)</p>	<p>18. Grades written assignments mainly on the content (rather than on form).</p>	<p>Accorder plus d'importance au contenu et à la compréhensibilité qu'aux erreurs (structures grammaticales, orthographe) afin d'encourager l'expression écrite en langue cible (p.51)</p>
<p>5. Grades spoken language mainly on the amount of errors in grammar. Kissau et al. (2013) 26. Grammatical accuracy should be the main criterion to measure students' spoken and written language production. Zhang & Liu (2013)</p>	<p>19. Grades spoken language mainly on the amount of errors in grammar.</p>	<p>Accorder plus d'importance au contenu et à la fluidité qu'aux erreurs (structures grammaticale, prononciation) afin de favoriser la communication en langue cible (p.49)</p>

Appendix I

Original items and source	Items of my questionnaire	Correspondence in the Swiss curriculum (PER)
6. English teachers should move students beyond drill and memorization and give them opportunities to think, explore and express their ideas. Zhang & Liu (2013)	20. Gives students opportunities to think, explore and express their ideas in English.	Recourir à des exercices d'activation du vocabulaire qui permettent à l'élève d'enrichir ses textes (mind map, brainstorming, ...) (p.51) Ecrire des textes en utilisant sa propre créativité (p.51) Développement de la pensée créatrice (introduction)
7. Teachers should thoroughly explain new grammar rules before asking students to practice the relevant structure. Zhang & Liu (2013)	21. Thoroughly explains new grammar rules before asking students to practice the relevant structure.	Partir de textes pour découvrir les nouvelles règles de grammaire (p.53) Travailler la grammaire le plus souvent possible dans un contexte communicatif et dans un but de communication (p.53)
30. It is more important for teachers to guide students to acquire knowledge than to transmit knowledge to students. Zhang & Liu (2013)	22. Guides students to acquire knowledge rather than to transmit knowledge to students.	Partir de textes pour découvrir les nouvelles règles de grammaire (p.53) Travailler le vocabulaire en contexte (p.53)
SECOND LANGUAGE THEORY		
5. Activities that focus on the exchange of meaningful information between two speakers are more important than activities that focus on the use of grammar. Kissau et al. (2013)	23. Plans activities that focus on the exchange of meaningful information between two speakers.	Travailler la grammaire le plus souvent possible dans un contexte communicatif et dans un but de communication (p.53)
7. Foreign language teachers must correct most student errors. Kissau et al. (2013)	24. Corrects student errors.	Admettre les erreurs comme corollaires inhérents à tout apprentissage de langue (p.17)
8. Having students work in small groups is likely to result in them learning errors in the TL from each other. Kissau et al. (2013)	25. Avoids activities in small groups as it is likely to result in the students learning errors from each other.	Privilégier les situations favorisant la communication élève-élève (pp.47 et 49)
16. Learners must understand every word of a spoken message to understand what is being said in the TL. Kissau et al. (2013)	26. Makes sure learners understand every word of a spoken message to understand what is being said in the TL.	Déduire le sens des mots inconnus à l'aide du contexte et du cotexte (p. 43) Ecoute globale, sélective, détaillée (p. 43)
CURRICULUM		
	27. Adapts the curriculum according to his/her previous experience.	

Original items and source	Items of my questionnaire	Correspondence in the Swiss curriculum (PER)
	28. Looks at the curriculum regularly to make sure he/she follows it.	
19. It is important to complete the teaching syllabus. Carless (1998)	29. Makes sure he/she completes the teaching syllabus.	
26. It is important to do all the exercises in the textbook. Carless (1998)	30. Does all the exercises in the workbook.	
26. It is important to do all the exercises in the textbook. Carless (1998)	31. Does all the exercises in the textbook.	

Appendix J Questionnaire items: translation issues

Table J.1 Original Questionnaire Items, Their Possible Translations and the Version Chosen

Original items in English	Possible translations	Final version
Plans activities to meet the needs of foreign language students with a variety of interests.	1. Planifie des activités qui correspondent aux besoins d'élèves ayant différents centres d'intérêts. 2. Prévoit des activités variées pour s'adapter à la diversité des centres d'intérêts des élèves. (S) 3. Planifie des activités qui répondent aux intérêts variés des apprenants. (N)	12. Planifie des activités qui répondent aux intérêts variés des apprenants.
Moves students beyond drill and memorization and gives them opportunities to think, explore and express their ideas	1. <u>Amène</u> les élèves au-delà du drill et de la mémorisation en leur donnant des occasions de réfléchir, d'explorer et d'exprimer leurs idées. 2. <u>Motive</u> les élèves au-delà du par cœur et leur donne des opportunités de réfléchir, explorer et exprimer leurs idées. (S) 3. <u>Conduit</u> les élèves au-delà du drill et de la mémorisation en leur donnant des occasions de réfléchir, d'explorer et d'exprimer leurs idées. (N)	20. Donne aux élèves des opportunités de réfléchir, d'explorer et d'exprimer leurs idées en anglais.
Avoids activities in small groups as it is likely to result in the students learning errors from each other.	1. Evite les activités en petits groupes <u>comme</u> il est probable que les élèves apprennent des erreurs les uns des autres. 2. Evite les activités en petits groupes <u>car</u> il est probable que les élèves apprennent des erreurs les uns des autres. (S) 3. Evite les activités en petits groupes <u>étant donné qu'</u> il est probable que les élèves intègrent les erreurs des autres. (N)	25. Evite les activités en petits groupes étant donné qu'il est probable que les élèves intègrent les erreurs des autres.

Appendix K Online questionnaire

K.1 Questionnaire in English

The implementation of the English curriculum in state lower secondary schools in the Valais (08/11)

SECTION I: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. What foreign language(s) are you currently teaching (school year 2016-2017)? How many periods a week and at what level? Fill in.

English: 9th grade → number of periods a week: _____
 10th grade → number of periods a week: _____
 11th grade → number of periods a week: _____

German: 9th grade → number of periods a week: _____
 10th grade → number of periods a week: _____
 11th grade → number of periods a week: _____

2. EXPERIENCE: How many years of foreign language teaching experience have you got (without counting the current school year). Circle.

English: none 1-2 3-5 6-8
 9-14 15-20 21 or more

German: none 1-2 3-5 6-8
 9-14 15-20 21 or more

Other foreign language:
 none 1-2 3-5 6-8
 9-14 15-20 21 or more

3. Did you study English when you were yourself a pupil at lower secondary school? Yes/No
4. Are you currently attending one of the following training at the teacher training college (Master's sec. I, diploma sec. II or diploma sec. I and II)? Yes/No
5. What training program(s) have you completed to become a teacher, and an English teacher in particular? Tick what applies to you (you can tick several items).

	English	German	Another foreign language	Other subject
DES or DAES I in Fribourg				
DMG or DAES II in Fribourg				
Demi-licence or bachelor at University				

Appendix K

	English	German	Another foreign language	Other subject
Licence or Master's at University				
Teacher training college (HEP)				
Primary teacher training college				
Language courses organised by the canton (in-service training)				
Didactics courses organised by the canton (in-service training)				
Other training				

6. If you attended another training than the ones listed above, you can specify which one here:

7. Gender: Female Male I prefer not to say

8. Are you currently teaching in a school that is in the plain or in the mountain?

Plain Mountain I prefer not to say

9. Please rate your current level of familiarity with the PER from 1 to 4:

Very unfamiliar 1
 Unfamiliar 2
 Familiar 3
 Very familiar 4

10. Did you teach English at lower secondary in the Valais before 2011? Yes/No

If yes, rate to what extent you modified your teaching after the implementation of the new curriculum (PER) on the following scale:

No modification at all 1
 Some modifications 2
 Several modifications 3
 Numerous modifications 4

Please elaborate:

SECTION II: AN EFFECTIVE ENGLISH TEACHER

In this section we will look at various teaching practices related to the teaching of English at lower secondary school. Using the scale below, indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements. Click the response that best represents your answer. Choose *strongly disagree*, *disagree*, *neither agree nor disagree*, *agree* or *strongly agree*. This table is about what you think an ideal English teacher should do to be effective.

