

**Self-Efficacy in Teaching and Learning to Read
in English in Private and Public Primary Schools in Kuwait**

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To my mother Haifa'a and father Najeeb ...

And to the purest souls I have lost during this journey: my grandmothers, Mama Taibah and Mama Hessah.

Abstract

English education for primary school children in Kuwait has been compulsory since a Ministerial policy was implemented in 1992/93. However, in response to insignificant educational performance and attainment in English among such children over recent years, this research sought to explore self-efficacy on both teaching and learning of English reading. Exploring self-efficacy was important as in the context of education, this trait represents an individual's capacity and belief to achieve a desired level of performance. The study also aimed to explore whether any differences in self-efficacy in learning/teaching English reading exists between private and public primary schools. A mixed-methods design was adopted to allow for a quantitative cross-sectional survey of teachers and students, using the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997), the New Group Reading Test (NGRT) (GL Assessment, 2018) and the Parents Demographic Questionnaire, plus qualitative semi-structured interviewing of participants, to explore experiences in more depth. Convenience sampling was used to recruit students into the quantitative phase of the study ($n = 91$) and a sample of 12 students and 12 teachers participated in qualitative interviews. The quantitative data was analysed using a range of inferential statistics, while the qualitative data was analysed via thematic analysis. Internal consistency of the MRQ, NGRT and TSES were high with overall Cronbach alpha values of 0.90, 0.88, and 0.95 respectively. Parents Demographic survey revealed all parents to be of Kuwaiti ethnicity, and most had a Bachelor level of education (34.8-56.5%: public school, 65-85% private school), modest (60%) to high (40%) income among private school parents, low (43.5%) to middle (43.5%) income among public school parents, and the presence of maids that spoke English (84.2-88.9%). At baseline, mean scores on the NGRT were 0.33 (T1) and 0.43 at six months (T2) for public school students and 0.79 (T1) and 0.81 (T2) for private school students, while mean MRQ scores for the respective groups were 2.07 (T1) and 2.20 (T2) and 2.92 (T1) and 3.05 (T2), indicating superior performance among private school students. Correlations in scores for the MRQ and NGRT between time points were significant (all $p < 0.01$). Simple regression revealed that self-efficacy accounted for 14-18.8 percent of the variance in MRQ performance, favouring public school students. Stepwise modelling revealed that the lower performance in NGRT in public schools was significantly explained by lower levels of self-efficacy ($p = 0.046$). Thematic analysis revealed that students held strong desires for learning reading in English, given its extensive use across the world and the perception that it optimised future life prospects. However, differences in exposure to native English speakers, enjoyment of learning English, parental and sibling support in learning English, teaching approaches, and resource availability to support learning appeared to influence learning performance. The data from the teacher interviews also revealed that learning was influenced by resource availability, passion and enjoyment of teaching, perceived importance of students learning English, education and training in teaching methods, and fluency in English. Overall, this research was able to triangulate quantitative and qualitative evidence to show that self-efficacy plays a crucial role in the teaching and learning of English for primary school children, in both public and private schools, and that it likely provides a key foundation for advancing learning in later school years. However, self-efficacy was mainly present among private school students and was lacking or present at low levels among public school students; this may account for current variances in academic performance in the Kuwaiti primary school system.

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

| | |
|-------|--|
| CLIL | Content and Language Integrated Learning |
| CLT | Communicative Language Teaching |
| CPD | Continuing Professional Development |
| EFL | English as a Foreign Language |
| EIL | English as an International Language |
| ELT | English Language Teaching |
| ESL | English as a Second Language |
| ESLC | European Survey on Language Competences |
| IRR | Inter-Rater Reliability |
| L1 | First Language (Arabic in this study) |
| L2 | Second Language (English in this study) |
| MRQ | Motivation for Reading Questionnaire |
| NGRT | New Group Reading Test |
| PDQ | Parents Demographic Questionnaire |
| PISA | Programme for International Student Assessment |
| PIRLS | Progress in International Reading Literacy Study |
| SEM | Self-Efficacy Mechanism |
| SLA | Second Language Acquisition |
| TESOL | Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages |
| TSES | Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale |
| RQ | Research Question |

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Declaration

I declare that this thesis is a presentation of original work and I am the sole author. This work has not previously been presented for an award at this, or any other, university. All sources are acknowledged as references.

Chapter 1: Introduction and Context

1.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study is to investigate the teaching of reading and learning to read in English in primary schools in Kuwait and the concept of teachers' and students' self-efficacy in this context. All schools, whether public or private, are supervised by the Ministry of Education in Kuwait. In the academic year 1992/93, an expansion of education was announced and compulsory English was introduced into all primary schools by Ministerial decree (MOE, 2013; PAAET, 2013). At the time, there was considerable debate about the appropriateness of this strategy among teachers and the wider population. Those who had international experience generally welcomed the inclusion of new methods, while others who were more accustomed to local traditions were unconvinced that the pedagogical methods would work (Al-Mutawa, 1996). A common textbook and assessment regime was prescribed, and the grammar translation method was used at that time.

In 2005, the Ministry of Education announced a shift in policy, replacing the grammar translation method with the communicative method; this was in line with recent pedagogical theories, which recommend the communicative method for teaching English as a Second language (ESL) or as a Foreign language (EFL). Once again, this reform required that all schools must follow a nationally agreed textbook and syllabus, a regularly revised Teachers' Manual (MOE, 2005, 2008), structured to align with periodic assessments supervised by the Ministry. This framework is designed to provide a uniform system in which every child learns English from the start of primary school. There are four periods of compulsory English per week, compared to nine or ten periods for Arabic (UNESCO, 2011).

Research has shown that this latest reform has been met with mixed responses from teachers. The first emphasis of this policy provided no reading and writing instruction in the first year. One very recent study of first grade teachers in Kuwait found that they believed that "certain communicative techniques were seen by many of the teachers to contribute to slow academic progress and motivational problems, not translating vocabulary, not overtly

correcting errors, not teaching reading and writing, and not giving formal tests” (Al-Darwish, 2017, p.31).

1.2 Research Area

This study looks at self-efficacy for teachers and students in relation to the teaching and learning of reading in English as a foreign language. Self-efficacy relates to a person’s belief and capacity to achieve a particular performance. For instance, even when a reading text appears challenging beyond their current level, a learner might be confident in their reading strategies that they have used on simpler texts or with support and feel able to master this new text. Likewise, a teacher may have helped a learner with additional support needs and be confident that they can draw on this pedagogical experience when supporting another learner with different needs.

A useful framework for investigating self-efficacy in the context of primary schools is that of educational psychologist Albert Bandura, who highlighted the importance of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977), and the related concept of perceived self-efficacy in child development. Bandura (1997, p. 191) hypothesised that “expectations of personal efficacy determine whether coping behaviour will be initiated, how much effort will be expended, and how long it will be sustained in the face of obstacles and aversive experiences”. Furthermore, this theory suggests that if a learner overcomes initial difficulties in his or her learning journey, this helps to build the learner’s self-efficacy, and reduces reluctance to participate in class task later on.

It is interesting that although this is clearly a psychological framework, the focus is not just on the learner, but on the educators and the environment as well, since these factors are also important influences on everything that happens in schools. The students, teachers and institutional levels all influence the educational experience of education in different ways, such as students’ own aspirations and level of motivation, or the types of learning environment and level of academic progress students achieve, and school-level achievement (Bandura, 1993). This multi-level framework provides an excellent basis for a study that seeks to gain a deep understanding of the complex issues around learning to read English,

focusing on the question on self-efficacy, but at the same time remaining open to the dynamic and aspects of classroom interactions, as well as the wider cultural and institutional background.

Another key feature of Bandura's view of self-efficacy is the importance of goal setting, whether this be something that the teacher does, or the student does, or something that is absent while a learner is in school. Using social learning theory as a starting point, Bandura and Schunk (1981, p. 585) argue, in a study on children learning mathematics, that self-efficacy through proximal goal setting "serves as an effective mechanism for cultivating competencies, self-precepts of efficacy and intrinsic interests". Another study by Zimmerman, Bandura and Martinez-Pons (1992) noted that parents generally set higher goals for students than do students themselves, theorising that students do not always regulate their activities in such a way as to maximise their own learning potential, although they acknowledge that it is difficult to explain why this varies so much between individual students.

1.3 Rationale for the Study

The current study has implications for many aspects of both primary school teaching and learning, including the extent to which primary teachers structure and lead their students, presenting materials in carefully graded ways through a syllabus and/or textbook, and the extent to which students are expected to develop their own abilities in setting goals, verifying their progress, sustaining interest, and motivating themselves to continue learning. Moreover, students experience reading as a difficult task, and they seem unwilling to persevere until they achieve success (Al-Darwish, 2017). This situation requires further investigation, and is the main reason why the present study is set in Kuwaiti primary schools.

Several research shows that self-efficacy and motivation affect success, and this is the focus of this research, is to explore self-efficacy in teaching and learning to read in English, as well as contributing to the development of self-efficacy in learners and teachers.

There is still very little research into the impact of recent educational reforms on student performance, and research that does exist appears to show that many students throughout the primary sector are demotivated, and most of them make very slow progress and achieve disappointing outcomes in English (Alhashem & Alhouti, 2021; Mohamed & Morris, 2021). This situation is the starting point for the present study. More research is needed to explore the factors that hinders the primary school learners, and to investigate if students' self-efficacy relates to their reading outcome. A better understanding of the factors that affect student in learning to read English should shed some light on the disappointing achievement levels in this area, especially in public primary schools. Since private schools have more freedom to teach and implement their own strategies than in the public school, a comparison between public and private sector at the level of student, teacher, home and institution, using social learning theory as a framework might suggest where specific changes to pedagogy in public schools could be made.

1.4 Research Questions

The main research question is:

1. What is the role of self-efficacy in the teaching and learning of reading English among private and public primary schools in Kuwait?

This general question is explored using the following more specific research questions:

2. Do the levels of self-efficacy and reading outcome among primary students differ between private and public primary Kuwaiti schools?
3. What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?
4. Do the levels of self-efficacy among teachers differ between private and public primary Kuwaiti schools?
5. What are the teachers' belief or perceptions about teaching English reading in private and public primary schools in Kuwait?

1.4.1 Research Gaps

In the context of Kuwait and other Arabian Gulf countries, reforms to the teaching of English throughout the education system have been both quick and far-reaching (Alhashem & Alhouti, 2021), resulting in a need to reflect on their impact, and consider options for the future direction of English language education which meet both pedagogical and political objectives (Abi-Mershed, 2010). Understanding students and teachers self-efficacy and the factors that might influence the development in learning and teaching reading in ESL/EFL in Kuwait, at the present time, is a necessary first step towards improving the teaching and learning experience in the future.

1.5 Research Methodology

1.5.1 Design of the Research

The approach taken to research these complex questions can be described as ‘mixed methods’; this is, the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods techniques. Quantitative methods can be good for obtaining a quick snapshot of one or two aspects of an issue, in this case there are likely to be long-term factors that link in with shifting, contextual factors, so quantitative analysis is of limited value on its own (Creswell, 2007). It is recognised that teachers have a wealth of knowledge about their settings, and that this knowledge is invaluable in testing theories, making new theories, and investigating real-world problems (Kincheloe, 2002). Students, even when they are very young, also have their own views on the learning process, and it is good practice to give students a voice in research, by listening to them and including their perspectives in any analysis of the educational experience (Hsiu-Chinh, 2009).

The method that is best suited to the exploration of complex issues and context-specific is therefore a mixed-method study. This is because mixed-method studies allow a range of different qualitative and quantitative instruments and data sets to be gathered, in order to provide a rich and deep understanding of complex and dynamic issues. By taking all of this information together and triangulating it, the researcher can capture the complexity of

educational experiences and explore the elements of agreements and the contradictions that exist between different points of view.

1.5.2 Data Collection

The following six instruments formed part of this mixed-method study:

1. Teachers' questionnaire

A teachers' questionnaire (adapted from Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, (2001) Teacher's Sense of Efficacy Scale, (tailored to investigate reading skills) was used in order to gather views from English teachers at primary level in Kuwait, from both private and public schools, specifically from the teachers of students participating in this study. All participants (six teachers from private school and six teachers from public school) have current or recent experience of teaching reading at primary level.

2. Semi-structured interviews with teachers

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with six private school teachers and six public school teachers. Each interview lasted approximately 30 minutes in the workplaces of the participants, and was audio recorded using a laptop computer, transcribed, and analysed thematically. The advantage of this method is that it allowed education professionals to describe their experience in their own words, and from their own perspectives, using their own vocabulary and definitions, and giving their individual point of view (Crabtree and Miller, 1992).

3. Student questionnaires

The student questionnaire was designed using a sub-set of the questions contained in the Wigfield & Guthrie (1997) Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ). It contained questions examining only the following five constructs: Reading Efficacy, Reading Challenge, Reading Curiosity, Recognition for Reading and Social

Reasons for Reading. This amounts to a total of 26 items, which was distributed to year five students in public schools and private schools in Kuwait, a total of 91 students altogether, in two different times in a year, one at the beginning of the academic year, and the other after six months.

4. Semi-structured interviews with students

The interviews were conducted with a total of 12 students (six from public schools and six from private schools), and data related to the construct was analysed using the recognised approach of thematic analysis as specified by Braun and Clarke (2006). The interview gave the students the space to share their opinion and views about reading in English, and looked for the factors that might influence their development in reading in English.

5. Group comprehension tests

The New Group Reading Test (NGRT) was given at the beginning and at the end of the academic year, to the same students that participated in the MRQ – a total of 91 students. This measured a cohort reading comprehension outcomes (including absolute achievement, and progress from start to finish of the year) in the private and public schools, and related it to their motivation in reading questionnaire.

6. Parents Demographic Questionnaire

The parents' demographic questionnaire was administer to parents of students in the study, seeking to gain data around students' home lives as well as how parents felt about provision in the school. The aim here was to enrich the description of the study schools so that transferability could be judged by readers, but also to explore some of the potential reasons for differences between the two schools around, for instance, parental income, and the use of English at home.

1.6 Data Analysis and Results

Data such as the students' test results, questionnaire (from students and teachers), parents demographic questionnaire and TSES scale, was analysed quantitatively using SPSS. The data was compared between private and public schools using the appropriate tests, graphs and tables (*T-test, ANOVA, Multiple Regression*). Qualitative data such as teachers' students' interviews was analysed using thematic analysis by Braun and Clark (2006).

1.7 Contribution of the Study

The main contribution of this study is the potential gain of a better understanding of self-efficacy in the teaching and learning of reading in English in the particular context of primary schools in Kuwait. The concept of self-efficacy itself has been explored across the world at the theoretical level, and there have been many empirical studies to examine its impact in the teaching of English. However, so far little work has been done on how this relates to the Kuwaiti primary school context. The present study fills this gap by focusing on both public and private primary schools in Kuwait and gathering new data from students, teachers and parents. The necessarily subjective self-report data is analysed alongside factual information, such as the nature and purpose of reforms in the Kuwaiti system, teaching methods and materials used, and demographic details relating to the families of the students in question. The result is a rounded picture of the tangible and intangible factors that affect the development of reading in young learners, and new insights into the impact of recent educational reforms on the teaching and learning of English reading, including differences between public and private school student and staff experiences. Altogether, this study provides an evaluation of the current situation and new empirical data which can be used to inform future educational policies.

1.8 The Context: Kuwait – A General View

Kuwait is located in the Arabian Gulf, next to much larger neighbours Saudi Arabia, Iraq and Iran (Figure 1). It has a territory of 2,200 square miles (5,700 square km) which consists of coastal areas at or near sea level and deserts further inland.

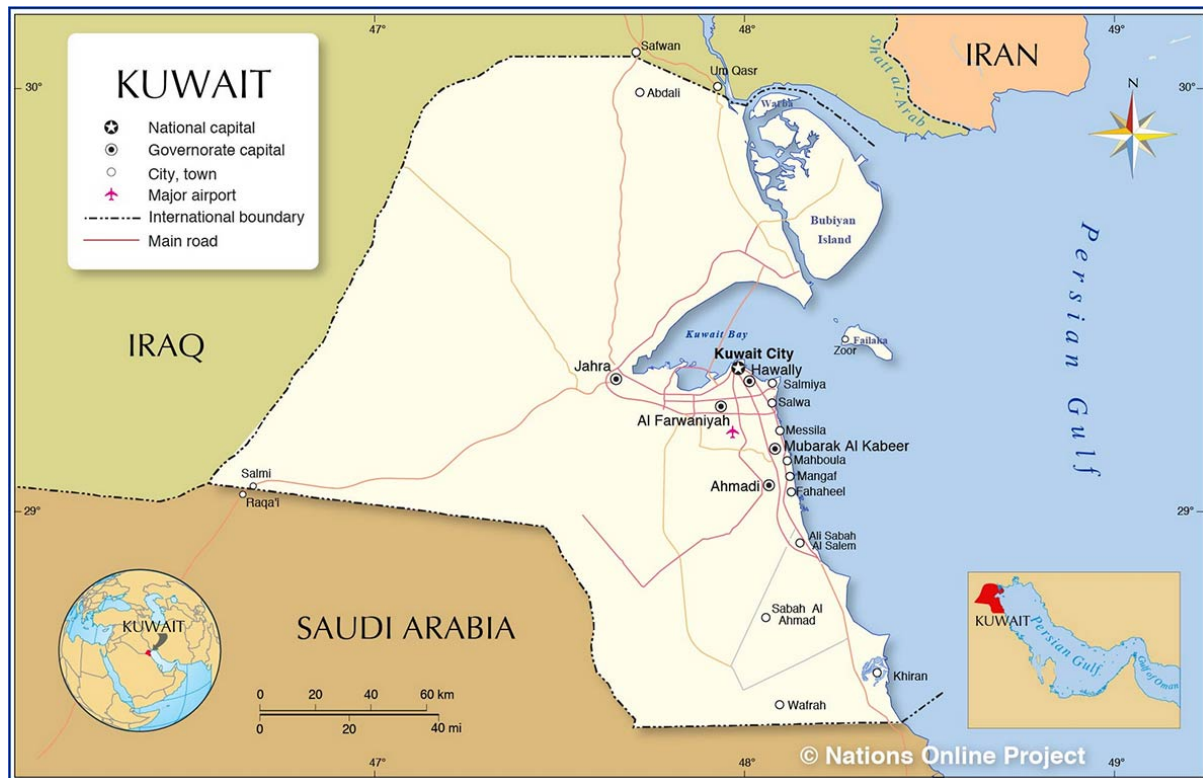


Figure 1: Map of Kuwait

(Source: <http://www.nationsonline.org/oneworld/kuwait.htm>)

It has been ruled by Al Sabah royal family for over 250 years. The current population of Kuwait is about 3.5 million, including about 2.4 million non-Kuwaiti citizens, with an urban/rural mix of about 98%/2% (Aljazeera, 2021, p.1). The country is Islamic, contributing to the cultural and religious landscape. One of the country's biggest challenges is to integrate all the foreign workers into the life of the public, and to expand an economy that has too long relied on the country's large fossil fuel resources.

There is a comprehensive national strategy called *Kuwait Vision 2035* (Government of Kuwait, 2021). The goal of this strategy is specified as "... transforming Kuwait into a

financial and commercial center that attracts international investment, in which the private sector leads the economic activity, encourages the spirit of competition, raises the efficiency of production under a supportive institutional state apparatus ...” (Government of Kuwait, 2021, p. 1).

This document also has a section entitled *Creative Human Capital*, which lists as its main aim to “reform the educational system to better prepare young people to become competitive and productive members of the national workforce”. The official language is Arabic, but over the last decade Kuwait has heavily invested in the teaching of English as well (UNESCO, 2011, p.1).

1.8.1 History of Education in Kuwait

Facts and figures about primary education in Kuwait before the 1950s are difficult to find, since records were not published in a systematic way. Like most other Muslim majority countries, participation in primary education was low, partly because of the tradition of only educating boys in school. Girls would receive an informal education at home, provided by parents or relatives. Moreover, public primary schools in Kuwait have always had a strong religious element based on the Holy Quran, which encourages individuals, be they male or female, to get an education. This led to a sharp increase in primary school participation when girls were allowed but was not compulsory to join primary education system, such that both boys and girls are now expected to complete a full primary education.

This all changed in 1965, when Law No. 1 was passed, stipulating that “Education is compulsory and free of charge for all Kuwaiti children from the first grade of primary education to the end of the secondary level” (UNESCO, 2011, p. 3). The Ministry of Education provided funding for school buildings and support for students in the form of free uniforms and meals. It was not until the 1970s that UNESCO’s statistical yearbooks began to provide more reliable country-by-country data (Benavot & Riddle, 1988), allowing Kuwait’s education system to be compared with other countries in the Arabian Gulf region.

Public schools have a long history, starting in the early twentieth century. The aim was to prepare children for future leading roles in society. In 1912, the Mubarakiya school was set

up to provide education to children who would be office workers or hold jobs in the government and private sectors; however, the global depression of the 1930s and the decline of the pearl industry caused so much financial hardship that the schools had to close (El-Sanabary, 1992). This trend demonstrates how the country's economic development has had both positive and negative effects on the expansion of education in Kuwait.

By the last decade of the twentieth century, geopolitical events and globalisation again affected Kuwait very severely, through the impacts of invasion and economic uncertainty, as well as the fostering of strong links with English-speaking allies. During this period, there was a greater emphasis on education in general, together with an awareness of serious issues that needed to be addressed in literacy and proficiency (Al-Mutawa et al., 2021; Alhashem & Alhouti, 2021; Meerza & Beauchamp, 2017), if Kuwait was to maintain a strong economic position in a competitive world.

1.9 Primary Stage in Kuwait

English is Kuwait's official second language, in recognition of the international role that Kuwait plays in banking and investment. In addition, a good command of English is seen as an essential prerequisite for high-level employment in Kuwait today (El-Dib, 2004). These official policies ensure that English has a high and positive place in the primary school curriculum, although the experience of teachers and students in schools is rather different. Indeed, negative reports in academic studies were raised concerning the inefficacy of some traditional educational, teacher-led methods and techniques used in the classroom (Al-Sahel, 2005).

In 1969, the Education Ministry of Kuwait suggested introducing English at the third primary grade but this suggestion was not implemented immediately, mainly due to considerable resistance from the public. It was not until September 1992 that the Ministry finally issued a decree making the teaching of English compulsory at the first grade of state and private primary schools (Al-Mutawa, 1996). This took effect in the following academic

year, 1993/94, as part of a much wider expansion and modernisation of primary education (MOE, 2013; PAAET, 2013).

The curriculum is set by the Ministry of Education and all public schools are expected to follow the same balance of subjects, use the same approved textbooks, and enter their students for the same national tests and examinations. The weekly structure of lessons was confirmed in 2004 and continues until today, as shown in Figure 2 below:

Primary education: weekly lesson timetable

| Subject | Number of weekly periods in each grade | | | |
|-----------------------------|--|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| | I | II | III | IV |
| Islamic education | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| Arabic language | 10 | 10 | 9 | 9 |
| English language | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| Science | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 |
| Mathematics | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 |
| Social studies | — | — | — | 2 |
| Physical education | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| Fine arts | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| Music | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| Total weekly periods | 32 | 32 | 32 | 32 |

Source: Information provided by the Gulf Arab States Educational Research Center (GASERC), November 2004. Each teaching period lasts 45 minutes.

Figure 2: Kuwaiti Primary Curriculum for Grades I–IV in 2004

1.10 Teaching English to Young Learners in Kuwait

When compulsory English was first introduced, traditional teaching methods, in particular the grammar translation method based on the use of Arabic as the medium of instruction were used, where exercises are translated into the pupils' mother tongue. It was noted from the start, however, that students who have Arabic as their first language make very slow progress and generally "lack this crucial ability to read quickly and effectively in English" (Al-Shammari et al., 2008, p. 82). The reason for this may lie at least partly in the fact that methods used for teaching Arabic reading, including the reading of religious texts (the holy Qur'an), emphasise repetition and memorisation. Students are taught English

mostly through Arabic, and have to learn required vocabulary or read required texts. The teacher's role is to explain the material in advance, encourage learners to repeat what they have learnt, and correct any errors as they go along. Teachers are trained in this method for learning and teaching Arabic, so naturally tend to use it when it comes to teaching and learning English.

The desire of the Kuwaiti government, however, was to use methods comparable to those used across the world for teaching English as a Foreign language (EFL) or English as a Second Language (ESL), with the most ambitious reforms initiated from 2010-2020 (Alhashem & Alhouti, 2021). The emphasis in international EFL is on the use of the communicative approach; this is very different from the grammar translation method, with the latter placing more emphasises on the use of structure devoid of any communicative purpose (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). Furthermore, the grammar translation method focuses on linguistic forms, such as phonology, morphology, syntactical patterns and lexical items, whereas the communicative approach is “organized on the basis of communicative functions (e.g., apologizing, describing, inviting, promising)” (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 2). In other words, the message, social setting, and intentions behind human interactions are the focus in the communicative method.

In order to achieve a unified standard for the teaching of English, a single textbook called *Fun with English* (Superfine, 2011) was commissioned and prescribed for use in all primary schools until today. This comprises a pupil's book, a workbook and a handwriting book where reading is mainly at the beginning of each unit. The type of reading texts included in the text book are mainly a dialogue between the characters of the book and a reading passage with comprehension questions for year 3-5. The assessment is based on this book, and its operation nationally encourages teachers to concentrate on the task of making sure that students pass the national tests (Bacha, Ghosn & McBeath, 2008). Reading features as one of the four main linguistic objectives in the EFL curriculum, pupils learn the alphabets and simple words in year one, simple sentences to read in year 2 and reading a dialogue in year three, four, and five. Each unit in the textbook is mainly about topics that is related to the student's context for example (A trip to Failka island, The weather in Kuwait) (Superfine,2011).

Today, many practising primary teachers in Kuwait are not entirely convinced that the communicative method is suitable in a curriculum that is packed with other subjects, and provides only four sessions per week for English. One study noted that adopting such a method will lead to a lack of pupil motivation and performance in learning the English language because they do not feel like they are doing serious school work or making real progress (Al-Darwish, 2017).

1.11 Teacher Training and Evaluation in Kuwait

Although, as noted above, there have been some concerns as to the effectiveness of this method, trainee teachers in Kuwait are encouraged to use the communicative method, in line with the methodology of the state-approved textbook. There is a Teachers' Manual (MOE, 2005; 2008) in which trainee teachers are taught the use of and the theory behind the communicative method is taught as part of the teacher training curriculum. Suitably qualified teachers from other countries are able to teach in Kuwait, and the quality of their teaching is monitored by head teachers and supervisors, the latter reporting directly to the Ministry. There is some evidence that newly qualified teachers find the transition from study to full-time teaching very difficult, due to practical obstacles in their schools (Al-Sharaf, 2006).

The assessment system is also managed centrally by the Ministry of Education, and the performance of students in tests is considered an important element in the evaluation of teacher performance. One of the dangers of this centrally managed system is that the emphasis on passing tests can have a washback effect on classroom experience (Bailey, 1999) so that teachers focus on how to avoid making mistakes on tests that could lose marks rather than focusing on communication. The emphasis on avoiding errors in order to pass these tests contradicts the emphasis on social interaction and successful discourse, which is theoretically the goal of communicative teaching. Both teachers and students are evaluated on structural and linguistic features, rather than on communicative skills, and this may explain why there are many tensions and criticisms within the primary education system associated with teaching English in Kuwait.

The debate about the qualities of explicit instruction of grammar, and implicit comprehension through listening, is one that goes far beyond the teaching approaches used in Kuwait. Even in Western countries, where the communicative method is very widely accepted, there are some who hold that there is a place for explicit grammar teaching, because students do not master difficult rules just by listening alone (Macaro & Masterman, 2006). According to Al-Shammari, Sharoufi and Yawkey (2008), trainee teachers are not explicitly taught how to use directed instruction, which involves breaking down tasks (such as reading) into carefully tailored steps, under the direct leadership of the teacher. This could help to bridge the gap between grammar-based and communicative pedagogies.

Finally, a recent study by Al-Darwish (2017) observed that the emphasis on listening in the communicative method is perceived by many teachers as insufficient for enabling students to progress quickly, and noted that “the communicative aim of encouraging students to absorb English through hearing it conversationally was undercut when the non-native teachers modelled English mistakes” (2017, p.31). Another study examined the competencies of 110 state primary EFL teachers and concluded that these teachers “tend to overstate their capabilities [and] there was also a wide discrepancy between the teachers’ self-evaluation of competencies in the three components [language level, lesson planning and implementation]” (Al-Mutawa, 1997, p. 38).

As mentioned above, there is also an issue with a mismatch between the recommended pedagogical method (and teaching and learning materials) on the one hand, and the assessment and teacher competence on the other hand. This brings us to a consideration of the difference between public and private schools, where these issues emerge in slightly different proportions. The way to undertake these strains appears to be through a better understanding of the learning context, and a careful selection of precisely those strategies that best match the needs of the different stakeholders in the educational setting (Savignon, 1983). This leads us to the different contexts of public and private primary schools in Kuwait.

1.12 Public and Private Primary Schools in Kuwait

Although both public and private primary schools in Kuwait are governed by the Ministry of Education, there are some differences in the way the curriculum is delivered, based on the different demographics and social settings for each school. In public schools, the introduction of English at all levels in primary schools is still not popular among parents and teachers. Reasons cited against this policy have included: the negative effect and interference upon the learning of Arabic, disagreements about the optimal age for starting, the time that should be allocated to English, and the pedagogical issues (Alazemi, 2017, 2020). The introduction of a new language is always seen as a challenge to the local culture, ideals and beliefs, as well as the fear that the new language which has a world status may influence youth at different level: they may copy the way of life of the West, adopt Western culture and ignore the local culture and values of Islam. Some have strongly opposed the introduction of English in the educational system; however, the liberal nature and openness of Kuwaiti society has prevailed. Moreover, there has been a strong desire among the leaders to open up to different cultures, traditions and values (Alhashem & Alhouti, 2021).

It must be admitted that confidence in the ability of public primary schools to deliver good learning outcomes for English is not very high. The population of students in state schools includes all social classes, and both urban and rural areas. Many children in state primary schools have little or no exposure to English before attending school, and their parents, likewise, may not have had much training or experience in English either. In such a situation, the communicative method is very difficult to implement, and the temptation to use Arabic as the language of instruction to teach English is very strong where some teachers sometimes resort to the translation methods. This means that the government's strategies are not being perfectly delivered in the state sector at the present time (Al-Nouh, 2008).

Private schools were initially established in Kuwait in the early 1960s. The oil-rich country of Kuwait attracted thousands of foreign workers from all over the world, mainly the Indian subcontinent: India, Pakistan and Bangladesh. Many foreign workers also came from the United States of America, Britain and from the European continent, often together with their families and therefore with children in need of schooling. This was the reason behind

the establishment of private schools in Kuwait, where there was soon an American school, British school, Indian school, bilingual school and general Arabic private schools. General Arabic private schools is the focus of this study at the opposite of the public school, both in which are under the same umbrella of the Ministry of Education; English is taught five times a week and is introduced from kindergarten. Moreover, private schools have fewer students per class and follow individual needs. Every teacher has an assistant teacher, which is not feasible in public schools. Also, they tend to care more about learning English, implementing additional teaching materials and assessments compared to the public schools. Even though private schools are under the umbrella of the Ministry of Education, they are free to implement and manage any policy of their choice.

It is worth mentioning that the medium of instruction in most private schools is English and Arabic, whereas the Arabic language stands as the sole medium of instruction in public schools. Furthermore, the use of the communicative method is easier in the private school context, since so many students have at least some experiences of English before they start school. In other words, students are much more exposed to down-to-earth English, so the communicative method is more likely to be effective. In addition, the recruitment of teachers tends to be more international, using connections that sponsors and owners of private schools already have with the international academic community.

Parents of private school students are usually professionals working in international companies; their children have attended kindergarten, where they have had contact with peers and teachers who speak English and other foreign languages. Private schools are often located in urban areas, and there is a more international mind-set in the way private schools are run. Private schools still uphold Islamic values, and maintain a commitment to Kuwaiti traditions, but government control focuses on staff qualifications, facilities and censorship of texts, rather than monitoring the quality of teaching (Reid & Ibrahim, 2017). As far as private school teachers are concerned, they enjoy a package of benefits such as high salaries, free accommodation and annual return tickets to their homeland. Although public school teachers have none of these advantages, they often have a longer-term contracts than private school teachers, who are usually offered a four-year contract which may be renewed.

One of the major differences between public and private schools is the tuition fees. In public schools, pupils do not pay any fees and books are free of charge. In private schools the fees are often high, particularly where schools are equipped with the latest tools to help upgrade pupils' skills. In many private schools, teachers are competent and are assessed continuously by the school board and school owners. This will be the basis of renewal of their contract. In addition, there are very often fewer students in private school in comparison to public schools. All in all, private schools have a great leverage of freedom. The only occasion the Ministry of Education can intervene is when teaching materials are deemed un-Islamic and contrary to the Kuwaiti culture and tradition, as the Ministry of Education evaluates all materials before going to schools to be distributed to pupils.

1.13 Kuwait Educational System and the International Context

The primary school education system was rather late in developing, compared with many other countries, but it has expanded quickly and has been the subject of constant government attention since the 1970s (El-Sanabary, 1992). Some challenges were identified in the areas of teaching methodology mismatches, preparation for work and gender segregation of teachers and students (Bahgat, 1999). There has also been work on how responsive school reforms are to public opinion, particularly in the use of English language in primary schools.

Al-Mutawa (1996) investigated the attitudes of the Kuwaiti public to the introduction of EFL in Kuwaiti primary schools. This scholar conducted a brief review of the impact of such policies in other countries, including several European countries as well as Jordan, Egypt and the United Arab Emirates, and she also reported on a large survey (1,027 individuals, both male and female) of the Kuwaiti public. The results revealed that the public acknowledged a need to introduce English early in the school system, because of the difficulties that university students, especially in the sciences, experienced in using English at that level, but most respondents were not convinced that it should be introduced very early. The difficulties highlighted by the respondents included "language interference, optimal age, time allotment and pedagogical development" (Al-Mutawa, 1996, p. 32). One of the implications of this study is to note that it is difficult, if not impossible, to apply findings from international

studies to Kuwait, because cultural factors are extremely important; what is acceptable in one context may be perceived as inappropriate or unachievable in another. This study also shows that the views of the public are an important dimension to the problem of when and how to introduce primary EFL and which methods to use, because they influence the amount of support that parents may be willing to offer to learners and teachers. One study of teacher perceptions found that many primary teachers in Kuwait attribute performance in primary school as a whole to “family factors ... reading difficulties and poor writing, homework negligence and daydreaming” (Al-Sahel, 2005, p. 478).

Recent international scholarship has also highlighted the very influential role that the surrounding culture plays in the development of self-efficacy, both in the case of teachers, and of learners (Evans, 2014). Values and attitudes learned in early childhood, for example, can apply an exert strong influence on the educational achievements of learners through mechanisms that are very difficult to track down. Similarly, the explicit and especially implicit rules and assumptions that overcome in the classroom can either enhance or inhibit the development of self-efficacy. An example of negative impact on self-efficacy is the existence of stereotypical beliefs about the relative abilities learners who have different genders, economic status and social or ethnic identities. There is also some interesting research on the *collective* self-efficacy that emerges in each school, through the long collaboration of teachers with each other, the reputation of the school in the past, and the demographic mix of students and teachers, for example (Goddard & Skrla, 2006). Such findings are especially relevant to the primary education sector in Kuwait, where cultural influences are layered: there is a dominant national culture, many foreign citizens bringing in different cultural backgrounds, and then also a marked difference between public and private institutional cultures.

According to Al-Darwish (2017), many teachers in Kuwait understand the theory of communicative language teaching (CLT), but do not believe that it is appropriate or effective in the Kuwaiti context. Teachers prefer to correct errors overtly, and they want to teach reading and writing, and give formal tests because these traditional approaches give a sense of making regular progress and of taking the work seriously, compared with CLT approaches which can seem more disordered and like playing games. It is no coincidence that these are

the methods that are used in teaching Arabic. And there is no doubt that the methods that are used by teachers are helpful in achieving the best outcomes in the highly regulated assessment system. This means that there is a gap between educational policy and educational delivery in Kuwait because government policy ambitions are seemingly not matching with day-today pedagogy, that is particularly critical in the teaching of reading English at primary level.

According to Weiss (2005, p. 35), “the school system across the Arab region lags behind due to continued high illiteracy rates for women, the lack of access to primary schools, diminishing enrolments for higher education and declining national expenditures for education since 1985”. The central problem identified in this period is the lack of quality in primary and secondary education. More recent reports maintain that this has significantly improved, although the data is still somewhat vague, based on national estimates. For example, it states that “in 2008 the net enrolment ratio in primary education was 88.5%” (UNESCO, 2011, p. 9).

Some useful data is contained in the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) (Mullis, Martin, Foy & Drucker, 2012) which measures many indicators, including participation rates, teacher training levels and amounts of experience, amount of curriculum time spent on reading, etc. and also measures student reading achievement. Kuwait participated in the 2001 and 2006 rounds of this study, but did not participate in all aspects of the 2011 round, so there is unfortunately no recent measurement of trends for the country. The results for Kuwait in all the tables cited are well below the international average, on a par with Honduras, Morocco and Botswana at the bottom of the tables. There are some issues with the methodology of this American-based study, such as the difficulty in measuring achievement within widely divergent assessment systems, significant amounts of missing data, statistically insignificant data, and reliance on estimates from different contexts that are difficult to evaluate (Mullis et al., 2012). This highlights the urgent need for new scholarship to evaluate Kuwait’s progress in the teaching of reading as a fundamental academic skill, to trace trends, and to make comparisons with other countries.

There are indications that Kuwait is now introducing some reforms to address the significant weaknesses highlighted in the little research that is available (Al-Shammari et al.,

2008). Al-Shammari, Al-Sharoufi and Yakawey's interesting empirical research in two public primary schools in Kuwait found that direct instruction, using information organisation techniques, clear learning objectives, regular learning reviews, etc., was more effective than the traditional grammar translation method, and that direct instruction was achieved through carefully prepared lesson plans with specific areas of focus that teachers would teach openly. According to Al-Shammari, Al-Sharoufi & Yawkey (2008), this method allowed teachers to make much more efficient use of their time than the traditional grammar translation method, but there is little discussion of how this method compares with the communicative method; indeed, there may be a certain amount of theoretical tension between these two approaches. What is clear from this valuable preliminary research, however, is that the lack of exposure to such methods and principles in their initial teacher education or later profession learning means that teachers lack the ability to make significant changes to their pedagogy without further support. Therefore, in any interventions involving teachers of English in Kuwait, primary teachers require significant amounts of time and training, including lesson planning and practice teaching, if they are to bring about any real changes in the teaching methodologies used in class. Such studies demonstrate the difficulty of making changes to a sector where many teachers still rely on memorisation and traditional grammar/translation methods, despite instructions from educational planners and policy-makers to develop and/ or to employ other methods.

There is very little research comparing public and private school pedagogies in Kuwait. However, one study based in Lebanon (Bacha, Ghosn & McBeath, 2008) does explore this kind of contrast, and the findings can be inferred to other Arabic-speaking countries. Private schools generally make much more use of native speakers, and have a wider range of (usually American) textbooks with an emphasis on communicative strategies. But the authors note that students and teachers alike often use these materials in a very non-communicative way, for example, constantly looking up words in bilingual dictionaries, writing the meanings of words in Arabic above the English text, and almost memorising the text, rather than just reading it and using it for other goals. The authors identify issues with the type of textbooks being used, and recommend greater freedom for teachers to use a variety of instructional methods, more use of information technology, and the use of "materials that combine the best elements of global course books with local needs and expectations, with a clear view on the

function of the English language for learners in the real world outside the classroom” (Bacha et al., 2008, p. 298).

One recent study by Reid and Ibrahim (2017) noted that a significant reason why some Kuwaiti parents send their children to private schools is the desire to ensure that they are exposed to a more multicultural experience, in willingness for growing up in a more globalised Kuwait in the future. These comparative studies suggest that private schools are pursuing policies and methods that are more likely to produce successful outcomes for students than public schools, but neither the public nor private schools appear to be fully implementing best practice as identified in the international literature. Thus, sharing best practice needs to consider differences between the school types and what each can learn from the other. There is a major issue, and this will be followed up in the present study, around the different theories and strategies available for reading pedagogy. In this respect, it may be advisable to bear in mind the suggestion made by Slavin, Lake, Chambers, Cheung and Davis (2009) that distributing general principles of good practice may not be as effective as identifying a program that is known to be effective, then scaling it up for widespread application. It may be that several approaches could potentially work, but the chosen theory must be properly implemented, with arrangement of all the relevant factors and elimination of as many constraints as possible. This arrangement of policy, practice, training, materials and resources appears to be a weak point in the Kuwaiti context.