TL=Target language

Ideally, an effective English teacher ...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
LANGUAGE AND CULTURE					
1. Uses the TL as the main language of communication in the classroom.					
2. Provides opportunities for students to use the TL in class.					
3. Encourages foreign language learners to speak in English from the first day of instruction.					
4. Gives examples of cultural differences between the student's first language and the target language.					
5. Considers British English as being the model to be taught.					
TEACHING STRATEGIES					
6. Uses small groups and pair work so that more students are actively involved.					
7. Gives learners different tasks to complete (e.g., MCQ, matching, open questions, etc.) while reading or listening in the TL.					
8. Translates the words that the students do not understand.					
9. Gives students the opportunity to use computers, iPads or mobile phones (e.g., computer-based exercises, Internet resources, recordings, etc.).					
10. Gives the students opportunities to practice grammatical structures so that they can improve their level of English.					
11. Gives the same importance to all the words to be learnt.					
INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES					
12. Plans activities to meet the needs of foreign language students with a variety of interests.					
13. Plans the same teaching strategies and activities for every learner of a same classroom.					
14. Encourages students to explain how they learn best.					
15. Teaches foreign language students to use various strategies to improve their vocabulary learning.					
16. Teaches various language learning strategies (e.g., self-evaluation, repetition, etc.).					
ASSESSMENT AND GRAMMAR					
17. Understands the basics of linguistic analysis (phonology, syntax) as they apply to the TL.					
18. Grades written assignments mainly on the content (rather than on form)					
19. Grades spoken language mainly on the amount of errors in grammar.					
20. Gives students opportunities to think, explore and express their ideas in English.					
21. Thoroughly explains new grammar rules before asking students to practise the relevant structure.					
22. Guides students to acquire knowledge rather than to transmit knowledge to students.					

Appendix K

Ideally, an effective English teacher ...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
SECOND LANGUAGE THEORY					
23. Plans oral activities that focus on the exchange of meaningful information between two speakers.					
24. Corrects student errors.					
25. Avoids activities in small groups as it is likely to result in the students learning errors from each other.					
26. Makes sure learners understand every word of a spoken message to understand what is being said in the TL.					
CURRICULUM					
27. Adapts the curriculum according to his/her previous experience.					
28. Looks at the curriculum regularly to make sure he/she follows it.					
29. Makes sure he/she completes the teaching syllabus.					
30. Does all the exercises in the student's book.					
31. Does all the exercises in the workbook.					

SECTION III: PRACTICES

1. When you teach English, do you collaborate with other English teachers? Yes/No

If yes, how often? 1-2x/month
 3-4x/month
 Other, please specify: _____

2. Did you teach using *English in Mind* in the 9th grade last year? Yes / No

If yes, please rate the book from 1 to 6:

Very bad	1	Quite good	4
Bad	2	Good	5
So so	3	Very good	6

3. How do you decide what to teach and what not to teach in your English classes?

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Regularly	Always	N/A
I discuss it with colleagues.						
I check the Teacher's Resource Book for <i>New Hotline</i> .						
I check the Teacher's Resource Book for <i>English in Mind</i> .						
I check what is required in the PER.						
I decide according to past experiences.						
I check the animation website on the HEP webpage.						
I strictly follow the course book <i>New Hotline</i> .						
I strictly follow the course book <i>English in Mind</i> .						
I check the Teacher Zone on the <i>English in Mind</i> website.						
I use other resources.						

4. If you feel influenced by your past experience (question above), please describe the most influential one(s): _____

5. If you use other resources (question above), can you please tell which?

6. Do you supplement *English in Mind* and its associated resource?

Yes / No / I have never taught using *English in Mind*

If you do, what kind of activities/handouts do you add?

Why do you add them?

7. Do you supplement *New Hotline*?

Yes / No / I have never taught using *New Hotline*

If you do, what kind of activities/handouts do you add?

Why do you add them?

8. Please complete the sentence.

The most important aspect of the new English curriculum is _____

9. Please feel free to provide any further information which you feel should be included in this questionnaire: _____

10. If you are willing to take part in the second part of this research project (interview and observations), you can leave your contact information below, I will contact you:

I thank you for taking the time to answer this questionnaire

K.2 Questionnaire in French

La mise en œuvre du PER en anglais dans les écoles publiques du secondaire I en Valais (08/11)

PARTIE I: INFORMATIONS GENERALES

1. **Quelle(s) langue(s) étrangère(s) enseignez-vous actuellement (année scolaire 2016-2017)? Combien de périodes par semaine et à quel degré? Complétez.**

Anglais: 9^{ème} année → nombre de périodes par semaine: _____
 10^{ème} année → nombre de périodes par semaine: _____
 11^{ème} année → nombre de périodes par semaine: _____

Allemand: 9^{ème} année → nombre de périodes par semaine: _____
 10^{ème} année → nombre de périodes par semaine: _____
 11^{ème} année → nombre de périodes par semaine: _____

2. **EXPERIENCE: Combien d'années d'expérience avez-vous dans l'enseignement des langues étrangères (sans compter l'année en cours) ? Entourez.**

Anglais: aucune 1-2 3-5 6-8
 9-14 15-20 21 ou plus

Allemand: aucune 1-2 3-5 6-8
 9-14 15-20 21 ou plus

Autre langue étrangère:
 aucune 1-2 3-5 6-8
 9-14 15-20 21 ou plus

3. **Avez-vous étudié l'anglais quand vous étiez vous-même élève au Cycle d'Orientation? Oui/ Non**
4. **Suivez-vous actuellement une des formations suivantes à la HEP (Master sec.I, Diplôme sec.II ou Diplôme sec.I et II)? Oui / Non**
5. **FORMATION: Quel programme de formation avez-vous suivi pour devenir enseignant/e, et en particulier enseignant/e d'anglais ? Cochez les éléments qui vous concernent (il peut y en avoir plusieurs).**

	Anglais	Allemand	Autre langue étrangère	Autre branche
DES ou DAES I à Fribourg				
DMG ou DAES II à Fribourg				
Demi-licence ou Bachelor à l'Université				
Licence ou Master à l'Université				

	Anglais	Allemand	Autre langue étrangère	Autre branche
Haute école pédagogique (HEP)				
Ecole normale				
Cours de langue organisés par le canton en formation continue				
Cours de didactique organisés par le canton en formation continue				
Autre formation				

6. Si vous avez suivi une formation autre que celles proposées ci-dessus, vous pouvez préciser laquelle ici: _____

7. Genre: Femme Homme Je préfère ne pas donner cette information

8. Enseignez-vous actuellement dans un cycle de plaine ou de montagne?
 Plaine Montagne Je préfère ne pas donner cette information

9. Veuillez évaluer votre niveau de familiarité avec le PER sur une échelle de 1 à 4:

Très peu familier	1
Peu familier	2
Familier	3
Très familier	4

10. Enseignez-vous l'anglais au Cycle d'Orientation en Valais avant la mise en œuvre du PER (2011)?
 Oui/Non

Si oui, évaluez dans quelle mesure vous avez modifié votre enseignement suite à l'introduction du nouveau plan d'études PER sur l'échelle suivante:

Aucune modification	1
Quelques modifications	2
Plusieurs modifications	3
De nombreuses modifications	4

Veuillez préciser: _____

PARTIE II: UN/E ENSEIGNANT/E D'ANGLAIS EFFICACE

Dans cette partie, nous allons nous intéresser à différentes pratiques en lien avec l'enseignement de l'anglais au Cycle d'Orientation. Dans la grille ci-dessous, cochez la réponse qui représente au mieux la façon dont vous adhérez à chacune des affirmations. Choisissez une réponse parmi les cinq options suivantes: *Pas du tout d'accord*, *pas d'accord*, *sans avis*, *d'accord* ou *tout à fait d'accord* pour chacune des affirmations. Ce tableau définit un enseignant d'anglais efficace selon vous.