1.14 Structure of the Thesis

This study consists of seven chapters. Chapter 1 is an introduction setting out the rationale, research questions, key terminology and background information on Kuwait, with some reference to other countries for comparison. Chapter 2 consists of a literature review divided into two main sections. The first section gathers and analyses previous research on reading comprehension in EFL, including the different methods recommended for this and experiences of teachers and students across the world. The second section focuses more narrowly on social cognitive theory in general, and of self-efficacy in particular, including the perceived impact of self-efficacy on the teaching of reading in a second language. Chapter 3

presents the methodology (mixed) and research design selected to gather and evaluate the data and explains why these particular methods were chosen. The main analysis is in Chapters 4, 5 and 6 which present and analyse the qualitative and quantitative data relating to students, parents and teachers respectively. In each case, the implications of the data are discussed in the light of the theories and findings reported in the literature review. Chapter 7 sets out the conclusions of the study and some recommendations for future research, as well as application to policy and practice in the Kuwaiti primary school sector.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Pedagogy and beliefs around learning to read are constant discussions in the academic literature, with different practices depending on different theories of reading. In second language acquisition, there is similar interest in the cognitive developments that occur when learning to read, but there is also an increased focus on affective factors such as motivation or learner self-image. Thus, while learning to read in one's first language is bound up with the developmental changes that come with learning to read more generally, second language learners can already read in their first language. Self-efficacy refers to a person's belief and capacity to achieve a particular performance, and it is recognised as a key factor in estimating the amount of personal control that a person has over what happens (Schunk, 2003), presenting a helpful theory for considering some of these affective factors and exploring some of the complexities in how learners acquire reading in a second language and what that means to them as learners.

As such, it is a helpful framework to relate discussions around, for instance, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation or learner self-regulation and persistence. Even here, however, there is added complexity in how self-efficacy is seen to affect learning and teaching, including differences in how this is seen to interact based on age and first language. For instance, Scott (1996, p. 196) uses the concept of an 'aliterate', meaning someone who only reads when extrinsically motivated, to argue for the importance of helping young learners to develop intrinsic pleasure from reading in their first language. In contrast, a study of undergraduates with English as an additional language (Kitikanan & Sasimonton, 2017) uses self-efficacy in reading as relating to a learner's general self-concept as an English user and proficiency more generally, arguing that improved efficacy in reading could relate to overall proficiency rather than having a direct relationship with reading proficiency. This chapter therefore begins by navigating through the broad context of what the English Language Teaching (ELT) literature considers the nature of reading and why learner motivation and efficacy beliefs are considered to be important, particularly for long-term learning.

The broader debate over reading as atomistic or holistic is then interpreted in relation to English as L1 or L2, showing where transfer between the literature bases is problematic. The chapter therefore seeks a comprehensive definition of reading, and the differences between first-language and additional language learning. This is used to explain the focus in ELT on reading strategies rather than reading abilities (Solak & Altay, 2014). For example, Chamot (2001) emphasises that language learners can adopt the strategies of more successful learners to improve their proficiency. Similarly, the influential Dornyei (2006) argues for reading strategies as one of the most important variables in using SLA to understand a learner's needs. Thus, at least in second language research, an emphasis on discrete reading strategies is useful for exploring reading proficiency as a separate skill due to the differences in how a second language is *learnt* compared with how a first language is *acquired*. Another example by Porte (1995) who found that learners who used sub-vocalisation strategies (i.e. silently 'reading aloud') were more likely to experience L1 interference in sentence copying tasks, thereby illustrating how learners need a strong range of reading strategies in L2 rather than relying on L1 strategies such as sub-vocalisation.

Linking back to the explanation of local context in Chapter 1, issues of interference are considered for Arabic-speaking English language learners, particularly where access to authentic English is limited. This brings the discussion of social cognitive theory to explain how exposure to language can affect learning, both directly and via its impact on motivation. Bandura's (1986) concept of self-efficacy is linked with learner identity and the extent to which learners see themselves as readers or able to join a community of readers, drawing parallels with ELT concepts such as communicative competence. Specifically, how self-efficacy may relate to willingness to communicate is considered, raising similar issues about whether this is itself a worthwhile goal or, at least, a helpful alternative for reading ability that may help to move away from overly reading assessment tasks.

Moving to the context of this study, in which academic provision varies significantly between public and private schools, how self-efficacy can be developed from a range of sources is considered, including a related discussion around teacher efficacy beliefs. This is because pedagogical approaches, particularly the effective use of communicative language teaching strategies, have been shown to link to teacher self-efficacy (Demir et al., 2015;

Mowlaie & Rahimi, 2010), so it will be interesting to see if self-efficacy can help to explain any differences in pedagogy between the two school types. When looking at the link between self-efficacy and reading achievement for students, it has also been shown that students with higher self-efficacy have higher achievement (Osman et al., 2016; Wiggins, 2021), to the extent that some teachers intentionally target self-efficacy in the assumption that achievement improvements will follow, typically based on a CLT-related belief that increased use of the language will build proficiency (Silvana et al., 2018). This discussion ends by connecting with the methodological challenges of this thesis, outlining how self-efficacy in reading has been measured in other studies. By explaining some of the current gaps in the literature, the chapter reaches a conclusion to show how such issues are related in the current study ahead of further elaboration in the methodology chapter.

2.2 Definition of Reading

This study looks at self-efficacy in relation to reading, exploring whether differences in self-efficacy among students and their teachers relate to any differences in student reading. While this study uses a reading test as a measure for achievement, it is important to recognise that reading can be a much more varied construct than is typically assessed in any reading test. This section therefore starts with a brief discussion of how reading has been defined in the literature to illustrate why researchers interested in self-efficacy appreciate reading in an L2 as a complex skill.

Because of the multiple theories about the nature of reading mentioned above, it is difficult to find a single, comprehensive definition of reading that will apply to all contexts and be accepted by all researchers. Most people recognise that there is more to reading than simply converting written language into spoken language, and that some information must be acquired from the activity, if it is to count as true reading (Eskey, 2002). According to Urquhart and Weir (2013, p. 14), reading means “dealing with language messages in written or printed form” and therefore this definition includes braille, hieroglyphics and Morse code, but not music. Likewise, there remains an argument over whether listening to an audiobook should be considered as reading activity, depending on whether the pedagogical aim is to

develop vocabulary (Gheorghiu, 2019). Indeed, there are also arguments for the value of audiobooks for engaging with content for those who find reading printed words challenging (Johnson, 2003), which pushes at the boundaries of Urquhart and Weir's (2013) definition.

One way of developing the definition to include meaning-making but to exclude enough other activities to still be reasonably called 'reading' is to emphasise that there must be a meaningful connection between the symbols on the page that goes beyond simple reproduction of a sound. A popular definition from recent years is therefore to describe reading as "the ability to draw meaning from the printed page and interpret this information appropriately" (Grabe & Stoller, 2011, p. 3). This is the definition that is used in the present study. While there may be some issues with this definition in terms of engaging with technology (for instance, it seems unproblematic to include an e-reader as 'printed page', although some e-readers will read words aloud on request), the definition fits with common pedagogies and assessment strategies around reading.

Behind this logical definition is the debate around the extent to which reading is a skill, process, or ability. In the 1980s, in Western educational psychology, a distinction was often made between reading skills and reading strategy (Paris, Lipson & Wixson, 1983). This was later clarified, showing that "*skill* is associated with the proficiency of a complex act, and *strategy* is associated with a conscious and systematic plan" (Afflerbach, Pearson & Paris, 2008, p. 356). Teachers can, of course, tend towards one, or of these directions in their teaching, and in contexts where there is frequent testing of specific skills (as in Kuwait), there is a motive to use those skills separately and pay less attention to the strategic aspects of reading, which involve a more holistic and exploratory approach to the text. Therefore, it might be the case that a particular subskill is assessed with a targeted question type (Alderson, 2000). Nurkamto et al. (2021) refer to this as a type of negative washback in which teachers test that particular subskill and risk students developing uneven reading abilities, where they may – for instance – perform much better on cloze tasks inferring meaning from context than they would when reading an authentic text more generally. Such narrow testing and washback effects might also shape how individual learners' experiences are seen, particularly in terms of those needing additional support (Bowyer-Crane & Snowling, 2005).

As a further distinction in seeing reading as more than translating the written to the oral, for instance as a skill that includes meaning-making, interaction, and comprehension, there are dimensions of reading that go beyond simple recognition and decoding (Bowyer-Crane et al., 2017). In their study, Bowyer-Crane et al. (2017) investigated a group of young English as an Additional Language (EAL) learners in the UK, sampled two years apart with a wide variety of different types of reading test, and compared the sample with mono-lingual pupils in the same school. While there was no difference in the EAL learners' reading comprehension scores on many of the tests used by Bowyer-Crane et al. (2017), there were observable differences in general language skills and word reading abilities on other tests they tried, showing the complexity of subskills that can direct to a concept such as 'comprehension' and the importance of recognising that any test of reading ability or comprehension will have its own assumptions about the strategies that learners are expected to use. Indeed, EAL learners may need to use different strategies from L1 users, meaning that they have very different experiences of the same test. For example, Cain and Oakhill (1999) stressed the importance of developing readers to make inferences while they are engaging with the text, because they will not have enough information just from the visual image in front of them. This highlights further challenges in comparing reading in L1 and L2, as well as at different developmental levels (Nation et al., 1999), especially when considering difficulties that readers may encounter. Generally, it is this dimension of the reading process that causes difficulty for beginners. So we turn now to a closer discussion on the process which lies behind the act of reading, first in Arabic as a first language, and then in English as a second language.

2.3 The Nature of Reading

From the above discussion, it can be seen that 'reading' can mean different things to different researchers. More importantly, attempting to measure reading ability may be measuring different reading strategies, such as sub-vocalisation or visualisation, and the success or otherwise of their use from different learners depending on how they have been taught or which languages they read in. As Alderson points out, what counts as 'reading' is

often left undefined and not sufficiently problematised, mainly when it comes to trying to measure ability (Alderson, 2000), so efficacy beliefs about general reading proficiency may vary differ with efficacy beliefs about one's ability to employ the strategies required for a specific reading test. There are also some reading sub-skills which carry over between languages in the same family. At its most basic level, the agreement of reading from left to right in English can be transferred from many languages, helping students to more naturally scan sentences and pages as they anticipate the rest of a sentence. Other languages have helpful pronunciation features which are absent from English, such as in Arabic where diacritics indicate pronunciation. In the current study of L1 Arabic users with English as their L2, there could be a range of efficacy beliefs around whether texts possibly 'make sense' to students based on the direction in which they read and the lack of pronunciation clues, while such issues might not be as relevant to learners whose L1 relates more closely to English. The traditional view of reading, building on several researches, sees reading as involving multiple processes in the brain working together, including recognition of graphemes and phonemes so that units of text can be turned into units of sound, and the ability to decode symbolic meanings from them and relate those meaning to the physical and social world around the reader (Venezky, 1984). From this foundation, there are at least three main models of reading that have been developed in the last 50 years or so. There is the Interactive Compensatory Model (Stanovich, 2000), which holds that faster, more automatic processes of word recognition can compensate for slower, less automatic processes in orthographic processing. Clues from the surrounding context can make up for gaps the automatic processes, showing the importance of teachers helping students to develop a range of reading strategies, rather than just relying on decoding.

A second approach, as explained by Grabe and Stoller (2011, p. 28), is the connectionist theory which proposes that word recognition is key, going beyond recognition of individual letters and sounds, and consisting of whole words and the memory of previous encounters with those words, or similar words, which helps the reader to decode their meanings. Therefore, the process of learning to read is one of inferring patterns of linked nodes and the relationships between related concepts or similar words. The real-world complexity of language and prior experiences is understood through the concept of nodes, such that a learner can trigger recognition or understanding through a range of different associations and

will not learn to read in a direct linear way. This theory was advanced by psychologists, who were interested in taking account of the fact that the English language has letters and letter patterns that do not always relate to the phonetic system in a perfect way (Seidenberg, 2005). In other words, in English sounding out the letters one by one can only provide partial information, and the reader has to learn to recognise whole words as well, and the connections between them. As Zorzi, Houghton & Butterworth (1998, p. 1132) explain, early reading “is thought to operate by retrieving word pronunciations from an internal lexicon [and] it is therefore based on a word-specific association mechanism and contains any learned word”. There is still a place for building a word through its phonological components, but this additional ability of whole-word recognition is regarded as being especially important in the connectionist theory (Seidenberg, 2005). Connectionism in this sense refers to the fact that learning to read involves mapping orthographic, phonological and semantic codes, all at the same time (Joanisse & McClelland, 2015).

These two theories are generally regarded as bottom-up theories, because meaning is built up from the individual pieces/letters on the page, although both recognise more complexity than the simple ‘bottom-up’ label may imply. According to Wallace (2001), the speed of word recognition is a key factor in reading fluency and should be taught and extensively practised or ‘overlearned’, before moving on to more holistic and top-down approaches. It is clear, of course, that in the early stages of learning to read only a few words are reliably known by the reader, so it will certainly take some time before he or she can move from the more difficult processes of building up a word from its visible components on the page to the faster and more automatic process of recognising both visual and phonological features of an entire word on sight.

A third model is the simple view of reading as a process involving just two components: decoding of graphemes and linguistic comprehension of semantics (Hoover & Gough, 1990). This simple view has been challenged by some researchers (Stuart et al., 2008; Stainthorp & Snowling, 2009) because it merges learning to read with general intellectual development, meaning that the model is a poor fit for second language learners who have already learnt to read in their first language. The reason for this is the tendency in previous research to focus on beginning readers, and to pay less attention to the complexity that increases gradually as

children become older and able to integrate greater and more detailed knowledge of the world into their reading practices, and as they encounter a wider range of genres and contexts. This is particularly relevant in the current study since the Kuwaiti public school introduces English later in the primary phase, whereas the private school uses both English and Arabic from kindergarten. It is clear that early word recognition processes and later text comprehension processes are quite different, so further theories beyond the simple reading model must be considered, as well as how a learner progresses from the elementary stages to more advanced levels of reading through the primary age range.

It should also be noted that much of the research into learning reading is concerned with first language learning or bilingualism developed simultaneously in two languages, with a comparative lack of research into learning reading in English when already a proficient reader in another language. In other words, the way in which learning to read in a second language is different from previously learning to read in a first language is not often the subject of research. Even though someone who has good proficiency reading in Arabic might only start to learn to read in English many years later, there is little theoretical literature to help understand how the process of learning to read may differ at this stage of development. Interesting questions remain: for instance, how learners with a largely phonetic L1, such as Arabic, deal with the inconsistencies of English, or how speakers of languages with different script systems draw on their L1 linguistic range when learning English.

The above theories of reading are fairly simple in how they position learning to read as a mostly progressive process, however, they have been useful starting points for more complex theoretical models. For example, Kirby and Savage (2008) have expanded these ideas to include factors such as background knowledge, to make inferences as part of developing reading efficiency. If a child is exposed to a great variety of life experiences and a similarly wide exposure to language in verbal and written forms, then that child will have a great store of background to draw upon, when attempting to make sense of words on the page (Adams, 1998). However, a child who is less fortunate and comes from a background where such resources are not available will have more difficulty in learning to read. Indeed, there is some evidence to suggest that differences in reading ability from the very earliest stages of schooling can hinder and impair into difficulties throughout a child's entire schooling (Ferrer

et al., 2015) and even contribute to difficulties engaging with academic literatures in anglophone higher education (Salter-Dvorak, 2011, 2016). These demographic, cultural, and individual differences between learners are an important aspect of the classroom experience that must be considered when planning and teaching literacy and reading. Studies using the MRQ have also shown that there is a general trend towards motivation to read decreasing from primary to secondary phases, in part referable to declining parental involvement in reading, as students' progress beyond the primary phase removing not just an element of extrinsic motivation but also a social reason for reading (Janes, 2008). However, research also shows that this can be somewhat eased by offering students more choice of reading material (Bright & Loman, 2020) – an important issue even in anglophone settings where school and public library funds are under threat, but perhaps it is important in countries where the range of English language books is limited and the expense often means that they are luxuries bought by parents.

Other studies into parental involvement and student background have shown the potential significance of a range of factors on reading performance and motivation. For instance, Castillo (2018) produces a discussion around diverse student background to look at aspiration within reading motivation. The students in this study showed high levels of self-efficacy beliefs in their own abilities and motivation to engage with texts, but only within limited aspirations. This meant that students felt motivated and able to read well as well as they needed to for their current circumstances, but their parents felt that they lacked motivation and ability because they were not ambitious about future reading aims or rarely read challenging texts for pleasure. This suggests some of the same sentiments expressed in the concept of an 'aliterate' (Scott, 1996) discussed above. Likewise, the concept of situational interest can show how generalisations about motivation to read still need a balance by an understanding of learners as individuals. For example, Ferede and Nchindila (2017) show that there is a general trend for students in private schools to have higher motivation to read than those in public schools. However, Fox (2020) shows that there is still considerable variance between individual students within such schools.

With the above discussion around student background and the complexity of peer and parental involvement at different stages of education in mind, this section nevertheless shows

the main theories which will be used to support the present study, and it is noted that there is no agreement on which model is most appropriate. Newer theories arising from multimedia literacy and game theory are also interesting, but go beyond the scope of the present study which focuses on reading in the traditional sense of understanding written texts. At an important level, however, Cain (2010) explains how all of these different theories and models of learning are united to a greater or lesser extent, by requiring readers to engage in meaning-making with a text.

With this emphasis on engagement with text in mind, the following section considers how best to define reading and the key factors that influence the reading process of L2 learners of English in Kuwait.

2.4 Teaching Reading in English to Young Learners

Developing reading abilities in English as an additional language is seen as a major tool in social and economic mobility for young learners, with the potential for transformative or even life-changing experiences open to those learning English. However, there are social consequences such as national brain drains or inequalities in access to quality foreign-language instruction which can exacerbate existing social, educational, and economic inequalities – as much as English can create new opportunities at the individual level, it can also risk entrenching the status quo on a macro level (Butler, 2015; Sayer, 2015). Our understanding of individual learners factors in foreign language reading in young learners is aided by looking at SES and other characteristics such as parental education levels. For instance, Nikolov and Csapó (2018) found that the education level of mothers correlated with both reading comprehension in English and the choice of English over German as a foreign language. Likewise, Graham et al. (2020) noted that self-efficacy of foreign language learners in an Anglophone country – in this case, learners of French in England – was higher for strategy-based instruction for beginner learners. Thus, it can be seen that models of reading in a foreign language require consideration not just of the mechanics of acquiring reading, but also in how the foreign language reading relates to first-language reading ability, the learner's

stage of learning in the foreign language, home and parental factors, school and economic factors, and broader societal norms and expectations.

One of the challenges of teaching reading in English to young learners is the fact that, according to modern theories of child development, phonological sensitivity is acquired along a continuing development, so that very young children pick up sounds quickly and can imitate them authentically but, as children grow older, this ability declines even as their experience with language develop (Kuhl & Meltzoff, 1996; Zhang et al., 2005). The sounds of English are therefore difficult for children to distinguish accurately in an L2, particularly those with L1s which are more distant from English, and this interferes with their comprehension of texts that are read aloud, and their ability to verbalise words, phrases and sentences that they see in written form (Pufpaff, 2009). It is also clear that multiple theories are in use across the world to teach reading, and multiple strategies have changed as a result. It should be noted, however, that reading instruction methods are bound to affect the range of skills that children use when learning to read. One empirical study found, for example, that children taught to read using strategies as part of using an eclectic approach used different cognitive skills than those using a synthetic phonics approach (McGeown, Johnston & Medford, 2012), thereby arguing that building a range of reading skills is preferable to any single approach. There is no agreement on the best way to teach reading in English to young learners, and so now we must at least consider the main theories and their relevance to this topic.

2.4.1 Reading Process in L1 (Arabic)

Most children in Kuwaiti primary schools are native speakers of modern Arabic and grow up in Muslim families, where reading the Qur'an correctly is regarded as an essential quality, and a prerequisite for belonging to the surrounding Islamic community. The religious importance of classical Arabic is reflected in the provision of special classes for teaching children to read the Qur'an (Fender, 2008). Teachers of these classes, who are usually respected religious leaders, use ancient methods which focus on the form of the text, the pronunciation of archaic Arabic, and absolute accuracy. This religious reading education runs

parallel to the teaching of modern Arabic reading in school, and to the informal reading that takes place in the home, such as the reading of stories to children by parents and caregivers. This means that reading practices, even just using Arabic, are “bound up in social processes which locate individual action within social and cultural processes” (Martin-Jones & Jones, 2000, p. 5). Moreover, these multiple reading processes differ greatly and operate according to very different rules and patterns (Reyes & Moll, 2010). For example, reading strategies in L2 often focus on comprehension strategies such as visualisation, activating schema, or making predictions, but such strategies will be less relevant in well-known cultural or religious texts where the main gist is already known to the reader. Indeed, common reading strategies for children such as guessing words or making up a narrative from the pictures could be disrespectful to sacred texts.

Aside from this cultural context, the technical nature of reading Arabic is bound up with the writing system so that, for example, beginner readers “learn through a phonologically transparent writing system in which each letter or symbol corresponds to one phoneme” (Fender, 2008, p. 102), a system with much higher correspondence between symbols and sounds than English. The Arabic writing system is also well-suited to make decoding easier. Specifically, children’s books have diacritic marks, until gradually they learn to read without either of these aids. When viewed through the lens of a simple model of reading such as Hoover and Gough (1990), it is clear that Arabic requires far less effort with the decoding of graphemes into phonemes than English, and this may therefore enable students to progress to working on comprehension or other reading skills more quickly. However, the difference between script in beginner and advanced texts in Arabic could be a source of later confusion, particularly when beginner readers seek to engage with authentic texts (Midhwah & Alhawary, 2020).

Some research by El-Dib (2004) points out that Kuwait has been changing rapidly in recent years, however, so that exposure to English has become much more commonplace, even at the level of street signs, television and other media. There are also some encouraging recent studies showing applications of new technologies, particularly in government universities (Meerza & Beauchamp, 2017) and in education for those with special educational needs (Khasawneh, 2021). Such innovations, encouraged by government, fit well with El-

Dib's (2004), Kuwait should be regarded as a hybrid English language learning situation, meaning that Kuwait has a mix of languages depending on professional and social contexts, due to its large foreign worker community. Thus, El-Dib considers that Kuwait is not using English as a common L2 across the country, but certain areas of society use English frequently and for professional purposes. So it is not appropriate to think of English as an entirely foreign language in Kuwait, as might be the case in countries where English is mostly used for tourists or short-term visitors.

When it comes to primary school children, however, there is little research to establish how much exposure they have to the English language outside school. This author recommends more research into EFL learners' thinking processes, through in-depth interviews and observation techniques to see how English is conceptualised by learners (El-Dib, 2004); but again, this is more relevant to older learners who can verbalise their own thinking, and may be of less value in the study of primary school children. We turn now to an exploration of the literature on learning to read in a second language, where all these issues come to the front, against a background of having gained an understanding of literacy and reading on the basis of Arabic first.

2.4.2 Reading Process in L2 (English)

Reading in the L2 is generally discussed in terms of lexical, grammatical, and phonological knowledge (e.g. Jeon and Yamashita, 2014; Melby-Lervåg and Lervåg, 2014). This is a reasonable focus when concerned primarily with reading test performance, since such meta-analyses find that grammar and vocabulary are among the strongest correlates with reading performance. However, these studies also acknowledge difficulty in interpreting interactions between variables and thus a need for greater theorisation of how factors relate to reading development. Looking at social factors, while neither a strong correlate nor a convenient measure, is therefore helpful in understanding how affective factors and a learner's context can interact. There is also a practical reason for focusing on social factors in that they are underexplored in the applied linguistics literature (Block, 2014), so paying attention to these overlooked variables has the potential to take advantage of 'low hanging

fruit' compared with the vast literature that already exists on, for example, vocabulary acquisition.

Some empirical work on L2 reading at primary level has found that early phoneme awareness and phonics teaching can lead to better outcomes in reading (Stuart, 1999). Indeed, Beard et al. (2019) suggest that primary teaching in for L1 reading in England treats phonics as a *sin qua non* that, while controversial, is rarely challenged outside of the academic literature. To some extent, this is due to the commercial interests of phonics schemes (Brooks et al., 2021), although more moderate integration of phonics in L2 contexts has been noted and recommended elsewhere, such as in Shiobara's (2019) study in Japan. Phonics can be integrated in kindergarten or preschool contexts, if such provision is available, and this explains why so many primary school reform projects focus on the early years stage. There is also a growing agreement that engaging with foreign languages from a young age is advantageous for general cognitive development to a more progressive social attitudes. As early as 2002, the principle that students should be offered "at least two foreign languages from a very early age" was agreed by a group of European countries (Barcelona European Council, 2002, p. 19). This agreement supports many of the ways that countries understand and assess language development today. Specifically, it laid the foundations for the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and a methodology for comparing not just language proficiency but social attitudes to languages across countries, using the European Survey on Language Competences (ESLC), which will become particularly significant later when comparing such measures with efficacy ratings.

More generally, the emphasis on learning a foreign language from a young age shows the prioritising of developing reading skills in a new language while still at the cognitive stage of developing reading skills in a first language, highlighting the relevance of studies such as this thesis in settings where schools offer languages from an early age. There are also growing arguments for language learning being generally good for cognitive development and progressive attitudes in society, moving beyond the simple economic argument for language learning (Bialystok et al., 2003; Bialystok, 2007; Roberts, 2013; Surrain, 2018). Indeed, some authors have argued that using languages to support cognitive development is more

important than gaining the ability to use another language, particularly given advances in technology such as Google Translate (Saiz & Zoido, 2005).

A key contribution to the pedagogy of L2 reading is the concept of comprehensible input suggested by Krashen (Ellis, 1991). The idea is that the text must be above the learners' current ability for learning to take place. If the material is too difficult, the learner will not know where to begin and make no progress; if it is too easy, the learner will learn nothing new and make no progress, although some aspects of automaticity may still be developed. Again, this highlights the benefits of reading material being appropriate to the age and developmental level of students, making it easier to engage with at younger ages. For older beginners who can read complex texts comfortably in their first language, the available reading material in a foreign language might feel young. The role of the teacher in L2 reading is crucial, since support (or extension work, as appropriate) can be given to both encourage and challenge each learner to make progress as they engage in reading tasks. This is obviously difficult in a large class of children who may be at different stages in their reading ability, but there are ways to address this difficulty, such as an integration of reading activities with talking activities, ideally in groups and drawing on approaches such as CLIL (Reis et al., 2011; Roiha, 2014). Helping behaviours from peers can assist in collaborative strategic reading in the L2; this has been found to be more effective than competitive dialogue with fifth grade learners (Klingner & Vaughn, 2000).

One of the biggest challenges in the teaching of L2 reading (as opposed to L1 reading) is the limitations caused by a lack of vocabulary, since the learner may not have much, or indeed any, prior knowledge of the world in which the L2 is regularly spoken (Verhoeven, 2000; Grabe & Stoller, 2011). A classic example is learning the names of the four seasons, which may not apply in the learner's own climate, or learning food or animal names that are uncommon in the learner's country and therefore continue native speakerism (Widin, 2010). At the same time, there could also be some appeal that may be motivating for learners who aspire to foreign travel and enjoy learning about, for instance, UK culture. Nevertheless, a lack of vocabulary leads young learner to depend heavily on the teacher for guidance on how to decode the L2 text, and it has been argued that "relying on the teacher's interpretive authority causes students to become passive learners" (Van Keer & Verhaeghe, 2005, p. 293).

Many researchers point out the disadvantages that L2 learners may suffer in learning to read in English through the lack of availability of age-appropriate material and, above all, the need to make available more authentic and contemporary children's literature for storytelling activities (Ghosn, 2002; Mart, 2012). There is also a risk that reading material is restricted to textbooks or graded readers, limiting engagement with authentic materials or other forms of English. On this topic, there is currently a small but interesting section of the literature looking at how Islamic English is developing (Lallmamode & Zalika, 2009), including the use of English as a medium of instruction rather than in separate EFL classes, although this has experienced some pushback for subjects such as Islamic Studies or Moral Education (Tantawy, 2020). Thus, it can be seen that choosing suitable content for L2 reading is affected not just by desirable levels of difficulty or interest to the learners, but can also take on political and cultural significance. This may become particularly significant later, when considering how parents feel about English-language children's books in the home.

2.5 Language Transfer Influence/Interference Between Languages

There are significant differences between reading a string of Arabic letters and reading a string of English letters, for example, in the right-to-left versus left-to-right direction of reading, the consonantal structure of Arabic in which the vowels are not marked, the generally shorter length of Arabic words, and the frequent use of three-character roots and affixes (Randall & Meara, 1988). Furthermore, there are many differences between Arabic and English phonology, with a few equivalents or near equivalents, and many sounds that are very different (Smith, 2001). In particular, vowels are often confused, and "Arabic speakers tend, therefore, to gloss over and confuse English short vowel sounds, while unduly emphasising consonants, avoiding elisions and shortened forms" (Smith, 2001, p. 194). The conventions of English orthography can also be very challenging for beginners who have Arabic as an L1, because learners must master an entirely new alphabet, as well as writing as the use of upper and lower-case letters.

Skehan (1998) notes that the fundamental difference between L1 acquisition and L2 learning is the fact that the L2 learner is generally older (except in the case of simultaneous

bilinguals, which is not the focus of the present study) and has the option of making generalisations based on the L1 and applying them consciously or unconsciously to the L2. This difference means that the cognitive dimension of learning to read is more complex in the L2 reading situation, and it is not possible to study L2 acquisition as a natural, mostly unconscious process, as is the case when an infant learns its L1. It must be said, however, that the communicative approach can be challenging to implement at primary school level, the cognitive development of learners is still very much a work in progress, and there may be some limitations to the amount of assistance that cognitive processes can give to the task of learning to read.

The concept of “interference” (Ellis, 2006, p. 164) is used to explain the influence of the L1 on the L2 and this can affect all aspects of L2 learning, including lexis, phonology and grammar. The negative meanings of this word suggest that it is a bad thing, but in fact it could be argued that this process is evidence of the learner making connections and establishing rules that he or she can hopefully use to make sense of the L2. Indeed, it has been suggested that this influence of the L1 is a natural and positive feature of L2 acquisition, representing a halfway stage between knowing and not knowing features of the L2. It is better to call this mixing of features of the L1 and the L2 an “interlanguage” (Selinker, 1972, p. 209), which is a helpful stage in the learner’s learning journey. This idea relates to the concept of L1 influence or language transfer, a more neutral term which considers both positive and negative transfer from L1 to L2.

It is generally thought that interference is greatest in languages with greater similarities, since there is potential confusion. Following a connectionist approach, there are more opportunities for incorrect nodes to be activated. For instance, denying verbs in some Nordic languages might prompt the error ‘I don’t will’ for ‘I won’t’. In vocabulary, the same interference effect can be seen in the concept of false friends, such as a Spanish speaker congratulating an English speaker when they say they are embarrassed (*embarazada* = pregnant). However, interference is seen as more of an issue in speech or in production rather than in reception. For learner readers, the language is provided and they are able to draw on a range of linguistic resources to overcome such challenges. Therefore, we turn now to an examination of the implications that reading theory and related concepts have for the teaching

of reading in English L2 at primary school level. Thus, self-efficacy will be helpful for considering the extent to which a learner persists with a text, sees themselves as able to understand with support or by drawing on previously successful strategies, or sees themselves as a reader who can work towards understanding something which does not immediately make sense.

2.6 Communicative Language Teaching and Teaching Reading in English

Communicative language teaching (CLT) focuses on the function of language, rather than its form (Savignon, 1983; 2005), with the aim that a sense of efficacy through the experience of success is built more quickly because students learn that they are able to communicate, rather than preserving on their mistakes. Similarly, CLT aims to improve student motivation by putting them in situations where they really want to communicate something, rather than just reproducing standard language. It is best understood as “an approach, rather than a method [and] is a unified but broadly based theoretical position about the nature of language and of language learning and teaching” (Brown, 2007, p. 214). When applied to teaching reading in English, it focuses on creating tasks and activities in an integrative way, rather than focusing just on individual language forms or separate skills. A task can be defined as “an activity which requires learners to use language with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective” (Bygate, Skehan and Swain, 2001, p. 11).

The communicative method has many advantages, not least the way it encourages learners to experiment and deal with authentic language in realistic contexts, which prepares them well for using English outside the classroom. It has some disadvantages, however, including the fact that it often takes longer for learners to grasp lexical meanings and grammatical structures, because these are not explicitly taught, and some learners may not have the ability or the desire to practise the language enough to gain fluency, or to work out these elements through reflection (Lee and Lee, 2019; Shiobara, 2019). As a consequence of these issues, weaker versions of the communicative approach have also been devised which include structured grammar lessons, ideally linked with functional goals through the design of the syllabus (Verhoeven et al., 2019).

Advocates of communicative language learning as a method holds that the outcome of this method will be better in the long run for learners (Liao, 2004; Richards, 2005) and so there is a later pay-off for longer-term strategies such as extensive reading (Spada, 2007), but this is little comfort for students and teachers who required to demonstrate real progress in a short time. Very often, teachers are faced with the problem of learners who fail to make the amount of progress that is anticipated in the syllabus. Strategies such as very explicit teaching of reading and repeated readings of the same text are recommended by some as useful corrective reading strategies for weaker learners, but there are disadvantages to these strategies, in terms of the lack of time available for corrective reading and the potentially negative effects of dealing again and again with limited subject matter (Stevenson & Frederick, 2003).

Some work by Al-Mutawa (2003) used a questionnaire method to investigate the use of the communicative language teaching approach in a large sample (440 primary EFL teachers in Kuwait). This study is now somewhat outdated, but it is nevertheless important to note that, at the time, the majority of teachers were not very familiar with communicative approaches, and most were not convinced of its usefulness, particularly since large classes and a full syllabus did not leave much time for interaction with students, or for evaluation of their oral output. A combination of lack of training, lack of time in the curriculum, a rigid focus on testing, and lack of teacher belief in the communicative method were very clear findings of this study. Thus, one of the findings in Al-Mutawa (2003) was that the main problem was not teachers being unable to use CLT strategies, but rather that the teachers did not entirely believe in the value of such strategies – feeling impaired by the pressure to maintain regular test performance and so requiring more emphasis on reading strategies that related to strategies for answering test questions rather than more general reading strategies.

An important dissertation some five years later by Al-Nouh (2008) used a mixed-methods approach to investigate to what extent primary EFL teachers in Kuwait were actually using communicative methodologies in the classroom. Using a series of structured classroom observations using the COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) scheme, data analysis of textbooks, and interviews to establish teacher beliefs about pedagogic methods, this study found that “teachers have the knowledge and are aware of the

principles and techniques of CLT, however they find some of CLT principles hard to implement because of constraints related to teaching children, to testing, to shortage of time, to shortage of resources and to form-focused textbooks and most often were told not to do things, e.g. use stories, by the English Inspectorate” (Al-Nouh, 2008, pp. 222-223). This shows how CLT might not be happening as much as could be assumed, particularly in a Middle East context. However, studies like Al-Nouh’s (2008) tend to consider pedagogies in broad and general ways, so there is a clear gap remaining to look at whether CLT approaches to reading as a distinct skill can be sustained in these contexts, and how reading pedagogy might be adapted to suit the local context (Anderson, 2020), therefore the current study’s specific focus on reading.

2.7 Theories in Teaching Reading Practice

As well as students needing to engage with a text to be considered ‘reading’, it is worth reflecting on what students should be doing when engaging, and whether language production is required or whether students can still be said to be engaging with reading if they are silent or only discussing an L2 text in their L1. In a CLT approach, some kind of language production or active engagement is required so that correction can occur (Lightbown & Spada, 1990). However, an alternative approach is suggested by Ellis (1994) which consists of letting learners use reading very early in their L2 learning journey, at a time when they are in the so-called silent period, still absorbing the new sounds and rhythms of the L2, but not ready to move into the productive phase, when they feel confident enough to speak. They can still interact with a written text, for example listening to the teacher or to an audio tape while watching the words in a book or on a screen, or by pointing to pictures or words to indicate comprehension and response to questions.

Some useful guidance on techniques for teaching reading is given by Nuttall (2005), including for example the use of five different question types, starting with questions that are designed to check how far learners have understood the literal meaning of an L2 text, and leading into questions that ask the learner to put the material into a different order, or express their own opinion about the text, etc. The point of these different kinds of questions is to

ensure that the learner engages with the text and that s/he contributes something of his or her own knowledge to the reading task, rather than expecting information to come only from the text, in a one-way direction to the reader. This is a fundamental insight which may not always be fully understood by EFL teachers who may well see learners as receivers of information, rather than co-constructors of meaning with the text and other people in the room. Working in an Arabic context, Hoffman (2018) gives a promising example of how foregrounding learners' active engagement with a text can have interrelated benefits for vocabulary, general reading ability and motivation, both to read and to communicate. This illustrates one way in which self-efficacy can help us to understand the extent to which learners see themselves as being able to engage with texts and identify themselves as readers, going beyond a narrower concept of reading as the ability to comprehend texts at apparent level, as may be the case in many reading test items.

An important dimension of reading is also that of culture, since finding meaning, or making sense of a text, is to some extent culturally shaped, and the reader has to connect his or her social and cultural identity with the text in order to construct meanings (Graham, 2000), emphasising the importance of having a choice of texts that are meaningful to the lives of students. An approach that is often used with younger learners to encourage active engagement and participation in reading is the method known as “dialogic reading activities” (Jung, Yu & Kervin, 2017, p. 134), which combines reading in a group, usually of a story read aloud by the instructor, and incorporates activities such as the production of yes-no questions and wh-questions. Once children become proficient listeners, who are able to engage in a simple discussion about the story, teachers can start to use reading activities for vocabulary acquisition and practice (Trinkle, 2008). It seems that the research is showing that separation of reading from listening and from production is not necessarily the best approach (Usó-Juan & Martínez-Flor, 2006; Nation, 2008), but that integration of reading with other skills leads to better results. The emphasis on discussing texts may also have implications for the importance of the role of parents and caregivers in supporting reading at home.

Much research focuses on the type of reading material that is offered to young learners, and the general consensus seems to be that this should be both authentic and extensive, to encourage proficiency in young readers (Guo, 2012; Ghosn, 2002). It has been suggested that

teachers of ESL should take responsibility for developing and using what has been called “bridging discourses” (Gibbons, 2006), which take the learner from the knowledge that they have to a higher level, by introducing new vocabulary, new structures, and explanations that help the learner to expand their passive and active skills. This links engagement with reading material to the need for students to work with a text, producing a response even if they are not producing their own speech or writing. As such, a better understanding of learner engagement and its relationship to proficiency can be gained by considering issues of how reading is assessed, because performance in assessment is an important source of feedback by which students can judge whether they have been successful.

2.8 Reading Assessment

Reading assessment can take many forms, and these have been categorised by Grabe (2009, p. 353) as:

- a) Norm-reference and criterion-reference testing;
- b) Formative and summative assessment;
- c) Formal and informal (or alternative) assessment; and
- d) Proficiency, achievement, placement and diagnostic assessment.

Norm-referencing means comparing an individual against their peers, such as marking on a curve or ranking, while criterion-referencing uses pre-determined assessment criteria and rubrics. Formative assessment refers to assessment with the main aim of supporting learning and generating feedback, while summative assessment is more about measuring the learner. Formal assessment refers to exams and tasks, typically summative, that learners and teachers recognise as an assessment event, while informal assessment could be regular classroom tasks that build up a more gradual and holistic view of a learner’s progress or learning needs. Finally, proficiency tests emphasise authentic communication in real-world contexts, whereas achievement tests emphasise the taught curriculum and a student’s ability to show that they have learnt what was intended, placement tests are focused more on identifying groups of

learners who could be placed in a class together, and diagnostic testing would be more formative in that it seeks to identify gaps in a learner's knowledge or where they might benefit from a focused intervention.

There is some overlap between these categories, and in the context of Kuwait, the focus is on reading proficiency assessment through standardised testing. This was found in Al-Nouh's (2008) study in which teachers stated that assessment was a major barrier to their using communicative pedagogies. Students know that they are going to be tested when they read, and this influences the way they see reading in English. The phenomenon, known as "washback" (Bailey, 1999, p. 1), appears to be a feature of Kuwaiti primary school teaching of reading, making students focus on the features of reading that are likely to be tested, such as word recognition and the meaning of each word in Arabic. There are, however, other important dimensions of reading which could also be assessed, such as phonological awareness and fluency (Francis, Fletcher, Catts & Tomblin, 2005).

The above-mentioned work of Al-Nouh (2008) also discusses the issue of reading assessment in the context of public school teachers in Kuwait, and points out that it is very often the guidance from the English Inspectorate that forces teachers to concentrate on explicit teaching methods, such as multiple choice, matching pictures or sentences, and the completion of worksheets and tests. Teachers are also encouraged to point out errors, and focus on accuracy. It seems that the Inspectorate is more concerned with ensuring that learners can memorise content to fill in blanks or make correct choices from limited options in the national standardised tests, and much less concerned with the wider goals of encouraging learners to guess or use their own cognitive abilities to work out meanings, placing restrictions on teachers in Kuwait's public schools that are not felt as strongly in the private schools. This is an important contradiction at the heart of the Kuwaiti system, and it places teachers and learners in an awkward position. Specifically, the washback effect of this emphasis on a narrow view of reading ability results in a lack of encouragement among students and teachers to read in more authentic ways, seeing reading more a process of decoding or translation rather than one of engagement and meaning-making. This could have the most serious implications for social reading and reading for pleasure, which are important in the constructivist views of motivation and reading discussed in the next subsection.