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	Pas du tout d'accord	Pas d'accord	Sans avis	D'accord	Tout à fait d'accord
Dans l'idéal, un/e enseignant/e d'anglais efficace					
1. ...emploie l'anglais comme langue de communication dans la classe.					
2. ...donne des occasions aux élèves d'employer l'anglais en classe.					
3. ... encourage les apprenants à parler anglais dès le premier jour.					
4. ...donne des exemples illustrant les différences culturelles entre les différentes langues.					
5. ...considère l'accent britannique comme étant le modèle à enseigner.					
6. ...fait travailler les élèves en petits groupes ou par deux afin qu'ils soient plus impliqués.					
7. ...donne aux apprenants des exercices de différentes natures (ex: QCM, éléments à relier, questions ouvertes, etc.) lorsqu'ils font une activité de compréhension écrite ou orale au cours d'anglais.					
8. ...traduit les mots que les élèves ne comprennent pas.					
9. ...donne aux élèves l'occasion d'employer des ordinateurs, des iPads ou téléphones mobiles (ex: pour des exercices en ligne, pour la recherche d'informations, pour s'enregistrer, etc.).					
10. ...donne aux élèves l'occasion d'exercer les structures grammaticales afin qu'ils améliorent leur niveau d'anglais.					
11. ...attache la même importance à tous les mots que les élèves doivent apprendre.					
12. ...planifie des activités qui répondent aux intérêts variés des apprenants.					
13. ...planifie les mêmes stratégies d'enseignement et les mêmes activités pour tous les élèves d'une même classe.					
14. ...encourage les élèves à expliquer comment ils apprennent le mieux.					
15. ...apprend aux élèves à utiliser différentes stratégies pour améliorer leur apprentissage du vocabulaire.					
16. ...enseigne différentes stratégies pour l'apprentissage des langues. (ex: auto-évaluation, répétition, etc.)					
17. ...est à l'aise avec les éléments linguistiques de base de la langue anglaise (phonologie, syntaxe).					
18. ...évalue les travaux écrits principalement sur leur contenu (plutôt que sur la forme).					
19. ...évalue la production orale principalement selon le nombre d'erreurs de grammaire.					
20. ...donne aux élèves des opportunités de réfléchir, d'explorer et d'exprimer leurs idées en anglais.					
21. ...explique en détail les nouvelles règles de grammaire avant de demander aux élèves de pratiquer ces structures.					
22. ...guide les élèves dans leur acquisition de connaissances plutôt qu'il/elle ne transmet la connaissance aux élèves.					
23. ...planifie des activités orales qui portent sur l'échange d'informations entre deux personnes.					
24. ...corrige les erreurs des apprenants.					
25. ...évite les activités en petits groupes étant donné qu'il est probable que les élèves intègrent des erreurs des autres.					
26. ...s'assure que les apprenants comprennent chaque mot d'un message oral pour qu'ils comprennent ce qui est dit.					
27. ...adapte le plan d'études (PER) en fonction de son expérience.					
28. ...consulte régulièrement le plan d'études (PER) afin de s'assurer qu'il/elle le suit.					

Appendix K

6. Apportez-vous du matériel supplémentaire pour compléter *English in Mind* et les ressources qui lui sont associées?

Oui/Non/Je n'ai jamais enseigné avec *English in Mind*

Si oui, quel genre d'activités/exercices ajoutez-vous?

Pourquoi les ajoutez-vous? _____

7. Apportez-vous du matériel supplémentaire pour compléter *New Hotline*?

Oui/Non/Je n'ai jamais enseigné avec *New Hotline*

Si oui, quel genre d'activités/exercices ajoutez-vous?

Pourquoi les ajoutez-vous? _____

8. Merci de terminer cette phrase:

L'aspect le plus important du PER en ce qui concerne l'apprentissage de l'anglais est

9. Si vous souhaitez ajouter un commentaire concernant l'enseignement de l'anglais au Cycle d'Orientation, vous pouvez le faire ici: _____

10. Si vous êtes d'accord de prendre part à la deuxième phase de cette étude (entretiens et observations), vous pouvez me laisser vos coordonnées ci-dessous et je vous contacterai:

Je vous remercie pour le temps que vous avez consacré à cette enquête.

Appendix L Pilot study of the interview questions

Table L.1 Interview Questions, their Origin and Modifications Done After the Pilot Study

Themes	Final interview questions	Comments
Personal experience as a language learner	1. How has your experience as a language learner been, whatever the foreign language learnt?	“whatever the foreign language learnt” was added after the pilot to make the question clearer
	2. How did you learn best?	
	3. What learning strategies did you use, that you found useful and that worked well for you as a learner?	This question was reworded after the pilot to make it clearer
	4. How does your own experience as a language learner influence the way you teach?	Added after the pilot to make sure they would put their experience and practices in parallel
Training	5. Why did you decide to become an English teacher?	
	6. What training did you do to become a teacher, and an English teacher in particular?	“and an English teacher in particular” added after the pilot
	7. With the benefit of hindsight, what can you say about your training?	During the pilot, the participant reflected critically on her training, therefore I added this question in the final questionnaire
Practices	8. How has the way you teach changed over the years, with experience?	
	9. Can you identify precise aspects of your teaching that have changed?	I had to reword this question after the pilot
Professed belief	10. How would you describe your role as a teacher?	Adapted from Roehrig and Kruse (2005) and Cronin-Jones (1991)

Appendix L

Themes	Final interview questions	Comments
Curriculum and practices	11. How do you decide what to teach in class?	Adapted from Roehrig and Kruse (2005), I added it after the pilot in order to see if they mention the curriculum before I start asking about it
Curriculum	12. What role does the curriculum play when you plan your lessons? 13. What do you like about the curriculum?	
Practices	14. How do you decide to leave out an exercise or aspect of language in class? 15. How do you decide to move on in your classroom, to start doing something different?	Adapted from Roehrig and Kruse (2005), modified after the pilot
Professed belief	16. What are the activities that you especially like because they work best?	Originally, the question was "How do your students learn best?" from Roehrig and Kruse (2005) but I reworded it in order to elicit a particular type of activity
Practices	17. How do you know when learning is occurring in your classroom?	Taken from Roehrig and Kruse (2005)
Professed belief	18. According to you, what aspects of English should students learn in English at lower secondary school, and on which you insist?	Adapted from Cronin-Jones (1991)
Practices	19. If you compare the way you teach German and English, what can you say?	Looking at the teachers' profile in the questionnaire answers, I realised that many taught both so I added this question
Professed belief	20. For you, what does it mean to teach in a communicative way?	

Appendix M Interview questions

M.1 Interview questions in English

To start with, I have some questions to ask you about your training and experience

1. How has your experience as a language learner been, whatever the foreign language learnt?
2. How did you learn best?
3. What learning strategies did you use, that you found useful and that worked well for you as a learner?
4. How does your own experience as a language learner influence the way you teach? To what extent the way you learnt languages influences your teaching?
5. Why did you decide to become an English teacher?
6. What training did you do to become a teacher, and an English teacher in particular?
7. With the benefit of hindsight, what can you say about your training?
8. How has the way you teach changed over the years, with experience?
9. Can you identify precise aspects of your teaching that have changed?

Now talking about your job as a teacher...

10. How would you describe your role as a teacher?
11. How do you decide what to teach in class?
12. What role does the curriculum play when you plan your lessons?
13. What do you like about the curriculum?
14. How do you decide to leave out an exercise or aspect of language in class?
15. How do you decide to move on in your classroom, to start doing something different?
16. What are the activities that you especially like because they work best?
17. How do you know when learning is occurring in your classroom?
18. According to you, what aspects of English should students learn in English at lower secondary school, and on which you insist?
19. If you compare the way you teach German and English, what can you say?
20. For you, what does it mean to teach in a communicative way?
21. Is there anything else you would like to say about teaching English at lower secondary school?

Thank you for your time

M.2 Interview questions in French

J'ai quelques questions à vous poser sur votre formation et votre expérience

1. Pouvez-vous me parler de votre expérience en tant qu'apprenant(e) de langue, toutes langues confondues ?
2. De quelle manière appreniez-vous le mieux ?
3. Pouvez-vous me parler des stratégies d'apprentissages que vous employiez et qui marchaient le mieux pour vous en tant qu'apprenant(e) ?
4. Comment votre propre expérience d'apprenant/e de langue influence-t-elle la manière dont vous enseignez ? Dans quelle mesure la manière dont vous vous avez appris les langues influence-t-elle votre enseignement ?
5. Pourquoi avez-vous décidé de devenir enseignant(e) d'anglais ?
6. Quelle formation avez-vous suivie pour devenir enseignant(e), et enseignant(e) d'anglais en particulier ?
7. Avec du recul, que pouvez-vous dire de votre formation ?
8. Comment vos pratiques ont-elles évolué avec les années, avec l'expérience ?
9. Pensez-vous à certains aspects en particulier, qui ont changé au cours de votre carrière ?

Maintenant revenons à votre métier d'enseignant

10. Comment décririez-vous votre rôle d'enseignant(e) ?
11. Comment choisissez-vous ce que vous enseignez en classe ?
12. Quel rôle joue le plan d'études quand vous planifiez vos leçons ?
13. Que trouvez-vous de bien dans le plan d'études ?
14. Sur quelles bases décidez-vous de laisser de côté l'un ou l'autre exercice ou aspect de la langue ?
15. Comment prenez-vous la décision d'avancer, de passer à autre chose en classe ?
16. Quelles sont les activités que vous préférez car elles marchent le mieux ?
17. Comment savez-vous que les élèves sont en phase d'apprentissage ?
18. Quelles sont les choses que les élèves du cycle doivent apprendre en anglais selon vous, et sur lesquelles vous insistez ?
19. Si vous comparez la manière dont vous enseignez en allemand et en anglais ?
Que pouvez-vous dire ?
20. Que signifie pour vous « enseigner de manière communicative » ?
21. Y'a-t-il qqch d'autre que vous aimeriez dire à propos de l'enseignement de l'anglais au CO ?

Merci pour votre temps

Appendix N Qualitative data collection timeline

Table N.1 Organisation of the Observations and Stimulated Recall Sessions

Participants	Week number	Number of lessons observed	Label	Length of the SR sessions	Lessons covered during the SR sessions	Comment
Mary	1	3	SR 1	34 min	Lessons 1-2-3	
	2	3	SR 2	39 min	Lessons 4-5-6	
Florence	1	3	SR 1	8 min	Lesson 1	The 6th planned observation did not take place.
	2	2	SR 2	19 min	Lessons 2-3	
			SR 3	14 min	Lessons 4-5	
Sylvie	3	4	SR 1	27 min	Lessons 1-2-3	The lessons 3 and 4 were identical, so there was no stimulated recall for lesson 4. The teacher was unable to teach the 6th lesson due to illness. The second SR was done via Skype.
	4	1	SR 2	16 min	Lessons 5	
Anja	3	3	SR 1	25 min	Lessons 1-2-3	The teacher was unable to teach the 5th and 6th lessons due to illness.
	4	1	SR 2	20 min	Lesson 4	
Ellen	3	2	--	--	--	We were unable to plan the stimulated recall at the end of week 3.
	4	4	SR 1	31 min	Lessons 1-2-3-4	
	5	0	SR 2	19 min	Lessons 5-6	
Julie	4	1	--	--	--	This teacher only teaches twice a week, this is why the observations are spread over 3 weeks. She was unable to attend the 5th lesson at the last minute, which postponed the last SR
	5	2	SR 1	33 min	Lesson 1	
	6	1	SR 2	55 min	Lessons 2-3-4	
Cathy	5	3	SR 1	34 min	Lessons 1-2	
	6	3	SR 2	30 min	Lessons 3-4-5-6	

Appendix O Features of stimulated recall data collection

Table O.1 Features of the Stimulated Recall Data Collection. Classification Categories of Introspection Research from Faerch and Kasper (1987)

Category	Use in the present study
Object of introspection	Teachers' practices, habits and choices made in class
Modality	The data were oral and recorded.
Relationship to concrete actions	The introspection was situated, put in relation to concrete classroom events and interventions.
Temporal relation to action	The teachers were observed in their class and the stimulated recall took place after 1 to 4 observations maximum. The number of days between the observation and the stimulated recall session varied from 2 to 7 depending on the teachers' schedule. In the case when the stimulated recall had to be postponed for unexpected reason, the number of days was 9.
Participant training	These stimulated recall sessions did not require any training from the participants. It must be noted that Florence, Ellen and Sylvie had at least two years of experience in talking about their practices in an extensive way thanks to their HEP training.
Stimulus for recall	Responses were prompted thanks to the transcripts of the observed lessons, and thanks to the course book as well. When the SR was made directly after the observed lesson, there was no transcript though and I simply reminded the teacher of what happened just before the event I wanted them to talk about in order to situate it.
Elicitation procedure	<p>I gave the instructions at the beginning of each session, then mentioned what had happened in class just before the moment to be addressed, and finally let the participant read or hear some preselected episodes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What happened in this episode? - How did you take the decision? <p>I selected the events to be discussed. However, the participant were welcome to mention any other relevant events as well.</p>

Appendix P Details about the recoding of the variables

The missing data were coded in three different ways

One when an answer was missing (99); another one which corresponded to inapplicable (98); and a third one when the teachers mentioned how many years of experience they had in English but left the answers blank for their experience in teaching German/other languages, assuming they had none (111).

New variables were created taking into account the teachers' experience and training

With reference to experience, in the final data set, the teachers were described as having either 0 to 2 years of experience, 3 to 5 years, 6 to 8 years or above 9 years of experience teaching English (ExpEng4th). These different categories were inspired by the literature. I grouped the teachers having some experience teaching another foreign language according to the same criterion (ExpGerolag4th). In cases where the teachers taught both German and another foreign language, they were categorised according to the language they had been teaching the longest.

As for their training in English, the new variable (Tr_Eng) consisted of four main categories: teaching diploma in Fribourg for teaching English either at lower or upper secondary school, University Bachelor or Master's degrees in English, in-service training, and Cambridge advanced (CAE) and proficiency (CPE) certificates.

Finally, as far as their didactics training for a foreign language was concerned (Tr_didac4), the teachers could be assigned to four different groups depending on their background: training as part of a degree at the University of Fribourg, training at the HEP, or in-service training. The last group included those who had not received any particular training related to teaching a language and those who had attended more general types of training such as the CRED and the former primary school education programme called "Ecole normale" (see Appendix D for a description of each type of training).

The coding of the dummy variables

I attributed the code 1 when something was true or present, and the code 0 when it was not. Consequently, the teachers who had studied English in lower secondary got 1 (n=29), and those who did not 0 (n=59), those who were (very) familiar with the curriculum got 1 (n=71), and those who were (very) unfamiliar 0 (n=17). As for the teachers' training in didactics, based on the descriptive statistics of section 6.1.3, those who obtained a teaching degree (from a university or a teacher training college) in English or another foreign language got 1 (n=42), and the others 0 (n=45). Since teachers with more than 9 years of experience in teaching a foreign language always scored better according to the descriptive statistics, teachers with less than 9 years of experience were attributed 0 (n=51) and those with either 9 years or more 1 (n=36). Regarding the teachers' training in English, the dummy variables were the following: training at the University of Fribourg or in a HEP (n=16), BA/MA degree (n=28), CAE/CPE (n=6), and other/no training (n=8). The in-service training followed by 31 teachers was excluded because it was regarded as reference category (Grotenhuis & Thijs, 2015, p. 6) against which the results of the other categories would be compared.

Appendix Q Coding book

Table Q.1 Name and Description of the Nodes Created in NVivo for Coding the Data

Name	Description
ASSESSMENT	Mention of some sort of assessment (formative or summative, written or oral, self-assessment)
ass_formative	Mention or presence of formative assessment
ass_oral	Mention or presence of oral summative assessment
ass_written	Mention or presence of written summative assessment
self-assessment	Scored when the participants self-assess the way they (used to) teach
washback effect	Scored when some sort of washback effect is mentioned
CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT	This category consists of several aspects related to classroom management
class size	There is mention of the number of students per class as being either problematic or an advantage
differentiation (difficulty)	Scored when there is mention of differentiation, i.e. when mixed-ability students do not need/receive the same tasks, when teachers plan with these students in mind or talk about it. When teachers say that it is difficult to differentiate, I added the 2 nd code "difficulty"
discipline	This category is scored when there is mention of discipline and/or potential discipline problems
frontal teaching	Refers to some kind of teacher-centred instruction. Created when coding interview Q3
pair and group work	Scored when the teachers are talking about or implementing pair/group work
student-centred	This category is scored when decisions are made taking into consideration the students or when I observed student-centred activities
time management	This category is scored when the teachers mention some issues related to time management. Created when coding the data about Mary
EXPERIENCE	This category consists of several aspects related to experience, to the different types of experience teachers can acquire
collaboration (+/- difficulty)	Scored when teachers work together or talk together about their teaching practices or their students. The collaboration can be positive, negative or difficult
exp_0. apprenticeship of observation (+/-)	Scored when the participants refer to the teachers they had. This influence can be positive or negative. Code created when coding interview Q1
exp_1. own experience as a learner	Scored when the participants mention what they experienced as learners and how it influences them now. Created when organising the node "experience"
exp_2. practicum and substitution	This code refers to the experience gained when doing a practicum or while substituting (before or during the training to become a teacher). Created when organising the node "experience". Can overlap with <i>exp_3</i>