2.9 Motivation, Social Learning Cognitive Theory and Self-efficacy

It is worth reflecting on the related importance of motivation as a learner's character to persist with a challenge, either for extrinsic reward or for the satisfaction of overcoming a challenge. This relates more broadly to social learning theory, where learners are thought to learn together through discovery rather than having to always rely on a teacher, since such pedagogies rely on learners who are motivated to work with each other as beginners and organise a range of strategies to overcome challenges rather than short-cutting to a 'correct' answer from their teacher. Any teacher of reading knows that the motivation of individual learners and the context in which learning to read takes place are important factors in successful progress. If motivation is lacking, or the learning context does not meet the needs of the learner, then progress will be limited. These are common sense ideas that researchers started to explore in more detail in the 1970s (Alexander & Filler, 1976), although research into motivation even today acknowledges its indefinable, complex, and implicit nature (Watkins & Coffey, 2004). As discussed in earlier sections, how students engage with a text can shape the way in which reading is understood, and so motivation to engage is also of interest. For example, students who wish to communicate with their peers about what they are reading, read a wider range of texts, or continue with effort through a desire to understand something thoroughly rather than just translating individual words, engage in a different way from students who prioritise reading for key information so that they can score higher on reading assessments. Such differences are typically explained by the increased motivation of authentic reading tasks (Berardo, 2006; Marzban and Davaji, 2015), although the more strategic and instrumental reader motivated by the extrinsic rewards of exam scores is not necessarily to be criticised for such an approach. Indeed, both approaches are valid responses to different reading contexts (Weir et al., 2012), such as the need for slower and more careful reading in IELTS compared with authentic study (Green, 2019), and there is little research on the complex relationships and interconnections between students' approaches to reading, their motivation, and their own sense of their abilities. While some of these concepts have been explored in Turkey context (Şirin & Sağlam, 2012), such studies tend to focus on older students who have higher reading ability and greater choice in how they approach their

studies, so there remains a gap in how motivation functions in the more rigid setting of a primary school.

Motivation for reading in both first and second language has grown into a very large and complex field, however, and there are different areas of focus in the scholarly literature. One key distinction when looking at motivation in general is a general one between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in all human behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 1985). This direction of research draws attention to the important role of the social environment, which tends to be neglected in studies that emphasise cognition and processing within the brain (Gardner 1985).

Gambrell & Marinak (1997) relate this distinction specifically to learning to read, arguing that extrinsic motivation can play an important role in learning to read, and that teachers can invent ways to ensure that learners do have some extrinsic goals. But extrinsic motivation is not enough if it is used in isolation; there has to be intrinsic motivation as well. The classroom should be understood as a social learning situation which offers a multitude of opportunities for engaging students and encouraging them to develop both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, through interaction with their teacher and their peers (Juvonen & Nishina, 1997), although this is not always the case in traditional teacher-centric classrooms. Since the start of the 1990s, a wide range of studies have been carried out on motivation and related concepts. Unfortunately, a very mixed variety of terminology has also been used, including learner affect and attitudes (McKenna, Kear & Ellsworth, 1995; Kush & Watkins, 1996), involvement (Schallert & Reed, 1997), engagement and self-efficacy (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997; Zimmerman, 2000). These terms have related meanings, and they are often used with a certain amount of overlap, making it very difficult to trace a clear theoretical path through the literature. Perhaps as a result of this conceptual and theoretical difficulty, some researchers have approached these issues from a practical rather than theoretical direction as, for example, Noels (2001), who argues in support of viewing the extrinsic/intrinsic contrast in motivation as a range that is influenced by the classroom climate. Thus, motivation is something that can be inspired and developed by a range of internal and external factors, including thinking of the motivation of a group rather than just as individuals. This can be particularly relevant to CLT and CLIL classes where communication and discussion are desired and so require willing partners.

In second language learning, the dynamic nature of the classroom and other learning opportunities at home or elsewhere have been found to play an important role in shaping children's attitudes to both their own and their second language (Ekiz and Kulmetov, 2016; Lan et al., 2012).. In the European Survey on Language Competences (ESLC), for instance, attitudes towards language are assessed alongside more conventional measures of language proficiency and inform an overall evaluation of how well a country is developing towards the aims of the Barcelona Agreement (Araújo & da Costa, 2013; European Commission, 2016). This shows how reading as translating or achieving simple comprehension is not enough; engagement with a text should aim to encourage curiosity and discussion around other languages and cultures.

When restricted to the processes of reading, a cognitive theory of reading can be helpful in drawing out the different means of processing that children employ when they learn to read. The MRQ has supported some interesting studies in this area, helping to tease apart how children may be motivated to read for some purposes but not others (e.g. Baker & Wigfield, 1999), gradually discovering and refining scales around latent constructs of reading efficacy, reading challenge, reading curiosity, reading involvement, importance of reading, reading work avoidance, competition in reading, recognition for reading, reading for grades, social reasons for reading, and compliance. As suggested by such a variety of variables using 53 different items, part of the complexity of motivation is that it is complex (Watkins & Coffey, 2004), which combines with the limitation that human brain activity cannot be directly observed, at least not in terms of the content of individual thoughts, since modern scientific measurements can only measure physical processes, such as eye movements. Researchers have therefore relied on theories to try to describe the processes that happen within the brain, such as in the way Grabe and Stoller (2011) explain how students are able to draw on a range of intellectual resources to make sense of text. This line of research started out with a basic computer analogy to describe mental processes as separate steps that an individual brain uses to accomplish complex tasks. It theorises that sensory register (or sensory input) comes from sight, hearing, touch, taste and smell, and it leads to information being stored briefly and processed in short-term/working memory, and then later is transferred to long-term memory. However, later research has rejected this model in stages, emphasising instead an interactive kind of processing in which these functions occur in parallel, and relate to each other

(Schwanenflugel & Knapp, 2016). From this perspective, self-efficacy and motivation are mostly about students choosing to engage with a text, thereby increasing their exposure. Other issues around affect and the role of emotions in being receptive to learning are thereby reduced in such theories.

The term ‘cognitive load theory’ is also often used in young learners’ education, referring to the limitations that the growing human brain has when it comes to processing novel and complex information, as for example when learning to read (Van Merriënboer & Sweller, 2005). This research argues that short-term memory can only hold so much information at one time, and suggests that carefully planned instruction that reduces unnecessary load on the brain, in order to help the learner to focus on the reading process, will be a successful teaching and learning strategy. As a learner gains more experience with reading, and gathers his or her knowledge of more and more words, he or she can recognise more of these words by sight, and their reading becomes increasingly an automatic process. Instead of using phonetic links or guessing what a word is, the reader simply recalls the word from memory (Ehri, 2005). There are also some potential developments in using cognitive load theory to understand how best to use technology to support learning to read in an L2, such as a study into the implications for dual-language input (Yow & Priyashri, 2019).

The use of repetition in related pedagogical strategies of spacing also puts increased emphasis on student motivation. For example, understanding and memorizing is a common concept in cognitive load theory, which requires students to give time and distance so that they partially forget a word, then experience a desirable level of difficulty to recall it. While such ideas are still at the very early stages of being researched, they may offer helpful insight into the role of memory and repetition in building reading ability (Khan et al., 2020). As well as requiring motivation to repeat previous material, and so perhaps pulling in a different direction to research based around the MRQ (e.g. Mason et al., 2012), this approach is designed to be much more challenging for learners than, for instance, repeating drills, so may be more frustrating. In terms of simple vocabulary acquisition, these practices may also struggle to demonstrate short-term success, another problem for sustaining motivation. For instance, while there is some evidence of improved longer-term comprehension using cognitive load theory-based approaches, compared with traditional drilling (Kang et al.,

2013), there is some suggestion that short-term gains in vocabulary acquisition are more referable to the repetition, rather than any form of retrieval practice (Kanayama & Kasahara, 2016). In the longer term, however, such flexibility may prove important for higher proficiency readers when dealing with ambiguity, helping them to develop the skills necessary to reorganise a sentence, when dealing with ‘garden paths’ (Roberts & Felser, 2011).

There has therefore been a shift in the focus of research in the last 20 years or so, which acknowledges that reading motivation can be context-specific (Neugebauer, 2014) and may have a more complex than assumed relationship with reading ability (Mucherah & Yoder, 2008). Instead of focusing on measuring learner motivation, and providing stimuli that are designed to increase either type of motivation, the emphasis now tends to be upon developing positive learner attributes, such as self-efficacy and autonomy (Watkins & Coffey, 2004). This build on the influential research by Bandura and Schunk (1981), which established a link between motivation, self-efficacy and competence in achieving complex tasks for learners who are unmotivated. Their study using varied assessment methods found that proximal self-influence, a concept drawing on intrinsic motivation and self-ratings of self-efficacy, was highest for those students who were taught to set short-term goals for themselves, with distant goals not being effective. The result was encouraging in that students learning how to set appropriate goals for themselves improved not just their achievement but also drove their motivation and sense of efficacy. Methodologically, this study was therefore able to show how different pedagogical approaches led to changes in measures of motivation, self-efficacy, and competence, meaning that these concepts could be treated as outcomes to be measured in research, rather than taking on the issues around how to assess complex skills such as reading. In other words, children are motivated to attempt more difficult tasks when they believe that they have the ability to succeed. In turn, better motivation and increasing self-efficacy results in a tendency to focus more on learning tasks and persist longer, with ensuing better results.

Therefore, finding ways to improve motivation or self-efficacy can be implied as ways to improve reading. It has been able to suggest, for instance, that primary aged students can be motivated to read by being around peers who are also reading in the same class and are free

to self-select reading material across a wide range of text types that contain both fiction and non-fiction genres (de Naeghel & Van Keer, 2013). This line of argument is particularly well-suited to research in the Middle East, where teachers have spoken of critical assessment forcing them to focus too much on students as individuals rather than, for instance, devoting time to building a class culture (Al-Nouh, 2008). While it remains an important issue to develop reading tests that encourage effective approaches to learning, work such as de Naeghel and Van Keer's (2013) suggests that improving engagement, motivation, or efficacy can be assumed to lead to improvements in reading, even if such improvements might not be picked up by a poorly designed test.

This necessarily brief literature review has presented only a small selection of all the potential theories about learning to read that exist in the scholarly literature. Much of this material is sometimes contradictory – for example, recommending both narrow focus on the reading task for better results, and wider focus on the social context of learning, or on the all-round development of self-efficacy in the learner. The most recent research supports a broad conception of the process of learning to read, which takes into account contributions from multiple disciplines, even though this produces some contradictory evidence, and correspondingly contradictory recommendations for teaching and learning practice. What is clear, however, is that there is no single theory of reading that encompasses all dimensions of this complex task, and no single discipline or set of terminology that can sufficiently capture the cognitive, social and motivational aspects of this topic.

There is still plenty of research being done in this area, and some of the most interesting work combines scientific methods (such as eye-tracking to assess concentration and focus) with statistical methods (such as comparing reading ability across different types of texts) and with assessment of demographic variables and individual learner differences. One such study by De Leeuw, Segers and Verhoeven (2016, p. 389) studied these factors with primary schools reading online texts using eye-tracking methods while students completed comprehension tasks and found interesting correlations and differences when all of these variables were examined, concluding that “both student and text characteristics should be taken into account”, such as text complexity and working memory affecting the speed and frequency with which students would need to glance back at earlier sentences to bridge

inferences. This valuable insight informs the present study, reminding us that a careful examination of all the contextual variables needs to be part of any study of reading, in addition to an appreciation of the differences between students and the factors that occur in the classroom. Likewise, there are continuing developments in the application of eye-tracking studies in relevant context to this study, such as with young learners and those EFL learners whose first language is Arabic (Alhazmi et al., 2019; Al-Khalifah & Al-Khalifa, 2011). As the technology develops, possibly during the timing of the present study, new insights into the particular challenges of reading in English when one's first language is Arabic may become available.

2.10 Overview of Social Cognitive Theory

A key educationalist who helps us to understand the way children learn is Canadian scholar Albert Bandura, whose work helped to develop our understanding of how reading is more than a mental process for the individual but is, at least in part, a social act. His early work on social learning was based on experimental work which demonstrated how children learn from observing other people, and from imitating what they see (Bandura, 1986). This process of observing, and then imitating other people, is called 'modelling'. Very often, parents and teachers play the role of a model as they demonstrate to children how a certain task should be approached. In reading research, and in MRQ-based research more specifically, such modelling can be seen as part of the social interactions around reading with friends and parents (Klauda & Wigfield, 2012). This idea contrasts with the ideas of behavioural psychologists such as Skinner (1965), who were more interested in the way behaviour could be trained through systems of encouragement, response, and reward. There is less emphasis on the influence of the learner in behaviourism, and a much narrower view of the learning process.

Bandura's ideas are similar as the earlier work by educational theorists such as Vygotsky (1978), which also emphasise social factors, but Bandura's work is individual in the way it emphasises the role of both emotions and human cognition in the learning process. At first, Bandura focused mainly on the social aspect of learning, and he made the key observation

that many learners face difficulties in school “not because they are incapable of performing successfully, but because they are incapable of believing that they can perform successfully, that they have learned to see themselves as incapable of handling academic skills” (Bandura, 1997, p. 30). Later, he expanded this theory to place more emphasis on cognition and personal agency as learners gather more and more experience, interacting with the setting and with other people in that setting (Bandura, 1986, 2001).

This theory raises interesting questions, such as where these learner beliefs come from and what factors in the educational setting could, and perhaps should, be modified to encourage social cognitive learning. It suggests that teachers should seek to minimise any negative influences and boost the positive experiences that children have, so that they will develop a sense of achievement and potential, rather than a negative attitude. Making learners aware of the progress they are making, and providing tips and tools that they can use to master a skill, are clearly a part of this approach to teaching and learning.

One of the most interesting features of this theory is the way that it takes account of actual interactions. In other words, it believes that children reflect on what they see and on what they experience, and they build their own meanings out of that complex mix of information. Listening to stories, for example, is a way in which younger children can be exposed to a wide variety of ideas which they otherwise would not face in their daily lives. Bandura’s (1993) work shows that early childhood is not only a key phase in the development of skills, but also in the development of an individual’s sense of self and estimation of their own ability, as well as their development of emotional responses to different situations. If a child experiences success in a certain task or subject, then he or she is more likely to want to continue with that task or subject. However, if a child experiences failure or criticism, this creates a barrier to further learning in that task or subject. The important thing is the way a child experiences everything in a social context; other people who share that context will have an effect on the feelings that the learner has as they go along.

Since classrooms often contain a wide range of different learners, and learning is heavily influenced by a very different group of adults, including parents, teachers, other school staff, administrators and inspectors, the potential for differing degrees of trust, willingness and

capacity of engagement is very great. Progress that is made in one area involving some of these people can easily be damaged by actions in another area, often involving a different mix of people. Researchers must also develop methods to gather data from adult and child participants, in order to take account of factors that affect both home and school reading practices (Katzir et al., 2009). As will be seen later in the methodology chapter, demographic factors such as asking parents about the number of books at home or whether bedtime reading is habitual can all be important considerations using Bandura's approach. Likewise, Bandura's emphasis on multiple social interactions supports much of the discussion around partnerships between home and school. such as how satisfied parents are with the provision in school, if English is used to communicate with domestic staff, and the place of English language children's books in their homes.

2.10.1 Social Cognitive Theory and EFL Young Learners

There has already been discussion on how reading instruction that is too focused on the way reading is assessed can be harmful to learning, when the tests being prepared for are poorly comprehended, creating challenges for schools where administrators pass such pressure on to their teachers and so are less patient of more longer-term strategies. Social cognition theory suggests using a range of teaching strategies, which could help to ease such problems. In particular, the theory supports pedagogy drawing on multiple reading strategies in a classroom, and not just one single strategy (although this is a context where CLT tends to dominate) because multiple factors influence the effectiveness of any reading strategy including "interactions between the text on the one hand and the reader's background, the setting, the reading level, and the nature of the L1 and the L2 on the other hand" (Oxford, 2016, p. 276). As learners grow in self-belief and take more ownership of their learning, experimenting with different strategies and contexts should also help them develop a bigger range of strategies, including some that are based on metacognitive knowledge or specific techniques that they have been taught. Following Bandura's social cognitive theory, teachers should model different strategies to enable such exploration. It has been suggested that the ability to use strategies in reading correlates with better results (Lau & Chan, 2003; Shang,

2010). However, Olson and Gee (1991) suggest that there remains a considerable difference in how teachers employ these pedagogical approaches and assess their impact, making it difficult to apply at further studies or reach firm conclusions.

A further step in the application of social cognitive theory to this context is the need for learners to develop the ability to notice important aspects of their own performance, to evaluate their own progress towards a defined goal, and to modify their behaviour accordingly (Zimmerman, 1990, 1995; Raoofi, Tan & Chan, 2012). At higher levels of learning, Sadler links this to self-regulation as learners come to appreciate what desired performance is, what their current performance is, and draw on a range of strategies to close the gap between the two (Sadler, 1989). Schunk (2003) recommends gathering learners together for a discussion before starting a new lesson, in order to identify their goals for that lesson, as well as summarising what has been learnt at the end of a lesson. Another example given by Schunk (2003) is the use of corrective reading classes to help students face their explicit verbalisations when reading, with the result that there is both better comprehension for the student who is reading, and less distraction for other students in the same classroom space. Giving feedback on the choice of goals and strategy, as well as the ways in which they affect learning, are also examples of group-based strategy for primary EFL. These sessions need not be very long and complex (Zimmerman et al., 1992). As well as encouraging peer support as a learning strategy and a more positive learning environment, there are also links with peer support, overcoming against negative affect and encouraging self-efficacy and collective progress (Lee & Evans, 2019; Prilop et al., 2021; Ruegg, 2018; Topping, 1989; Wang & Wu, 2008).

An example of the way social processes can positively influence children in the Kuwaiti primary school context who are learning to read is the gap between the values and habits encouraged in class, and that the children encounter when they go home to their families (McBeath, 2011). In older children, there may also be a peer culture developing which may, or may not have the kind of goals that are set in the classroom. Individual children, or groups of children, may regard reading English as something challenging in a positive way, or something difficult in a negative way. They may think it is cool to read English, or perhaps boring, or not something that they want to spend time on. Multiple social settings inside and

outside influence the way that children view the process of learning to read in English, including television and media sources, as well as lived experiences in interaction with others. Bandura's social cognitive theory focuses on how the individual child copes with this problem, but others, including Bronfenbrenner (2005), have examined the effects of wider cultural factors and the role of the child's environment as well (Gray & MacBlain, 2015). It is partly for this reason that self-efficacy ratings may change over time or as a student changes peer groups, meaning that the concept of test-retest validity may not be especially relevant in the current study's context, rather it is important to try to understand the student's learning context and why the schools differ rather than seeking generalisability.

Investigative studies on social cognitive learning and EFL have explored the connection between reading self-efficacy beliefs and reading comprehension, for example, although for reasons of practicality, most of these studies tend to focus on secondary school or college students. It was found, for example, that most Iranian intermediate learners want to understand what they read, but they rely very heavily on dictionaries, so that "their comprehension remains poor and they lose their interest in reading English texts and this could lead to their failure in academic English courses" (Salehi & Khalaji, 2014, p. 276). Nevertheless, in college level Iranian EFL, the explicit teaching of self-regulation as a self-study strategy had a significant and positive effect on reading comprehension (Maftoon & Tasnimi, 2014). It remains to be seen whether these results would also apply at primary level, therefore the current study may help to show whether similar 'unwilling to read' concerns exist. This shows a current and on-going gap in the literature which reflects the complexity of reading, the difficulty of measuring reading ability at the very early stages of development, and a general lack of research with learners in the early years in the Middle East. As such, this current study begins to address several gaps around the originality of Arabic as an L1, the differences between public and private education in Kuwait, and perceptions around English during a time of fast social and technological change.

Moreover, one recent study based in Greece showed that experience of using reading strategies in the L1 was a factor in primary EFL learners' ability to use strategies in L2 reading (Aivazoglou & Griva, 2014), showing that students need to be shown how mastery in one area can support mastery in another area. This would support pedagogies related with the

EU's 1+2 policy (Barcelona European Council, 2002), where pedagogies are blended to encourage 'translanguaging' and understanding the features of languages, as well as the languages themselves. Outside an EU context, there is evidence that a reading enrichment program in three Arabic-speaking countries produced benefits for primary EFL reading, although some readers relapsed later due to lack of continued access to varied texts (Ahmed & Rajab, 2015). An interesting study on primary school learners of EFL in Taiwan found that some learners define success in terms of their own mastery of a skill or task, while others define success in terms of superior ability over others in the class, or avoidance of failure (He, 2004).

Overall, the rationale for promoting self-efficacy relies on relating self-efficacy to a learner's ability to self-regulate and take control of his or her own progress (Bandura & Schunck, 1981; Şirin & Sağlam, 2012), although this rationale is still largely based on theoretical arguments and lacks a strong empirical base, particularly for young learners. Similarly, just focusing on enhancing a student's sense of self-belief, for instance, has not yet empirically demonstrated a strong enough fundamental link to reading improvement, because developing self-belief must also be grounded in realistic expectations, since some learners "overestimate their self-efficacy but underestimate others" (He, 2004, p. 130). This, in turn, leads some learners being unworried and failing to regulate their own learning as a result. Clearly, there are cultural extents to these processes, which means that findings may not translate well across linguistic and geographical boundaries. There also appears to be considerable methodological challenges in working out what learners are thinking, and how exactly these different cognitive processes are affecting their learning. Such overestimation or underestimation of efficacy may also be relevant in understanding self-efficacy ratings, particularly where students may be comparing themselves with peers when making their self-evaluation – a concept that might be relevant to research that shows benefits of shared and paired reading, with friend and parental involvement assisting standardisation (Schwartz, 2018).

2.10.2 Social Cognitive Theory and Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is a core aspect of Bandura's (1977) thinking, and it was one of the founding ideas that contributed to his development of a whole social cognitive theory. Self-efficacy relates to individual's capacity and belief to achieve a desired level of performance; it is recognised as a key factor in estimating the amount of personal control that a person has over what happens (Schunk, 2003). Bandura (1982) supported his social cognitive theory with a suggestion that there is a self-efficacy mechanism (SEM) in human agency, and that this mechanism is able to influence thought patterns, actions and emotions. He developed a number of tests and reviewed different research approaches, before concluding that a person's perceived self-efficacy helps to account for the following phenomena:

- changes in coping behaviour produced by different modes of influence,
- level of physiological stress reactions,
- self-regulation of refractory behaviour,
- resignation and despondency to failure experiences,
- self-debilitating effects of proxy control and illusory inefficaciousness,
- achievement strivings,
- growth of intrinsic interest, and
- career pursuits (adapted from Bandura, 1982).

It is clear from this very long list that self-efficacy is not just one skill or attribute, but that it involves many different cognitive and emotional processes, all taking place within a social context that requires interaction with other people. Over the years since these ideas were first developed, detailed examination of self-efficacy has provided a framework for analysing such complex processes, and for understanding all of these linked components. It has been suggested that self-efficacy can be understood when "a behavior is broken down into its successive elements, and self-efficacy is analysed in terms of perceived ability to perform each step in the sequence or under a variety of circumstances" (Ajzen, 2002, p. 667).

2.11 Defining Self-Efficacy

The previous section has demonstrated that the term ‘self-efficacy’ refers to one of the most important elements in human development and a core component of social cognitive theory. It is important for how students engage with a text, their overall approach to reading, and many of their attitudes towards learning more generally. While empirical research is mostly in Western contexts, the theory is sufficiently well-established and applied in various survey instruments that evaluating its relevance within a Middle East context should be possible since the Kuwait education system. However, despite the importance of self-efficacy, it has proved very difficult to define, and there is extensive literature on different aspects of its definition and usage (Bandura, 1993). In a general sense, self-efficacy refers to the individual’s capacity and belief to achieve a desired level of performance.

At the level of the individual, self-efficacy relies upon the exercise of human agency, which includes “intentionality and forethought, self-regulation by self-reactive influence, and self-reflectiveness about one’s capabilities, quality of functioning and the meaning and purpose of one’s life pursuits” (Bandura, 2001, p. 1). Each one of these processes has to be learnt and practised by a child and, of course, interaction with other people is the setting in which such learning and practising takes place.

It is important to note that even Bandura’s own definitions of self-efficacy changed, as he developed and expanded his theories and definitions over several decades. His early work (Bandura, 1977) proposed that self-efficacy would be a unifying theory that could account for behavioural change in general, whereas his later work shifted towards an emphasis on human agency (Bandura, 2001), then focused more narrowly on the link that exists between self-efficacy and control (Bandura, 1997). It appears that there are both internal cognitive control aspects and behavioural coping aspects to self-efficacy, and it has shown that these may operate differently, according to individual preferences or differences in context. Given the range of reading strategies that may be supported depending on a teacher’s pedagogical values, similar difference may be anticipated when thinking about efficacy specifically in learning to read. Moreover, it is suggested by McCarthy and Newcomb (2014, p. 41) that “children’s responses to environmental challenges often are limited to cognitive coping

strategies because their dependency on adults and their immaturity are such as to obviate the use of behavioral coping strategies”.

Finally, it is crucial to realise that self-efficacy is a strong predictor of academic performance, alongside other variables such as academic background, gender, ethnicity, ability and socio-economic status (Pajares, 1996). This means that promoting self-efficacy in primary school is a worthwhile focus, since it will lead to better long-term outcomes for learners who might otherwise fail to reach their full potential. This general finding is useful, but there may be some contexts in which it should be applied with care because the empirical literature has yet to find a general agreement. Klassen (2002a) reviewed multiple studies of self-efficacy as applied to learning and noted that there are gender differences in self-efficacy estimations in adolescents, but that results have been inconsistent, largely due to methodological difficulties and a mismatch between the self-efficacy measures used, and the nature of the task in each case. Another study explored the role of self-efficacy in students with learning disabilities and found that such students “appear to optimistically mis-calibrate their self-efficacy” (Klassen, 2002b, p. 88).

Similar findings are reported by Gresham, Evans and Elliott (1988). According to Klassen (2002b, p. 98), “for students with learning problems, positive self-efficacy beliefs – especially in the face of specific academic weaknesses – might not operate in the same way as for normally achieving students”. In other words, it seems that self-efficacy is a highly relevant factor in student performance, but it should not be assumed that there is a simple correlation between high self-efficacy and high performance. It takes careful measurement, detailed knowledge of the context and the learners, and thoughtful interpretation of results to determine what effect different levels of self-efficacy might have in different categories of learner, or in some cases, in different individual learners.

2.11.1 Four Sources of Self-Efficacy

This is based on Bandura’s work, which theorised four main sources of self-efficacy, which are discussed further in this section alongside a more recently proposed fifth source. Before this, it is important to note the criticism made in the systematic review by Usher and Pajares (2008, p. 755) that “not all researchers have been attentive to issues related to

construct validity or to theoretical guidelines related to the nature of the sources”. To some extent this is an unfair criticism, as self-efficacy is arguably highly dependent on context and its sources may need to be understood in a more distinctive way. This section therefore aims to not just outline the theoretical explanation given of the sources of self-efficacy, but to explore in more depth how each source might be understood in the context of an educational intrusion. As such, this section makes comparisons between Bandura’s important text (Bandura, 1997) and a more recent systematic review (Usher & Pajares, 2008), to contrast the theoretical approach with a description of how that theory seems to have been operationalised in the intervening 20 years. A further theoretical contribution from Maddux (2005) is also included, to consider how the sources are best categorised.

The relative importance of each source of self-efficacy can be understood through the authenticity of each source. This explanation is given for “enactive mastery experience” being the “most influential source of efficacy information” (Bandura, 1997, p. 80). The first important clarification is that mastery experience does not refer to experiences of success, so it is much more than small wins or a taste for success. While such experiences might indeed be helpful for more global concepts such as self-esteem, mastery experience relies much more on “experience in overcoming obstacles through persistent effort” (Bandura, 1997, p. 80). More recently, ‘enactive’ appears to have been dropped from common usage, so it is more common to refer simply to mastery experience. For instance, one simplified summary is that mastery experience is when learners “believe that their efforts have been successful, their confidence to accomplish similar or related tasks is raised; when they believe that their efforts failed to produce the effect desired, confidence to succeed in similar endeavors is diminished” (Usher & Pajares, 2008, p. 752). However, this seems to miss some of Bandura’s original intention, since he specifies that “performance alone does not provide sufficient information to judge one’s level of capability, because many factors that have little to do with ability can affect performance ... Performance alone thus leaves uncertainty about the amount of information it conveys about personal capabilities” (Bandura, 1997, p. 81). Bandura argues that this affects the implications a learner might make about their successes, highlighting the importance of guidance in mastery experience.

This distinction matters when evaluating an intervention since success which does not require as much struggle, such as scaffolded tasks or tasks broken down into small wins, may be classified as mastery experience but are not the best examples to use. Such activities are more revealing of a weak form of mastery experience, with more challenging and individual tasks being better examples. Using Bandura's theory, the important elements of mastery experience are that "difficulties provide opportunities to learn how to turn failure into success by honing one's capabilities to exercise better control over events" (Bandura, 1997, p. 80). Therefore, task challenge and the feeling of having control over a situation or task are important aspects which may too easily be overlooked. More broadly, mastery experience also involves reflection, as a learner considers what a particular performance tells them about their general abilities. This is explained by Bandura (1997, p. 81) as an "inferential process", while Usher and Pajares (2008) refer more broadly to learners understanding and evaluating their successes and failures. Therefore, any evaluation must also consider not just the mastery experience itself, but how learners are guided to reflect on those experiences. However, Bandura argues that "people with a high sense of efficacy tend to ascribe their failures to insufficient effort or unfavourable circumstances, whereas those who regard themselves as inefficacious view the cause of their failures as stemming from low ability" (Bandura, 1997, p. 85).

The second source of self-efficacy is referred to as vicarious experience, which is generally thought of as observing others and – as with mastery experience – building those observations into reflection. Again, this reflection is easily overlooked but is an important part of how observation feeds into self-efficacy belief. As Usher and Pajares put it: "a student who earns 8 out of 20 points on her first physics exam has little basis on which to interpret this score without knowing how her classmates performed" (Usher & Pajares, 2008, p. 753). This is a useful explanation, but much of Bandura's original theorisation is lost in simplification. Bandura sees vicarious experience not just as a comparison against different classifications of who is considered as a peer, but also as an imaginative process in which "visualising people similar to oneself perform successfully raises efficacy beliefs ... They persuade themselves that if others can do it, they too have the capabilities to raise their performance" (Bandura, 1997, p. 87). Therefore, vicarious experience is not just a means by which one's performance is contextualised looking back, it also involves looking forward to

what a learner expects they can learn to accomplish, based on what people who they observe as similar have accomplished. Interferences such as mixed-proficiency peer tutoring may therefore relate closely to this source, as a learner can see how a student who was like them a year ago has progressed and believe that they too can progress in a similar fashion (Topping et al., 2017).

Bandura goes on to explain vicarious experience as related to his broader theories regarding modelling and social learning, including not just observation but also interactions and discussions with a learner acting as a model. This emphasises the need for a model similar to but slightly ahead of oneself, with low efficacy being associated either with comparing oneself against lower models as a simple ego boost, or comparing oneself against much higher models who are so far removed from reality that they pose little “serious evaluative threat” (Bandura, 1997, p. 91), confirming that authenticity remains important for this source, just as it does for mastery experiences.

Continuing in order of expected influence, verbal persuasion is regarded as the third most influential source of self-efficacy. Rather than making inferences about oneself as in the first two sources, this source relates more to accepting the judgements of others about oneself. Here, respect for authenticity remains important, just as in the first two influences, since one must trust not just the skill and judgement of the person giving encouragement but also their genuine motives. Relating to more contemporary models of feedback as a source of self-appraisal (e.g. Sadler, 2010), verbal persuasion relies on trusting the source of persuasion. Bandura’s ranking of this as the third source, in terms of its impact on efficacy, suggests that verbal persuasion is more about reinforcing beliefs formed from mastery or vicarious experience, with verbal persuasion acting more as “strengthening people’s beliefs” or as a “bolster [to] self-change” (Bandura, 1997, p. 101). Therefore, learners are more likely to rely on such encouragement when they doubt their own evaluative judgement, or when encouragement is given as part of modelling or other types of instruction (Evans, 1989).

Verbal persuasion may also be seen as part of guided reflection on mastery experiences or vicarious experiences, such as giving encouragement to “measure success in terms of personal growth rather than as triumphs over others” (Usher & Pajares, 2008, p. 754). It might therefore be understood that verbal persuasion is best thought of as supporting other

sources of self-efficacy, rather than being a source in its own right, and that the impact can differ depending on how well developed a learner's own self-evaluation skills are. As Sadler (2010) points out, the judgement of others needs to be critically reflected on, so that a learner can come to make those judgements about their own performance independently. Therefore, verbal persuasion may be part of the complex fundamental link (as discussed further at the end of this section), rather than a discrete source of self-efficacy. More recently, Nicol has suggested that such reflections on efficacy and task completion might be helpfully thought of as 'inner' feedback (Nicol, 2019), emphasising that it is the learner's own reflection on such input that guide change or learning, rather than the input itself.

Following Bandura's definitions, the final major source of self-efficacy is the physiological and affective states. As with verbal persuasion, this might be considered more as a modifier of the impact of other sources of self-efficacy, rather than as a source in and of itself. Therefore, affective and physiological states can increase or reduce the impact of enactive mastery experiences or vicarious experiences but, on their own, such states have little lasting impact on efficacy beliefs. This does not simply mean that depression or anxiety reduce self-efficacy while an optimistic mood improves it – although this is certainly part of the effect. However, learners are thought to use these clues about how they are feeling and reacting to make implications about their likely performance. For instance, students experiencing "a feeling of dread when going to a particular class likely interpret their apprehension as evidence of lack of skill in that area" (Usher & Pajares, 2008, p. 754). Affective states also draw on Bandura's broader work on affective arousal, with the suggestion that extremes of positive affect could also be undesirable and that a slightly positive feeling is most desirable (Bandura, 1997). Nevertheless, the general sense remains that "increasing students' physical and emotional well-being and reducing negative emotional states strengthens self-efficacy" (Usher & Pajares, 2008, p. 754).

As an update, Maddux has inspired considerable discussion around the sources of self-efficacy by proposing imaginal or visualization experiences as a fifth source of self-efficacy, so that a learner can develop self-efficacy by imagining themselves in control of a situation or being successful (Maddux, 2005). One obvious criticism is that Maddux's additional source is only necessary due to the oversimplification of Bandura's (1997) concept of vicarious

experience as a process of looking back. If also seen as a means of looking forward and taking modelling as including imagined others, Maddux's fifth source fits neatly within Bandura's second source. However, as discussed above, Bandura's description of vicarious experience tends to be too expansive and leans into his much broader work on modelling and social learning.

Finally, it is worth noting that, despite some two-way influence between performance and efficacy beliefs, Bandura's theory states that efficacy in the main has a causal impact on performance, with the ability to "predict not only the behavioural changes accompanying different environmental influences but also differences in behaviour between individuals receiving the same environmental influence, and even variation within the same individual" (Bandura, 1997, p. 61).

2.11.2 Self-Efficacy in Education

While the literature discussed in this chapter deals mostly with reading, there is also relevant literature on self-efficacy as relates to education more generally. Given the previous discussion around some of the challenges in measuring reading ability at the early stages of learning, it is wise to consider some self-efficacy research in education more generally to give a more rounded perspective. One key challenge that this can help with is that it can be difficult to work out how exactly to apply self-efficacy theory to reading pedagogies.

Methodologically, a number of useful questionnaires and other research tools have been developed to investigate self-efficacy in education generally, such as a self-efficacy scale (Sherer and Maddux, 1982) which measures the extent to which individuals feel able to tackle challenges. Alternatives of such a scale have been used in many educational settings including schools (Shell, Murphy & Bruning, 1989), rehabilitation units (Hampton, 1998), language learning settings (Raoofi, Tan & Chan, 2012) and even prisons (Roth, Asbjornsen, & Manger, 2017). This shows that there are many different cultures and contexts and people use self-efficacy in a variety of different ways, with the importance that "there is no all-purpose measure of perceived self-efficacy" (Bandura, 2006, p. 307). These wide-ranging

examples also give some ideas for how efficacy scales can be adapted, such as in the present study where questions are adapted to be specifically about reading in an L2.

Other relevant research from general education includes the claim that all learners may have qualities, attributes and disabilities that can affect the way their self-efficacy develops (Määttä et al., 2016), and the role of context is still poorly understood (Şirin & Sağlam, 2012). Some students may underestimate what they do not know, and just assume that their current level of achievement is suitable for their age and level, which may be more likely in cultures where teachers are high-status. The implication of this is that teachers must try to help students maintain both high and accurate self-efficacy beliefs (Nelson, & Manset-Williamson, 2006). This requires attention to individual learners, which means that teaching methods should not rely entirely on instructor-led sessions to large groups of children. Part of the teacher's role is to observe and advise and focus on self-efficacy as well as mastery of skills and knowledge in developing lesson objectives. How a child perceives his or her own ability as he or she learns is just as important as what is learned, because this builds foundations for their future academic progression. Bandura (2006) also applies self-efficacy to the teacher's own role, showing how teachers can reflect on their own professional ability, and challenge themselves by setting goals for themselves as well as their students. In terms of the current study, this shows the importance of considering not just how student self-efficacy is developed but also how teachers' efficacy beliefs influence their pedagogy.

While beyond the scope of the current study, it is also worth noting that self-efficacy is of growing interest in international comparisons, increasing the opportunities for the current study to act as a starting point for future studies. The best known battery of self-efficacy ratings is within the OECD's TALIS survey (OECD, 2018). This is a survey run every five years by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, intending to allow comparisons around teacher effectiveness across its member countries through its Teaching and Learning International Survey. Its most recent survey was conducted in 2018, making it the third repetition. Regardless of country size, the survey asks both teachers and school leaders in 200 randomly-selected schools to answer a range of questions about teaching and professional learning, including a large section of questions on efficacy. Despite

this data being freely available, the self-efficacy ratings are relatively under-utilised in studies of the TALIS data. These prompts are shown in figure 3, below.

34. In your teaching, to what extent can you do the following?

Please mark one choice in each row.

| | Not at all | To some extent | Quite a bit | A lot |
|---|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| a) Get students to believe they can do well in school work .. | <input type="checkbox"/> ₁ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₂ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₃ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₄ |
| b) Help students value learning | <input type="checkbox"/> ₁ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₂ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₃ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₄ |
| c) Craft good questions for students | <input type="checkbox"/> ₁ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₂ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₃ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₄ |
| d) Control disruptive behaviour in the classroom | <input type="checkbox"/> ₁ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₂ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₃ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₄ |
| e) Motivate students who show low interest in school work . | <input type="checkbox"/> ₁ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₂ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₃ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₄ |
| f) Make my expectations about student behaviour clear | <input type="checkbox"/> ₁ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₂ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₃ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₄ |
| g) Help students think critically | <input type="checkbox"/> ₁ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₂ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₃ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₄ |
| h) Get students to follow classroom rules | <input type="checkbox"/> ₁ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₂ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₃ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₄ |
| i) Calm a student who is disruptive or noisy | <input type="checkbox"/> ₁ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₂ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₃ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₄ |
| j) Use a variety of assessment strategies | <input type="checkbox"/> ₁ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₂ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₃ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₄ |
| k) Provide an alternative explanation, for example when students are confused | <input type="checkbox"/> ₁ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₂ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₃ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₄ |
| l) Vary instructional strategies in my classroom | <input type="checkbox"/> ₁ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₂ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₃ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₄ |
| m) Support student learning through the use of digital technology (e.g. computers, tablets, smart boards) | <input type="checkbox"/> ₁ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₂ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₃ | <input type="checkbox"/> ₄ |

Figure 3: TALIS Efficacy Rating Questions

Notice, for instance, that the first question relates to the teacher's efficacy in developing a key contributor to student efficacy. Others reflect a general agreement around the abilities teachers need to have, most commonly around being able to control a class or use the latest technologies. While there are links to efficacy as conceptualised by Bandura, it appears that much of the focus of TALIS is around concerns for school systems around the supply, retention, and job satisfaction of teachers, although even here there are perhaps better tools available (Klassen et al., 2009; Klassen & Chiu, 2010), and it has been suggested that teacher efficacy is inconsistent with EFL teachers, and the fact that it might not be so obvious for teachers in other subject areas (Rahmati & Sadeghi, 2021). Ultimately, while TALIS may be highly useful in future studies building on the present study, for the moment it is most helpful

in considering the kind of question phrasing that has already been piloted with teachers who have L1s other than English.

In contrast to TALIS, this study finds that the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) (Figure 5) has a more direct connection with the key literature in efficacy and the dimensions which are most often discussed with respect to reading or foreign language instruction. As mentioned above, TALIS is more about school systems and has a particular view of how teachers should behave, whereas TSES is more focused on the teacher's beliefs and practices. There are some practical advantages too. While TSES costs money to use online across a school, use as a research tool is free and comes with guidance for analysis and how to, for instance, judge reliability scores. TSES also has translated versions, including in Arabic (an example of which is in figure 4, below), which can help to understand what might be lost in translation. In contrast, TALIS only makes its English and French versions available online. TSES is also helpful for adapting to a particular context, with many of the items easy to rephrase to focus respondents specifically on teaching reading in English. This might not work so well for the more general TALIS questions.

مقياس الفاعلية الذاتية للمعلمين

Arabic version of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (ATSES)

| الرقم | العبارة | درجة كبيرة جداً | درجة كبيرة | درجة متوسطة | درجة قليلة | درجة قليلة جداً |
|-------|---|-----------------|------------|-------------|------------|-----------------|
| ١ | كم من الجهد تبذل لضمان اندماج الطلبة صعب المراس؟ | ٩ | ٨ | ٧ | ٦ | ٥ |
| ٢ | كم من الجهد تبذل لمساعدة طلبتك على التفكير الناقد؟ | ٩ | ٨ | ٧ | ٦ | ٥ |
| ٣ | كم من الجهد تبذل لضبط السلوك الفوضوي في الصف؟ | ٩ | ٨ | ٧ | ٦ | ٥ |
| ٤ | كم من الجهد يمكن إن تبذله لتحفيز الطلبة الذين يبدون قليلاً من الاهتمام في الأعمال المدرسية؟ | ٩ | ٨ | ٧ | ٦ | ٥ |
| ٥ | إلى أي درجة يمكنك تكوين توقعات واضحة عن سلوك الطلبة؟ | ٩ | ٨ | ٧ | ٦ | ٥ |
| ٦ | كم من الجهد يمكن أن تبذله لتجعل الطلبة يؤمنون بقدرتهم على الأداء الجيد للأعمال المدرسية؟ | ٩ | ٨ | ٧ | ٦ | ٥ |
| ٧ | إلى أي درجة تحسن الاستجابة على أسئلة الطلبة الصعبة؟ | ٩ | ٨ | ٧ | ٦ | ٥ |
| ٨ | إلى أي درجة تحسن وضع نظام يضمن قيام الطلبة بالأنشطة بسلاسة؟ | ٩ | ٨ | ٧ | ٦ | ٥ |

Figure 4: Extract of the Arabic Translation of TSES

There is also some evidence that a version of TSES can be meaningful in an Omani context (Aldhafri, 2016) without needing to significantly adapt much of the questionnaire phrasing. While just one study, Aldhafri's work was conducted with care and transparency. When combined with the finding from a systematic review that non-western cultures tend towards lower ratings of teacher efficacy (Klassen, 2004), using the TSES form provides new opportunities to reflect on transferability and generalisability not just of the findings in this study but also the concept of self-efficacy as relates to the two different school types in Kuwait.

| <p>Directions: Please indicate your opinion about each of the questions below by marking any one of the nine responses in the columns on the right side, ranging from (1) "None at all" to (9) "A Great Deal" as each represents a degree on the continuum.</p> <p>Please respond to each of the questions by considering the combination of your current ability, resources, and opportunity to do each of the following in your present position.</p> | | None at all | Very Little | Some Degree | Quite A Bit | A Great Deal | | | | |
|---|--|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|---|---|---|---|
| 1. How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 2. How much can you do to help your students think critically? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 3. How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 4. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 5. To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 6. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 7. How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 8. How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 9. How much can you do to help your students value learning? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 10. How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 11. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 12. How much can you do to foster student creativity? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 13. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 14. How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 15. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 16. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 17. How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 18. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 19. How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 20. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 21. How well can you respond to defiant students? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 22. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 23. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 24. How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students? | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

Figure 5: TSES English Language Version

As a result, TSES can be presented as the most demanding measure of teacher efficacy available, with Aldhafri (2016) showing that TSES has a small but well-conducted claim to transferability into an Arabic context. On a practical level, the version as-is uses question

items and participant instructions which closely match efficacy as conceptualised in this literature review. It also has the advantage of being simple to adapt in its phrasings to a specific context, in this case reading in English. As with the MRQ, it is both adaptable to local context and enables some comparisons across cultures and contexts as well as linking to the literature base that is increasingly considering the particular experiences of EFL learners and teachers. As will be shown in the next chapter, working with the literature outlined in this chapter enabled the design of a TSES survey instrument that was both meaningful to participants in their local context. This will support later reflection on the usefulness of the TSES tool and the relevance of self-efficacy theory within the under-researched context of young learners in the Middle East, giving this study the potential to contribute to a gap in the literature as well as offering a fresh perspective on a well-established theory. At the same time, developing TSES will also allow insights into the current experiences of the study sample, which may suggest ways to improve their learning experiences or their approaches to reading that can have an immediate impact on their progress or attitudes.

2.12 Gaps in the Literature

From the limitations outlined above and earlier in this thesis, this section returns to consider the gaps in the literature that the current study hopes to address. Any research into L1 Arabic speakers learning English as their L2 can be welcomed since the region is typically under-researched, particularly given the social changes related to English that El-Dib (2004) identified. Other studies calling for pedagogical change to respond to social change, such as Al-Nouh (2008) and Al-Mutawa (2003), call for future studies to look at how teachers can be supported to improve their pedagogies, so again it is useful for the present study to more optimistically consider examples of effective pedagogy as ways of highlighting ways to further improvement.

It is also worth noting that the major contributions to the literature specific to Kuwait tend to be from doctoral theses in the UK, with the majority focusing on university-level education rather than young learners. Of those theses which are most relevant, Al-Nouh (2008) is perhaps the most significant in questioning what CLT pedagogy looks like in a

Kuwaiti context, indicating that little of what happens under the name of CLT in Kuwait would be recognisable as such by a Western observer, although – as with Al-Nouh (2008) and Al-Mutawa (2003) – there may be a negative preference to these arguments that the current study can help to rebalance. These recent studies show gaps relevant to the present study since, in each case, the doctoral researcher has contributed to a gap in the literature and ideas for future directions. That these studies frequently cite each other also shows how the authors have developed interest in Kuwait in British universities, developing ideas from one thesis to another. In order to show how the current thesis may build on this, this section ends with an overview of how these studies have identified and contributed to gaps for each other.

The first of these studies (Al-Dhafiri, 1998) was well-timed since English entered Kuwait's compulsory primary school curriculum in 1993, with its main finding being that English had an interference effect on Arabic learning. However, the study also identified that the effect differed by student ability and by how difficult they saw the subject to be. While the thesis did not connect this with self-efficacy, there is clearly potential in exploring the relationship between perceived difficulty and learner motivation. Building on this work, Chacra (2002) addressed the lack of socio-cultural theory being used as a theoretical framework in evaluating education in Kuwait. Motivation again featured in the discussion, though the context of an American International school left some new questions around transferability and differences in teacher education and professional learning in the non-international schools. An effort was made to address this gap by a doctoral student at Exeter (Al-Rubaie, 2010), who looked at the culture of student teachers and mapped the developing attitudes to English in Kuwait against a global historical narrative and through comparisons with attitudes to Standard Arabic. This made an important contribution in arguing that local expertise should be developed to inform culturally-relevant pedagogical change, a recommendation which would go on to greatly influence how the current study looks to learn from practice in both public and private schools. Related to such issues, Al-Nwaiem (2012) found that university students were keen for change, coming to understand their own development as language learners as distinct from what they saw as increasingly irrelevant standard assessments. Here was perhaps the first hint that self-efficacy could usefully indicate reflection and development of learner identity without needing to be forced by high-status but ineffective assessments. From the same university in the following year, AlKhars (2013)

would link this desire for change to the increasing attention being paid in Kuwait to developing relationships in education. Again, the modelling function within social cognitive theory was not addressed in great detail, but such studies are helpful reminders that Kuwait is an educational system in great change and that there may be growing interest in concepts such as self-efficacy even if the name of the theory is not known.

Most recently, gaps around the performance of high-ability students have started to be addressed. Mahsain (2015) points out how the changing role of English in society is changing how young people use English in their day-to-day lives, indicating that there may be a new gap in the literature looking at how such increased self-efficacy and code-switching behaviours could be at odds with more traditional pedagogies. However, just two years later, Alazemi's (2017) study of English-Medium Instruction would conclude that English-only policies were unpopular even with young adults. In designing a study for young learners, these two theses acted as important reminders that my understanding and experience of English could differ from that of young learners, and that much of the already limited literature on Kuwait could be out-of-date and increasingly irrelevant to the current experiences of young learners. The current study therefore offers an opportunity to move discussion further into considering where current pedagogical practices have value, including in building reading cultures in relation with home and libraries and through teachers' professional learning.

2.13 Conclusion

This chapter has outlined how selecting the appropriate literature for the current study's theoretical framework requires awareness of the context of ELT in Kuwait and the various ways that reading is conceptualised and operationalised pedagogically depending on whether English is seen as the second, foreign, additional, or parallel language. Finally, it is shown that the gaps identified by recent doctoral researchers emphasise a need to understand the English-learning experiences of young learners in Kuwait, considering differences in school and home provisions and attitudes. A close analysis of some measurement tools currently

used in the literature shows how one measure, TSES, appears to be the most adaptable form to suit the needs of the current study.

Thus, the research question for the current study can be summarised as:

1. What is the role of self-efficacy in the teaching and learning of reading English among private and public primary schools in Kuwait?

With the following sub-questions as elaboration:

2. Do the levels of self-efficacy and reading outcome among primary students differ between private and public primary Kuwaiti schools?
3. What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?
4. Do the levels of self-efficacy among teachers differ between private and public Kuwaiti schools?
5. What are the teachers' belief or perceptions about teaching English reading in private and public primary schools in Kuwait?

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction and Research Questions

As set out in the literature review chapter, there is uncertainty around the question of the impact and influences of self-efficacy on the teaching and learning of reading in English within Kuwaiti public and private primary schools. This chapter details the methodology and methods used to address the defined knowledge gap. The research questions are:

Central Question:

1. What is the role of self-efficacy in the teaching and learning of reading English among private and public primary schools in Kuwait?

Sub-Questions:

2. Do the levels of self-efficacy and reading outcome among primary students differ between private and public primary Kuwaiti schools?
3. What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?
4. Do the levels of self-efficacy among teachers differ between private and public Kuwaiti schools?
5. What are the teachers' belief or perceptions about teaching English reading in private and public primary schools in Kuwait?

This chapter discusses the methodology used. Each method and research process are discussed in depth and critically, in order to demonstrate the reasoning behind each research decision and ultimately generate credible and impactful evidence to inform local English education practice and guidelines. The methodology of the research was primary, as methods were devised to collect and analyse new data. This approach was selected as it was the only means to address the defined research gap. The research gap was simply uncertainty regarding the role of self-efficacy in the learning and teaching of English reading by primary

school students in Kuwait. Indeed, primary methodological studies are concerned with the generation of new evidence, while studies of secondary methodology either involve literature reviews or secondary analyses of pre-existing data – both of which were not available, and thus not feasible, to address the research construct (Smith, 2008).

3.2 Research Objectives

The objectives are centred around improving English language education for primary school children in Kuwait. In this regard, three main objectives were identified and are described as follows:

1. Determine whether there is a difference in self-efficacy in primary private and public school children learning of reading in English, and whether educational efforts are required to assist children in acquiring this skill prior to, rather than during or after, a period of learning.
2. Identify whether there is a difference in teachers' self-efficacy and the teaching and learning of reading in English among primary private and public school children, and use this information to inform revisions to continuous professional development curricula.
3. Identify the factors promoting and hindering the learning of reading in English language among school children, to inform changes to educational approaches and curricula that will favour more effective and efficient learning of the language.

3.3 Design and Perspective

This research adopted a mixed-methods design to permit the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data from teacher, child and parents participants. By utilising numerical and non-numerical data, mixed-methods studies can produce highly credible evidence as they are compliant to data triangulation, which cannot be reliably attained from studies of quantitative or qualitative design alone (Tariq & Woodman, 2013). Data

triangulation was the primary benefit of adopting a mixed-methods design and this is discussed in further detail below.

In isolation, qualitative research can be markedly useful in investigating previously unexplored constructs, particularly those that require understanding of the target population's views, beliefs and experiences (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). In essence, qualitative researchers use investigative situations to question participants to obtain information about a specific topic, and to acquire understanding of the reasoning or meaning influencing particular responses (Sutton & Austin, 2015). By contrast, quantitative research is concerned with the measurement, collection and analysis of numerical data. Indeed, most authors advocate quantitative evidence to be the most credible, reliable and objective, as the data can be measured statistically and mathematically (Eyisi, 2016). Moreover, quantitative research is suitable for analysing large sample sizes and analysing data over a long time period, which can assist in generating representative, generalisable and longitudinal evidence that can be significantly influential upon practice, guidelines and policy (Almeida et al., 2017). Notably, by using both data types, mixed-methods research seeks to account for the limitations of both quantitative and qualitative studies. For the former, this tends to include systematic biases, such as selection bias and information biases; for the latter, the primary limitations tend to be small sample sizes, subjectivity-related biases and poor validity, dependability and reliability (Almeida et al., 2017; Noble & Smith, 2015).

In the context of language education research, both quantitative and qualitative research have a number of strengths and weaknesses. In regard to qualitative research, the benefits include the ability to acquire rich and detailed accounts of participants' feelings, views and experiences regarding education, and information that can be used to understand teaching decision-making and associated actions and behaviours which, through interpretivism, assist in understanding human nature and its multiple realities and the complexities of learning languages (Rahman, 2016). However, previous educational researchers report that qualitative perspectives are insensitive to important contextual factors, and in effect can only generate evidence specific to the learners or educationalists being interviewed or observed (Silverman, 2017). In addition, qualitative research has been insufficiently influential upon policy decision-makers involved in the education sector, and this decisional bias has continued to

stay, both locally and internationally (Sallee & Flood, 2012). Finally, qualitative data takes considerable time to collect and analyse, and when answers to specific education questions are needed, such research is less able to inform education practice and guidelines, when compared to quantitative evidence (Sallee & Flood, 2012).

In contrast, quantitative research has been used extensively to inform educational practice, guidelines and policy, as data samples can be large enough to apply to sub-populations or entire populations, while using methods that avoid various systematic biases; its methods are less complicated, prone to error and time-consuming, compared to qualitative methods (Connolly, 2007; Rahman, 2016). However, when seeking to draw and understand the factors influencing language teaching and learning, evidence has shown that the positivist perspective of quantitative research does not account for how social realities shape and influence individuals' intentions, reasoning, actions and behaviours -(Blaikie, 2007). Indeed, by combining qualitative and quantitative perspectives, mixed-methods research has gained considerable value and impact within education sectors, and thus this design was considered the ideal approach for understanding Kuwaiti education practice, guidelines and policy (Riazi & Candlin, 2014).

3.3.1 Answering the Research Questions

The table below shows how this study is going to answer each research questions.

Table 1: Methods of Answering the Research Questions

| Research Questions | Answer via Research Method |
|--|--------------------------------------|
| Do the levels of self-efficacy and reading outcome among primary students differ between private and public primary Kuwaiti schools? | NGRT and MRQ |
| What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait? | Qualitative interviews with children |

| | |
|---|--------------------------------------|
| | |
| What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait? | PDQ |
| Do the levels of self-efficacy and reading outcome among primary students differ between private and public primary Kuwaiti schools? | TSES |
| What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait? What are the teachers' beliefs or perceptions about teaching English reading in private and public Kuwaiti schools? | Qualitative interviews with teachers |

3.4 Quantitative Methods

3.4.1 Introduction

This series of subsections details the methods used to measure quantitative data related to the research question, which ultimately comprised a series of scales with sufficient psychometric validity and reliability. Four instruments were employed: the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (Wigfield, & Guthrie, 1997), the New Group Reading Test (GL Assessment, 2018), the Parents Demographic Questionnaire, and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale Long Version (Tschannon Moran & Hoy, 2001). Research question 1: do the levels of self-efficacy and reading outcome among primary students differ between private and public schools in Kuwait? addresses the difference between the two sectors, and in order to obtain the relevant data, NGRT and MRQ were employed. Moreover, research question 3: What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?, the parents demographics questionnaire was one of the tools used to

gather data in answering this questions, Finally, research question 4: do the levels of self-efficacy among teachers differ between private and public schools in Kuwait? TSES was employed. These instruments are set out in detail below.

3.4.2 Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ)

The MRQ is a 54-item survey that was designed to elicit and assess 11 key aspects of individuals' reading motivations, although 5 of 11 constructs were selected for use in this research (Appendix A) for being specific in measuring self-efficacy beliefs, factors influencing learning and those relevant to language education (Baker & Wigfield, 1999). The MRQ was originally developed from three samples ($n = 105$, $n = 148$ and $n = 150$) of primary school children aged 8-11 years, who were attending state schools in the United States (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). Since phrasing of items was modified to reading in English specifically for this study, the constructs changed from the original, so it was important to re-evaluate the reliability of the scales in comparison with the original tool. A summary of the original 54 items of the MRQ is provided in Table 2 below, and those selected for this research comprised reading efficacy (3 items), reading challenge (5 items), reading curiosity (6 items), recognition for reading (5 items) and social reasons for reading (7 items), providing a total of 26 items. The MRQ contains three practice questions that participants completed with the researcher, to provide familiarisation and understanding. Thereafter, participants were instructed to complete the survey independently. In accordance with its validation, each item was rated on a 4-point adjectival scale as follows – 1: very different from me, 2: a little different from me, 3: a little like me, and 4: a lot like me. The survey was translated to Arabic, the first language of the students. Moreover, it takes an estimated 15-20 minutes to complete, and an example of a statement is shown below in Figure 6 (Wigfield & Guthrie, 2004, p.1).

5. If a book in English is interesting I don't care how hard it is to read.

| | | | |
|------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Very Different From Me | A Little Different From Me | A Little Like Me | A Lot Like Me |
| <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

6. I have favorite subjects that I like to read about in English.

| | | | |
|------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Very Different From Me | A Little Different From Me | A Little Like Me | A Lot Like Me |
| <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

Figure 6: MRQ Example Items

The MRQ has been extensively utilised and validated for use in education research with the original developers reporting the Cronbach alpha values to vary between 0.43 and 0.81 for the component constructs (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). Notably, the lowest Cronbach alpha values were observed for the constructs of Reading Work Avoidance and Reading for Grades, so these were not incorporated into the modified MRQ used in this research (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). Thus, prior to revalidation, it was likely that the modified MRQ would attain a Cronbach alpha in excess of 0.7, which is the usual accepted threshold for defining a valid and reliable survey instrument (Field, 2017). The specific Cronbach alpha values for each of the constructs used in the modified MRQ, as reported by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997), were as follows: Reading Efficacy (0.66), Reading Challenge (0.72), Reading Curiosity (0.69), Recognition for Reading (0.74) and Social Reasons for Reading (0.75). Therefore, as most values exceeded or were near the 0.7 threshold, the instrument was suggested to have sufficient reliability, and could therefore be applied to the primary school children in Kuwait.

The MRQ is recognised to be one of the most useful and valid instruments to measure reading motivations, with particular strengths being its ready accessibility, constructs that

correlate with reading behaviours, and assessment of multiple reading motivations including self-efficacy (Davis et al., 2018). In addition, various studies have used the MRQ and observed associations with important variables that can influence learning, such as comprehension, self-concept, degree of reading, self-regulation and parental involvement. This presented a benefit for exploring the factors influencing the learning of English reading among Kuwaiti school children (De Naeghel et al., 2012; Loera et al., 2011; Medford & McGeown, 2012). This evidence presents a considerable advantage when seeking to understand the factors influencing the learning of English reading. The use of the MRQ for measuring reading motivations in Kuwaiti children may be limited due to the instrument having been designed from validation cohorts of children in the United States. Such children are likely to observe differing characteristics across academic and educational maturity, development and attainment versus Kuwaiti children, which may contribute to limited applicability when used in this research to elicit the presence and extent of self-efficacy. The benefits of the instrument however, as previously described, appear to outweigh the potential limitations and thus, it was selected for use.

Some items were revised in order to investigate the participants' view on reading in English specifically, rather than reading in general. This is shown in Table 2 below in a comparison with the original items from Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) and the constructs which they are intended to comprise.

Table 2: Comparison of Original Items of MRQ and Revised Items of This Study

| Construct | Items from Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) | Items from This Study |
|-------------------|--|---|
| Reading efficacy | <p>I don't know that I will do well in reading next year.</p> <p>I am a good reader.</p> <p>I learn more from reading than most students in the class.</p> | <p>4. I don't know that I will do well in reading in English next year.</p> <p>9. I am a good reader in English.</p> <p>14. I learn more from reading in English than most students in the class.</p> |
| Reading challenge | <p>I like hard, challenging books.</p> <p>If the project is interesting, I can read difficult material.</p> | <p>3. I like hard, challenging English books.</p> |

| Construct | Items from Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) | Items from This Study |
|----------------------------|---|---|
| Reading curiosity | I like it when the questions in books make me think. | 13. If the project is interesting, I can read difficult material in English. |
| | I usually learn difficult things by reading. | 1. I like it when the questions in the English books make me think. |
| | If a book is interesting, I don't care how hard it is to read. | 10. I usually learn difficult things by reading in English. |
| | | 5. If a book in English is interesting, I don't care how hard it is to read. |
| | If the teacher discusses something interesting, I might read more about it. | 2. If my English teacher discusses something interesting, I might read more about it. |
| | I have favourite subjects that I like to read about. | 6. I have favourite subjects that I like to read about in English. |
| Recognition for reading | I read to learn new information about topics that interest me. | 12. I read in English to learn new information about topics that interest me. |
| | I read about my hobbies to learn more about them. | 18. I read in English about my hobbies to learn more about them. |
| | I like to read about new things. | 15. I like to read in English about new things. |
| | I enjoy reading books about living things. | 8. I enjoy reading books about living things. |
| | I like having the teacher say I read well. | 17. I like having the teacher say I read well in English. |
| | My friends sometimes tell me I am a good reader. | 20. My friends sometimes tell me I am a good reader in English. |
| Social reasons for reading | I like to get compliments for my reading. | 23. I like to get compliments for my reading in English. |
| | I am happy when someone recognises my reading. | 25. I am happy when someone recognises my reading in English. |
| | My parents often tell me what a good job I am doing in reading. | 11. My parents often tell me what a good job I am doing in reading in English. |
| | I visit the library often with my family. | 7. I visit the library often with my family. |
| | I often read to my brother or my sister. | 16. I often read in English to my brother or my sister. |
| | | |

| Construct | Items from Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) | Items from This Study |
|-----------|---|--|
| | My friends and I like to trade things to read. | 19. My friends and I like to trade things to read in English. |
| | I sometimes read to my parents. | 22. I sometimes read in English to my parents. |
| | I talk to my friends about what I am reading. | 24. I talk to my friends about what I am reading in English. |
| | I like to help my friends with their schoolwork in reading. | 21. I like to help my friends with their schoolwork in reading in English. |
| | I like to tell my family about what I am reading. | 26. I like to tell my family about what I am reading in English. |

3.4.3 *New Group Reading Test (NGRT)*

To explore the difference in English reading comprehension for students between private and public schools, as to answer research sub-question one: do the levels of self-efficacy and reading outcome among primary students differ between private and public schools in Kuwait?, the NGRT was employed. The NGRT is a short English multiple-choice test that seeks to measure the early reading skills and reading progress of children aged up to 16 years. The NGRT is a revision of the original Group Reading Test that was developed in the 1980s, which is reported to better reflect the education and language used in the contemporary context (GL Assessment, 2018). The instrument comprises a range of narrative and non-narrative sections with items that are categorised into constructs, to permit structured questioning and ease of reporting by participants (GL Assessment, 2018). The instrument questions were developed from several large cohorts of students aged 5-16 years from various schools across the UK; psychometric evaluations have attained Cronbach alpha values in excess of 0.9, which provides a high level of reliability for use in the Kuwaiti context (GL Assessment, 2018).

The NGRT is administered in a group setting and is comprises of a series of test constructs. The first test (test 1A) provides an assessment of early reading skills by measuring or rating phonic knowledge, decoding ability, literal comprehension and sight word

knowledge, comprising a total of 48 items. The second tests (test 2A and 2B) are assessments of sentence completion and passage comprehension, with the latter involving measures of context comprehension, retrieval, inference and deduction, organisation of texts, writer's use of language, writer's purposes and viewpoints and social, cultural and historical tradition, comprising another 48 items. The entire instrument was used in this study and answers to each item were rated either correct or incorrect in response to pupils initial, rather than subsequent, responses. In terms of the instrument's advantages, the NGRT has been used to assess the reading ability of primary school children on a global scale, as it provides reliable age-appropriate measures of performance and as few other reading assessment tools exist for children of primary school age (Styles, Clarkson, & Fowler, 2014). However, the value of NGRT for measuring reading comprehension among Kuwaiti children may observe some limitations due to the test having been designed and validated for a UK-based population of children and its monolingual development (GL Assessment, 2018). However, the NGRT represents the most appropriate measure when considering the limited availability and poor validity of alternative reading comprehension assessment tools (Styles *et al.*, 2014).

3.4.4 Parents Demographic Questionnaire (PDQ)

In order to explore whether any demographic factors influence students' learning and self-efficacy drive for learning English reading, as to answer research sub-question two: What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?, the Parents Demographics Questionnaire (PDQ) was employed (See Appendix B). Additional factors influencing students' learning were explored through the qualitative interviews as described later in this section. Previous studies have explored the relationship between parents' background and their children's reading literacy. One of the best well-known questionnaires that had been used in several countries is the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) (OECD, 2010). This was the inspiration to develop a simple survey termed the Parents Demographic Questionnaire (PDQ) which was established by the researcher of this study, to collect data concerning the perceptions of parents regarding their

child's ability to read the English language, as well as information, including age, educational attainment, occupation, marital status and socio-economic status. This survey was designed to help elicit and explain any variances in population outcomes between those teaching at or attending private and public Kuwaiti schools. Following granting of permission, the parents of children attending private and public schools were invited to participate in the research via school email using Qualtrics tool that generates a link to the questionnaire. The survey was in Arabic which is the first language of the participants. A total of ($n = 43$) parents of ($n = 91$) students accepted the invitations and completed the PDQ.

3.4.5 Teachers Self-Efficacy Scale (TSES): Long Version

In order to examine the relationship between teachers belief regarding education and self-efficacy, and to assess the variances in such qualities of private and public school teachers, as to address the research question: Do the levels of self-efficacy among teachers differ between private and public primary schools in Kuwait?, the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale was employed.

In its long form, the TSES is a 24-item scale that was developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) in response to the lack of instruments designed to measure self-efficacy belief, which is an individual's judgement about their capability to promote and attain student engagement and success in learning. Indeed, self-efficacy among teachers has been positively associated with student achievement across a range of educational contexts and age groups, so it is a valuable trait to explore and understand when concerned with English reading education (Barni et al., 2019). The original TSES was developed and examined across three studies of teachers, with teaching experience ranging between 5-28 years, and the Cronbach alpha value was found to be 0.94. Again, this is highly reliable and encouraged usage and evaluation in this research study (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

The TSES is comprises three main subscales, including Efficacy for Instructional Strategies (8 items), Efficacy for Classroom Management (8 items) and Efficacy for Student Engagement (8 items), which were found to observe Cronbach alphas of 0.91, 0.90 and 0.87, respectively (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). A summary of the TSES and its item questions are given in Table 3 below.

Responses to the items were rated using the accepted 9-point scale as follows: 1 nothing; 3 very little; 5 some influence; 7 quite a bit; and 9 a great deal. However, in this study, 21/24 questions were adapted to ask about teaching reading in English as a foreign language rather than teaching in general. An example of a statement with the 9-point scale is shown in Figure 7 below (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001, P.1). Teachers were invited to partake in the survey via email using Qualtrics tool that generated a link to the survey and by school visit by the researcher. The survey had the option of choosing the language of the questions, Arabic or English, which gave the teachers the opportunity to select the most appropriate language.

3.How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in reading classroom?

| | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Nothing 1 | 2 | Very Little 3 | 4 | Some Influence 5 | 6 | Quite a Bit 7 | 8 | A Great Deal 9 |
| <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

4.How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in reading?

| | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Nothing 1 | 2 | Very Little 3 | 4 | Some Influence 5 | 6 | Quite a Bit 7 | 8 | A Great Deal 9 |
| <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

Figure 7: TSES Example Items

The TSES (Appendix C) has been researched more extensively than the former MRQ and NGRT instruments, and this has provided wider evaluations of its psychometric validity. In a recent systematic review of teachers' self-efficacy, Ramakrishnan and Salleh (2018) found that the TSES was employed across the majority of studies and provided an insightful and reliable measure of the trait, which provides a strong element of construct validity for the purpose of this research. The utility of the TSES has been more recently supported by Ma, Trevethan, and Lu (2019), who showed that the instrument was suitable for determining the self-efficacy beliefs of Kuwaiti teachers, as well as permitting the detection of variances in self-efficacy across cultural contexts.

Table 3: TSES Subscales and Items (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001)

| TSES Construct | Items |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| Efficacy for Instructional Strategies | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To what extent can you use a variety of assessment strategies? • To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example, when students are confused? To what extent can you craft good questions for your students? • How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom? • How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students? • How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students? To what extent can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught? • How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students? |
| Efficacy for Classroom Management | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How much can you do to control disruptive behaviour in the classroom? • How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules? • How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy? • How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students? • How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson? • How well can you respond to defiant students? • To what extent can you make your expectation clear about student behaviour? • How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly? |
| Efficacy for Student Engagement | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in schoolwork? • How much can you do to help your students value learning? • How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in schoolwork? • How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school? • How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing? • How much can you do to help your students think critically? |

- How much can you do to foster student creativity?
- How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?

3.5 Qualitative Method

3.5.1 Introduction

In order to address research question: What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?, and research question: What are teachers beliefs or perceptions about teaching English reading in private and public primary schools in Kuwait?, qualitative interviewing of teachers and students was necessary. This following series of subsections details the qualitative methods used to obtain data related to the views, beliefs and experiences of teacher and student participants who were educating and learning within Kuwaiti private and public schools.

3.5.2 Sampling and Interviews

A semi-structured interview approach was used to collect qualitative data relating to the research question from a total of six students attending public schools and six students attending private schools, as well as six teachers from private schools and six teachers from public schools. This generated a sample size of 24: 12 students and 12 teachers. Students were selected using random sampling, as this is recognised to be the least biased recruitment method, and was therefore most likely to obtain a representative sample of students learning in school sector (Martinez-Mesa, Gonzalez-Chica, Duquia, Bonamigo, & Bastos, 2016). However, teachers who participated in the interview have taught the students in this study and therefore were not randomly selected.

Participants were questioned using semi-structured interviews as these are the recognised gold standard of qualitative interviewing techniques: they permit the pre-defining of open and closed questions, to elicit both focused and elaborative responses (Crabtree & Miller, 1999). The final interview questions were developed based on prior research having conducted

similar pilot qualitative research among teachers and students (Appendix D). Moreover, the interview questions were reviewed by the researcher's supervisor, who has extensive experience in qualitative research. This helped to generate face validity (Bolarinwa, 2015).

All interviews were conducted individually and face-to-face between each subject and the researcher, as opposed to interviewing in groups, which is known to increase the risk of recall bias (Jamshed, 2014). All interviews were conducted at a time convenient to each subject and within a quiet, comfortable and noise- and distraction-free office, within the resident private and public schools. All interviews were audio recorded to permit transcription; this was an important step that provided rapid availability of data for analysis, and ensured accuracy by preventing the need for error-prone manual transcription (Halcomb & Davidson, 2006). Notably, all students' qualitative data was collected at a time prior to World Health Organization's reporting of the current COVID-19 pandemic, and thus all participants and the researcher were protected from any adversity. However, as the interviewing of private school teachers occurred after declaration of the pandemic, the interviews were conducted via telephone, in order to protect public safety.

3.5.3 Data Analysis

The interview transcripts were translated by the researcher and a professional translator, then back-translated to check the quality of the translation (Gail, 2018). The interviews were analysed for the teacher and student groups using a standard method of thematic analysis as developed by Braun and Clarke (2006) and refined by Nowell, Norris, White, and Moules (2017). Thematic analysis is one of the most common means of analysing qualitative data acquired through semi-structured interviews, as it seeks to recognise patterns and consistencies within data to derive codes. In turn, interrelated codes can be grouped into themes, which ultimately translates large amounts of raw data into a brief and structured form that is representative of the participants' original responses (Parahoo, 2014). The thematic analysis of the interview transcripts was performed at independent time points for each population group, in order to avoid misinterpretation of the themes.

The accepted six-step process defined by Nowell et al. (2017) was used to derive the codes and themes. This involved: 1) familiarisation with the raw qualitative data through reading the transcripts thoroughly and in their complete form; 2) identifying key information in the data to derive the preliminary codes; 3) grouping the preliminary codes to derive the primary themes; 4) repeating and reviewing processes two and three, to identify and correct any errors and to generate the final codes and themes; 5) giving the themes descriptive titles; and 6) reporting the themes using thematic subheadings and participant quotations to support thematic interpretations (Nowell et al., 2017).

The researcher considered whether the qualitative data should be incorporated into management software, such as NVivo, but as this was perceived to limit the first step of data familiarisation, the analysis was conducted manually (Parahoo, 2014). To attain additional reliability and dependability of the findings, inter-rater reliability (IRR) was employed by gaining a review of the coding and theming process by two external academics, who had sufficient experience in conducting qualitative research. A randomly subsample was selected for the two coder for each data interview, two for the students' interviews and two for the teachers' interviews. Following Miles and Huberman (1994), the IRR was calculated as follow:

$$IRR = \frac{\text{Number of agreements}}{\text{Number of agreements} + \text{disagreement}}$$

A percentage of 87 of agreements was established for the students interview and 84% was for the teachers' interviews. Therefore, the two percentages are considered to be an acceptable IRR as per Miles and Huberman (1994).

3.6 Study Context and Participants

3.6.1 The Education System

In Kuwait, education is readily available for children and adolescents, with four key entry points common to other nations, commencing with preschool for children aged between

2-4 years, primary school for those aged 5-10 years, and secondary school for children aged 11-14 years, and finally high school 15-17 years. (Good School Guide, 2019). Education is freely available when provided by the state, but parents also have the option of applying for private education, which demands additional funding and is perceived to coexist with higher quality education and, in turn, greater prospects. Overall, there are more than 1,100 schools located across the six districts in Kuwait, with an approximate public to private school ratio of 6:4, actively providing education for almost 600,000 students (Good School Guide, 2019).

Data from the United Nations shows that the majority of children participate and follow to compulsory education, and the literacy rate has exceeded 99% since 2005 when considerable reforms to the education system were implemented (United Nations, 2020). The government dedicates 13% of all expenditure to the education sector, which equates to almost 4% of its Gross Domestic Product. This is approximately 1% lower than neighbouring Arab nations, suggesting that the quality of teaching may be impacted by insufficient funding and training of highly competent teachers and those fluent in the English language (Tryzna & Sharoufi, 2017).

3.6.2 English Language Education in Public and Private Schools

Students attending public primary schools are provided with English language education from the first year of study, and lessons are provided across 4 x 45-minute sessions over four days each week. All English language teachers are female, although this may be due to the lack of male English educators and/or cultural traditions. The majority of public schools continue to follow old traditions and utilise Arabic as the primary language of instruction, in marked contrast to private schools which tend to be bilingual in Arabic and English (Tryzna & Sharoufi, 2017). Students attending private primary schools are provided with English language education from preschool; lessons are provided on a more frequent basis than in public schools (each day, one hour in duration), thus presenting students with the opportunity to learn faster and more efficiently.

While Arabic is the official language of Kuwait, English has increasingly emerged in everyday life to become the second most common language, compulsory within school education as a result of governmental recognition of its value for the entire nation and its

population, as well as due to exposure from a rich foreign workers community (Tryzna & Sharoufi, 2017).

The public and private education sectors have benefited from the region's revisions to the English language curricula, which were modified in 2002 to optimise academic standards in line with UK and American systems (Tryzna & Sharoufi, 2016). Although the curricula have been implemented slowly across Kuwaiti schools, their objectives not only seek to improve the quality of education delivered to children – their foundations hope to encourage and inspire students to actively engage in education and expand learning outside of the classroom environment, in order to benefit their academic status and future lives (Tryzna & Sharoufi, 2016). Improvements to English language education have coexisted with increases in the number of teachers and the quality of their training; however, while some are trained to a high standard at university level, a proportion of teaching staff remain poorly trained, as qualification curricula remain connected to the Arabic language (Tryzna & Sharoufi, 2016). Indeed, these factors may emerge and account for some of the variance in students' English reading aspiration and ability between private and public school environments.

3.7 Pilot Study

Prior to conducting the qualitative and quantitative procedures, a pilot study was designed to determine the feasibility and acceptability of the defined methods. Indeed, it is recognised that pilot studies or evaluation periods are critical when conducting larger studies, as they permit the trialling of protocols, instruments or other research processes, to permit the detection and resolution of problems prior to commencing the final study (Hassan, Schattner, & Mazza, 2006).

For the purpose of this study, the quantitative surveys of the MRQ, NGRT and TSES were piloted among a random sample of 34 students in year five (17 from a private school and 17 from a public school) and 30 teachers (15 from each school type). As two forms of the TSES (short and long versions) and NGRT (test A and test B) existed, all surveys were administered to determine the most reliable version for measuring self-efficacy beliefs in the

final study (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Validity and reliability were assessed using statistical methods, which for the NGRT included assessment of normal distribution, t-testing to determine whether any significant differences existed between the private and public school groups, and Cronbach alpha as the standard measure of reliability.

The results revealed that both tests observed normal distributions, but the variance was broader for test B than test A, of which the latter also had one outlying result (Figures 8 and 9). Notably, the Cronbach alpha was much higher for test B (0.95) than test A (0.70), and thus the former (NGRT test B) was selected for the final study. There were also some significant differences in mean scores between the private and public school groups for tests A and B, with greater discriminatory value for test B being observed (Table 5 and Figures 10 and 11).