Appendix Q

Name	Description
exp_3. early years as teachers	This category is scored when the participants describe what happened in their first years of teaching English, when they were still novice. Created when coding interview Q7. Can overlap with <i>exp_2 practicum and substitution</i>
exp_4. old vs new (difficulty)	This category is scored when there is mention of a previous teaching method/principle (mainly those that were used when the participants were themselves students), and a new principle focussing more on communication (such as that mentioned in the PER and EIM), or when the participants use in class a principle they experienced as learners. Code created when coding interview Q4. When the participants find it difficult to use the new way of doing, I added the code "difficulty".
vs new_ new way ok	This category is scored when the participants, after explaining what the ancient and new teaching methods imply, mention that they mainly use the new one
vs new_ mix of both	This category is scored when the participants, after explaining what the ancient and new teaching methods imply, mention that they use a mix of both teaching methods/principles
exp_5. learning while teaching	To score this category, there must be reference to the fact that one learns by teaching, that practice is an opportunity to learn. This code is used for novice teachers still learning how to teach and for other ones trying to teach according to some new principles (from EIM). Code created when coding interview Q1
exp_6. transfer	To score this category, there must be mention of some sort of transfer of experience
tr_from another subject	The teachers mention some practices or experience related to teaching another subject (German as a subject for example, or science, PE)
tr_from another language	Indicates that the teachers put in parallel linguistic features from 2 different languages (based on their experience and knowledge of these languages)
intuition	In scoring this category, there must be mention of some kind of intuition guiding the participants. Text search: "feeling"
THE ROLE OF ENGLISH	This category consists of elements pertaining to the rationale for learning English as well as to its knowledge and use
accent in English	Scored when the participants mention the role of accent when speaking/learning in English
ELF	This category is scored when English is regarded as a means of communication with natives and/or non-natives
value of language learning	Scored when the usefulness of knowing foreign languages is being referred to. Created when coding the data related to Florence
travel, language course abroad	Scored when there is mention of travelling as part of learning/using a L2, L3, Lx. Initially created when coding the data related to Florence. Text search: "voyage", "cours de langue"
LESSON PLANNING	This category consists of various components related to lesson planning
objectives	This category is scored when there is mention of learning outcomes. Created when coding the data related to Florence
building up towards an objective	This category is scored when the activities are designed to reach a particular objective. Code created when coding Ellen's observations
planning	Scored when there is mention of how to plan lessons

Name	Description
programme	Scored when the teachers mention the syllabus they have to follow. Created when coding interview Q11 and Q14
FEELINGS AND ABSTRACT CONCEPTS	This category consists of different feelings and abstract concepts
proud of myself	Scored when there is a mention of pride. Created when coding the data related to Mary
frustration	Scored when there is mention of an annoyed or unhappy feeling. Created when coding the data related to Florence. Text search
honesty	Scored when there is mention of an honest way of speaking or behaving. Created when coding the data related to Florence
humour	Scored when there is mention of the use of humour in the language class. Created when coding the data related to Florence. Text search
embarking on sth new	This category is scored when there is mention of taking a risk, making an attempt or trying something new (teachers who plan new types of activities or students who make an attempt to speak in class for example). Created when coding interview Q3. Text search: "oser"
patience	Scored when there is an indication that somebody is being patient. Created when coding Ellen
pleasure	This category is scored when something pleasant is mentioned. Text search: "plaisir"
pleasure to learn/speak	Created when coding interview Q1
pleasure to teach	Created when coding the data related to Florence
problem	Scored when something is regarded as problematic, such as a lack of rigour in teaching grammar/vocabulary, and the issue of transition from one education setting to another. Created when coding the questionnaire section "final further comments". Text search: "verticalité", "collège"
satisfaction	Scored when there is reference to a feeling of pleasure when somebody achieves something. Created when coding interview Q10
self-confidence	Scored when there is an indication that somebody can do something well and feels happy about it, or a lack of such a feeling. Created when coding the data about Mary
TEACHER'S ROLES	This category consists of different roles the teachers have reported to play, or roles I have observed them to play in class. Several of these roles were created when coding interview Q5 and Q10
making the atmosphere comfortable	This category is scored when the participants attach importance to being in a good mood in class or to develop a good relationship with the students
bringing dynamism, acting	Scored when the teachers indicate that their role is to bring dynamism to the class or to act in class because it can be motivating. Text search: "dynamisme", "dynamique" (but "c'est toute une dynamique qui fait évoluer les choses" not included). Initially created when coding interview Q8
encouraging	Scored when there is an indication that the teacher is encouraging their students. It includes the passages where the teachers mention being inclusive to prevent students from giving up. Created when coding Ellen

Appendix Q

Name	Description
reassuring	Scored when the teachers try to make the students feel less worried. Created when coding the observations. Goes hand in hand with "encouraging"
preparing them for life	Scored when the teachers feel like they are preparing their students for their future life
lecturing them	Scored when the teachers give the student(s) a lecture about their lack of interest/work/dedication
motivating	Scored when the teachers make the students want to learn, want to come to class or when they consider that their role is to make them like English
guiding	This category is scored when there is an indication that the teachers are providing tools to guide and help the students, for example helping them to gain confidence or to grow up, or guiding them by identifying themselves with their students
fostering autonomy and participation	Scored when the teacher's objective is to make their students autonomous and/or more active in class
transmitting knowledge	Scored when there is mention that the teacher's role is to transmit knowledge
complex role	This code indicates that the teacher's role is a complex one
trusting	Refers to some kind of trust and/or empowerment from the teacher or from the students
checking and correcting	This code refers to the teacher's traditional role as a person who corrects and checks what the students do. Added when coding interview Q18 and Romy's interview
PHASES OF A LESSON	This category consists of different salient phases of a lesson
link with previous course	Scored when the teacher shows the progression of the course, or when they revise what has been done during the previous one. Created when coding Ellen
routine	This category is scored when the teachers do some routine activities and/or talk about them. Created when coding Florence
RESOURCES AVAILABLE	This category consists of different resources available to the teachers
developing materials for language teaching	Scored when teachers mention that they design some teaching material. Created when coding interview Q8
EiM	This category consists of information related to the new textbook <i>English in Mind</i>
EiM_changes	Scored when the participants mention the changes they have to face with the introduction of EiM. Created when coding interview Q8
EiM_assessment	Scored when the teachers provide an assessment of the course book EiM and/or of the material provided with it
extra activities	Scored when the participants mention extra activities based on online documents, magazines, films, music, media etc. (but excluding the use of computers and iPads in class)
iPad/computers	Scored when there is mention of the use of devices such as computers or iPads (including quizlet online) in class or at home for learning
NH	Scored when the textbook New Hotline is mentioned
PER	Scored when there is mention of the new curriculum PER. Other nodes related to the way the PER is being implemented were created when coding interview Q12

Name	Description
interactive whiteboard	Scored when the participants use or mention the use of the interactive whiteboard or powerpoint. Created when coding Ellen
teacher's book	Scored when the participants mention using (or not) the teacher's book
SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION	This category refers to the way the participants learnt foreign languages. Further information pertaining to this category can be found under the code <i>motivation</i> in the section <i>teaching principles</i>
acqu_Engl (+/-)	This code is related to the participants' experience of learning English. Can be positive or negative
acqu_Ger (+/-)	This code is related to the participants' experience of learning German. Can be positive or negative
acqu_Lx (+/-)	This code is related to the participants' experience of learning a foreign language other than English or German. Can be positive or negative
STRATEGIES	This category consists of different types of strategies observed or referred to by the participants
learning strategies used by the teachers	This category is scored when the teachers explain how they learnt best when they were themselves students. Created when coding interview Q3
strategies used by teachers in class	This category consists of several strategies used by teachers in class in order to enhance their students' learning, showing that they want to help them as much as possible. Can overlap with <i>guiding in teacher's roles</i>
strat_choice	This category is scored when the teacher provides the student with a choice of answers. Created when coding the data related to Florence
strat_drawing	This category is scored when the teacher uses drawings to help the students understand. Created when coding the data related to Florence
strat_mime, imitation	This category is scored when the teacher uses pantomimes to help the students understand. Created when coding the data related to Florence
strat_visual	This category is scored when the teacher uses some kind of visual aids to help the students understand. Created when coding the data related to Florence
strat_voc	This category is scored when other strategies are mentioned to help the student learn their vocabulary, such as quizlet, games, using cards
STUDENTS' CHARACTERISTICS	This category refers to one of the students' characteristics, namely their level of ability
students' level of English	Refers to the students' level of English now that EIM has been introduced
students' level of ability	Refers to the students' general or English level when the teachers mention both strong and weak ones. Created when coding the data about Mary
st_weak	Refers to weak students only
st_strong	Refers to strong and skilled students, often in comparison with weaker ones
TEACHING PRINCIPLES	This category consists of tools, techniques and activities the teachers mentioned, reported to use or actually used when I observed them