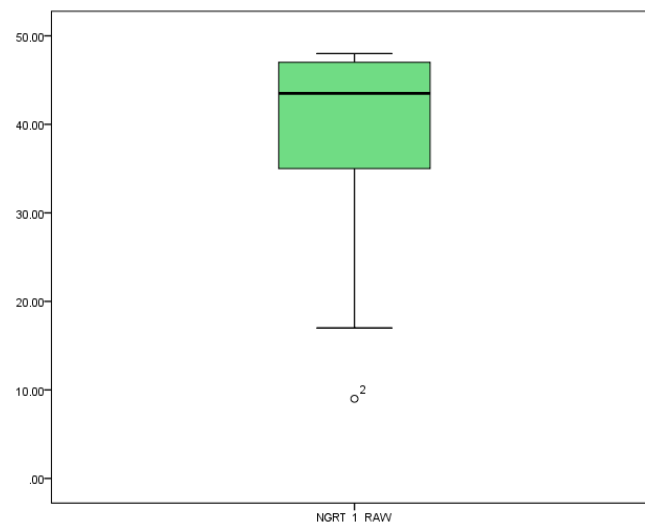


Figure 8: Distribution of Data Using a Boxplot for Test A

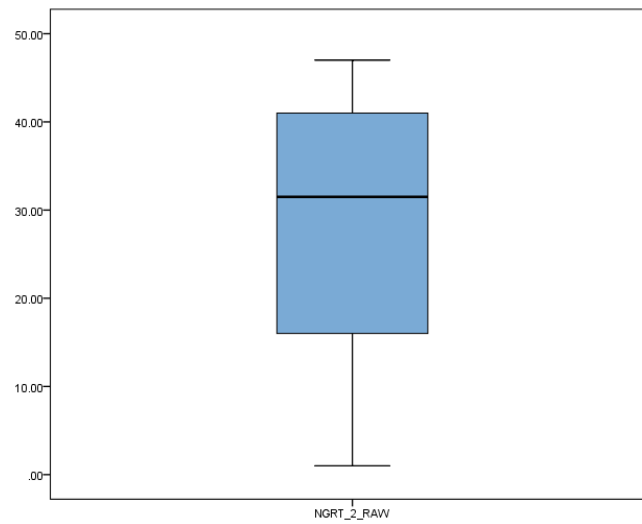


Figure 9: Distribution of Data Using a Boxplot for Test B

Table 4: Statistical Measures of Distribution and Reliability for NGRT Tests A and B

| Measure | Mean (SD) | Minimum Statistics | Maximum Statistics | Range Statistics | Cronbach's Alpha | Skewness |
|---------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|------------------|------------------|----------|
| NGRT A | 39.147 (10.537) | 9.00 | 48.00 | 39.00 | .702 | -1.43 |
| NGRT B | 28.058 (14.403) | 1.00 | 47.00 | 46.00 | .951 | -.398 |

Table 5: Difference in NGRT Test A and B Scores between Public and Private School Groups

| Measure | Public School | Private School | t (df) | Sig. (2 tailed) | Cohen's d |
|-------------------------|---------------|----------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------|
| | Mean (SD) | Mean (SD) | | | |
| NGRT RAW A | 32.0 (10.81) | 46.2 (1.89) | 5.37 (16.98) | .001 | 1.84 |
| Phonics A | 12.3 (3.95) | 18.0 (.966) | 4.68 (10.77) | .001 | 1.97 |
| Sentence Completion A | 15.5 (3.53) | 19.8 (2.82) | 3.42 (18.06) | .003 | 1.35 |
| Passage Comprehension A | 8.40 (1.29) | 8.94 (.242) | 1.59 (14.86) | .133 | 0.58 |
| NGRT RAW B | 16.7 (10.41) | 39.3 (6.95) | 7.43 (27.90) | .001 | 2.55 |
| Sentence Completion B | 11.7 (5.37) | 17.0 (2.15) | 2.54 (6.91) | .039 | 1.30 |
| Passage Comprehension B | 12.5 (5.89) | 22.8 (5.15) | 3.83 (7.89) | .005 | 1.87 |

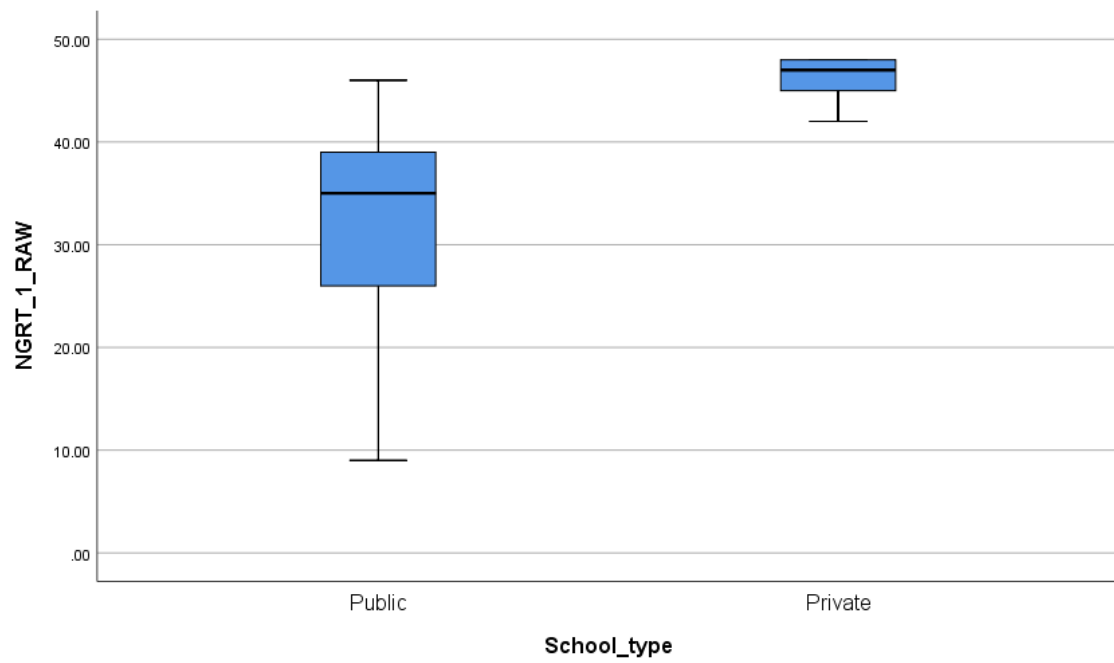


Figure 10: Variance in NGRT Test A Scores between Public and Private School Groups

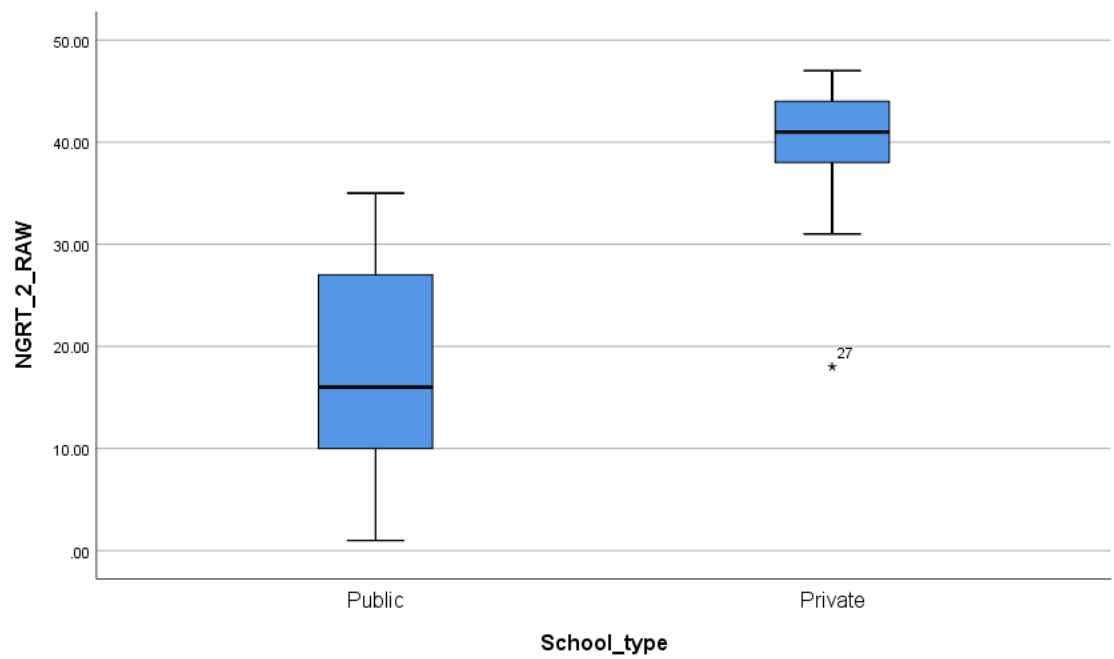


Figure 11: Variance in NGRT Test B Scores between Public and Private School Groups

For the MRQ, the data revealed sufficient variation for each construct and the overall reliability was high (Cronbach alpha 0.93). Specifically, there was larger variance for the social, challenge and curiosity constructs, as compared to recognition and efficacy, and the latter observed the lowest scores, suggesting the pilot sample had low levels of self-efficacy (Figure 12). Correlations between the constructs were evaluated, and the comparisons showed significant moderate-to-strong correlations between most constructs, with the exception of recognition and efficacy (0.193) - see Table 6. The scores between private and public schools were generally higher for private school students than public school students (Table 7).

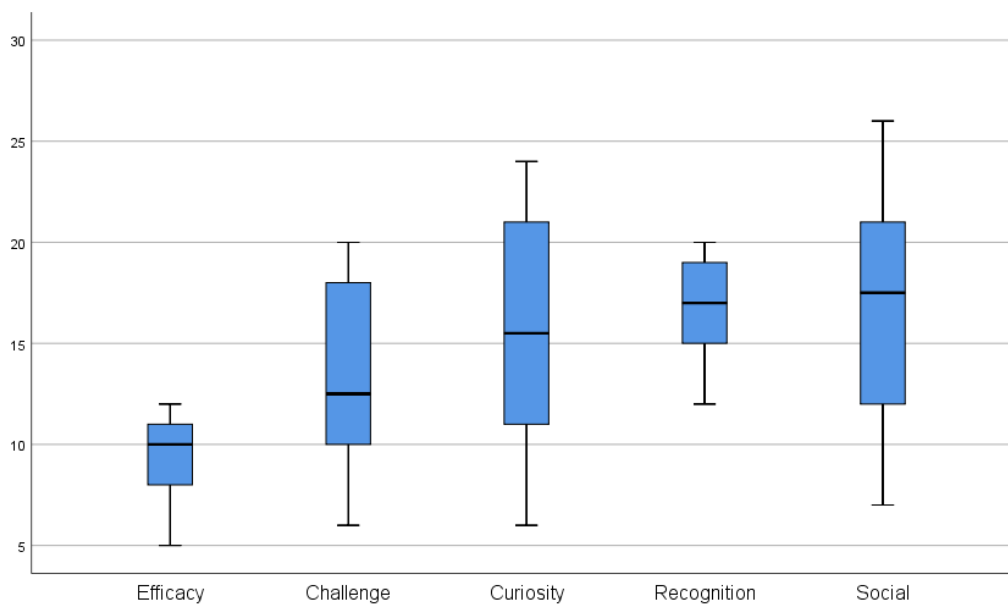


Figure 12: Variance in MRQ Construct Scores by Constructs

Table 6: Correlations for MRQ Constructs

| | Efficacy | Challenge | Curiosity | Recognition |
|-------------|-----------------|------------------|------------------|--------------------|
| Efficacy | | | | |
| Challenge | .641** | | | |
| Curiosity | .634** | .871** | | |
| Recognition | .193 | .437** | .469** | |
| Social | .515** | .808** | .812** | .388* |

Table 7: Median Scores for MRQ Constructs by School Type

| | Efficacy | Challenge | Curiosity | Recognition | Social |
|----------------|-----------------|------------------|------------------|--------------------|---------------|
| Public School | 8.00 | 10.00 | 11.00 | 16.00 | 13.00 |
| Private School | 11.00 | 18.00 | 21.00 | 18.00 | 21.00 |

For the third survey (TSES: long version) and its instructional strategies subscale, the reliability was found to be sufficiently high (0.76), particularly after the exclusion of one item (Q8: 'How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?'), which improved the Cronbach alpha to 0.82, similar to that reported by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001). The former question item was removed due to having a low level of internal consistency (Cronbach alpha <0.5). For the classroom management subscale, the Cronbach alpha was similarly strong (0.80), and for the final subscale – efficacy for student engagement – the reliability was markedly high (0.91). These reliability values were much higher when compared to the short version of the survey, thus preventing its use in the final study. Despite the inter- item variances in internal consistency, all items were included in the main survey.

A pilot of the qualitative semi-structured interview questions was also conducted with four randomly selected students (two from a private school and two from a public school). The transcripts were coded and themes, using the formerly defined method and reliability in

analysing the data were supported by constant comparative analysis and triangulation with the quantitative pilot surveys (Noble & Smith, 2015). The analysis revealed some generic trends where most of the codes generated (social, efficacy, challenge, curiosity and recognition) were shared among all participants, although this was not observed completely, suggesting that the interview questions were suitable for identifying the differences between privately and publicly educated students. Moreover, a higher number of codes were obtained from the interviews of private school students, suggesting that they had more information to contribute than did public school students. Overall, students attending private schools observed greater proactivity and desire to learn English, in stark contrast to students in public schools, where enthusiasm and opportunities to learn English were lacking.

3.8 Final Study Procedures

3.8.1 Overview

After receiving the appropriate permissions to conduct the pilot and final studies, the research was conducted over two main stages: Time One and Time Two (Table 8) among the subject populations shown in Figure 13.

Table 8: Overview of Time One and Two

| | Procedure | Analysis |
|---|---|--|
| Time One: Students' Quantitative Data Collection | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Questionnaire: MRQ and NGRT (A) Comprehension test for private and public primary students in Kuwait ($n= 91$) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Numerical data • Descriptive statistics • ANOVA • Correlation • Regression |
| Teachers' Data Collection | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ($n=12$) English teachers from those who taught the children and at the same school. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Numerical data • Descriptive statistics • T-test • Correlation |

| | | |
|---|--|--|
| <div>Parents Data Collection</div> <div>Time Two Students Data</div> <div>Qualitative Data Collection: Teachers and Students</div> <div>Connecting Quantitative and Qualitative</div> <div>Triangulation of Data Collection</div> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ($n= 43$) parents participated in the Demographic Questionnaire | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Numerical data • Descriptive statistics • Regression • Exploring outliers |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Questionnaire: MRQ and NGRT (B) Comprehension test for the same private and public primary students in Kuwait ($n= 91$) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Numerical data • Descriptive statistics • ANOVA • Correlation • Multiple Regression |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop interview questions • Selecting teachers from those who taught the children • Selecting random students from those who participated in the quantitative data | |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teachers interviews ($n = 12$) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Audio recordings • Transcribing the interviews • Translating and back translating for validity. • Thematic analysis |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students interviews ($n= 12$) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Audio recordings • Transcribing the interviews • Translating and back translating for validity. • Thematic analysis |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Linking teachers interviews with TSES | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conclusions • Recommendations |

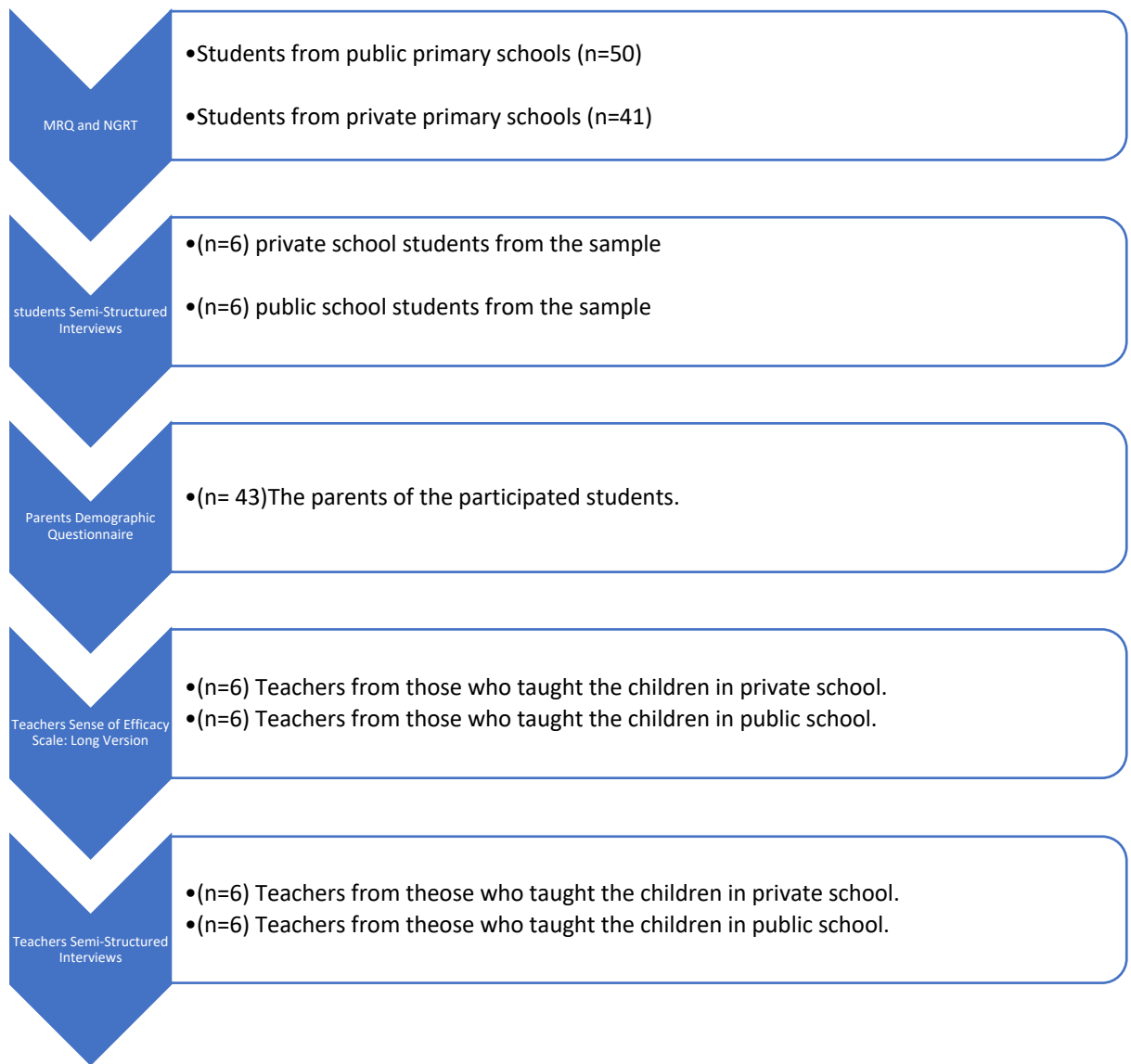


Figure 13: Summary of Study Populations and Sizes

3.8.2 Time One

Time One involved conducting the NGRT (test 2A) and MRQ surveys, which were distributed to and completed by 41 students from private school and 50 students from public school – all in year five. The surveys were completed electronically by private school students but had to be filled in physically by public school students, given the lack of

computer equipment. All participants completed the surveys at the start of the academic year, in order to ensure temporal equality in regard to English teaching exposure.

3.8.3 Time Two

Time Two involved conducting the NGRT (test 2B) and MRQ surveys, which were completed by the same sample of participants who completed Time One, but six months after the Time One period, which correlated with the end of the academic year. In addition, the PDQ were answered by 43 parents of the participating children in this study, and TSES long versions were distributed and completed by the 12 teachers who taught the students. Table 9 below shows each step of this study with its group of data and research questions.

Table 9: Research Questions Plan

| Steps | Data Group | Tools | Research Question |
|----------|----------------------------------|---------------------------|--|
| Time One | Students (Public and Private) | NGRT (2A) MRQ | Do the levels of self-efficacy and reading outcome among primary students differ between private and public primary schools in Kuwait? |
| Time Two | Students (Private and Public) | NGRT (2B) MRQ | Do the levels of self-efficacy and reading outcome among primary students differ between private and public primary schools in Kuwait? |
| | Students (Private and Public) | Semi-structured interview | What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait? |
| | Parents | PDQ | What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait? |

| | | | |
|--|--|-----------------------------------|---|
| | English teachers (Private and Public) | TSES- Long version | Do the levels of self-efficacy among English teachers differ between private and public primary schools in Kuwait? |
| | English teachers (Private and Public) | Semi- structured interviews | What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait? What are the teachers' beliefs or perceptions about teaching English reading in private and public Kuwaiti schools? |

3.9 Statistical Analysis

The data from all quantitative surveys was analysed using IBM SPSS Statistics v.26 software and appropriate statistical tests. Baseline demographic and educational data was analysed using a number of descriptive statistics, including means, percentage frequencies and standard deviations. In addition, a simple t-test was conducted to explore whether there was any risk of selection or sampling bias with student scores, measured for parents who did and did not complete the surveys and using the statistical difference to determine whether this was present or absent. All baseline data was compared within groups: private versus public school data. Statistical significance was defined in accordance with the usual alpha (p-value) threshold of 0.05.

For the survey data (NGRT), outliers were detected as variances from the limits derived within boxplots of the data. Following exclusion of outliers, regression analysis was performed to identify the factors influencing survey scores. In terms of the regression output, R² values of >0.7 were considered a strong effect size, followed by 0.5-0.7 moderate effect size, and <0.5 low effect size (Kirkwood & Sterne, 2003). For the TSES, the normality of the data was established using normality plots and tests including histograms, Q-Q plots, Shapiro-Wilk and Levene's testing; Spearman's correlation test was used to assess for associations between the three scales of the TSES and reliability was confirmed using Cronbach alpha analysis.

Finally, the qualitative and quantitative data was triangulated, which involved three key principals: 1) assessing whether the results for both types meet to infer the same outcomes or conclusions; 2) assessing whether the results for both data types complement one another but relate to differing constructs or phenomena; and 3) assessing whether the results diverge from or contradict one another (Heale & Forbes, 2013).

3.10 Permissions and Ethical Considerations

Following ethical approval from the University of York (See Appendix E), ethical approval documentation and consent forms were translated into Arabic. Authorisation to conduct the pilot and final research was approved by the Kuwait Ministry of Education after review of the proposal document. Following on, the researcher was given approval to visit schools within defined educational zones to invite students, parents and teachers to participate in the research. Given the direct involvement of human participation, the proposal was also submitted to the Kuwait Ethics Board to obtain ethical approval, which was granted prior to the conduct of any research (Appendix F).

Aside from formal permissions, the nature of the research had a number of potential ethical issues, which require some discussion to help demonstrate how the rights, privacy and wellbeing of all participants were protected from harm or any adverse outcomes or experiences. Firstly, upon accepting invitations to participate, all participants were required to read, understand and sign written consent forms, which were tailored to the level of comprehension of parents and teachers. The consent forms comprised all the information needed about the study's purpose, its methods and use of data, to enable participants to arrive at an informed decision to participate. Notably, all participants were given sufficient time to read the consent forms (See Appendix G), and by no means were participants forced into taking part.

In addition, participants were informed that the findings of this research may be publicised to lay and academic audiences, but with the assurance that all data would be anonymous. Secondly, any personal identifiable data collected was anonymised using a

numerical coding system, in order to maintain the confidentiality of participants. Thirdly, all research data (both physical copies of paperwork and electronically stored data) was retained within a secure research environment and within a locked cabinet. All electronic data was saved to an encrypted storage device and regularly backed up, in order to ensure availability in the case of loss or theft. All data will be kept for three years and will be destroyed thereafter, in accordance with the ethical committee. Finally, the researcher considered whether completion of the surveys or the interviews would lead to any emotional distress among participants, but given the non-sensitive nature of the topic, this was not deemed to be a significant risk or issue.

3.11 Summary

In summary, this research sought to answer the central research question: *What is the role of self-efficacy in the teaching and learning of reading English among private and public primary schools in Kuwait?* The aims were to answer this question through exploring and answering several sub-questions:

- Do the levels of self-efficacy and reading outcome among primary students differ between private and public Kuwaiti schools?
- What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?
- Do the levels of self-efficacy among teachers differ between private and public Kuwaiti schools?
- What are the teachers' beliefs or perceptions about teaching English reading in private and public Kuwaiti schools?

This methodology and methods to answering these questions has been details and justified, which should assist in addressing the knowledge gaps defined in the previous introductory chapter. In effect, a mixed-methods design was used to triangulate quantitative and qualitative data, which involved selecting and conducting a number of sufficiently

validated surveys and a series of qualitative semi-structured interviews. Three principal population groups were involved in the quantitative and qualitative elements of this study: year five students and teachers in private and public schools, and the parents of participating students.

Although some limitations to the methods exist, it is hoped that triangulating the quantitative and qualitative data reduces the risk of bias or other methodological issues, and in turn generates credible evidence to influence changes to current Kuwaiti education practice and guidelines concerning the teaching of the English language. In addition, the findings of the research are expected to influence Kuwaiti education policy by highlighting the differences between private and public school education, therefore seeking to improve the current inequalities of education provision, in turn optimising the prospects for all students. On a wider perspective, improving the Kuwaiti educational system is of national importance, as promoting the learning and academic achievement of students in early life is likely to generate and/or increase the number of highly successful individuals. Indeed, these individuals are likely to contribute significant value to the economy and the developmental status of Kuwait. This, in turn, should see Kuwait's position on the global map improve and thereby stimulate its emergence as a leading educational role model in the near future.

Chapter 4: Students' Data – Results, Analysis and Discussion

4.1 Introduction : Quantitative Data

This chapter presents and analyses the numerical student data from both study sites, addressing the research question: Do the levels of self-efficacy and reading outcome among primary students differ between private and public Kuwaiti schools?. The chapter begins by establishing the analysis approach and the advantages of two different timeframes for data collection. This is followed by tests to establish the suitability of the research tools and to select the most appropriate inferential statistics for analysis, which then proceeds using ANOVA, correlation, and regression techniques.

This section outlines how the analysis of student data from Time One and Time Two developed from the earlier pilot study. This includes examining the appropriateness of the data collection tools and looking for any unusual patterns, such as non-response or particular subscales. Crucially, this chapter builds on the pilot study to go beyond instrument testing and focus far more on hypothesis testing. To facilitate this, reliability testing using Cronbach's alpha and assumption testing using skewness and kurtosis is explored, to explain the choice of test for each of the two phases.

There was an important shift in emphasis from the pilots to the present study. The pilots dealt with tests and surveys which had not yet been evaluated in a Middle Eastern context, and so were focused on evaluating the tools in terms of their appropriateness for the sample, the research context, and the developing research focus and questions.

4.2 Sample Details

In line with national guidelines, access to participants was through approval from the Ministry of Education, who selected the schools for the study. All pupils were in year 5 and were 10 years old. A total of 91 students participated in the study, with 50 from a public school and 41 from a private school. All of the students at the public school were female,

while 23 of the 41 private school students were female. Gender was already acknowledged as a limitation in the pilot studies, due to cultural norms at the study site, so the inclusion of 18 male students offers some scope for including gender in the analysis, although clearly this can only be in the context of the private school. English learning is introduced in the public school in year one, whereas in private school it is introduced since kindergarten.

4.3 Analysis Approach

The analysis approach is based on a two-stage data collection process using repeated measures with two quantitative tools, producing several attitudinal ratings on the MRQ and comprehension sub-scores on the NGRT. Descriptive statistics and distributions are first given to present an overview of the data and to verify its suitability for more in-depth inferential statistics. In particular, skewness and kurtosis statistics are presented to support the use of parametric testing based on a sufficiently normal distribution. Reliability testing of scale variables is also performed, in order to select the most appropriate parametric tests.

Differences are then explored between the public and private sectors, with the first aim being to establish the scale and type of differences. The second aim is to then use more exploratory types of inferential statistics, to see which of the other variables collected might help to explain these differences.

4.3.1 Descriptive Statistics for NGRT and MRQ Performance by School Type

Descriptive statistics for Time One and Time Two results from the MRQ and NGRT are given in Table 10.

Table 10:MRQ and NGRT Descriptive Statistics by School Type

| | School Type | | | |
|--------|-------------|----------|--------|----------|
| | Private | | Public | |
| | Mean | (St Dev) | Mean | (St Dev) |
| NGRT 1 | .81 | (.13) | .43 | (.18) |

| | | | | |
|-----------------------|------|-------|------|-------|
| NGRT 2 | .79 | (.14) | .33 | (.13) |
| MRQ 1 | 3.05 | (.49) | 2.07 | (.36) |
| MRQ 2 | 2.92 | (.45) | 2.20 | (.34) |
| Reading efficacy 1 | 3.49 | (.52) | 2.44 | (.64) |
| Reading efficacy 2 | 2.96 | (.58) | 2.65 | (.51) |
| Reading challenge 1 | 3.04 | (.66) | 1.76 | (.48) |
| Reading challenge 2 | 3.06 | (.50) | 1.78 | (.48) |
| Reading curiosity 1 | 3.00 | (.71) | 1.67 | (.51) |
| Reading curiosity 2 | 2.82 | (.70) | 1.71 | (.53) |
| Reading recognition 1 | 3.16 | (.56) | 2.96 | (.62) |
| Reading recognition 2 | 3.21 | (.66) | 3.03 | (.65) |
| Reading social 1 | 2.84 | (.61) | 1.85 | (.48) |
| Reading social 2 | 2.68 | (.49) | 2.12 | (.35) |

Examining the data in Table 10, it can be seen that there is a substantially stronger performance on the NGRT from pupils in the private school compared with the public school. For the first NGRT, the private school mean score was 81% correct answers, compared with just 43% in the public school sample. The difference was even starker at time two, with 79% in the private school sample compared with just 33% correct in the public school sample. With regards to the MRQ, it similarly looks like there are differences between public and private sector sample with a private sector advantage in both times. A mean rating of 3.05 in the private school sample at time 1 is almost one full point higher than the public school mean rating of 2.07, although this gap narrows at time 2 with the ratings in the private school reducing slightly to 2.92 and the public school mean rating increasing slightly, to 2.20. While some early exploratory analysis looked at change from time one to time two, there was so

much variance in performance (either due to imprecision in the measurement tools or from confounding influences in the environment) that precision was lost. In this case, it was better to treat the two sample points as two separate snapshots of the same sample rather than looking for a positivist pre- and post- analysis.

4.4 Scale Reliability

4.4.1 *MRQ Reliability*

A simple means of checking the reliability in this study is Cronbach's alpha, a standard measure of construct validity based on correlation, where the standard criteria is 0.7. Anything above this is regarded as reliable enough to be treated as a scale (Field, 2009). In the case of the MRQ, the original study found scale reliability ranging from .43 to .81 and – through subsequent follow up – made a case for the constructs to be regarded as meaningful (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). Applying the MRQ to a new situation of foreign language learners, as well as in a different national culture, suggests that it would be unfair to expect the scales to be any more reliable now than they were in the context for which they were originally devised. On closer examination, the lowest scores found in Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) were for two scales not adapted for this present study: the work avoidance construct and the reading for grades construct. This means that the lowest scoring scale present in both this study and the original Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) study had a reliability score of .52. This is therefore adopted as an indication of an acceptable reliability in the relevant published literature, as per Field (2009).

The Cronbach's alpha scores for each subscale at each phase are provided in Table 11 below. This data indicates that the constructs meet or exceed the standards set in Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) and so can be used as approximating scale variable in inferential statistics. Despite this small limitation, the five constructs satisfy the necessary reliability condition. Thus, while usable as scale variables, the low reliabilities suggest that a cautious approach to interpretation would be prudent when making inferences about latent variables – a limitation that should be acknowledged by any researchers following the methods and instruments innovated by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997). Another reason is that “a low value of alpha could be due to a low number of questions, poor inter-relatedness between items or

heterogeneous constructs ..” (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011, p.52), this is shown in the case of reading self-efficacy where only three out of 25 questions represents this constructs.

Table 11: Reliability Scores for MRQ Subscales for Time One and Time Two

| Construct | Items | Time 1 α | Time 2 α |
|-------------------|--|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Full MRQ | All items | .92 | .90 |
| Reading efficacy | Q04. I know that I will do well in reading in English next year. Q09. I am a good reader in English. Q14. I learn more from reading in English than most pupils in the class. | .55 | .58 |
| Reading challenge | Q01. I like it when the questions in the English books make me think. Q03. I like hard, challenging English books. Q05. If a book in English is interesting, I don't care how hard it is to read. Q10. I usually learn difficult things by reading in English. Q13. If the project is interesting, I can read difficult material in English. | .81 | .82 |
| Reading curiosity | Q02. If my English teacher discusses something interesting, I might read more about it. Q06. I have favourite subjects that I like to read about in English. Q08. I enjoy reading books about living things. Q12. I read in English to learn new information about topics that interest me. Q15. I like to read in English about new things. | .86 | .87 |

| Construct | Items | Time 1 <i>α</i> | Time 2 <i>α</i> |
|----------------------------|--|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| | Q18. I read in English about my hobbies to learn more about them. | | |
| Recognition for reading | Q11. My parents often tell me what a good job I am doing in reading in English. Q17. I like having the teacher say I read well in English. Q20. My friends sometimes tell me I am a good reader in English. Q23. I like to get compliments for my reading in English. Q25. I am happy when someone recognises my reading in English. | .55 | .66 |
| Social reasons for reading | Q07. I visit the library often with my family. Q16. I often read in English to my brother or my sister. Q19. My friends and I like to trade things to read in English. Q21. I like to help my friends with their schoolwork in reading in English. Q22. I sometimes read in English to my parents. Q24. I talk to my friends about what I am reading in English. Q26. I like to tell my family about what I am reading in English. | .78 | .52 |

4.4.2 NGRT Reliability

Looking first at reliability, it can be seen in Table 12 that overall reliability is comparable to that found in Burge et al. (2010), and that each of three subscales satisfies the 0.7 threshold requirement at both times of data collection.

Table 12: Reliability Scores for NGRT Time One and Time Two

| Subscale | Time 1 α | Time 2 α |
|-----------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Full test | .95 | .88 |

Finally, Table 13 shows the skewness and kurtosis figures for the various scales. As can be seen, the NGRT scores show the greatest variation from a normal distribution, but is still within the range. However, since the differences in skewness and kurtosis are both marginal and within the ± 2 range, it was determined to continue with the transformed mean as a continuous variable and, more importantly, to use parametric tests in all the subsequent analyses.

Table 13: Normality Testing of (MRQ and NGRT)

| | Skewness | | Kurtosis | |
|--------------------------|------------------|---------------|------------------|---------------|
| | Statistic | St Err | Statistic | St Err |
| NGRT Full score (Time 1) | -.09 | .25 | -1.34 | .50 |
| NGRT Full score (Time 2) | .29 | .25 | -1.43 | .50 |
| MRQ (Time 1) | .51 | .26 | -.86 | .51 |
| MRQ (Time 2) | .42 | .27 | -.61 | .53 |
| Efficacy (Time 1) | -.10 | .26 | -1.07 | .51 |
| Efficacy (Time 2) | .20 | .27 | -.02 | .53 |
| Challenge (Time 1) | .38 | .26 | -.91 | .51 |
| Challenge (Time 2) | .36 | .27 | -.98 | .53 |
| Curiosity (Time 1) | .35 | .26 | -1.14 | .51 |

| | | | | |
|----------------------|------|-----|------|-----|
| Curiosity (Time 2) | .49 | .27 | -.93 | .53 |
| Recognition (Time 1) | -.66 | .26 | -.10 | .51 |
| Recognition (Time 2) | -.61 | .27 | -.20 | .53 |
| Social (Time 1) | .53 | .26 | -.39 | .51 |
| Social (Time 2) | .24 | .27 | -.59 | .53 |

Considered alongside the earlier scale reliability testing using Cronbach's alpha, it was determined that variables that could be taken forward into inferential statistical analysis were the NGRT overall scores and the two subscales for both time stages, and all the subscales of the MRQ as well as the MRQ full measure for both time stages.

4.5 Repeated Measures (ANOVA)

Repeated measures of ANOVA were run with the between groups variable (School sector: public and private), and the within group variable (Time: one and two). Dependent variables were MRQ and NGRT full scores and subscales. ANOVA can be helpfully thought of as an extension of the t-test, which is commonly used for variables that are measured twice. ANOVA is more commonly used for three or more time points, but can also be convenient for two times as in the current study.

It will be recalled that the mean NGRT score was higher in the private school sample than in the public school. When compared through ANOVA, there was a main effect of NGRT ($F(1,88) = 5.254, p < .05$.) with effect size of .76 for Time 1 and .82 for Time 2. As suggested by the size of the difference – private school pupils scoring over 40 points higher on the test – this confirms that the difference is statistically significant between sectors; changes that occur on an individual level are of both a different size and rate depending on their sector.

A similar level of difference was found for the MRQ ratings between sectors and time, with ($F(1,88) = 8.49, p < .01$) and effect sizes .74 for Time 1 and .67 for Time 2. Here, the size of the difference between the public and private schools was not as immediately obvious as it was for test scores, particularly at time 2 where the differences narrowed to around .7. However, the ANOVA effect sizes confirm that the differences were substantial and statistically significant for MRQ ratings.

Using ANOVA for the MRQ ratings as a whole, however, did obscure some potential reasons for differences, and some more substantial differences in specific sub-scales. In particular, three of the subscales were found not to be statistically significant. First, the reading challenge subscale had ($F(1,88) = .043, p = .835$), with effect size .74 in Time 1 and .78 in Time 2. Second, the recognition for reading subscale had ($F(1,88) = .057, p = .812$), with effect size of just .17 in Time 1 and .15 in Time 2. Third, and not satisfying the $p < .05$ threshold was the reading curiosity subscale at ($F(1,88) = 2.43, p = .123$), with effect size .7 in Time 1 and .65 in Time 2. As might be expected from the statistical significance of the MRQ overall, this means that two of the other subscales had much more substantial scores. The first of these was the social subscale at ($F(1,88) = 14.463, p < .01$), with effect size .7 in Time 1 and .54 in Time 2. The other was efficacy at ($F(1,88) = 24.728, p < .01$), effect size .65 in Time 1 and .27 in Time 2. As suggested by the mean ratings for MRQ sub-scales given at the start of this chapter, the ANOVA analysis here implies that there could be more complex relationships between MRQ sub-scales than are indicated by the overall MRQ analysis and that multiple comparisons may be needed. Overall, these analyses suggest that overall differences in both the ratings and any change in ratings between times differ significantly between the two school types, but that this is not the case for all sub-scales and that there could also be some commonality between students of the different school types.

4.6 Correlation Between MRQ and NGRT by Time

Pearson's correlation was used to explore whether NGRT scores correlated with MRQ ratings. The main aim for the analysis was to investigate if the two measurements correlates with each other, and whether there are any changes in scores and time as whole data. These

are presented in Table 14 below. It can be seen that there is a strong correlation between the two NGRT test scores. There were also moderate-to-strong correlations between MRQ ratings at Time 1 and NGRT scores at both timepoints. There was also a moderate-to-strong correlation between MRQ at Time 1 and at Time 2, as well as between MRQ at Time 2 and the NGRT scores at Time 2. There was a moderate correlation between NGRT scores at Time 1 and MRQ ratings at Time 2.

Table 14: Correlations between NGRT and MRQ

| | | NGRT Time 1 | NGRT Time 2 | MRQ Time 1 | MRQ Time 2 |
|---|---------------------|-------------|-------------|------------|------------|
| NGRT Time 1 | Pearson Correlation | -- | | | |
| | N | 91 | | | |
| NGRT Time 2 | Pearson Correlation | .805** | -- | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 | | | |
| | N | 91 | 91 | | |
| MRQ Time 1 | Pearson Correlation | .652** | .726** | -- | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 | <.001 | | |
| | N | 89 | 89 | 89 | |
| MRQ Time 2 | Pearson Correlation | .532** | .633** | .764** | -- |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 | |
| | N | 80 | 80 | 78 | 80 |
| ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). | | | | | |

Looking within each time sample, correlations were also investigated between subscales. Time One correlations are summarised in Table 15 below.

Table 15: Pearson Correlations for All MRQ Constructs at Time One

| MRQ Subscale at Time 1 | | NGRT Time 1 |
|-------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|
| Reading efficacy | Pearson Correlation | .538** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 |
| | N | 89 |
| Reading challenge | Pearson Correlation | .594** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 |
| | N | 89 |
| Reading curiosity | Pearson Correlation | .645** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 |
| | N | 89 |
| Reading recognition | Pearson Correlation | .248* |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .019 |
| | N | 89 |
| Reading social | Pearson Correlation | .565** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 |
| | N | 89 |

It can be seen that correlations are statistically significant for every MRQ subscale and the NGRT score at Time 1 and that, in all but one case, this is at the $p < .01$ level. The weakest correlation is between the NGRT Time 1 score and the reading recognition MRQ subscale, at $\rho = .248$ and $p < .05$. The strongest correlation, at a moderate-to-strong $\rho = .645$ and $p < .01$, is for the reading curiosity subscale, suggesting that this might have the greatest explanatory power on NGRT performance at Time 1.

Similar correlations were found at Time Two, as summarised in Table 16 below.

Table 16: Pearson Correlations for MRQ All Constructs at Time Two

| MRQ Subscale at Time Two | | NGRT Time Two |
|--------------------------|---------------------|---------------|
| Reading efficacy | Pearson Correlation | .303** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .006 |
| | N | 80 |
| Reading challenge | Pearson Correlation | .710** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 |
| | N | 80 |
| Reading curiosity | Pearson Correlation | .645** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 |
| | N | 80 |
| Reading recognition | Pearson Correlation | .130 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .252 |
| | N | 80 |
| Reading social | Pearson Correlation | .503** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 |
| | N | 80 |

Specifically, at Time 2, significant correlations were found between NGRT scores and each of the MRQ subscales, with the exception of reading recognition. It will be remembered that reading recognition was also the weakest of the correlations found at Time 1. Likewise, the strongest correlation at Time 1, reading curiosity, is again strong – indeed, it is identical to the Time 1 correlation at $p = .645$ and $p < .01$. At Time 2, however, the strongest correlation with NGRT score was found to be with reading challenge, at a moderate-to-strong $p = .710$ and $p < .01$, quite a bit stronger than the corresponding correlation between these measures at Time 1. . Further data capture may be needed to establish the consistency of such results over time, but for now there is enough here to justify using a model with multiple variables while also acknowledging the general trend that self-efficacy does appear to be correlated with NGRT performance.

4.7 Multiple Predictors of NGRT Performance

Analysing relationships and group differences based on school sector and time of study has so far suggested that there could be multiple factors that need to be considered, and that some might only be meaningful when interacting with others, as was found by considering the interaction between time and sector in the ANOVA analysis. In answering the main research question of whether there is a difference between primary students' self-efficacy and reading in English outcomes in private and public schools, it is therefore important to consider this wide range of variables and possible directions of influence. While it might be assumed that motivation precedes reading performance, many of the learners in this study are at such a basic level of reading in English that it may well be that the opposite is true: that those with some mastery of English are starting to find motivation in it.

The first exploration of multiple predictors is to look for a simple regression model using Time 1 variables. Starting with NGRT scores as the dependent variable and all the MRQ subscales as possible independent variables, the best-fit model for the private school sample uses just the efficacy subscale for an adjusted R^2 of 14%, while the model for the public school sample uses the curiosity and challenge subscales for an adjusted R^2 of 18.8%. This suggests that different motivation factors can be used to predict NGRT performance across the two types of school. This was the result of exploratory approaches where a stepwise entry method for variables was chosen to look for the best fit models from among all the possible variables within each sector type since otherwise the sector type variable was so strongly related to NGRT scores that no other variables would be included in the models. Model entry was a straightforward procedure for time 1 since the time 2 variables were not input as predictors, while the time 2 regression model had both time 1 and time 2 variables available for potential inclusion as well as computed variables for the differences between time 1 and time 2. Stepwise removal followed the SPSS standard stepwise criteria of Probability-of-F-to-enter $\leq .050$, Probability-of-F-to-remove $\geq .100$.

Approaching the explanation from the opposite direction, where reading ability might have an effective influence, again shows differences by sector. The model for the public

school sample has a low adjusted R^2 of 7.5%, although this is achieved with just a single question (34), while reducing precision to a single correct/incorrect observation, may help to reveal a specific issue for these learners that is obscured when using a mean score for the various sub-skills. It may therefore be worth asking the teacher if they have any ideas about why this one question seems to distinguish so much of the motivation rating in their pupils. For the private school, again the mean is less helpful than considering single question items. Using just four questions (5, 10, 21, and 39) gives an adjusted R^2 of 41.7%.