Appendix Q

Name	Description
leading the students to the answer	Scored when the teacher does not give the answer to the students, but let them guess or help them find out on their own (for example when the teacher elicits the vocabulary or asks a student to visualise the answer). Created when coding the data about Ellen
contextualised learning	Scored when the focus or activity is contextualised
systematic learning	Scored when there is reference to the fact that grammar elements and vocabulary are/should be learnt in a systematic way
students' autonomy	To score this category, there must be reference to the fact that students (don't) know how to work autonomously. It is also scored when teachers try to favour their students' autonomy. Can overlap with <i>fostering autonomy in teacher's roles</i>
discovering grammar	This code indicates that teachers provide activities where students are given the opportunity to discover how English grammar works, or when they ask the students to look at the objectives in order to discover what grammar aspects will be developed in a particular unit
drill	This category is scored when repetition exercises are mentioned/observed. Created when coding interview Q1. Text search
right to make mistakes	This category is scored when the teacher indicates that the students are allowed to make mistakes. Created when coding the data related to Florence
English in class	This category is scored when the teacher expressly asks or encourages the students to speak English. Created when I reviewed the existing nodes
focus on form	Scored when the emphasis is on a particular grammar, vocabulary or pronunciation problem/aspect. This node was mainly used to code classroom observations
justification	Scored when the teacher asks the students to provide an explanation for their answers. Created when coding the data related to Ellen
games	This category is scored when there is mention of the use of games or of other recreational activities. Created when coded interview Q2. Text search: "jeu" (but "pas les casser d'entrée de jeu", "rentrer dans le jeu" and "se prennent au jeu" not included)
memorising	To score this category, there must be mention of the activity of memorising certain information, which includes learning by heart
motivation	Scored when the participants talk about their motivation (or lack of it) to learn foreign languages when they were students. It is also scored when there is mention of the students' motivation. Text search
working in plenum	Refers to classroom interaction, when the whole class and the teacher work together. Created when checking the final nodes, when I realised that several teachers had mentioned it
positive feedback	Scored when the teachers give some positive feedback to their students. Created when coding the data related to Florence
repetition	To score this category, there must be mention of the value of repetition in learning, which includes chorus repetition
scaffolding, looping back	Scored when the teachers anticipate the students' problems and provide adequate help. Initially created when coding the data related to Florence

Name	Description
TRAINING	This category consists of the different types of training the teachers attended
train_didac	Refers to the didactics training the teachers received
train_Engl laga	Refers to the English training the teachers received
train_Ger laga	Refers to the German training the teachers received
MISCELLANEOUS	This category consists of some other nodes used as second codes
difficulty	To score this category, there must be mention of something that the teachers consider difficult. This is a second code used as a complement to other ones (such as differentiation or ancient vs new for example)
negative	Mentions something regarded as negative. It is a second code (combined for example with Acqu_)
positive	Mentions something regarded as positive. It is a second code (combined for example with Acqu_)

Appendix R Intercoder agreement

Table R.1 Intercoder Agreement Coefficient of Anja's Background Interview

Node	Kappa	ent (%)	nd B (%)	Not B (%)	ent (%)	ot B (%)	ot A (%)
CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT\discipline	1	100	1.33	98.67	0	0	0
CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT\time management	0.7381	96.39	5.63	90.75	3.61	3	0.61
EXPERIENCE\exp_0. apprenticeship of observation (+-)	0	98.14	0	98.14	1.86	1.86	0
EXPERIENCE\exp_1. own experience as a learner	0.585	92.72	6.04	86.68	7.28	5.19	2.09
EXPERIENCE\exp_4. old vs new (+difficulty)	0.6975	94.84	6.83	88.01	5.16	3.02	2.14
EXPERIENCE\exp_4. old vs new (+difficulty)\vs new_ new wa	1	100	0	100	0	0	0
EXPERIENCE\exp_4. old vs new (+difficulty)\vs new_mix of b	0.7805	97.87	4.05	93.82	2.13	1.15	0.98
EXPERIENCE\feeling	0.323	97.28	0.67	96.6	2.72	0	2.72
KNOWLEDGE AND USE OF THE LANGUAGE\accent in Englis	0.7656	98.99	1.69	97.3	1.01	0.9	0.11
KNOWLEDGE AND USE OF THE LANGUAGE\ELF	0.6718	98.17	1.95	96.22	1.83	0.01	1.82
KNOWLEDGE AND USE OF THE LANGUAGE\native-speakeri	0.9784	99.89	2.59	97.3	0.11	0	0.11
KNOWLEDGE AND USE OF THE LANGUAGE\utilité des langu	0	99.24	0	99.24	0.76	0.76	0
KNOWLEDGE AND USE OF THE LANGUAGE\voyage, stage li	0	98.65	0	98.65	1.35	0	1.35
LESSON PLANNING\planification	0.5413	96.69	2.06	94.63	3.31	3.31	0
LESSON PLANNING\programme	0.7401	98.74	1.85	96.9	1.26	0	1.26
LIST OF FEELINGS AND ABSTRACT CONCEPTS\pleasure\plea	0.0249	93.98	0.17	93.81	6.02	2.26	3.76
LIST OF FEELINGS AND ABSTRACT CONCEPTS\pleasure\plea	0.4823	97.5	1.22	96.29	2.5	0.47	2.03
LIST OF FEELINGS AND ABSTRACT CONCEPTS\satisfaction	0	99.53	0	99.53	0.47	0	0.47
LIST OF FEELINGS AND ABSTRACT CONCEPTS\self-confiden	0.9805	99.9	2.59	97.31	0.1	0	0.1
LIST OF TEACHER'S ROLES\qqun qui donne envie\envie d'aç	0	98.67	0	98.67	1.33	0	1.33
LIST OF TEACHER'S ROLES\qqun qui donne envie\envie de \	0.4674	97.99	0.92	97.08	2.01	0.87	1.14
LIST OF TEACHER'S ROLES\qqun qui transmet du savoir	0.5204	98.8	0.66	98.14	1.2	1.13	0.06
LIST OF TEACHER'S ROLES\qui a une bonne relation avec le	0.5808	98.14	1.33	96.81	1.86	1.86	0
SKILLS\skill_gram	0.6258	96.57	3.09	93.48	3.43	2.31	1.11
SKILLS\skill_listening	0.5475	97.16	1.81	95.36	2.84	2.53	0.31
SKILLS\skill_speaking	0.4642	96.12	1.81	94.32	3.88	3.02	0.86
SKILLS\skill_voc	0.5678	97.38	1.81	95.57	2.62	2.31	0.31
SLA\acqu_Engl	0.9603	99.66	4.37	95.28	0.34	0	0.34
SLA\acqu_Ger	0	99.13	0	99.13	0.87	0	0.87
STRATEGIES\learning strategies used by teachers when they	0.8585	99.19	2.53	96.66	0.81	0	0.81
STUDENTS' CHARACTERISTICS\niveau des élèves, level of at	0	99.31	0	99.31	0.69	0.69	0
STUDENTS' CHARACTERISTICS\niveau des élèves, level of at	0.7573	99.19	1.28	97.91	0.81	0	0.81
TEACHING PRINCIPLES\droit à l'erreur	0.5784	99.55	0.31	99.24	0.45	0	0.45
TEACHING PRINCIPLES\English in class (presence, absence)	0.735	97.02	4.48	92.54	2.98	0.59	2.39
TEACHING PRINCIPLES\ludique, jeux	0.6187	97.94	1.75	96.2	2.06	1.18	0.88
TRAINING\train_didac	0.915	99.12	5.06	94.06	0.88	0.21	0.68
TRAINING\train_Engl laga	0.7698	97.51	4.48	93.03	2.49	0.01	2.49

Table R.2 Intercoder Agreement Coefficient of Florence's Stimulated Recall Interview