Time 2 models are more complex, because both Time 1 and Time 2 variables can be included. Starting with the NGRT Time 2 scores as the dependent variable, there were no variables from the MRQ that could be used to build a model. This suggests that there is no, or a very small and indirect relationship in this direction. Alternatively, taking performance as a possible predictor of motivation, we again see a more complex model, simply because there are twice as many variables that might be considered – 98 individual items, plus different ways of calculating overall scores, giving over 100 possible variables.

Returning to the research question, the regression analysis suggests that Time 1 test results can be partly predicted by efficacy, challenge or curiosity, depending on the sector. Time 2 test scores cannot be predicted by MRQ measures when split by sector. As an alternative explanation, the pupils' low levels of English may suggest that motivation can only develop once a base level of performance is reached. This is supported by models with strong explanatory value for motivation ratings, using just a small number of test items answered correctly to predict motivation ratings.

In terms of test score outcomes at the end of the year, and perhaps more broadly, the sector is by far the most influential factor. Pupils in the private school generally score higher on the MRQ than their public school counterparts, but this is exceeded by the scale of difference in their test scores. When putting the samples together into any regression model and using sector as a variable (rather than splitting the cases), other variables are comparatively insignificant. This suggests that opportunities for private school pupils to develop their English abilities far outstrip those in the public school sector. Taken together with the earlier suggestion that performance might be needed to stimulate the early stages of

motivation, this improved test performance in the private sector may help to account for increased motivation in English.

As a final step, different variables were tested in different combinations to find a model which might help to explain the size of the different influences of the variables and how they combine. This was set up under the assumption that reading scores will be impacted by motivation to learn, so the direction of causation means that the NGRT scores are the dependent variables of interest. To look at how progress between Time 1 and Time 2 was influenced by motivation scores, the NGRT score in Time 1 was taken as a benchmark. The simplest way to achieve this was to create a new variable of the difference between Time 1 and Time 2 reading scores. Overall, the mean difference was $-.02$, representing a very small decrease in scores overall. There was some difference here by sector, which also needed to be accounted for – in the public schools, the difference was $-.04$, while the private sector difference was $.003$. This emphasises the importance of analysing differences for each individual, controlling for sector and initial reading score as measured in Time 1. A stepwise model using the various variables shows the key influence of the reading efficacy subscale during Time 2 in the public school sample. This can be written as an equation, where change in reading score is equal to $.244$ (a constant) minus the self-efficacy score multiplied by $.106$, as shown below:

$$\text{NGRT improvement} = .244 - .106 * \text{self-efficacy rating}$$

This model is statistically significant at $p = .046$, and shows that the drop in performance observed in the public school is explainable as an overall increase in performance across the full sample but with lower scores for particular individuals, who are those reporting lower self-efficacy ratings.

4.8 Summary

In summary, the analysis of the student-level numerical data in this chapter has shown that there are differences in the student experience between the public and private sectors. This is indicated by higher test scores in the private school as well as more positive ratings in

the MRQ scales. While there is some variance in the scale and nature of these differences between the two time samples, the overall trend is strongly indicative of higher efficacy and higher performance for students at the private school. However, this does not establish whether differences in performance relate to efficacy or whether both are boosted by some other variable related to the school type or even the home lives of students. Here, looking at the sub-scales and building a model with multiple predictors helps to show how self-efficacy and performance might relate in the two school types. While there are not many students of similar ability when comparing the two school types (i.e. even the lowest scorers at the private school tend to out-perform the highest scorers in the public school), the multiple predictor model gives at least some indication that change in NGRT test score between the two sample points may be related to self-efficacy ratings, but that the influence may be affected by other unknown variables and might affect the lower scoring students more than it does the higher scoring students. Such complexity is ideally suited to qualitative inquiry, which is the next stage of the current study and will now be covered in the subsequent sections.

4.8 Qualitative Analysis Overview

A total of 12 students (six children attending public schools and six children attending private schools) participated in the interviews, and data relevant to the construct was analysed using the accepted method of thematic analysis as defined by Braun and Clarke (2006). The analysis led to the identification of three main themes: 1) exposure to and desire for fluency in reading English, 2) enjoyment and pleasure of reading English and 3) teaching approach and educational materials. The three themes are interrelated with one another and collectively describe the factors influencing the development in reading English, which is sufficient to address the central research question defined for this section:

- What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?

The differences in responses regarding learners' perceptions of the factors influencing the development in reading English between students attending private and public schools are

also reported within each theme. The themes are discussed in detail, along with supporting original quotations from the participants, within the following thematic subsections. A coding and thematic map and examples of the coding and theming process are provided in the appendices (H-J).

4.9 Thematic Analysis of Students' Reading Interviews

Research question three concerns the factors which influence young learners development to read in English. The approach to thematic analysis in this section therefore follows the much more exploratory approach of six steps of thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Thus, these steps are used to structure the following subsections and to report the thematic analysis in each step to support methodological transparency. In particular, the steps show how the thematic analysis progressed from simplifying and organising responses from the participants by topic through to analysing in the ways in which those topics were discussed. This supports later discussion, where the results of the thematic analysis are related back to the main themes identified in the literature review.

4.9.1 Step One: Data Familiarisation

Building on the initial impressions developed in fieldnotes as part of conducting the data collection, the first step of analysis is familiarisation, as data is prepared for the more formal stages of coding. Initial impressions are particularly valuable in reflecting on what seemed most significant in the moment (DeWalt & DeWalt, 2010; Kettley, 2010). This is an important step where the first impressions of meaning and importance are preserved, helping to avoid later seeing the data as disaggregated and focusing too narrowly on code frequency. A good example of this is the discussion of teachers using iPads or projectors in two different quotations:

“The projector with the iPad, markers, we get to see the page that we are reading in our book on the board and the teacher would ask someone to come over the board and find a certain word and would use the marker.”

And:

“She uses the overhead projector with the book page to read with us and the board. We have a point chart where at the end of the lesson we see which team won.”

Both quotations were coded in Step Two in simple descriptive terms (see next section), but the initial fieldnote was that the iPad example felt more exciting and interactive, with students coming to the board and using markers, whereas the overhead projector and board in the second example felt much more controlled by the teacher. It was too early to suggest whether this might become meaningful – perhaps something about the fragility of transparency sheets or the novelty of iPads – but it was an impression that could have been too easily lost if the first step was not given full consideration or if fieldnotes had not been maintained. Similarly, general impressions from the respondents would not come across in any particular quotation, but were influential in how themes were developed. Specifically, there was a sense early on that the students in the private school spoke more freely, and with greater enthusiasm about their reading. There was a greater sense of excitement as they described what books they enjoyed, the experience of being read to or reading to others, and a general desire to talk about their reading.

4.9.2 *Step Two: Generating Initial Codes*

Thematic analysis is based on the principle that data is generated through comparison and rewriting, so the main focus of Braun and Clarke’s (2006) second step is to create simple and direct codes.

Each question and answer pair were created as a quotation, designating these as units of meaning (as opposed to, for instance, line-by-line coding). They were then coded for each participant in turn, with the aim of keeping as much detail as possible while reducing the code to a single expression. As a simple example, the response from private school pupil 1 ...

Q: What do you like about reading?

A: It gives me more of a creative mind and more time to give me to do creative things, such as drawings and make stories up.

... was assigned two codes: ‘reading associated with other tasks such as making up stories and drawing’ and ‘reading gives me time to do creative things’. Working through the first transcript resulted in 41 unique codes. However, repetition was soon apparent such that only 145 unique codes were used across all 12 transcripts. As an overview, the words used in the code labels were put into the word cloud in Figure 14 below.

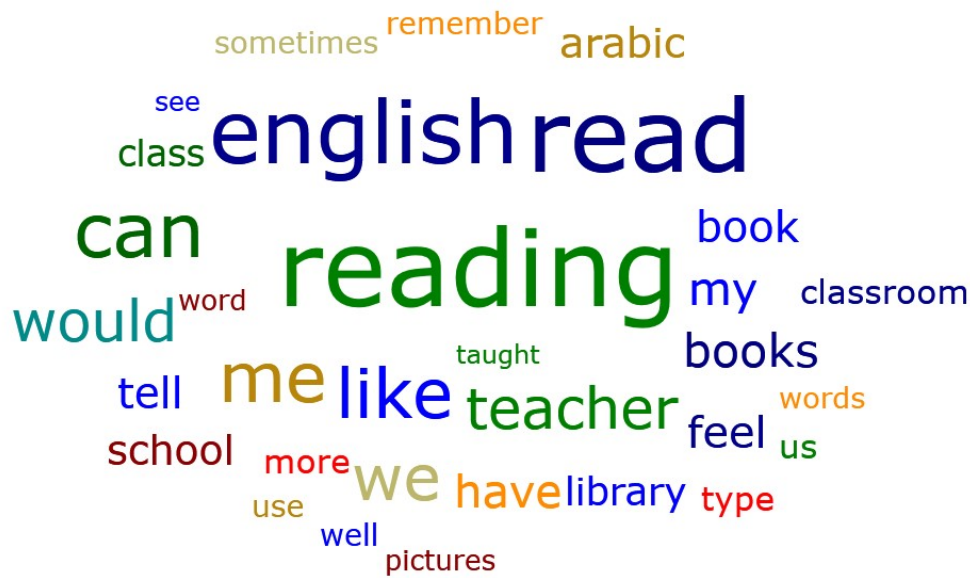


Figure 14: Word Cloud of Codes

The most common words simply reflect the topic of the interview – reading in English – but it is helpful to see, for instance, that ‘book’ and ‘books’ feature highly, while ‘technology’ does not. Likewise, ‘teacher’ features but ‘family members’ do not. ‘Library’ also seems to have as large a role to play as ‘school’, possibly more so than ‘classroom’ and ‘home’. Even ‘we’ and ‘us’, combined with ‘class’, could suggest that reading is seen by some as collaborative, rather than individual. Coding the question and answer together also helps to keep focus on the “specific questions ... that you wish to code around” (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 89), while still being open to anything interesting at such an early step.

4.9.3 Step Three: Searching for Themes

Looking for patterns and interpretation to address the research question meant reworking the earlier two steps of analysis. None of the old codes should be discarded at this point, but there could be reinforcement and rephrasing. This was most common when looking across the two study sites, looking not just at what is said but for any commonalities in discussions. While this stage is referred to as ‘searching’, it is fairly repetitive and starts with simple clustering and organising of similar topics into code groups, which can then be used to revisit the original quotations and arrive at a theme.

As an example of the third step process and establishing transparency of the study, some details will be given for the first code group, named ‘teacher strategies’. This comprised 15 codes across 22 quotations. These are listed in Table 17 below.

Table 17: Initial Codes Comprising the 'Teacher Strategies' Code Group

| | | |
|--|--|---|
| Teacher uses different tools for different year groups | Teacher uses CD | Vocab and grammar flashcards in classroom |
| Audio tool | Teacher sometimes uses Arabic in class | Teaching using a reading chart |
| Teacher uses projector | Teacher uses iPad | Teacher reads aloud |
| Teacher uses pictures | Teacher uses cards | Teacher uses projectors and pictures |
| Teacher uses phone | Teacher uses Arabic | Teacher praises reading |

This helped to focus attention on the different types of strategies, so that audio tool, projector, phone, CD and iPad were put together into ‘teacher uses technology’. The table below lists all quotations related to this code group, and these are shown in Table 18.

Table 18: Quotations for 'Teacher Uses Technology' Code Group

| Initial code | Quotation |
|---|--|
| Audio tool | The teacher usually works with the reading program that is linked to our book, she reads first and then we follow in our book. The program has many different stories and we can choose from it and if you don't wish to read you can just click on the audio which will it read for you. Sometimes there are difficult paragraph we usually listen before we start reading. |
| Teacher uses phone Teacher uses CD | From grade 1 to grade 3 she usually uses her phone so she can put the timer but now in year five which she puts a CD and she has the CD on the computer so we can listen and then she chooses a girl from our class to read. |
| Teacher uses iPad Teacher uses projector | The projector with the iPad, markers, we get to see the page that we are reading in our book on the board and the teacher would ask someone to come over the board and find a certain word and would use the marker. |
| Teacher uses projector | She uses the overhead projector with the book page to read with us and the board. We have a point chart where at the end of the lesson we see which team won. |
| Teacher uses projector | She uses the projectors and pictures to show the meaning of words and sometimes we play games. |

With the exception of 'sometimes we play games', focusing on just these quotations helps to uncover that all the examples the students gave of teachers using technology were of using technology alongside books. This is helpful insight, highlighting the importance of physical books and how technology is supporting rather than replacing them. The early pattern code of 'teacher uses technology', which is just describing the topic, could therefore be updated to a label which better describes the content: 'teacher uses technology in support of books', coming much closer to what Braun and Clarke (2006) mean by a 'theme'.

A similar process of pattern coding, by arranging similar topics, looking at the original quotations, then renaming by content, was followed for the remaining codes. A summary of these is given below in Table 19:

Table 19: Coding Groups for ‘Teacher Strategies’

| Code Group | Sub-Groups Identified | Final Descriptive Label for Sub-Group |
|--------------------|---------------------------------|---|
| Teacher strategies | Teacher uses Arabic | Arabic used occasionally to describe or translate at word level |
| | Teacher uses physical resources | Teacher uses physical resources for whole-class work |
| | Teacher uses praise | Praise encourages reading aloud and wider reading |
| | Teacher uses technology | Teacher uses technology in support of books |

Thus, the code labels became more able to express the content of the quotations and to explain the ways in which teacher strategies were used, such as *what* was praised. Other codes were created using the same approach, some of which became permanent themes. This is not to suggest, however, that the process was unproblematic or that there was no overlap or contradiction in moving from the more general steps one and two. Pattern coding has an established technique to assist, drawing on linguistic analysis. Thus, words such as ‘if’, ‘then’, and ‘because’ can helpfully suggest that there is a useful overall theme to do with rules or explanations (Walliman, 2014).

This kind of guidance was especially valuable when trying to understand overlapping code groups. An example of this is overlap between ‘aspirations’, ‘friends’, ‘family’ and ‘motivation’ groups. Family could be discussed in relation to several of these groups – motivation to be a better reader like a cousin (public 5) or brothers (public 4), while parents were more like teachers (public 4; public 5; private 5) in that they were either read to by their children, read to their children, or offered praise, while one respondent (private 1) spoke of family in terms of not wanting to make their parents angry if they got a low grade. Feelings could therefore be added to the earlier codes, which were more narrowly descriptive of roles and obligations.

The initial groupings are shown in the table at (Appendix H), outlining the clustering of topics. The updated version, given in (Appendix I), shows how they developed to better

capture the essence of the content being discussed. To take a straightforward example, the ‘friends’ group only contained three codes, and checking the original quotations made it clear that friends were only discussed as either supporting learning or as inspirational role models. This made the change from ‘friends’ as a descriptive group topic label to ‘support and motivation from friends’ as an early theme. It suggested that the code created based on a description of a cousin better fit this new ‘friends’ group, rather than the ‘family’ group, which now seemed much more about how parents acted as teachers.

4.9.4 Step Four: Review Themes

Earlier steps were about adding description, codes or themes, so Step Four has the challenge of combining and deleting less relevant analysis. Braun and Clarke (2006) explain that this is necessary to reach a narrative and be able to make sense of the data as a whole. Using the previous example of family and friends, it seemed that the discussion regarding a cousin had more in common with other comments around friends than it did family members. Rather than over-complicating matters with distinctions between same-age peers and family members in authority, it seemed practical simply to analyse comments about a participant’s cousin as if they were talking about a friend, rather than a relative.

Other codes and themes were similarly simplified for relevancy. For instance, the ‘difficulties around unfamiliar vocabulary’, while interesting, was not so relevant as the varied learning strategies that students used to overcome these difficulties, and so was disregarded. Similarly, ‘desire to help others by being a better reader’ and ‘praise encourages reading aloud and wider reading’ seemed to be mostly captured within ‘praise and opportunities to help others as main motivators’, which better fit the topic of self-efficacy.

Table 20: Code Groups Reduced to 10

| Code Group |
|---|
| Teacher uses technology in support of books |
| Teacher uses physical resources for whole-class work |
| Arabic used occasionally to describe or translate at word level |

| |
|--|
| Library mainly for choosing your own books |
| Enjoyment of authentic reading texts and group tasks |
| Parents as teacher role |
| Praise and opportunities to help others as main motivators |
| Assessment improves confidence and motivation |
| Varied learning strategies |
| Support and motivation from friends |

From the top ten in the table 20, focusing on the abstract was used to arrive at the three code groups which seemed to best capture the theoretical and abstract levels of the topics developing throughout the interviews. These are given in Table 21 below.

Table 21: Reviewing Codes and Themes

| Code Group | Themes |
|---|---|
| Teacher uses technology in support of books | Teaching Approach and Educational Materials |
| Teacher uses physical resources for whole-class work | Teaching Approach and Educational Materials |
| Arabic used occasionally to describe or translate at word level | Teaching Approach and Educational Materials |
| Library mainly for choosing your own books | Enjoyment and pleasure of Reading English |
| Enjoyment of authentic reading texts and group tasks | Enjoyment and pleasure of Reading English |
| Parents as teacher role | Exposure to and desire for fluency in Reading |
| Praise and opportunities to help others as main motivators | Exposure to and desire for fluency in Reading |
| Assessment improves confidence and motivation | |
| Varied learning strategies | Teaching Approach and Educational Materials |
| Support and motivation from friends | Exposure to and desire for fluency in Reading |

As can be seen in the right-hand column, focusing on the three key intangibles helped to focus on reading being part of the community and how teachers and students adapted to various aspects of reading, rather than seeing it as a single skill. The only code that did not fit as well was around assessment helping to improve confidence and motivation, which perhaps helps to emphasise how the other groupings were so much about community and this was more individualistic. Therefore, the three main clusters of code groups could be labelled as ‘exposure to and desire for fluency in reading’, ‘teaching approach and educational materials’, and ‘enjoyment and pleasure of reading English’. Overall, these combine to express how reading is experienced in these schools in a dynamic way, engaging students in different types of reading, different texts, and helping them to see the benefits of improving their reading abilities. As per Braun and Clarke’s (2006) Step Four, it was now also possible to see some of the relationships between these codes diagrammatically.

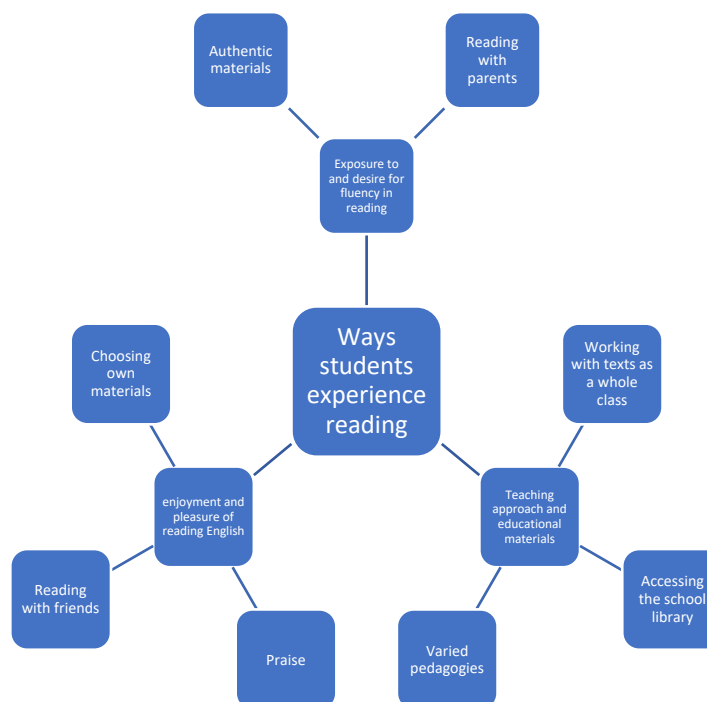


Figure 15: Step Four Coding Frame

4.9.5 Step Five: Defining Themes

Step Five is a further concentration of ideas from Step Four, getting to the point where the theme names offer some insight to readers. Following the advice of Braun and Clarke (2006) around how to name themes, it is helpful to think of Step Five as the first step that really makes sense to a reader who is not already familiar with the raw data.

The three main themes are:

1. Theme 1: Exposure to and desire for fluency in reading
2. Theme 2: Enjoyment and pleasure of reading English
3. Theme 3: Teaching approach and educational materials

4.9.6 Step Six: Producing the Report

This component of the results relates to the interviewing of students in regard to their views and experiences of learning English reading. Therefore, the findings were positioned to answer research sub-question two; *What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?*. The data is reported across three core themes: 1) Exposure to and Desires for Fluency in Reading English, 2) Enjoyment and Pleasure of Reading English and 3) Teaching Approach and Educational Materials.

Theme 1: Exposure to and desire for fluency in reading English

This first theme details the influence of English exposure and students' desires and motivations to become fluent in reading English, which appeared to apply indirect effects on reading. The majority of participants reported having some experience and ability in reading English prior to beginning primary school. This was connected to temporary geographic residence outside of Kuwait and, most notably, living in English-speaking countries, including the United Kingdom and Canada. Not all students reported having the privilege of such experiences and this directly affected their preschool exposure to English; particularly, the need to and practice of reading and speaking English, which was essential for social

adaptation in non-Kuwaiti settings. The duration of temporary residence within English-speaking countries was reported to be as long as five years, which represents a considerable amount of time for learning a secondary language or developing the foundations of a new language, to permit in-school learning. Indeed, exposure to English-speaking countries was reported by students to have been useful for their reading in school, as they had already gained an ability to read simple words and sentences in English:

“... lived in England for five years. I had to learn English to communicate and this helped me at school when reading” [public 3]

“I travelled and stayed in Canada where everyone spoke English. I had to learn quickly or I could not understand” [private 9]

In addition to the former exposure, a large proportion of students received English reading education from their parents who had previously acquired an ability to both read and speak English, which provided those students with a foundational level of reading ability prior to formal teaching at school. Furthermore, a minority of students reported having access to the internet and used educational videos available on YouTube® and Instagram®, which were recognised to have been markedly useful in learning to read English, as the content and explanations were simple to understand and often tailored to their baseline level of reading ability. Moreover, using online videos was essential to learning English reading among students who had parents who were not fluent in English or spoke English poorly. In such cases, the internet provided an important learning medium to ensure students did not lag behind their peers who had already gained valuable reading skills. Other students reported having been able to practise reading English at home, as their parents were able to purchase and afford the cost of new books. Aside from parents, students had also received exposure to and practice of reading English as a result of their older siblings, who often shared their skills by reading aloud and teaching each other how to pronounce words and read sentences. However, a minority of students reported accepting and gaining help in reading English from their parents and siblings, but recognised that their reading ability and fluency in English were far from desirable. This resulted in students receiving incorrect information and led to

them adopting poor reading habits, which had to be corrected or refined within English classes.

“my parents taught me ... it made me ready for school” [public 1]

“my brothers helped me to learn basic English using books ... they had done well at school and spoke good English” [private 8]

“my English was good and my parents tried to help but they made some mistakes as the teacher told us a different way” [public 4]

The primary motivator for learning to read English among participants included in this research was related to perceptions that English was the universal language on a global scale. Students reported that English was used in almost every country and that it was important to be good at reading and speaking English, in order to communicate and interact with others in the near and distant future. Some participants elaborated further on this motivating factor, noting that learning English was an essential prerequisite for entering and being successful at higher education, including college and university, which most students recognised was required in order to reach professional and desirable jobs and careers. Moreover, students also recognised that English was becoming a common language within Kuwait and thus, most students interviewed in this research desired proficiency in reading and speaking English, in order to avoid feeling embarrassed in local social situations. Moreover, some students held ambitions of travelling the world in later life and having proficiency in English was necessary to achieve their visions of living and working within other countries in their future lives. One student reported that they wanted to become a doctor and that proficiency in English was an ideal requirement, particularly for practising outside Kuwait. Another student wanted to become an inventor and held interests in working with robots and artificial intelligence technology; this requires proficiency in English, given the appearance of such technology and availability of roles in English-speaking countries.

“English is spoken everywhere in the world ... it is important to learn” [public 2]

“I want to travel and see other places ... maybe work and live somewhere new ... I know I need to be good at English to do this” [private 10]

“I want to be a doctor and English is the common language and needed to go to college and university to learn about being a doctor” [private 12]

In addition to recognising that English was and remains the universal language and would improve their future, some students were also motivated to learn English as a result of listening to other students with greater reading ability read aloud in class, and were therefore seen as role models. This inspired students to push towards reaching the same level of reading proficiency. Some students found that their English teachers were inspiring, as they ensured that reading and related education of reading was fun and motivating, which also drove students to practise reading English. Among participants who had attended private schools for English reading education, students reported a number of additional reasons to learn English. For example, one student reported that they enjoyed arts and craft and being creative; gaining an ability to read English would grant them greater opportunities for creativity, regarding the drawing of pictures and the writing of stories. In addition, private school students reported comparable motivations for learn English as those attending public schools, with a desire to improve their future prospects and to assist them with future global travel, as well as various occupational and non-occupational accomplishments. Notably, one private school student even reported an ambition to travel to other countries and assist in helping others to learn English, as they recognised that they would have an ability to translate Arabic to English and vice versa. In addition, this student was the eldest of several siblings in their family and therefore felt responsible for the education of younger siblings; this, in turn, required the student to become a proficient reader and educator of English to assist in teaching loved ones and the wider society.

“my teacher was the reason I wanted to learn English ... she made the classes fun and we all enjoyed it and laughed ... it made me want to read more” [private 7]

“I like drawing and writing stories and I need to be good at English to help me do this ... to have a better imagination when making up stories” [public 3]

“I enjoy reading a lot so I want to help others in the future ... I want to teach my younger sister when she gets older and maybe be a teacher of English when I grow up” [private 11]

In summary, this first theme found that exposure of students to settings and/or to persons who spoke the English language was a factor in providing them with some simple English words and phrases; more importantly, it appeared to motivate their desire and drive to learn English within Kuwaiti schools. For some students, parents were often proactive in providing English education and this was frequently supplemented with online learning via platforms, such as YouTube. Finally, the extrinsic driver of students to learn English was found to be centred around the notion that English is a global universal language and fluency in it could provide students with the best opportunities in their future lives. This information assisted in answering research sub-question: *What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?*

Theme 2: Enjoyment and pleasure of reading English

This second theme details the importance of students feeling positive towards reading English and experiencing positive emotions during and after reading, which acted as strong influencers in continuing to read and practise English. In this regard, some public school students reported that reading English was far easier than speaking or writing English, although students recognised that the level of English taught in schools was simple and easy, compared to their experiences of English education abroad, where reading was taught at a level years ahead of their Kuwaiti experience. However, while some private students stated that the higher level of English reading education received abroad was suitable for their ability, there were reports that public students found it difficult to participate; they found the content complicated, which caused them frustration and this appeared to be due to differences in preschool English exposure. This was also reflected in some public students' accounts. The level of English reading education changed dramatically from being abroad to transitioning to Kuwait; participants who had been able to read in complete sentences outside of Kuwait were only taught to read in single or few words upon return.

“the level that they were teaching us as year five outside of Kuwait would be taught to year one within Kuwait” [public 1]

“I had poor ability to read ... students were ahead of me and I found the text to be hard to understand ... I could not read it” [public 5]

“when I started learning at school, I was behind other people ... I did not like this and did not want to carry on learning” [public 3]

“the teaching was okay ... at the right level, I think ... I was well prepared for reading in class, other pupils were not at the same level” [public 5]

Although most private students engaged with reading English education, there were differences in the extent of reading students enjoyed, with most valuing the achievement of reading full paragraphs, as opposed to reading single words or a few lines. The latter did not appear to cause the same rewarding feelings as did reading complete book sections or paragraphs. Moreover, despite the majority of public students reporting a preference to read English as individuals, as is discussed in the following theme, the greatest enjoyment of reading was reported to involve sessions where students were assigned characters and acted out roles by reading English aloud with other student characters and the class as the audience. However, some public students did not enjoy being chosen to act out character roles; instead they chose to not participate in the learning activity, which was likely to have hindered their learning of English reading, as well as their level of enjoyment and, in turn, their desire to continue learning. Notably, the level of enjoyment of reading experienced that public students was improved and enhanced by the integration of humour. In this regard, students found that the experience of humour and laughter among their classmates was a positive emotion; it not only encouraged students to read further, but acted as a memorable event to help strengthen the learning of English.

“I had good level of reading and when the teacher asked to read one sentence and then another, this was stopping me as I could have read the whole page” [private 11]

“the teacher would ask to read out parts like a play and we did, it was funny and we all laughed together ... I will always remember this” [public 4]

“we were asked to act out parts of the book and I did not like standing in front of others and reading to everyone ... I did not take part” [public 2]

A minority of public students interviewed also reported that they were proud of their reading accomplishments. This was usually experienced after receiving praise from their teachers following long periods of reading aloud to classmates, which was found to be an event that encouraged continued engagement in reading education. Among students attending private schools, some were expected to participate in formal reading competitions. Most students found this to be an enjoyable and rewarding experience, although others saw themselves as having lower English reading ability and reported that competitions were stressful and unpleasant. For example, one student found the competitions markedly useful as upon winning the competition, they felt they had accomplished one of their lifelong goals. The high sense of achievement encouraged them to embrace additional learning – not only English language, but other participants as well to benefit their future. In contrast, another private student reported that the competitive process and experience was distressing. While they attempted to improve their reading ability at home, they continued to struggle with particular issues and this discouraged them from desiring to become fluent in English reading. Overall, it appeared that the competitive approach to teaching English was desirable, as it stimulated students to practise reading at greater or expected levels, which led to fast improvements and increases in reading ability, giving most students a greater foundation for learning more advanced English.

“monthly competitions were exciting ... I practised every day for weeks and one month I won ... I felt I achieved a big accomplishment in life” [private 12]

“the competitions were scary ... I tried to prepare but I was so nervous I could not read as I did at home” [public 2]

“I was good at English and so I knew I would be good at other subjects”
[private 1]

Among private and public students receiving praise for high levels of English reading ability, this comprised all participants included in this research, given self-reported performance ratings that exceeded 7/10, as discussed below. Teachers often granted rewards to students who scored high in reading, as they both encouraged positive feelings of achievement and success and acted as a physical and permanent reminder of their achievement to share with their peers, parents, siblings and other relatives. However, one public student admitted that the giving of certificates for English reading was infrequent and

lacked regular review of individual performance, leading to uncertainty among students regarding their ability to read English and what they needed to practise to improve their future reading ability and performance. In effect, there appeared to be a lack of positive feedback given to students attending both public and private schools, although students at public schools were found to observe less positive feedback from their teachers and/or parents, which may have hindered their learning and reading development going forward. Among students attending private schools, reading performance carried higher value rewards, which in one case involved the winning of a field trip that was mentioned as being rare and exciting, and therefore a strong motivator to continue reading English and achieve more advanced reading skills.

“I remember getting a certificate for good reading in school ... I showed it to everyone, and I have put it in a safe place” [private 3]

“the teachers did sometimes give us certificates, but it has been a long time now, it doesn’t happen that much” [public 9]

“I was often given praise for reading but I don’t know how to improve, I was not told” [public 4]

“we even got to go on a field trip, it was fun and we had never been there before” [private 8]

As the majority of students attending public schools reported enjoyment in reading English, their subjective self-reported reading ability tended to be rated above average and typically ranged between 7-10 out of a total of 10, with zero representing very poor ability, 5 being average ability and 10 being excellent reading ability. For students attending private schools, almost all participants rated their reading ability to be 10 or near to 10 out of 10. Although not reported by public school students, children attending private schools reported that their grades were of high importance to them, as they felt a strong need to meet their parents’ high expectations and to avoid disappointment and/or punishment that would arise if grade expectations were not met:

“I feel scared because I do not want my parents to be mad at me” [private 10]

The accounts of two students reported frequent experiences of shouting from their parents, as a result of poor motivation in completing reading homework and/or the receipt of school reports or grades that did not meet parent expectations. In one case, parental shouting appeared to act as a positive stimulant to encourage cognitive and behavioural change regarding homework completion, as the student admitted that following the said event, they never missed completing homework again. Notably, this student found that increased reading practice at home led to improvements in their reading ability and, in turn, the grades achieved. In the other case, the student experienced the shouting event with great negativity, as the belittling and excessive criticism of the individual strongly affected their desire to read English in the future. It negatively affected their performance at school, as they avoided engaging in reading aloud in class and/or declined opportunities to participate in invitations by their teachers.

“the teacher used a ruler to point but not to use for smacking” [private 6]

“my mum and dad were angry; they shouted a lot about my reading practice at home. I know I did not do it enough but I found it difficult” [private 9]

Finally, other factors influencing reading English were found to be related to the complexity of the English language, where most students observed difficulties in understanding the meanings of text, even despite translation into Arabic. More specifically, students tended to find that English was difficult as a result of words that were spelt the same but had different meanings, and due to the complex spelling of words with silent letters, which affected students ability to pronounce words and read sentences. In contrast, Arabic was reported to be much simpler, with fewer words and less grammatical complexity, although some students appeared to enjoy the challenge of learning English and its complex nature.

“in Arabic there are some words than do not explain English words ... it is confusing to learn” [public 1]

“the spelling is also difficult as I try and say the word and it is wrong” [private 10]

“Arabic is more simple, easy to understand I would say” [public 4]

In summary, this second theme identified that the emotional responses to English reading were powerful influencers of learning; positive emotions, such as humour, enhanced the drive to learn more, while negative emotions, such as frustration and anger, discouraged learning. Experiencing a challenge in learning English was also found to effect the desire to learn further; students who were exposed to complicated content for their age in non-Kuwaiti settings found pleasure in learning, compared to the situation in Kuwait where English was simplified, often to a degree below their actual reading abilities. Other factors influencing learning desire and enjoyment of English reading included teaching styles: reading out loud versus silently, use of role play, and engaging in reading competitions. The receiving of rewards for reading performance was also found to positively influence learning. Differences in learning self-efficacy among primary students attending private versus public schools appeared to arise from the desire to meet parental expectations and avoid punishment; private students being more highly motivated and self-efficacious in learning, as compared to public students. Again, the information further contributes to answering research sub-question: *What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?*

Theme 3: Teaching approach and educational materials

The third and final theme identified using the former approach to thematic analysis revealed differences in teaching methods and the educational materials used to support the learning reading in English. In most cases, private schools and teaching methods were more appropriate to optimising the learning of students, whilst public schools observed resource limitations and less effective teaching to improve learning of the English language. Therefore, this theme identified the remaining factors to ensure sufficient answering of sub-question four: *What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?*

Firstly, a number of teacher-related factors were found to influence students' learning of English reading. In public schools, students reported that their English teachers used Arabic to assist in teaching English, in order to explain concepts and meanings to students that they

had difficulty in understanding. However, some students attending private schools reported that their teachers were stricter about language use; most used English alone to teach reading and prevented students from using Arabic, to discourage students from relying on their primary language. While other students found it useful when teachers only used English, because it encouraged them to use and understand English text for its nature. However, others struggled with this approach, as a lack of translation and explanation in Arabic weakened their understanding of text and even discouraged some students from practising reading at home.

“my teacher used Arabic to help explain English, I did not understand without this and I was able to understand more about what I was reading” [public 6]

“the teacher only used English in some classes, and this was hard to understand, I didn’t know what I was supposed to do with the book, I just guessed and continued reading” [private 1]

“I liked when the teacher used English, Arabic we know, but hearing the words was helpful” [private 7]

Furthermore, on questioning students regarding how they would feel if their teacher asked them to read a book section aloud to their peers, the majority reported that they felt nervous as they did not want to make a mistake in front of their classmates or their teacher. From the students reporting the experience of nervousness, it appeared that this tended to arise from failure to practise reading English at home prior to school, therefore suggesting that students either acquired a dislike for reading or that their parents did not support or encourage them to complete homework. Moreover, some students reported that making errors in front of their classmates while reading aloud would result in embarrassment, which was seen negatively and was a strong cause of unpleasant emotions and behaviour that eventually hindered learning.

“I was nervous ... scary ... I mean it was hard to do that as everyone was watching and listening to you” [public 9]

“I think I would feel less nervous if I practised reading at home, but I don’t always do” [private 2]

“I am always scared and nervous in class reading to others, I did not prepare at home, and I did not enjoy reading” [public2]

“one time the teacher asked me and I did not like it ... I was shaking and I felt very sad, then better when I did not have to read to everyone” [private 11]

A desire for students to want to learn English was also reflected in reports of children who were asked to read aloud and were interrupted by their teacher. The participants reported that the interruption would not upset them or cause them distress, as they admitted that the teacher was present to assist rather than hinder their learning. Engagement with reading following interruptions was also praised by teachers, as they acknowledged that students were able to maintain concentration and continue reading often challenging words and/or sentences. This appeared to strengthen the participants' sense of achievement and, in turn, encouraged them to continue learning – specifically, learning to read more complex English text. In contrast to feelings of nervousness, other students were happy that they were asked to read aloud to their classmates, particularly in instances where they had practised reading sections of text at home and were prepared and confident in repeating the text aloud. Similarly, students attending private schools also reported feeling happy that they had been chosen by their teacher to read aloud and admitted having pre-prepared for engaging in reading aloud by following specific processes and routines that they had adopted at home to make public speaking easier. For example, one student reflected that after being chosen to read aloud, they would remain silent, position themselves comfortably, place the reading material in direct view with their head faced downwards, and then begin to read. The student reported that this made them more confident when reading and reduced the negative effects of nervousness, which had previously led them to making mistakes. However, among those who were unprepared for reading aloud but were asked to participate and attempt to read for the purpose of practice, some students reported that this worsened their confidence and even led to unpleasant negative thoughts that they were hopeless and not capable of achieving the reading abilities of other children.

“we did get comments from teachers after reading ... they said we did well to remember where we were in the book and how we knew the meaning of the words” [private 7]

“the teacher does interrupt sometimes but they know best don’t they, they are the teacher and are trying to help us read better” [public 5]

“I would feel nervous because I didn’t want to mess up and when I did, I felt bad and that I would never be as good as the other students” [public 2]

The perception of distress and upset among students asked to read aloud was also found to be complicated by teachers asking them to stand while reading aloud, as opposed to the preferred position of sitting. In effect, students recognised that standing elevated them to a position that meant their face and voice were visible to all classmates and this level of exposure made students feel uncomfortable, vulnerable and even more nervous, therefore prone to making mistakes. This was mostly in the public school sector where, culturally, a student should stand up while answering questions, reading aloud or even requesting and asking about anything during class; this is regarded as ‘respect’ to education and to the class teacher. In contrast, most students in private school preferred to read aloud while sitting as they are allowed to do so and can adopt an enclosed protective position with arms crossed and face positioned downwards, in order to avoid exposure and eye contact with their peers. The negative effects of the standing position upon the learning of and confidence in reading English appeared to arise from conflicts between teacher and student approaches and preferences. In this regard, teachers preferred students to stand and read aloud, as this ensured that all other students could hear and therefore understand the text being heard. However, students asked to stand reported that they did not need to adopt this position if they were simply asked to read louder.

“I did not like to stand ... I don’t know why ... all I could see was others looking at me and I was very nervousness ... the most nervous ever” [public 1]

“I made more mistakes ... I like sitting down and concentration ... standing is more difficult” [private 12]

“I did not like seeing other people and my friends ... it was scary but I did it” [public 7]

“the teacher said so everyone can hear what we say but I talk loud anyway” [private 2]

In the classroom setting, some students reported that they learnt more effectively when reading independently as opposed to reading in groups, where active reading was shared among students thus reducing the duration and number of opportunities to practise reading English. In addition, some children saw the group approach for reading English as too noisy and distracting when learning, with multiple children interacting at any one time and hindering the flow of reading, which meant that content and context was likely to be lost. Moreover, students tended to hold a preference for reading considerable sections of books at one time, rather than going through a process of reading and reading every sentence in a section, as this was wasteful of time and often meant a delay in book progression, and thus students' learning and reading ability. These aspects were reported by most students, despite the fact that they enjoyed group working as it involved frequent interactions with their friends and peers. However, students preferred their teachers to read a defined book section aloud first, in order to help them become familiar with the text they were about to read. This specifically assisted them in reading, by helping them to overcome difficulties and uncertainty in word pronunciation and grammatical pauses.

“I like reading alone, when we read in a big group it's fun but not as good for me” [private 5]

“so many people talking and this stopped me from reading and understand the story ... the teacher said we had to read in groups and alone, but I liked reading alone best” [public 6]

“sometimes with hard English, it was good for the teacher to read it to us first and then we practised after ... I could not read if the teacher did not read first as reading English is hard” [public 4]

On the other hand, students reported a greater incidence of confusion when they were asked to read without teacher reading first on how to pronounce words or read a sentence with the correct prose. In response to confusion and/or reading errors, students admitted that feedback from their teacher was highly valuable, as this enabled students to identify areas for improvement, to help correct common mistakes and to develop their overall reading ability. This was often key to overcoming reading issues that hindered progressive learning of

English and, in particular, learning to read complex English texts. In contrast to students who preferred independent reading, others found group reading to be more effective as the process of assisting and supporting others through giving clues, suggesting alternatives and identifying mistakes assisted in their ability to understand written English and, in turn, their ability to read English correctly. Other students reported enjoyment of reading in pairs, which appeared to help independent and group learning, as it removed the need for students to retain focus and concentration when reading a book and instead encouraged students to help one another to read English, while avoiding the noise and distraction associated with larger group teaching.

“the teacher helped a lot ... I would never be able to read without them ... confusing without the teacher” [private 10]

“reading in pairs was good for me ... there was little noise of big groups and we discussed the book quietly between us and this helped us learn faster than before” [public 1]

In regard to the characteristics of books used to support English reading education, most students reported preferences for reading books that had few pictures and illustrations, which was almost always due to the distractive nature of pictures that removed an individual’s focus and concentration on the reading text and understanding English grammar. In contrast, other students preferred books with pictures, as they helped them to discover meaning in the reading of text through using their imagination to assist in visualising different characters, environments and contexts. Some students found that the reading of English supplemented by pictures did not only enhance meaning but also enabled them to guess what was going to happen in the future of the story, as well as encouraging discussions on the meaning of text and stories and alternative endings. Furthermore, a number of students found that books that had been translated into television shows or movies were more interesting and engaging to read, compared to books or stories unfamiliar to students. In a specific case, one student reported having advanced their level of reading ability by reading a Disney book, which provided them with a visual and memorable cognitive connection between text content and visible film.

“I prefer the books without pictures as this did not help me read and learn English ... to learn I needed words” [private 11]

“pictures were helping me as I could imagine what the characters looked like and what the view of the background was ... I was able to imagine the words and pictures together” [public 2]

“I read Pinocchio once and I always remember, the book was the same on television and the characters I pictured were also the same” [private 7]

In addition to the characteristics of reading materials, students consistently reported that engagement in reading games was beneficial to their learning of English reading; specifically, games involving the teacher’s random selection of students to read aloud, which provided an element of uncertainty but the excitement of being chosen. Teachers were also reported to use various materials to support English reading education, which included overhead projectors, whiteboards, CD players and various reading sources. A minority had access to more advanced technologies, such as smart tablet devices, although these were more available within private rather than public schools. Moreover, teachers used point charts for grading or scoring the performance of student teams at the end of lessons, which acted as a powerful and competitive motivator for students in trying to read good English. Similarly, students at private schools reported that the teachers held formal reading competitions to help students in practising and improving in reading English. They also used timers to calculate the duration students took to read a defined book section, which acted as an additional motivating force to encourage learning to read in English.

“the teacher made competitions and timed the reading, and this was good ... I wanted to be quicker than others ... so I practised more and sometimes I won” [private 8]

Students attending private schools reported regular access to libraries to both practise reading English books and borrow books to enable practice outside school. Indeed, students reported that the libraries were well-stocked, containing a variety of both English and Arabic books, which enabled them to engage in independent reading practice. In this regard, one student reported that they used a book published in both English and Arabic and attempted to read the English version first. When they faced difficulty, they referred to the Arabic text as a reference point. This approach enabled the student to better understand the meaning of English words and phrases, which was important as their parents and siblings were not fluent

or capable of reading English to support their independent study. In contrast, students attending public schools reported that, despite having a library facility, the books were not used to support or enhance English reading education – their library was simply used as a common area for teachers to provide talks on other topics. Students recognised that there were various types of books present on the library shelves that were simple and suitable for their reading ability, but they were not provided with these to support their education. However, there were no reports that students actively asked about library book access and borrowing, suggesting that the system in public schools may be too authoritative and passive to encourage students to explore new ideas and ask questions to support their learning. Additionally, some students reported that books available in school libraries were mainly printed in Arabic, therefore access to English reading material was markedly limited, often depending on texts from teachers, which were not always interesting to read. Among others, students held preferences for what books they wished to read, such as history and geography. However, books concerning these areas were not always available and this meant that they were forced to read uninteresting books, which was reported to encourage boredom and a unwillingness to read at home.

“the school used the library to fit more students into the room and teach and sometimes visitors come and give us talks like how to eat healthy something like that” [public 2]

“we visited the library every week ... there were lots of books ... English and Arabic, one book was the same in two languages and I read this but sometimes the other to help me” [private 5]

“I was looking for interesting books on history but there were none ... the only books there were boring, and I did not want to read them” [public 1]

In summary, this final theme identified various other factors that affected the students' views about their ability to learn English reading. These included differences in the extent of use of English and Arabic languages by teachers to support learning, students' fears of reading due to nervousness and embarrassment when reading aloud, sitting versus standing when reading aloud, receiving praise and feedback from teachers regarding reading performance, and the type of material used for practising English reading. Moreover, students learning at private schools appeared to be greater in learning reading in English due to having greater access to

materials to support learning of English reading in the home environment. Thus, through the former three themes, research sub-question: *What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?*, has been addressed.

4.10 Combining the Data

In response to recent changes of Kuwait education for children and specifically, the increasing value and desire for students to learn and become proficient readers of the English language, this research adopted a mixed-methods approach to explore whether there are any differences in students' and teachers' levels of self-efficacy in reading English between those attending and working within public and private schools. The first two research objectives were explored using a quantitative survey, which assisted in answering the central research question. While the third aim – to explore the factors affecting students' self-efficacy in reading English – was evaluated using a qualitative approach, comprising semi-structured interviewing of school children.

For the quantitative component, two surveys (the NGRT and the MRQ) were assessed for validity and reliability within the Kuwait setting, as the utility of these surveys for exploring English language education and indeed, the Cronbach's alpha were high ranging between 0.88 and 0.95. The findings of these surveys revealed that students attending private schools had higher scores in NGRT indicating greater performance (as was reflected in the qualitative findings) compared to students attending public schools – a somewhat expected finding, given generalisations that private school education has more advantages due to additional investment, providing higher quality education. Indeed, some differences between public and private schools in this regard were clear among the qualitative component of this research, as is discussed. Some of the greatest differences in survey scores between students of private and public Kuwait schools were evident in areas related to reading efficacy, challenge, curiosity and social, while scores for reading recognition were similar between groups.

Although, these observations cannot lead to conclusions that students attending private schools have acquired greater self-efficacy in learning English, it appears that private education has greater foundations for assisting students to acquire coping and resilience skills, in order to progressively become more self-efficacious in learning the English language.

Indeed, the qualitative accounts of students in private schools mostly found reading to be enjoyable, rewarding and academically motivating, with the quantitative survey showing that mean scores for reading challenge, curiosity, social and efficacy were more favourable than those of public school students. Finally, the research analysed how the progression in performance between Time One and Time Two was affected by motivation and self-efficacy scores among the groups. The results revealed that improvements in the NGRT from Time One to Time Two were significantly associated with self-efficacy rating although (given the nature of the statistical analysis employed) it cannot be assumed that self-efficacy among students accounts for all of the difference in English learning performance. This was supported by the qualitative interviews, where it was recognised that English learning desire and likely performance were influenced prior exposure of students to the English language, parental and sibling education, and education via online platforms.

The qualitative component of this research used the standard Braun and Clarke (2006) approach to thematic analysis, which revealed three themes: 1) exposure to and demand for fluency in reading English; 2) enjoyment and pleasure of reading English; and 3) teaching approach and educational materials. For the first theme, students reading English received influence from underlying motivators plus prior experiences and exposure to the English language. In this regard, preschool exposure to and practice of English reading was an essential factor affecting students' preparation for reading in school. Also, other exposures responsible for this positive impact comprised temporary residence within an English-speaking country, self-education using the internet and online videos, and education received from parents and/or siblings. In addition, students recognised English as a language of global value, which could provide them with desirable future – towards achieving further education and professional careers. Such awareness and motivations for learning were more evident

among private than public school students, thus supporting the quantitative evidence concerning greater reading performance among private school students.

For the second theme, the motivators and desire to learn English among students were generally improved by a number of positive feelings related to learning through the practice and experience of reading English. These included feelings of happiness and content and a strong sense of achievement, particularly after the reading of lengthy book sections while making zero to minimal errors. However, these feelings of positivity depended almost entirely on students' prior level of English exposure and practice, therefore leading to success at reading within the classroom environment. This was reflected in the reports of students regarding nervousness of reading within the classroom, which was evidence in those who were ill prepared to read out loud. Such lack of preparedness appeared to arise from a lack of engagement in practice at home; insufficient parental support being one of the consistent factors contributing to this problem.

Among those students who had had little exposure to English, and thus had poor fluency and understanding, there was a tendency to report negative feelings, such as frustration and anger, and these were not helpful to continued engagement and learning of the language. In addition, some students reported feeling stressed, but this was not only due to the difficulty in learning English, but was a result of the competitive nature and teaching approach used within the classroom, as was further explored in the third theme. In contrast to previous observations, one of the most motivating and positive experiences that encouraged students to continue learning English was humour; laughter acted as a strong source of enjoyment, which increased their level of dedication to improve further.

Finally, the third theme recognised that differences in teaching approaches and methods influenced students in learning English. In this regard, some students reported that their teachers used Arabic to help explain the difficulties of reading English to students, while others avoided using Arabic to supplement the teaching of English reading. Notably, the lack of using Arabic among teachers to translate, as public school students reported that they could barely understand the content and meaning of the material and concepts being taught. However, private school students, with prior English exposure and practice, found that when teachers used English alone, it provided additional opportunities to engage and understand

the language. In addition, the majority of teachers asked students to read aloud to their classmates; this also influenced the students, either by feelings of nervousness and fear among students or by acting as an opportunity for students to practise reading aloud and to aim for positive reward and a sense of achievement and success.

Again, differences in students' level of self-efficacy in the context of this teaching approach appeared to be mostly influenced by an individual's prior English exposure and practice. As previously noted, a lack of parental support in the home environment appeared to inhibit students practicing of reading and in turn, this contributed to poor self-efficacy in practicing within both the home and school settings. This was in addition to students having little exposure to the English language; reading and speaking of English by parents, friends and other persons. Exposure to the English language was more pronounced in students with greater self-efficacy where exposure in English-speaking countries was evident, as was parental support and practicing and enjoyment of reading English at home. Notably, students recognised that reading aloud was often affected by teacher interruptions, to correct mistakes or discuss reading issues, although students reported this in a positive light as they identified that the teacher was there to support their learning, rather than to induce distress or humiliation. Moreover, the way in which teachers expected students to read aloud to their classmates also influenced students' feelings. The most unpleasant approach was described mostly by public school students, where they were asked to stand up in front of their classmates and read aloud, which brought nervousness and was critical to learning, as students saw themselves as exposed, embarrassed and vulnerable to making mistakes. Indeed, a large number of students preferred to read English individually or in pairs, not just to avoid reading aloud, but these approaches were associated with less noise and distraction than group reading, which enabled them to better concentrate on practising English reading. In addition, the majority of students preferred teachers to read defined book sections aloud prior to their own attempts to read the same section as this helped to familiarise themselves with complex English spellings and was therefore seen to improve their reading subsequent sections of text. Furthermore, some students held preferences for reading books that lacked pictures and illustrations as this helped them focus on practising reading the text, while others benefited from pictures as this provided greater meaning to reading and, through their imagination.

Finally, most students reported having access to libraries, but not all libraries contained useful books for English reading practice. Public school students reported that their libraries were only used for additional classroom space, which prevented the borrowing of books and, in turn, learning at home and in the classroom environment.

4.11 Discussion

Overall, this research showed that self-efficacy plays a crucial role in the learning of English language reading among Kuwaiti students. However, due to the young age of elementary school students (5-10 years) included in this study, it is possible that individual students self-efficacy had not been acquired or refined to levels that could markedly influence learning in primary school. However, education of young school children can provide some of the factors which influence the development of self-efficacy, such as coping and resilience, and particularly for learning the complex and difficult English language.

The relationship between educational performance and self-efficacy among children has been previously reported across numerous age and geographical contexts. For example, in a study of Pakistani school students aged 10-11 years, Triantoro (2013) found that those scoring higher on The General Self Efficacy Scale attained higher scores on a mathematical problems test, compared to those scoring lower in self-efficacy; moreover, students with higher self-efficacy shared plans to study more complex subjects in their future studies. While this suggests that self-efficacy influences academic performance, its cross-sectional design impaired the ability to infer causation.

More recently, Uchida, Michael, and Mori (2018) wanted to overcome this limitation by investigating the causal relationship between self-efficacy and academic success. The authors hypothesised that high-quality education which provided students with opportunities to succeed, develop and experience a sense of achievement and reward, would promote self-efficacy and, in turn, improvements in academic ability. One group of participants was exposed to an easy anagram test to induce success and feelings of achievement, while the other group received the usual classroom education. Indeed, the authors then found that participants who received the anagram test observed higher levels of self-efficacy and

attained higher academic performance scores with a female majority. Notably, the levels of self-efficacy among such students were found to persist for one year; over time, males with high self-efficacy were found to improve their academic ability to a level approaching their female peers.

Such findings have also been supported in other research (Murayama, Pekrun, Lichtenfeld, & Vom Hofe, 2013; Parker, Marsh, Ciarrochi, Marshall, & Abduljabbar, 2014). Although Uchida et al. (2018) wanted to investigate the causal relationship between self-efficacy and academic performance, this could not be achieved due to the correlational analyses conducted. However, the findings of this study can be interrelated with the results herein. In this regard, the qualitative interviews of students revealed that teachers within public and private schools often used approaches to enable students to experience success and achievement, thus laying the foundations for individuals to acquire self-efficacy. In time, this could lead to superior academic ability in learning the English language.

However, this study revealed that there was an emotional connection between English teaching approaches and differences in the perceptions of success and achievement, which would clearly change a student's ability to become self-efficacious in learning English reading – a previous observation reported by Choe (2006). Indeed, these differences relate to the experience of emotional stress brought on by educational tests, examinations and competitions, and the resulting effect when stress is observed negatively. This was largely evident among the reports of students attending public schools, suggesting that private school education better prepares students for developing self-efficacy. Moreover, evidence for the relationship between stress and self-efficacy has been previously reported within both primary and secondary school students. For example, Zajacova, Lynch, and Espenshade (2005) and Arslan (2017) found that there was a strong negative correlation between educational stress and self-efficacy, although it was not possible for the authors to determine whether stress was a moderator of self-efficacy or vice versa. Evidence has even shown that the experience of stress can damage the level of self-efficacy among teachers; as a result, this can negatively affect the quality of education delivered to students (Nasir & Iqbal, 2019; Vaezi & Fallah, 2011). In contrary, when teachers experience little stress, self-efficacy tended

to increase which was associated with higher quality education provision and, in turn, students' level of academic achievement (Nasir & Iqbal, 2019; Vaezi & Fallah, 2011).

While much of the evidence around student self-efficacy has been drawn from populations within secondary or higher education, some studies have attempted to explore the theory among primary school students, which holds greater relevance to the findings of this study. In one study, Webb-Williams (2006) asked 52 primary school children in England to complete a self-efficacy questionnaire based on the Likert scale, then correlated this with academic performance, using scores on the SAT examinations. The results showed that the instrument was sufficiently valid and reliable to measure self-efficacy levels and notably, there was a positive correlation between self-efficacy and academic performance, favouring greater self-efficacy. In another study of Italian primary school students, Magnano, Ramaci, and Plantania (2014) also found that there was a positive and significant correlation between self-efficacy and academic performance, and while the credibility of this study was affected by reporting bias, females were again found to observe greater self-efficacy and academic ability, compared to male students. Support for this relationship has also been reported by Anam (2017). In relation to the findings of this study, the evidence implies that when compared to public school teaching of English, private school teaching provides students with more effective means of developing self-efficacy, which in turn promotes enhanced learning in English, as well as learning in other subjects.

While emotional experiences in primary school education clearly have influence, there has also been evidence to support the contribution of positive emotions in language learning. In an exploration of the experience of joy in learning among students aged 7-8 years, Rantala and Määttä (2012) revealed ten theses that promoted learning: the experience of success, making education fun, incorporating freedom within the educational environment, avoidance of hustle/hurry education, educational activities that enforce meaning of learning, maintaining energy to learn, repeating and re-enforcing joyful experiences, avoidance of long speeches within education, fostering ability and addressing weaknesses, and providing context to education. Indeed, each of these theses, in addition to its founding model of the speed of emotional experience, appeared to arise from the accounts of participants attending Kuwaiti

schools. Therefore, there are vast opportunities for teachers to support students in acquiring this through approaches that lead to the enjoyment of learning.

This study also revealed that inspiring the imagination of students was an important factor governing the experience of joy during learning of the English language. Indeed, the use of imagination has been previously reported to be a powerful tool in promoting the learning of foreign languages (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012). In contrast, MacIntyre and Gregersen (2012) showed that failure to inspire the imagination of students was restrictive in the learning of language, as it markedly narrowed student focus on the meaning, utility and context of language as an educational subject. In this review, there were apparent differences in the level of imagination used within the teaching of the English language. Thus, the potential to assist students in developing learning requires some improvements within the public and private school sectors of Kuwait.

As demonstrated so far, it is important to consider the findings of mixed-methods research in light of the wider evidence base, in order to help validate and/or refute the observations reported previously. As the research was novel and unique, being the first of its kind to explore teacher and student self-efficacy within the Kuwait setting, few studies with sufficient external validity can be used to support the results. One study by Al-Darwish (2017), who explored the opinions of teachers in Kuwait regarding the reasons for slow academic progress and issues with motivation to learn English among primary school students, found that specific communication techniques were largely responsible for such issues. Specifically, the authors found that some teachers failed to translate vocabulary between Arabic and English languages, as well as being content to correct students' mistakes, conduct formal assessments and tests of ability, and avoid reading and writing education entirely. Moreover, teachers reported that students' ability to learn and understand the English language was compounded by poor exposure to English outside of the classroom environment; despite parental concerns regarding their children's English ability and readiness for examinations, extracurricular reading practice was lacking, due to both parental avoidance and a lack of homework given by teachers. Furthermore, teachers recognised that even when students were encouraged to absorb English by hearing it within conversations derived in classrooms, the correction of students' mistakes when practising reading tended to

be viewed negatively by students, which resulted in refusal to learn the language. While the findings of this study support a number of accounts of students interviewed in this research, the trustworthiness of the study was affected by the poor methods adopted, such as respondent validation and triangulation; moreover, the inclusion of only 12 teachers cannot be inferred to represent the views of other teachers within Kuwait.

However, Al-Darwish (2018) conducted a more recent study, with a much larger and more representative sample of 159 English teachers within Kuwait public schools. Through a questionnaire and interviews, the author explored the attitudes of these teachers regarding the most effective educational approaches to teaching English language at varied stages of elementary school. The results showed that some teachers had an intrinsic passion to learn English language and culture, largely as a result of the link with British colonisation and the positive effects it had on Kuwait. In contrast, some teachers reported fewer positive motivators for learning and teaching English; a small proportion perceived English education as a curricula demand and just a means of attaining financial gain in the future. While this study did not elicit the specific motivators of teachers in teaching English, the motivators of children were instead explored, as previously discussed.

Problems associated with language education within Kuwait have been largely related to issues at the policy level that have ultimately reduced the development and training of teachers proficient in English. However, this mostly applies to public schools and may account for differences in self-efficacy that appear to favour students attending private schools (Tryzna & Al Sharoufi, 2017). Thus, for self-efficacy potential to be observed among school children, it is important that policy reforms continue to improve the status and quality of teaching in Kuwait. A recent thesis submitted by Alazemi (2017) found that student learning of the English language was impaired by policy level issues, which acted as an additional problem to learning and engaging in the subject to a sufficient level of depth to permit meaningful progression of ability in reading and speaking the language. In effect, students reported that the policy on learning English (the English as Medium of Instruction policy) was unpleasant and that teachers failed to use both Arabic and English during education, which impaired understanding. This was supported by reports of students in this study.

Moreover, evidence has shown that the majority of non-English-speaking countries and their populations desire to learn English for its global, social, occupational and economic value, among many other prospects (Parupalli, 2019), as was recognised by young school children in this study. Indeed, the British Council for Education has shown in its market research that the demand for learning English has continued to grow, year by year (British Council for Education, 2018). While predictions to the year 2025 that this trend will stabilise, the number of people wanting to learning English will remain markedly high as a result of the ongoing and expanding value of the English language, as well as due to increases in demand with substantial global population growth.

In this study, students reported that the English language was of value for its support of future prospects; it was seen as an entry to higher education and desirable and professional careers, such as within science and medicine. But students also wanted to learn English for its social and communicative value, which is consistent with the motivations among other learners (McKay, 2018). However, as also identified in this study, students learning English hold differing motivations and attitudes towards learning the language – factors that influence both initial engagement and persistence in learning in voluntary terms. However, for young students who receive compulsory education, the personality and motivations of English teachers are reported to be the most important determinants of a learner's failure or success (Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004). More specifically, affective factors that are represented by English teachers (such as attitude) are reported to be the most influential factors, as they convey either positivity or negativity towards education. These can be strong or unpleasant factors that influence learners' desires to learn a foreign language in the short and long term, although student attitudes can also have similar effects (Appendix K) (Yashima et al., 2004).

In the context of foreign language teaching, a desirable attitude for teachers can be described as a positive emotional but neutral position of willingness to educate, using a directive approach to inspire, influence and motivate others to learn. Indeed, evidence has previously correlated positive attitudes among teachers with learner achievement in learning, particularly the learning of complex languages as is the case with English (Garrett, 2010; Shams, 2008). Notably, Shams (2008) cross-sectional survey of school students' attitudes,

motivations and anxieties towards learning English in Pakistan identified that girls observed more positive desires to learn English, as compared to boys. However, this was a likely result of differences in age 13-14 years, which was not noticeable among the reports of students in this study, given the younger age of participants ranging from 5-10 years.

In addition, there are also gender differences in attitudes among English language teachers since the context of this study only recruits female teachers in public primary schools, where evidence has shown that females tend to observe more positive attitudes as a result of historic suppression and for observing the new freedoms and opportunities that English can present (Appleby, 2014). Moreover, Dee (2006) suggests that the gender of English teachers can also influence learners' perceptions of the teacher as an influential and inspiring role model, with a slight but notable tendency towards female teachers. Although this study was not designed to determine the external factors influencing education in the English language, it is important to discuss the wider theoretical foundations of English education, as this may have some correlates and/or implications for Kuwaiti teaching practice. For example, the framework of English as an International Language (EIL) state that teaching and learning the language is relative in nature, thereby demanding aware, considered and selective communication between educators and learners, although there has been growing complexity and changes due to local and geographic differences in English fluency and understanding (Ates, Eslami, & Wright, 2015). Recent recognition and acknowledgement of the problem has led to the foundation of the Meta-Praxis or Meta-Cultural model of English language teaching, which seeks to combine education of the complicated connection between language and culture, in order to provide greater meaning and context to facilitate learning (Dogancay-Aktuna & Hardman, 2018).

The influence of culture and exposure to non-native cultures appears to have emerged in the finding of this study. In this regard, the act of reading aloud was viewed in various ways. As a result of extremes of emotions experienced during reading, students either became less motivated to learn English or were inspired and encouraged to learn more complex English. These variances in emotions may have emerged due to cultural awareness; some students feeling less compelled to learn the language, whilst others being inspired to learn based on the opportunities to explore and potentially integrate into English-speaking cultures in the

future. Previous research has revealed that the act of reading aloud can be markedly useful in learning foreign languages, as it encourages the practice of speaking, rather than reading text only, which can improve both speaking ability and confidence in using second languages in social situations (Gibson, 2008). However, such research has tended to be based on the autonomous act of reading aloud, while this study showed that some students experienced extreme nervousness when reading aloud to their classmates and teacher, therefore suggesting that the emotional experience of learning is an important influencer of constant desires to learn. In response to the observations of Gibson (2008), it appears that reading aloud may be most useful for students of greater maturity than children of primary school age, and that the teaching approach should be evaluated in terms of its impact on student performance and self-efficacy at the primary school level, in order to determine its appropriateness. Notably, the reports of students in this study also revealed that the negativity associated with reading aloud within the classroom environment could be partly counterbalance by the teacher reading the text prior to student reading, although the nervousness appeared to result from the exposure and visibility of students themselves, rather than their English reading ability.

4.12 Implications for English Teaching Practice and Policy

Considering the findings of this study, a number of important implications and recommendations for current teaching practice have been identified and are discussed in this section. The quantitative analysis revealed that there was a significant association between English performance and self-efficacy. Therefore, English language teachers should employ measures to help students develop self-efficacy and/or strengthen pre-existing self-efficacy. Indeed, this would likely have a number of positive effects going forward: students achieving greater self-efficacy are likely to show an improved capacity to learn English, as well as other subjects, which could provide them with greater access to higher education and more positive prospects in the future.

The qualitative analysis revealed how teachers and students may be able to support the development in learning English reading. In summary, it appeared that learning was mostly facilitated by awareness of the motivators to learn reading in English and by experiencing

enjoyment. These two factors generated self-efficacy in learning in a perpetuating-type cycle; comprising increasing recognition of the value of learning English and finding greater enjoyment and reward in the process. Therefore, teachers in Kuwait should seek to provide students with information about the benefits of learning reading in English, particularly given reports that it is *the* global language; this may lead to more intrinsic desires among students to learn the language and overcome its challenges. Moreover, teachers should also ensure that English education is associated with fun and fulfilling activities, because the experience of positive emotions, such as happiness, reward, achievement, humour and success, are strong factors in learning foreign languages.

Thus, it is equally important for teachers to reflect on whether English language education is causing negative emotions and responses among students and, in turn, take active measures to remove and revise such approaches, in order to benefit wider learning. As primary school students can also utilise means to develop self-efficacy, teachers and parents should encourage their children to engage in activities outside the classroom environment, such as reading aloud at home, which may help their children to overcome nervousness and gain improved confidence, which can be translated into greater academic performance. However, such recommendations and improvements in the English abilities of Kuwaiti children also require fundamental improvements at the organisational and policy level. In this regard, it is important that the performance and quality of teachers providing English education are reviewed and any shortages addressed through education and training programs, supported by sufficient funds and resources.

In addition, the education of English language in Kuwait requires continued policy reforms that not only support the learning of English, but also strategies by which teachers can work to benefit English education. Specifically, teachers should be encouraged to use both Arabic and English within education sessions, as it was clear from this study and previous research that approaches where English is used in isolation cause confusion to students, as poor correlation with the English language through translation prevents the understanding of the languages meaning. Finally, it was clear that students in public schools demonstrate the poorest level of English education and have lower performance, both subjectively and objectively. Therefore, efforts to improve English language education should

focus on the public rather than private sector, particularly as the former receives less economic support.

Chapter 5: Parents' Data – Results, Analysis and Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter explores the results of the parents' demographic questionnaire. Completed by parents of the pupils in the earlier phases of the present study, the questionnaire was designed to consider parental and home influences around the research question: What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?

Curriculum time for English is limited, so it is important that sufficient exposure to reading becomes a habit – particularly reading in English. This requires parental involvement, especially for pupils at the public school where resources are more limited. This study considers, for instance, how parental attitudes to English, to reading, and to education in general can influence their children's learning. This study also considers factors such as parental education, whether they have studied abroad, the role books play in their daily home routine and their place in their homes. Even where these do not have direct causal links, it is helpful for context and transferability to consider how books and reading function in the home lives of the pupils in this study.

The discussion which follows shows that the number of English language books in the house is a helpful representation of how pupils may develop positive attitudes and beliefs about reading. It is not suggested that this is a causal relationship – reading is an active process. However, it is a useful representation of homes where reading, and reading in English, are valued and where books are part of the fabric of home life. Likewise, the remarkable agreement around the importance of reading and the common experiences of using libraries and having English-speaking domestic staff is helpful context; it also encourages more consideration of the role that family income may play on achievement in wealthy countries.

To show the analysis that informs this discussion, this chapter is organised as follows. Demographic information is presented first, to give an overview of the sample and their

characteristics. This is important to establish comparability and representativeness because of the limited response rate. An overview of categorical data is then presented, to enrich interpretation of the home and reading environment of the pupils in the study. Finally, regression analysis is used to explore potential relationships between the variables. Discussion then follows with respect to how different variables could relate and help to explain the effect of school type, drawing upon analysis of outlier responses and relating key findings from the analysis to the literature review previously outlined, so that limitations, recommendations and conclusions can be drawn.

5.2 Sample and Descriptive Statistics

A total of 43 parents completed the questionnaire, 20 from parents of pupils in private schools and 23 from parents of pupils in public schools. All parents were Kuwaiti nationals. From a total of 91 students, 43 parental (mother and father) responses (46%) was pleasing, sitting between Bell and Waters' (2014) expectation of around 20% returns in social sciences and Fincham's more ambitious 70% in medicine (2008).

Since there were such stark differences in student performance based on the type of school they attended, as reported in Chapter 4, it was important to see if the parents also differed. The aim here is to interpret whether differences are more likely attributed to the type of school (if parents were more similar) or a combination of home and school influences (if parents differed). One key difference, which can be predictive of student achievement, is parents' level of education, as shown in the following two tables.

Table 22: Mother's Education Level Split by Sector

| Sector | | Frequency | Percent |
|----------------|-------------------|-----------|---------|
| Private School | 2 Diploma | 2 | 10.0 |
| | 3 Bachelor Degree | 17 | 85.0 |
| | 5 Doctoral Degree | 1 | 5.0 |
| | Total | 20 | |
| Public School | 1 High school | 2 | 8.7 |
| | 2 Diploma | 7 | 30.4 |
| | 3 Bachelor Degree | 13 | 56.5 |
| | 4 Master Degree | 1 | 4.3 |
| | Total | 23 | |

As shown in Table 22, all but two of the mothers of students in the private school had at least a bachelor degree (90%). In the public school sample, while still high at 61%, the proportion was much lower.

Table 23: Father's Education Level Split by Sector

| Sector | | Frequency | Percent |
|----------------|-------------------|-----------|---------|
| Private School | 2 Diploma | 3 | 15.0 |
| | 3 Bachelor Degree | 13 | 65.0 |
| | 4 Master Degree | 2 | 10.0 |
| | 5 Doctoral Degree | 2 | 10.0 |
| | Total | 20 | 100.0 |
| Public School | 1 High school | 4 | 17.4 |
| | 2 Diploma | 6 | 26.1 |
| | 3 Bachelor Degree | 8 | 34.8 |
| | 4 Master Degree | 3 | 13.0 |
| | 5 Doctoral Degree | 2 | 8.7 |
| | Total | 23 | 100.0 |

The same trend was found in responses from the fathers, with 85% of the private school fathers educated to bachelor level or above, compared to 57% of those with children in the public school. Given that parental education level is a strong predictor of student academic achievement (Caponera & Losito, 2016; Desimone, 1999), these differences may account for some of the variance found in the tests in the student-level dataset.

A common limitation in such studies is that parental education level is difficult to separate from family income, so measures such as socio-economic status are often used. While social class and income are not so closely related in this context as may be the case in other countries, there is the same pattern of higher paying families in the private versus public samples.

Table 24: Income Comparisons

| Sector | | Frequency | Percent |
|----------------|----------|-----------|---------|
| Private School | 1 High | 8 | 40.0 |
| | 2 Middle | 12 | 60.0 |
| | Total | 20 | 100.0 |
| Public School | 1 High | 3 | 13.0 |
| | 2 Middle | 10 | 43.5 |
| | 3 Low | 10 | 43.5 |
| | Total | 23 | 100.0 |

Even with the caution that this is self-reported data in fairly broad categories, it can be seen that parents of students in the private schools typically have a higher family income. This is relevant for the relationship with socio-economic status and related concepts of various forms of capital. However, in the local context, family income could play an even larger role in English language learning because of common behaviours, such as studying or holidaying in English-speaking countries or hiring live-in English-speaking domestic staff (typically from the Philippines). In this respect, however, differences were perhaps much smaller than might be expected, as an English-speaking maid seemed to be common across both public and private school samples.

Table 25: 'Do You Have an English-speaking Maid?' by Sector

| Sector | | Frequency | Percent |
|----------------|-------|-----------|---------|
| Private School | 1 Yes | 18 | 90.0 |
| | 2 No | 2 | 10.0 |
| | Total | 20 | 100.0 |
| Public School | 1 Yes | 18 | 78.3 |
| | 2 No | 5 | 21.7 |
| | Total | 23 | 100.0 |

Likewise, similarities were found for how often English was used as the main language for communicating with maids in both samples (see Table 26). This suggests that the differences in income level may have limited impact because all participants have a fairly high level of income, even if some are higher than others. Kuwait is an interesting example here because many families can afford this extra help, whereas countries such as the UK might expect the employing of full-time domestic staff to be rare and only for the very wealthy. Again, this supports an interpretation that differences between the samples in this study may have less to do with income level and more to do with other forms of capital, such as social, cultural or educational.

Table 26: Languages Commonly Used to Communicate between Children and Maids

| Sector | | Frequency | Percent |
|----------------|-----------|-----------|---------|
| Private School | 1 English | 16 | 84.2 |
| | 2 Arabic | 3 | 15.8 |
| | Total | 19 | 100.0 |
| Public School | 1 English | 16 | 88.9 |
| | 2 Arabic | 2 | 11.1 |
| | Total | 18 | 100.0 |

Parents were also asked about the type of school they attended as students. This fits with the idea that being ‘first in family’ presents challenges to students, while having family members to offer guidance on the unwritten rules and norms of an educational institution is an advantage. Perhaps surprisingly, few of the parents had themselves studied at private schools. None of the parents of students in the public school sample had attended private school, while only two parents (5% – one mother and one father, from different families) in the private school sample had attended private schools themselves. With such a small number of parents having a private school experience themselves, the impact of such experience cannot be assessed. However, the common experience of almost all the parents having attended public schools is noteworthy and suggests how much education in Kuwait has changed in one generation.

A similar question related to the parents’ experience of studying abroad in English-speaking countries. Differences were found here based on school type and sex, with parents of students at the private school (39%) much more likely to have studied abroad than those with children at the public school (13%), and fathers (19%) being more likely to have studied abroad than mothers (9%). Using cross-tabulation, the number of families with at least one parent who had experience of studying abroad could be investigated (see Table 27).

Table 27: Cross-tabulation of Studying Abroad Experience

| Sector | | | Father Studied Abroad | | Total |
|----------------|-----------------------|-------|-----------------------|------|-------|
| | | | 1 Yes | 2 No | |
| Private School | Mother Studied Abroad | 1 Yes | 2 | 0 | 2 |
| | | 2 No | 5 | 13 | 18 |
| | Total | | 7 | 13 | 20 |
| Public School | Mother Studied Abroad | 1 Yes | 0 | 2 | 2 |
| | | 2 No | 1 | 20 | 21 |
| | Total | | 1 | 22 | 23 |

From Table 27, it can be seen that 7 of the 20 families (35%) of students in the private school had studying abroad experience among one or both parents, compared with just 3 of the 23 families (13%) of public school students. There is little literature to help assess the relevance of this finding. For instance, while linguistic capital has been shown to be

important in supporting language learning of children moving to a new country (e.g. Peterson & Heywood, 2007), there is little equivalent discussion of how linguistic capital functions in learning a foreign language in the parents' and students' home country, particularly below university level. In this respect, the current study may offer a way to start such a discussion.

The final questions related to family composition. Perhaps unsurprisingly for the national context, the vast majority of parents were married (93%), with the remaining (7%) divorced or separated. All of the latter had children at the public school. Since cohabitation outside of marriage is not permitted, these were the only two categories used, so comparisons with other countries are highly limited. Finally, families in Kuwait tend to be large and this was true for this sample, particularly parents with children in the public schools. There is potentially a simple explanation here that those with larger families would face correspondingly larger school fees if choosing a private school, making them less likely to choose that option. However, the difference is not so much – a mean of 3.4 children in the private school sample compared with 3.9 in the public school. The difference is mostly accounted for by small numbers of much larger families – only three families (15%) in the private school sample had more than four children, compared with nine (39%) in the public school sample. This may suggest some demographic difference between the two samples, although the size of the families is still fairly common, given the national context.

5.3 Reliability Testing

Following the demographic information, the remainder of the parents' survey used four-point rating scales to ask questions about how often English and Arabic were used at home. Parents were also asked specifically about reading, including how often they read books for pleasure, which relates to the importance of modelling positive behaviours for children. These questions went on to ask parents to estimate the number of books at home, the frequency of reading to their children at bedtime and in general, and how often their children used English in online games or apps. There were also questions about how important parents felt English reading was for their children, and how satisfied they were with the English reading provision at school. With such small samples, it was important to check for any

erroneous or outlier responses, maximising the use of all possible responses while minimising the risk of misrepresenting the group if there were some exceptional responses.

The first check was simply visual, looking for any questions where all the responses were the same (e.g., ticking ‘1’ or ‘4’ for every item). No responses showed this, which is an encouraging indication that respondents read the questions and made a genuine effort to complete the survey. The remarkable similarities in responses between the public and private school samples also meant that this effect was pronounced – with so many parents giving the same response to a question, even slight variations were sometimes flagged as outliers. As Field (2009) recommends at the exploratory stage, a visual check using charts is often the most appropriate method. For this, boxplots were created separately for each of the variables, treating the public and private schools as separate samples (see the following Figure 16 for an example). This would mean that, for instance, a parent of a student in the private school could be considered an outlier based on how other parents in the private school sample responded, even if their response was similar to the public school sample.

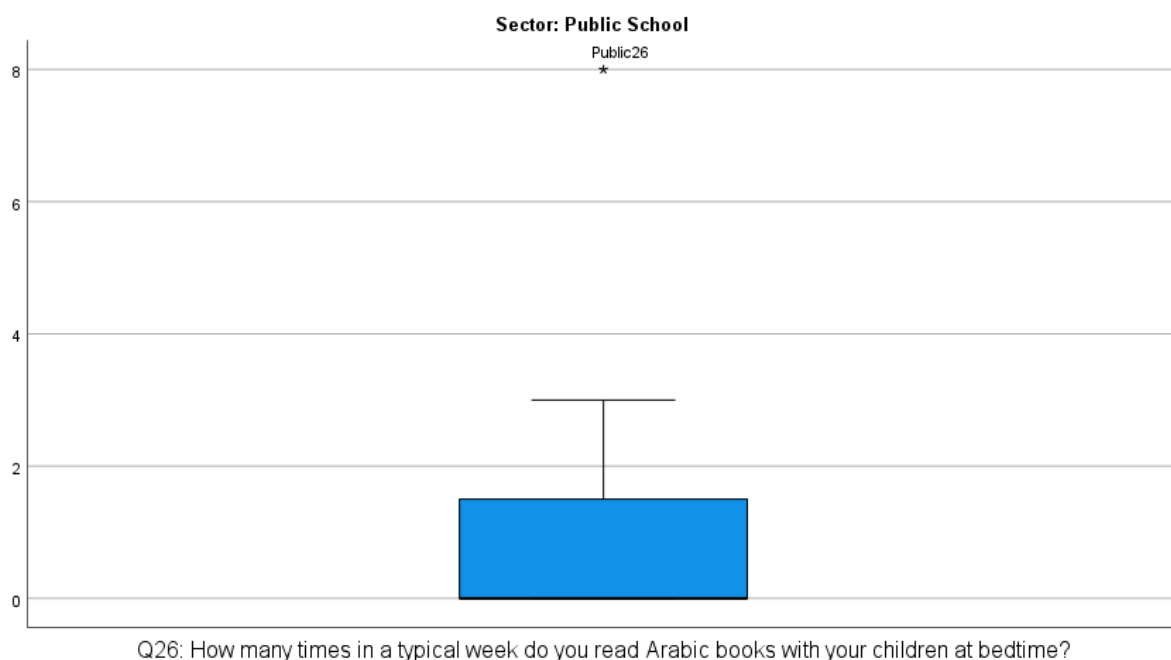


Figure 16: Example of Identifying Outliers Using Boxplots

Using such an approach to identifying outliers certainly identified lots of them. Starting with the questions which produced most outliers, it was found that just eight questions produced 46 of the 54 outlier results. In order, these were question 14 (9 outliers), question 31 (7 outliers), questions 27, 28 and 29 (6 outliers each), and questions 15, 24 and 25 (4 outliers each). Other questions producing outliers were question 13 (3 outliers), questions 23 and 26 (2 outliers each), and question 30 (1 outlier).

Looking at the questions which produced the most outliers, the most common was question 14: “Mother: How often do you speak in English to your child?”. The majority answer here was ‘rarely’, representing 80% of private school responses and 61% of public school responses. With such a consistent ‘rarely’ rating, almost every other response was therefore flagged as an outlier. In the private school, this was at both extremes (‘never’ and ‘usually’), since both were fairly uncommon. In the public school, only ‘usually’ was an outlier, because there were more responses (30%) in the ‘never’ category. Such outliers are not a concern for data quality (Bullough, 2012) – indeed, they represent important, if limited, variation within the samples, and so are taken for regression analysis. A similar analysis explains the related question about how fathers used English (question 15), but for quite a different reason – here, ‘all the time’ was the majority response (91% in the public school sample, 65% in the private school). This may suggest important gender differences in parents’ use of English at home.

A similar statistical explanation was found for question 31, which asked parents to rate the importance of learning to read English in school. Every respondent rated it either ‘important’ or ‘very important’. Indeed, with 83% rating it ‘very important’ in the public school sample and 85% in the private school sample, even those who rated it as ‘important’ were flagged as outliers. The lack of variety might limit the usefulness of this measure in a regression model, but the outliers are not a concern in terms of representing the views of the sample.