Node	Kappa	nt (%)	d B (%)	ot B (%)	ent (%)	pt B (%)	ot A (%)
CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT\differentiation (difficulty)	0.7657	96.93	5.49	91.43	3.07	0	3.07
CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT\pair and group work	0.8075	97.82	4.92	92.9	2.18	0	2.18
CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT\student-centered	0.616	92.92	6.58	86.34	7.08	0	7.08
EXPERIENCE\exp_6. transfer\tr_d'un autre cours	0.9802	99.72	7.62	92.1	0.28	0	0.28
KNOWLEDGE AND USE OF THE LANGUAGE\utilité des l	0.8896	97.81	10.08	87.73	2.19	0	2.19
KNOWLEDGE AND USE OF THE LANGUAGE\voyage, sta	0	98.3	0	98.3	1.7	0	1.7
LESSON PLANNING\planification	0.4434	98.21	0.73	97.47	1.79	0	1.79
LIST OF FEELINGS AND ABSTRACT CONCEPTS\fier de n	0.4106	95.66	1.61	94.05	4.34	0.01	4.33
LIST OF FEELINGS AND ABSTRACT CONCEPTS\frustratic	0.6201	98.98	0.85	98.14	1.02	0	1.01
LIST OF FEELINGS AND ABSTRACT CONCEPTS\honesty	0.7909	97.58	4.95	92.62	2.42	0	2.42
LIST OF TEACHER'S ROLES\encouraging	0.8011	96.64	7.63	89.01	3.36	2	1.36
LIST OF TEACHER'S ROLES\encouraging\reassuring	0.8011	96.64	7.63	89.01	3.36	2	1.36
LIST OF TEACHER'S ROLES\qqun qui guide, accompagn	0.3083	96.02	0.93	95.08	3.98	3.98	0
LIST OF TEACHER'S ROLES\qqun qui guide, accompagn	0	98.53	0	98.53	1.47	1.47	0
LIST OF TEACHER'S ROLES\qqun qui rend les élèves aut	0.6051	98.81	0.93	97.87	1.19	1.19	0
PHASES OF A LESSON\routine	0.8676	97.18	10.69	86.49	2.82	0	2.82
SKILLS\skill_spelling	0.912	99.01	5.5	93.51	0.99	0	0.99
SKILLS\skill_voc	0.902	98.37	8.32	90.06	1.63	0.02	1.61
STRATEGIES\strategies used by teachers in class	0.8644	95.5	18.68	76.82	4.5	0	4.5
STRATEGIES\strategies used by teachers in class\strat_v	0.9237	98.8	7.99	90.81	1.2	0	1.2
STRATEGIES\strategies used by teachers in class\strat_v	0.8282	98.39	4.11	94.28	1.61	0	1.61
STUDENTS' CHARACTERISTICS\niveau des élèves, level	0.6893	91.83	11.31	80.52	8.17	0.66	7.51
TEACHING PRINCIPLES\apprentissage en contexte (pré:	0.6262	98.05	1.69	96.36	1.95	0	1.95
TEACHING PRINCIPLES\automatisme, chunk	0.8379	99.53	1.25	98.28	0.47	0.47	0
TEACHING PRINCIPLES\autonomie des élèves	0	95.02	0	95.02	4.98	0	4.98
TEACHING PRINCIPLES\motivation	0.3305	94.22	1.54	92.68	5.78	0	5.78
TEACHING PRINCIPLES\scaffolding, looping back	0.9386	98.98	8.64	90.34	1.02	0.01	1.01
TEACHING PRINCIPLES\traduction	0.9733	99.59	8.17	91.42	0.41	0	0.41

The agreement is considered as fair to good when the Kappa values are ranging from 0.40 to 0.75, which is the case for most of the nodes here.

Appendix S Quantitative analysis outputs

S.1 Exploratory factor analysis with 21 items

Table S.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis With 21 Items Without Entering a Number of Factors to Extract. Total Variance Explained.

Components	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.967	23.653	23.653	4.967	23.653	23.653
2	1.957	9.320	32.973	1.957	9.320	32.973
3	1.704	8.114	41.087	1.704	8.114	41.087
4	1.334	6.351	47.439	1.334	6.351	47.439
5	1.225	5.835	53.273	1.225	5.835	53.273
6	1.066	5.074	58.347	1.066	5.074	58.347
7	1.005	4.784	63.131	1.005	4.784	63.131
8	.877	4.175	67.306			
9	.874	4.160	71.466			
10	.806	3.838	75.304			
11	.705	3.358	78.662			
12	.679	3.234	81.896			
13	.619	2.950	84.846			
14	.539	2.568	87.414			
15	.527	2.511	89.925			
16	.454	2.162	92.087			
17	.425	2.022	94.109			
18	.419	1.996	96.106			
19	.361	1.718	97.824			
20	.274	1.303	99.127			
21	.183	.873	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

S.2 Scree plot

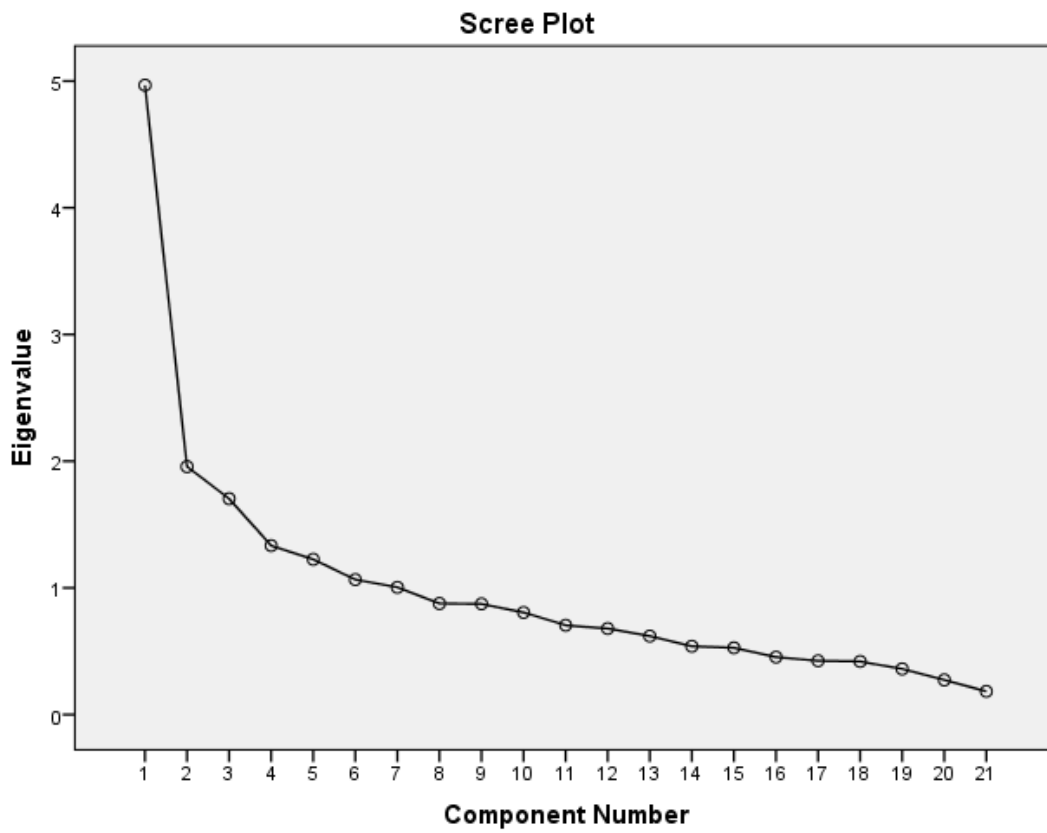


Figure S.2 Scree Plot of 21 Items Without Entering the Number of Factors to Extract

S.3 Factor loading for exploratory factor analysis

Table S.3 Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis Using PCA With Varimax Rotation of Teachers' Beliefs (N=89)

Item numbers and labels		Factors				Communalities
		1	2	3	4	
16	Individual differences	.75	.18	.12	.07	.67
4	Language and culture	.67	.03	.20	.05	.55
15	Individual differences	.63	.08	.12	.40	.61
12	Individual differences	.61	.17	.01	.16	.43
9	Teaching strategies	.54	.08	.12	-.03	.63
7	Teaching strategies	.52	.09	.42*	.01	.63
28	Curriculum	.45	-.07	-.09	.26	.71
25	SL theory	-.06	.71	.25	-.05	.67
13	Individual differences	.04	.70	-.04	.08	.69
23	SL theory	.32	.59	.06	-.00	.68
11	Teaching strategies	.06	.58	.17	.00	.81
2	Language & culture	.29	.50	-.15	.38	.61
6	Teaching strategies	.37	.46	.30	-.11	.68
21	Assessment & grammar	.15	.14	.65	.14	.53
19	Assessment & grammar	.03	.13	.64	.15	.64
22	Assessment & grammar	.28	-.04	.60	.07	.46
20	Assessment & grammar	.26	.05	.19	.66	.68
14	Individual differences	.19	-.16	.12	.63	.55
3	Language & culture	.09	.03	.50*	.57	.73
1	Language & culture	-.14	.22	.42*	.55	.73
26	SL theory 2	.01	.45	-.13	.47*	.56

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation

Rounded to the nearest integer

The communality of each variable indicates the variance it shares with the other variables

S.4 Questionnaire after the factor analysis

Item number	FACTOR 1: GENERAL METHODOLOGICAL VARIETY (High scores indicate that the teacher promotes variety and the use of strategies in his lessons)
4	Gives examples of cultural differences between the student's first language and the target language.
7	Gives learners different tasks to complete (e.g., MCQ, matching, open questions, etc.) while reading or listening in the TL.
9	Gives students the opportunity to use computers, iPads or mobile phones (e.g., computer-based exercises, Internet resources, recordings, etc.).
12	Plans activities to meet the needs of foreign language students with a variety of interests.
15	Teaches foreign language students to use various strategies to improve their vocabulary learning.
16	Teaches various language learning strategies (e.g., self-evaluation, repetition, etc.).
28	Looks at the curriculum regularly to make sure he/she follows it.
 FACTOR 2: PLANNING AND METHODOLOGICAL CHOICES REGARDING LT (High scores indicate that the teacher follows CLT principles when planning)	
2	Provides opportunities for students to use the TL in class.
6	Uses small groups and pair work so that more students are actively involved.
11	Gives the same importance to all the words to be learnt. NEG
13	Plans the same teaching strategies and activities for every learner of a same classroom. NEG
23	Plans oral activities that focus on the exchange of meaningful information between two speakers.
25	Avoids activities in small groups as it is likely to result in the students learning errors from each other. NEG
26	Makes sure learners understand every word of a spoken message to understand what is being said in the TL. NEG
 FACTOR 3: FOCUS ON MEANING (High scores indicate that the teacher puts the emphasis on communication rather than on form)	
19	Grades spoken language mainly on the amount of errors in grammar. NEG
21	Thoroughly explains new grammar rules before asking students to practise the relevant structure. NEG
22	Guides students to acquire knowledge rather than to transmit knowledge to students.
 FACTOR 4: COMMUNICATION IN THE CLASSROOM (High scores indicate that the teacher promotes the use of English in class and also gives the students the opportunity to express themselves)	
1	Uses the TL as the main language of communication in the classroom.
3	Encourages foreign language learners to speak in English from the first day of instruction.
14	Encourages students to explain how they learn best.
20	Gives students opportunities to think, explore and express their ideas in English.

S.5 Correlation matrix, Pearson correlation

Table S.5 Correlation Matrix of the First Factor (General Methodological Variety) with the Three Independent Variables

	F1 General methodological variety	Experience teaching English D	Studied English at CO	Training in didactics
F1 General methodological variety	1.000			
Experience teaching English D	.240	1.000		
Studied English at CO	.201	.114	1.000	
Training in didactics	.243	-.006	-.083	1.000

S.6 P-P plot of Factor 1

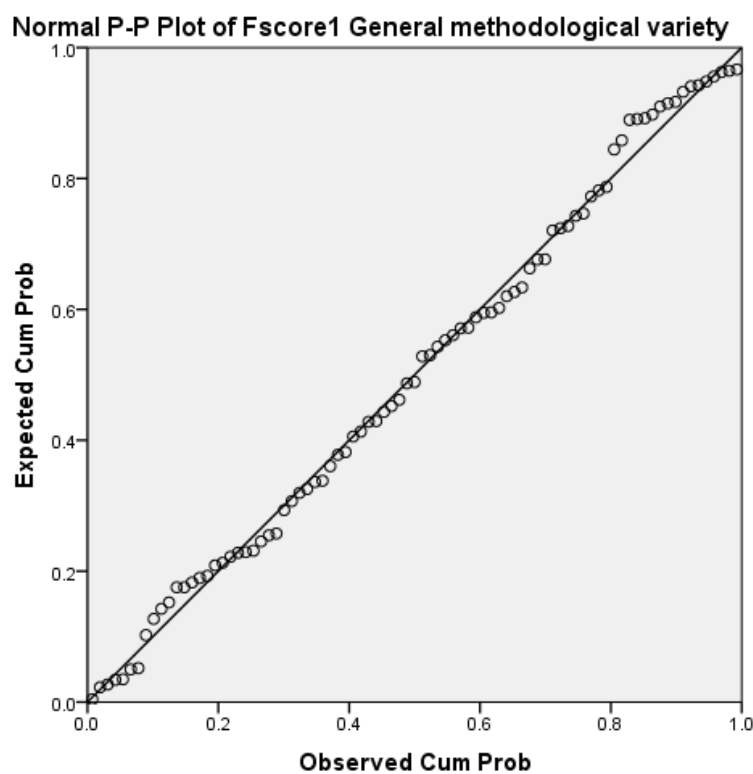


Figure S.6 P-P Plot Assessing the Normal Distribution of Factor 1

S.7 Scatterplot of the Model

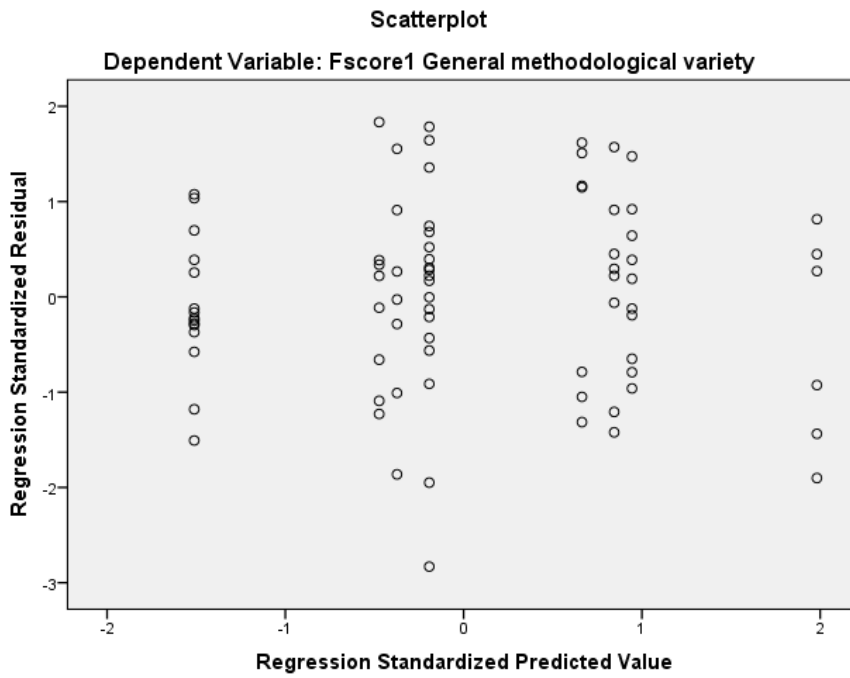


Figure S.7 Scatterplot Used to Examine the Residuals of the Model

S.8 Normality of the Model

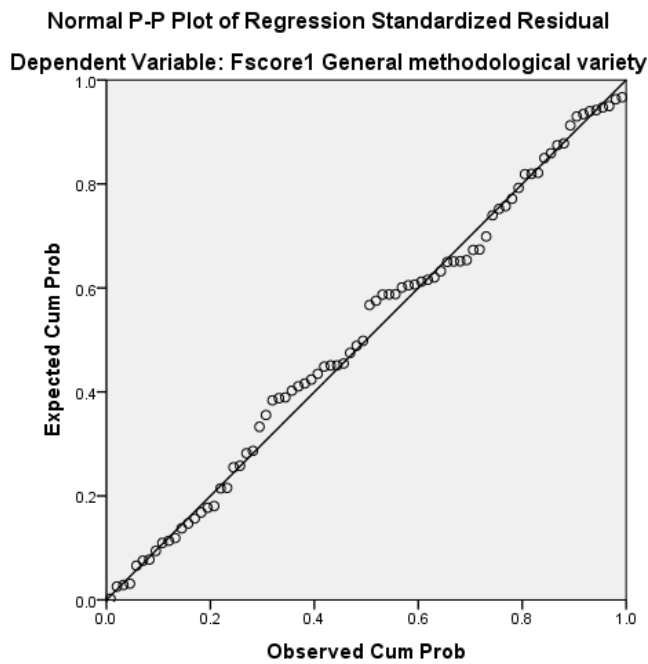


Figure S.8 P-P Plot Assessing the Normal Distribution of the Model

Appendix T Salient practices and beliefs: the examples of Mary and Florence

Table T.1 Summary of Mary's and Florence's Salient Practices and Beliefs

Participants	Interview → Observations → SR	Observations → SR/Interview
Mary	Pronunciation matters Importance of culture Working on strategies	Helping weak students Vocabulary matters Learning in a systematic way Effectiveness of repetition (voc, gram) Using English in class Working altogether in class
Florence	English for the students' future job Importance of culture	The power of routine The right to make mistakes Respect prevails in class The effectiveness of strategies Importance of scaffolding and anticipation Importance of stating the objectives Importance of verifying the objectives Helping weak students

This table summarises salient aspects of Mary's and Florence's practices as well as stated and enacted beliefs (revealed by the interviews and observations). As for the stimulated recall interviews, they provided me with a post-facto rationalisation of what had happened in class to confirm the beliefs I had attributed to them.