The majority of the remaining outliers were covered by questions around the number of books at home and the frequency of reading. Again, the main explanation for outliers was a tight clustering of most responses, so that minor variations were identified as outliers. Parents rarely read for pleasure in any language, but this was especially true in English (75% ‘never’

in the private school sample, 83% ‘never’ in the public school sample). Likewise, having large quantities of books at home was uncommon, particularly English books (only one response in each sample used any of the response options above 60). Similarly, books were rarely read to children at bedtime or at any other time. This is a useful finding (perhaps that the ‘bedtime story’ is not a strong feature of parenting culture in Kuwait), so again the outliers are important variations for constructing a model.

Overall, it was determined that no questions would be ignored from regression analysis due to outliers, and that no data transformations were necessary to accommodate skewness in the ordinal responses, since outliers were mostly caused by exceptions to the norm (e.g., parents responding with a ‘4’ when the majority of responses were a ‘1’), rather than clustering around floors and ceilings in the range. This was at least in part a result of using four-point response scales, where identical responses are much more likely than clusters around similar values, because there are so few similar values to choose from.

5.4 Regression Analysis

This questionnaire was designed to look at parental and home influence on the child’s measurement of achievement to read in English and to answer the research question: ‘What are the factors that influence the development in the learning of and achievement in English reading among primary students attending public and private schools in Kuwait?’. Merging the student-level and parent data enabled test scores and ratings to be used as dependent variables, while expanding the potential range of independent variables to include questions from the parents’ questionnaire. While regression analysis using the student data was separated by private school and public school samples, the parent-level data had less variance (due to not administering tests or the MRQ to parents, which both generate continuous variables), so it necessary to use both samples together in one regression model. ‘Sector’ was therefore included as a dichotomous variable when exploring different models.

For the first NGRT test, the best-fit model used four variables: income, satisfaction with English reading at school, father’s experience studying abroad, and number of English

children's books at home. For the second NGRT test, the same variables were used, but in a different order: number of English children's books at home, father's experience studying abroad, satisfaction with English reading at school, then income. In part, this may be explained by a testing effect, if attention on English reading was increased by the first stage of this study (e.g., parents felt that they needed to go buy more children's books in English, if their children performed worse than expected on the first test). In order to evaluate test performance in a regression model, students' mean scores from the two tests were used.

Table 28: Regression Model for NGRT Mean Score

| | <i>B</i> | 95% CI for <i>B</i> | | <i>SE B</i> | <i>R</i> ² | ΔR^2 |
|--|----------|---------------------|-------|-------------|-----------------------|--------------|
| | | LL | UL | | | |
| Constant | -19.79 | -35.29 | -4.30 | | .338 | .308 |
| Number of English children's books | 3.92 | 1.11 | 6.73 | .28 | | |
| Father studied abroad | 10.61 | 1.81 | 19.42 | .22 | | |
| Satisfaction with school English reading provision | 4.85 | .71 | 9.00 | .22 | | |
| Income | 5.48 | .28 | 10.70 | .20 | | |

However, when sector is included, much of the variance explained by income, father study abroad status, and satisfaction with school reading provision is better explained by the type of school (which, in many ways, can be seen as a proxy for such variables). This produces a much simpler model which explains more variance, such that $R^2 = .835$, adj. $R^2 = .831$, as shown in Table 29 below.

Table 29: Regression Model for NGRT Mean Score, Including Sector as a Variable

| | 95% CI for <i>B</i> | | | | <i>R</i> ² | ΔR^2 |
|----------|---------------------|-------|-------|-------------|-----------------------|--------------|
| | <i>B</i> | LL | UL | <i>SE B</i> | | |
| Constant | 56.54 | 51.41 | 61.67 | | .835 | .831 |

| | | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|--------|--------|--------|------|--|--|
| Sector | -22.50 | -24.87 | -20.14 | -.87 | | |
| Number of English children's books | 1.59 | .30 | 2.88 | .11 | | |

This illustrates the benefit of exploring the models with and without sector as a variable, since the regression model is a better fit with sector included as a variable, but not including it helps to see why sector may have an impact (for instance, that school type is mostly a proxy measure for income, parental satisfaction with reading provision, and parental experience of studying abroad).

Turning these models into equations is an effective demonstration of the benefit of the model that does not include sector. For instance, it was previously noted that the parents of student 40 in the private school sample were outliers, based on having far more English books than other families (Q23). Looking at their responses to other questions led to the assumption that the family may see reading as different from speaking, prioritising reading in English but finding speaking a foreign language at home impractical or of less importance. Meanwhile, in the public school sample, the parents of student 26 had more books in both languages, as well as differing from the rest of the public school sample on many other measures. Showing these as equations helps to compare their actual and expected scores. First is a model where 'sector' is a dichotomous variable. Since coding was 1 for private school and 2 for public school, this means that 22.5 is taken away from the score for private school students and 45 is taken away from public school students (recoding where one group = 0 could be neater to display, but can make regression models awkward to read):

$$\text{NGRT mean} = 56.54 - (22.5 * \text{sector}) + (1.59 * \text{N}^{\circ} \text{ of English children's books category})$$

$$\text{Private40} = 56.54 - 22.5 + 7.95 = 41.99$$

$$\text{Public26} = 56.54 - 45 + 4.77 = 16.31$$

Compared to their actual results, the predictions match quite well: student 26 in the public school sample scored 24, while student 40 in the private school sample scored 41.5. Therefore, simply looking at the number of English children's books at home can be a useful

predictor of English reading test performance within each school type. In terms of the research question, the regression analysis – particularly when used to look at outliers – suggests that parental factors are influential on student test performance.

In addition to ‘sector’ acting as an approximation of parental factors, it is also possible that there is some interference from proficiency levels. Specifically, students in the public school sample had generally lower test scores than those in the private school sample. As noted by Roberts (2013, p. 237), “there is evidence that bilinguals of lower proficiency and/or working memory capacity have more trouble with grammatical processing”. With students at such low levels of proficiency as in this sample, the impact of low proficiency may have a much stronger effect on the public school students than the private school students. Again, returning to the sample later to build a longitudinal analysis and look at whether influences change as proficiency increases would be very valuable. It may also be worthwhile to consider alternatives to the MRQ as an instrument, due to the lower proficiency levels of these students, with a greater need to consider efficacy specificity for less fluent readers (Peura et al., 2019).

5.5 Exploring the Outliers

While no individual questions were to be excluded because of outliers, it was still necessary to explore outliers from the perspective of individual participants. There were 23 outlier points in the private school sample and 24 in the public school sample. These were spread across 13 parents in the private school sample and 11 parents in the public school sample. This kind of analysis gives an opportunity to not just consider whether responses should be included in analyses, because of their effect on mean scores and regression models, but to also consider how the outliers represent interesting individual case discussions that can reveal insights that can be missed when analysing group-level data.

The private school sample had 13 parent responses with at least one outlier response, suggesting that there is some variation within the sample. Of these 13 responses, the majority

had only one outlier response. This left three individuals with multiple outlier responses to consider – respondents 11, 33, and 40.

The parents of private school student 11 differed from other responses based on reading more to their child in English, both at bedtime (Q27) and at other times of day (Q28). This may have related to their other outlier response, the mother speaking English with children more often (Q14), although it is unclear whether the parents might have considered reading aloud to their children as speaking English with them (indeed, if they discuss the book as they read, they may well do so).

Response 33 had outliers on three of the questions about how often they read to their children, in English at bedtime (Q27), in English throughout the day (Q28), and in Arabic throughout the day (Q29), in each case doing these much more often than other parents. Perhaps it is curious that their other outlier response was on Q31, the importance of learning to read English at school, where they rated lower than other parents (though still ‘important’). One explanation could be the ‘at school’ aspect of the question, since these parents seem to devote time at home to learning to read in English, so may not see this as such a priority for the school.

The parents of student 40 were outliers based on having far more English books than other families (Q23). This was a curious result, given the other outliers were around lower levels of English spoken with children by both the mother (Q13) and father (Q15). One possible explanation may be that they see reading as different from speaking, prioritising reading in English but finding speaking a foreign language at home impractical or of less importance, or perhaps wanting to practise the mother tongue ‘Arabic’ more. This would be in line with research looking at the family language practices of children raised to be bilingual with a minority language at home in an English-speaking country (Surrain, 2018), so it seems reasonable to expect that parents would be similarly unwilling to use a foreign language at home, when their home language is the majority language.

Turning to the public school sample, despite there being a similar number of responses overall which contained at least one outlier, as well as a similar total number of overall

outlier responses to the private school sample, it was found that the majority of outlier responses belonged to just one family, the parents of student 26.

The parents of student 26, the only other outlier case considered in the public school sample, differed by having less frequent communication with children in Arabic (Q13), having more books at home, in different languages and for both adults and children (Q23, Q24, and Q25), and more often reading both English and Arabic books at bedtime (Q26 and Q27). This may suggest a family prioritising communication and reading, but here the emphasis is more clearly on English and Arabic. The family also seems to have a consistent bedtime reading routine, which seems much less common in other families.

5.6 Discussion, Limitations and Recommendations

Returning to the core question: What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?, this chapter has identified some common differences in students' home lives that may be relevant. From comparing the performance of students whose parents responded to the survey to those whose parents did not participate, it was demonstrated that any differences were not statistically significant. This presents a defence against selection bias, strengthening the case that responses to the survey were broadly representative of the parents as a whole.

As has been discussed in the chapters analysing the student-level data, the most substantial factor in differences in performance is school type, where students in the private school broadly gained higher scores on the assessments and gave more positive ratings on the motivation questionnaire. Through the parents' surveys, it is possible to at least start to explore some of the reasons why these differences exist. For instance, it is interesting to consider whether it is the school type itself that makes a difference, or if attending private school is simply representing some other advantage such as being more likely to have parents who are highly educated or having an English-speaking nanny.

The first key difference found in the parents' surveys was that both fathers and mothers were educated to a higher level for those students attending the private school. Likewise, family income was higher in the private school households, although only measured using a basic 'high/middle/low' response. Finally, parents whose students attended the private school were more likely to have studied abroad, which tended to be in English-medium environments. However, differences specific to English language use at home were not as apparent – public school students' homes were fairly similar to their private school counterparts in terms of how much English was used at home and the presence of English-speaking domestic staff. From these demographic comparisons, the discussion of results tended to focus on concepts to understand how differences may influence student reading performance.

These ideas were tested further when multiple factors were analysed within regression models. These suggested that school type may function as a proxy measure of social, cultural, educational, or economic, but that one variable that affected student outcomes across both sectors was the number of English-language children's books kept in the home. While there was also perhaps some influence of different home income levels within each sector, it was the number of English-language children's books that seemed to create the best predictive model both in general and when looking at outlier responses. It is perhaps fairly self-evident that those with more interest in reading in English would have more English books at home, particularly if library facility is limited. Nevertheless, there is perhaps some signalling that reading in English at home, rather than just in Arabic, has a positive effect on English reading performance. Thus, the general finding is that having English-language children's books at home has a positive impact on performance.

It is also worth reflecting on the similarities between all the parents in terms of how important they felt English and reading to be, the employment of English-speaking domestic staff, and the frequency of visiting libraries. Indeed, such commonality may be particular to the Middle East and needs further exploration, perhaps including more detailed questions in future around the employing of home tutors or how much children interact with domestic staff.

Some questions did not generate a great range of responses. For instance, learning to read English was regarded as so important across all respondents (question 31) that even those who responded that it was just ‘important’ were identified as outliers. For questions with such a strong agreement, it may not be necessary to ask the question, although the response does at least offer some reassurance compared with simply stating that English is seen as important (indeed, given the lack of literature specific to Kuwait, asking a survey question is often the only way to evidence such claims). As an alternative to dropping the question, changes could instead address how the use of a four-point scale response option could have produced a ceiling effect. Instead, rating importance on a longer scale (e.g., out of 10) could have offered a broader range of responses. It may also have been the case that parents would have rated many aspects of the curriculum as important, so reading in English might be important but so could everything else taught at school. Rather than change response options, the question text could therefore be changed into a comparison (e.g., whether learning to read in English is more or less important than learning to read in another foreign language).

Likewise, outliers were generated by questions about the number of books (both English and Arabic) at home and the frequency of reading to children for pleasure. Here, the questions were less useful in regression analysis because of the clustering of responses, where “no significant outliers, high leverage points or highly influential points” is assumed in multiple regression techniques (Laerd Statistics, 2015, p. 3). An alternative is therefore to keep to the same question, but to change the response options. For instance, if ‘1-20’ is the lowest possible option, there is perhaps an implication that parents should have more books. Changing to an open response could remove this problem, but would then introduce a problem of false care – for instance, parents are unlikely to count their books to answer the question, and it is questionable what conclusions could be built based on someone having eight books and another having ten. A recommendation could be asking a pilot group to count their books, to help generate more suitable response options. Even from the data in this study, where 60 appears to be a common upper limit, it could be helpful to offer response options in blocks of 10 (i.e., 0-10, 11-20, etc.) rather than blocks of 20 (as was the case this time).

It is worth remembering that the majority of families had several children. While the survey instructions were quite specific to the student who had taken the reading test NGRT in

the earlier phase of this study, parents could still have responded in general terms. The impact here may be minimal if they adopt similar parenting practices with all their children, although it might be worthwhile conducting follow-up surveys to see if this is the case or whether there are different expectations, for instance, for the oldest or youngest child. Indeed, where the student who took the language test has many older siblings, it may be worth considering the English input they might receive from siblings, or any support they might themselves give to younger siblings.

5.7 Summary

This chapter set out to look at the central question: What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?. Regarding reading achievement, the simple answer of ‘what factors influence achievement?’ is that school type is the most important factor. However, suggesting that parents should enrol their children into private schools is not a particularly helpful conclusion. By looking beyond sector as a variable, the regression analysis in this study has been able to suggest that the number of children’s books written in English available at home is an important consideration. This seems the most straightforward to leverage by increasing the availability of books – while these are expensive in the local context, making regular use of the library or sharing books between friends might produce a similar effect.

The other two main factors – parental satisfaction with school reading provision and family income – are less easy to leverage. Nevertheless, they suggest helpful areas for future consideration. For instance, in a country with such high income levels as Kuwait (where this study has found, for example, that English-speaking maids are common at all income levels), why is family income still such an influential factor on student achievement, even at such an early age? There is also encouragement that parents seem to be effective judges of school English reading provision, so there could be value in enhancing parent voice and building greater school-home partnerships to develop reading. In this respect, certain factors such as ‘importance of learning to read in English’ have not shown any impact on reading

performance, but it is suggested that this is only because so many parents agree that it is very important, so there is insufficient variance in responses.

As noted, when discussing floor and ceiling effects, due to the response options and the remarkably similar responses within each sample, there were many variables that had insufficient variance in their results to be much use in a regression model. This meant that identifying outliers soon turned from a data cleaning exercise, aimed at removing extreme values, into a way of building numerical case studies, looking at the impacts of any variance. This was helpful in interpreting regression model results, making good narrative sense with an overall story of the students in these two samples varying in their English reading performance, based on a combination of home and school factors.

The next stage of this study is therefore well-positioned on insights by building up a more detailed narrative and qualitative interpretation of the experience of teachers.

Chapter 6: Teachers' Data – Results, Analysis and Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the key research questions:

1. Do the levels of self-efficacy among teachers differ between private and public primary Kuwaiti schools?
2. What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?
3. What are the factors that influence the development in the learning of and achievement in English reading among primary students attending private and public Kuwaiti schools?

Question 1 is answerable with the quantitative data from TSES, supporting findings from the earlier phases of this study that there is a substantial difference in learner self-efficacy ratings. The quantitative data also shows how efficacy ratings vary within school types, specifically based on a teacher's years of experience. The qualitative data also helps to offer some interpretation, looking beyond what teachers feel they have the skill to do and looking to what they are able to do in their school. For example, discussions around library access, interesting books for students, supportiveness of faculty, self-motivation of students, and support (or lack) from parents and school administrators are all relevant from the qualitative data, helping to move beyond the numerical ratings in the survey.

Question 2 is mainly addressed through the qualitative data (semi-structured interviews), in which teachers are asked about their beliefs about pedagogy, how children learn to read English, and what they are able to do to support this learning. Comparisons between the private and public school respondents are then enabled by the quantitative data, indicating much higher self-efficacy ratings among the teachers working in the private school. Thus, a comparison of teachers' beliefs from the qualitative data can be made, based on this assumed difference.

Finally, question 3 is largely addressed by the qualitative data (teachers' interviews), where teachers spoke about their views of the factors that influences the development in the learning and achievement in reading in English. Discussion mainly centres on use of resources, support from home, differentiation, and the status of English. This question does not have a specific section of the quantitative data to help answer it. However, the variation in teacher beliefs offers some suggestion that teachers in the private schools feel more able to utilise a range of pedagogical strategies and engage their learners. While still a substantial difference between teachers in the two school types, it also appears the case that classroom management may not make as big a difference as the other areas of efficacy, although the qualitative discussion around classroom climate could be a useful reframing of some of the same issues.

This chapter discusses the teachers' data, both quantitative and qualitative, to understand how efficacy is conceptualised and experienced in the two school types (public and private). Six teachers from each school type gave both survey responses and participated in interviews, providing the potential to combine quantitative and qualitative data. These were also teachers of the students who participated in the earlier phase of the study, helping to give greater context to that data and a more rounded picture of the experience of learning reading in English in both school types. Quantitative data comes from the long-version TSES, with analysis considering the scales as recommended and with some modifications (e.g., adding 'teaching reading' to each statement instead of 'teaching alone').

It would also be possible to reflect on responses from the parents' surveys and to look for commonality across the data sources of this study. To this end, while both the quantitative and qualitative aspects of this study stand alone and make a contribution in their own right, it is intended that the combination and integration of these data sources adds up to a substantial contribution to the understanding of how reading in English and taught in these schools and how it can be interpreted through the lens of self-efficacy.

It is argued throughout that an understanding of how reading is experienced benefits from looking at responses across the two school types (private and public), even though responses varied a great deal between the two sectors.

Focusing on each school type separately, this chapter moves through quantitative data from a survey of 12 teachers who teach the students discussed in the earlier chapters, following this data gathering with interviews of teachers from these same schools. Qualitative analysis is structured around the six steps of thematic analysis recommended by Braun and Clarke (2006). Data from each school type is analysed separately within each step, with comparisons between the two sectors made before moving on to the next step. Therefore, the two qualitative datasets are gradually integrated throughout the analysis, as themes are developed and refined. Finally, the quantitative data is brought back to enable the discussion of emerging questions, linking between the quantitative and qualitative data from both sectors as well as the literature.

6.2 Sample Overview

Data was gathered through Qualtrics, which generates a link to the questionnaire sent individually to all participating teachers in the public and private schools in Kuwait. While the number of respondents is not of any particular concern, given that analysis of the qualitative data makes no claims to generalisability, the range of experiences and diversity in respondents can be argued as a benefit for the representativeness of the participants and, consequently, a better opportunity for a rich breadth of data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). Full consent was given, as per University of York policy, prior to completion of the surveys, which were kept anonymously with the only demographic information being school type, sex and years of experience.

6.3 Quantitative Data: Survey Responses to TSES

This section begins by establishing the suitability of the quantitative data, before presenting the analysis according to the research question. While dealing with such a small sample would normally involve revealing differences in mean without reporting a p-value (Gorard, 2021; White & Gorard, 2017), the scale of differences on TSES between the public and private school teachers were sufficiently large that comparisons always met the

traditional significance level of $p < .05$. Since the TSES generates scale variables, the first step was to establish reliability of the scales. This was easily accomplished using Cronbach's alpha, which is readily compared to results from the authors of TSES (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) and helps to indicate the usefulness of the survey tool with the adaptations made to suit the local context (generally, this was just minor rephrasing to questions and specifying that responses were to do with learning reading in English).

In the original TSES study (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), Cronbach's alpha for the long version was found to be .96 for the full survey, .91 for the student engagement scale, .86 for the instructional strategies scale, and .89 for the classroom management scale. The scale response also uses a 9-point scale, rather than the traditional 5-point or 7-point measures typically used in Likert-type items, which comes with the advantage of a greater level of attention being possible. An example of this study TSES items is shown below in figure 17.

Figure 17: TSES: Sample of Items with Scale 1-9

| | | | | | | | | |
|--|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 3.How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in reading classroom? | | | | | | | | |
| Nothing 1 | 2 | Very Little 3 | 4 | Some Influence 5 | 6 | Quite a Bit 7 | 8 | A Great Deal 9 |
| <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 4.How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in reading? | | | | | | | | |
| Nothing 1 | 2 | Very Little 3 | 4 | Some Influence 5 | 6 | Quite a Bit 7 | 8 | A Great Deal 9 |
| <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

Thus, a standard deviation of 1.1 for each scale and .94 overall suggests a fairly tight clustering of responses (around one point on a nine-point scale) around the means. The means themselves were also found to be high in the original study, with the lowest (classroom management) still being fairly high at 6.7. Ratings for the other scales were 7.3, giving an

overall survey mean of 7.1, indicating a generally high and rather consistent rating of self-efficacy across all measures within TSES.

In testing the scale reliability to enable further analysis for research question 1, results were broadly similar, as indicated in Table 30 below. It can be seen that the greatest standard deviation is for the student engagement scale, but that this is also the lowest mean score of the three scales. It is perhaps surprising that instructional strategies are rated so highly, in the context of schools where curriculum and pedagogy can often be specified by school administrators (as discussed in the qualitative analysis, especially in the public school sample). It may be, for example, that teachers feel more in control of pedagogy and classroom management than they do of student engagement.

Table 30: Overall Descriptive Statistics of the Scales

| | Student Engagement | Instructional Strategies | Classroom Management | Overall |
|----------------|---------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------|
| Mean | 6.65 | 7.15 | 7.85 | 7.22 |
| Std. Deviation | 1.19 | 1.06 | .84 | .99 |

Table 31: Descriptive Statistics of the Scales, Split by Sector

| Sector | | Student Engagement | Instructional Strategies | Classroom Management | Overall |
|---------------|----------------|---------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------|
| Public | Mean | 5.65 | 6.35 | 7.31 | 6.44 |
| | Std. Deviation | .83 | .96 | .87 | .80 |
| Private | Mean | 7.65 | 7.94 | 8.40 | 7.99 |
| | Std. Deviation | .17 | .23 | .31 | .21 |

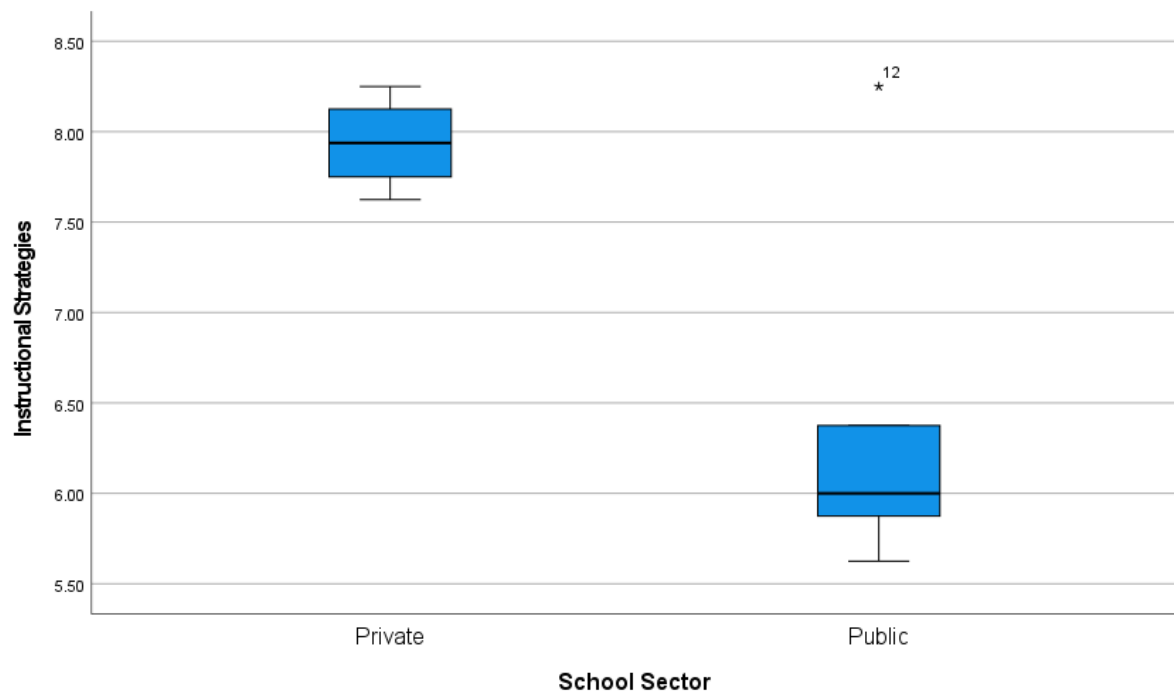
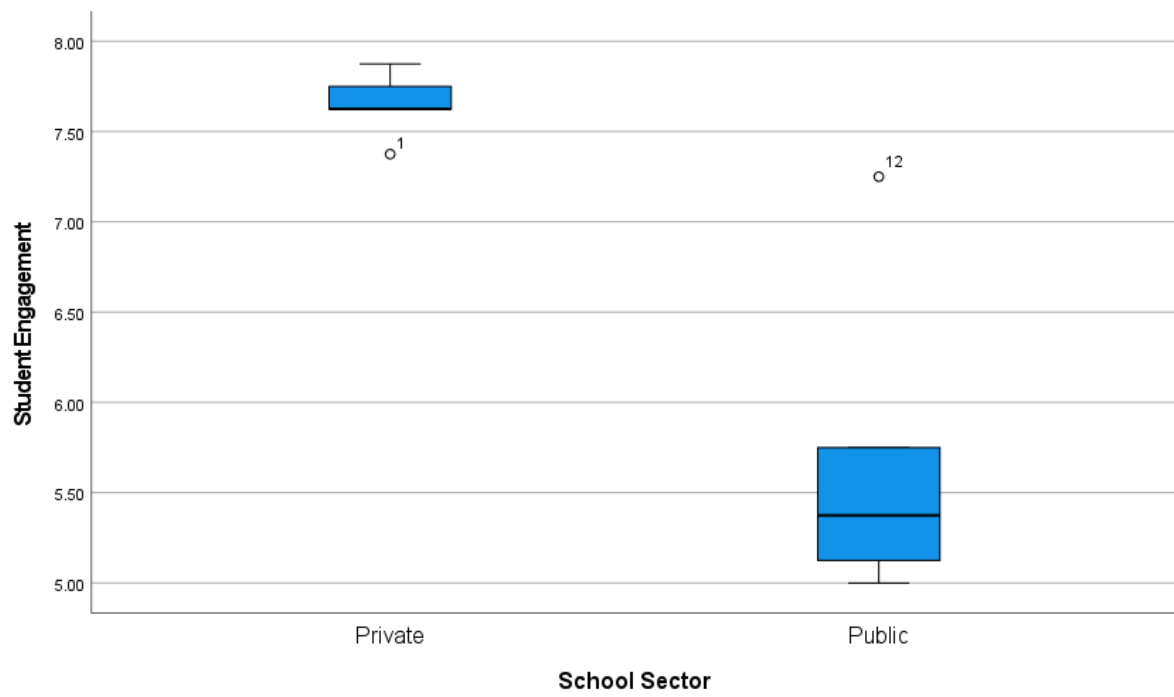
Thus, it can be seen that the private school records higher means and lower standard deviations. With this adapted form of TSES and the current sample, it is interesting to note that reliability scores were found to be .90 for student engagement, .86 for instructional

strategies, .89 for classroom management, and .95 for all survey items taken together, in each case higher than the rule of thumb standard cut-off of 0.7 (Field, 2009). As such, these reliability coefficients are well above this level, indicating that the TSES as used in this study was appropriate for this sample. Each scale passed the Cronbach's alpha standard of TSES, with this data showing the same or stronger reliability as the original study.

6.4 Quantitative Data Comparisons

The most appropriate test for research question one was the independent samples t-test. Comparisons were also made based on teachers' years of experience, to link with research question three. The most appropriate test in this case Spearman's correlation. Spearman's correlation is a non-parametric test and has few assumptions, but independent sample t-tests require a few conditions to be met. Specifically, there should be no significant outliers, the dependent variables should be approximately normally distributed, and there should be homogeneity of variance (Field, 2009).

As indicated in the following four boxplots, the student engagement scale has two minor outliers (cases 1 and 12), the instructional strategies scale has one major outlier (case 12), classroom management has one minor outlier (case 9), and the overall scale has both a minor (case 9) and major (case 12) outlier.



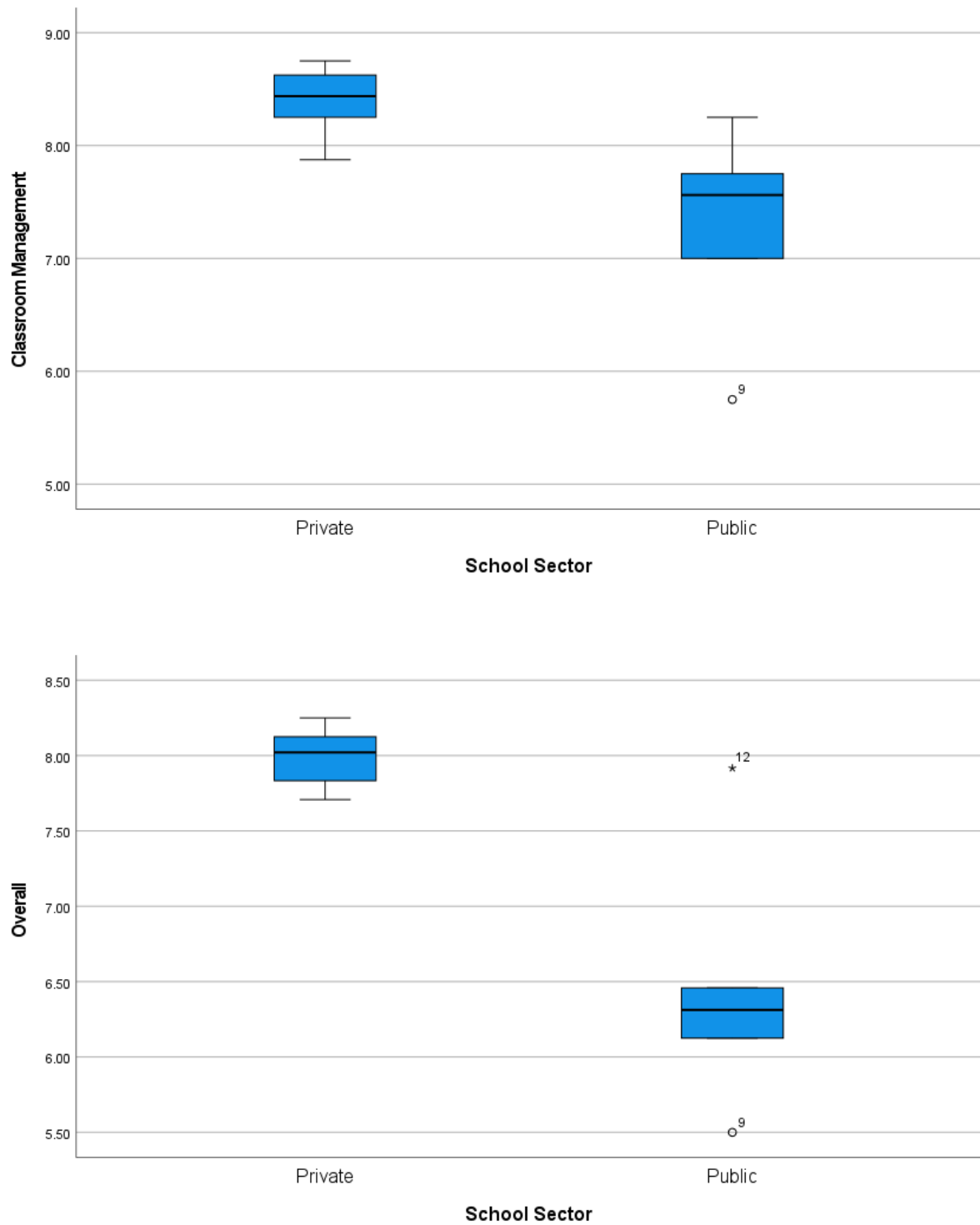


Figure 18: Outliers Split by Sectors

It can be seen that all but one of these are associated with the public school sample, and there may be some argument for deleting case 12. However, looking across their responses to

individual questions, there does not appear to be a problem with the validity of responses. For example, while scores are higher than the other respondents, teacher 12 has not merely ticked all the 8s or 9s.

Table 32 shows their individual question responses. This illustrates the variety in replies, which implies that the responses are genuine.

Table 32: Outlier Responses

| Question Number | Response |
|------------------------|-----------------|
| 1 | 8 |
| 2 | 7 |
| 3 | 9 |
| 4 | 9 |
| 5 | 8 |
| 6 | 7 |
| 7 | 9 |
| 8 | 8 |
| 9 | 8 |
| 10 | 7 |
| 11 | 9 |
| 12 | 7 |
| 13 | 9 |
| 14 | 9 |
| 15 | 8 |
| 16 | 7 |
| 17 | 9 |
| 18 | 7 |
| 19 | 9 |
| 20 | 9 |
| 21 | 8 |
| 22 | 3 |
| 23 | 8 |
| 24 | 8 |

The second assumption is normality which, for samples where $n < 50$, is best assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk test where $p > .05$, as well as looking at the skewness and Kurtosis (Field, 2009). Results for this test are shown in Table 33 below.

Table 33: Normality Assumption Testing of Scales by Sector

| | Sector | Shapiro-Wilk | | | Skewness | | Kurtosis | |
|--------------------------|-----------|--------------|----|------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| | | Statistic | df | Sig. | Statistic | Std. Err. | Statistic | Std. Err. |
| Student Engagement | 1 Private | .921 | 6 | .514 | -.440 | .845 | 1.335 | 1.741 |
| | 2 Public | .770 | 6 | .031 | 1.952 | .845 | 4.049 | 1.741 |
| Instructional Strategies | 1 Private | .982 | 6 | .961 | .000 | .845 | -1.200 | 1.741 |
| | 2 Public | .725 | 6 | .011 | 2.112 | .845 | 4.705 | 1.741 |
| Classroom Management | 1 Private | .957 | 6 | .794 | -.871 | .845 | .735 | 1.741 |
| | 2 Public | .894 | 6 | .339 | -1.344 | .845 | 2.235 | 1.741 |
| Overall | 1 Private | .943 | 6 | .687 | -.206 | .845 | -1.547 | 1.741 |
| | 2 Public | .858 | 6 | .184 | 1.389 | .845 | 3.246 | 1.741 |

It can therefore be seen that the public school and private school responses meet the $p > .05$ as was suggested by Kim (2013, P.2) that “ for small samples ($n < 50$), if absolute z-scores for either skewness or kurtosis are larger than 1.96, which corresponds with a alpha level 0.05, then reject the null hypothesis and conclude the distribution of the sample is non-normal”. Given the smaller sample size of this study, and meeting the $p > .05$, the best advice

seemed to be to continue with independent t-tests (Field, 2009). The mean difference between groups is indicated in Table 34.

Table 34: T-test (Mean Comparison by Scale)

| | Mean Difference | t (df) | Sig (2-tailed) | Std. Error Difference | Cohen's d | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
|--------------------------|-----------------|-----------|----------------|-----------------------|-----------|---|-------|
| | | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Student Engagement | 2.00 | 5.80 (10) | .001 | .34 | 3.35 | 1.23 | 2.77 |
| Instructional Strategies | 1.58 | 3.92 (10) | .003 | .40 | 2.27 | .68 | 2.48 |
| Classroom Management | 1.08 | 2.88 (10) | .016 | .38 | 1.67 | .25 | 1.92 |
| Overall | 1.56 | 4.60 (10) | .001 | .34 | 2.67 | .80 | 2.31 |

For each scale, the mean score was higher in the private sample than in the public sample. Thus, it can be reported that the private sector mean student engagement efficacy score was 2.00 higher, 95% CI [1.23 to 2.77] than the public sector mean student engagement efficacy score. Similarly, the instructional strategies scale was 1.58 higher, 95% CI [.68 to 2.48] than in the public sector sample and the classroom management scale was 1.08 higher, 95% CI [.25 to 1.92] in the private sector sample than in the public sector sample. Finally, the overall mean scale, comprising all 24 questions, was 1.56 higher in the private school responses, 95% CI [.80 to 2.31], than in the public school responses. It therefore appears that there is greater confidence that there is a sizeable difference with respect to student engagement and the least difference in terms of classroom management. It should also be remembered that a small sample size will result in a larger spread of scores in a 95% confidence interval, so these are remarkably strong differences given a sample size of $n = 6$ in each sector. In each case, $p < .05$ indicates that these differences are statistically significant.

The next independent variable of interest was a teacher's years of experience. This was measured on an ordinal scale with responses shown in table 35 below.

Table 35: Distribution of Experience Across Responses

| Years of Experience | Frequency | Percent |
|----------------------------|------------------|----------------|
| 1-2 years | 2 | 16.7 |
| 3-5 years | 2 | 16.7 |
| 6-10 years | 5 | 41.7 |
| 10+ years | 3 | 25.0 |
| Total | 12 | 100.0 |

Since experience is an ordinal variable, Spearman's correlation is used to look for relationships with the scale variables. Results for this are given in the table 36 below.

Table 36: Correlation Statistics

| | Overall | Student Engagement | Instructional Strategies | Classroom Management |
|---|----------------|---------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Experience (ordinal) | .788** | .701* | .646* | .839* |
| * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). | | | | |
| ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). | | | | |

Thus, it can be seen that as experience goes up, so too do ratings on each of the three scales. This relationship is strongest for the classroom management scale which seems reasonable; as teachers become more established in a school, they become more experienced. Curiously, it is weakest – though still moderate – for instructional strategies. It might be assumed that teachers gradually acquire more instructional strategies through their professional learning, fitting with the metaphor of a teacher's toolkit (McGill, 2015). However, it is also believable that teachers with less experience engage more with

professional learning opportunities and seek out new pedagogical tools, or that more experienced teachers have incorporated many of the strategies and no longer think of them as specific strategies. There is also local context to consider, as many schools have strict guidance for teachers in terms of the resources and instructional strategies they should use. This could have a ceiling effect on ratings for efficacy in instructional strategies – teachers may feel able to use such strategies, but not be allowed to do so, or they do not consider them appropriate. Efficacy in student engagement also shows a strong relationship with a teacher’s years of experience, which again could be explained simply as more experienced teachers being more able to engage their students. But it could also reflect a maturing of expectations, if less experienced teachers feel that they should be able to do much more than they are.

However, before associating changes primarily to either the influence of teaching experience or sector, it is important to consider the interactions between the two variables which – in such a small sample – could be significant. A cross-tabulation of responses is shown in Table 37.

Table 37: Cross-tabulation of Experience

| | | Sector | | | |
|------------|------------|---------|--------|--------|--------|
| | | Private | | Public | |
| | | N | % | N | % |
| Experience | 1-2 years | 0 | 0.0% | 2 | 33.3% |
| | 3-5 years | 1 | 16.7% | 1 | 16.7% |
| | 6-10 years | 2 | 33.3% | 3 | 50.0% |
| | 10+ years | 3 | 50.0% | 0 | 0.0% |
| Total | | 6 | 100.0% | 6 | 100.0% |

In particular, the lowest category of experience is only present in the public school sample and the highest category of experience is only present in the private school sample – indeed, it comprises half of that sample. While dividing the data into yet smaller categories

can be problematic in such a small sample, testing for interactions between these two variables is possible using dummy variables. Specifically, this means that comparisons can be made based on 1-2 years' experience in public school, 4-5 years' experience in private school, 4-5 years' experience in public school, 6-10 years' experience in private school, 6-10 years' experience in public school, and 10+ years' experience in private school. Interpretation is most important in the variables that overlap, specifically the 3-5 years' experience and 6-10 years' experience categories. It is within these 7 teachers' responses that indications can be found, whether it is the sector or level of teacher experience that matters most.

The creation of dummy variables results in much smaller sample sizes in the comparison groups. For instance, using the 6-10 years' experience in private sector dummy as an independent variable creates two groups – one $n = 2$ (i.e., those with that amount of experience and who work in that type of school) and another $n = 10$ (i.e., everybody else). Statistically significant differences were found at the $p < .05$ level for private sector in 10+ years' experience vs. all other responses on the efficacy in student management and instructional strategies, and for public sector in 1-2 years' experience vs. all other responses on just the classroom management scale. Starting with those in the private sector with 10+ years' experience, the assumption of equal variance was met for the efficacy in instructional strategies and efficacy in student engagement scales (Levene's test $> .05$). The mean for the efficacy in student engagement scale was 1.47 higher, 95% CI [.06 to 3.00], in the private sector with the 10+ years of experience group, compared with the rest of the sample. Likewise, the mean for the efficacy in instructional strategies scale was 1.31 higher, 95% CI [.07 to 2.69].

Only one scale, efficacy in student engagement, showed statistically significant differences at $p < .05$ for the public sector teachers with 1-2 years of experience (i.e., the least experienced teachers in this sample), compared with all the other respondents. Levene's test was $p > .05$, with the t-test indicating a mean 1.68 lower, 95% CI [.85 to 2.50], in the public sector 1-2 years' experience group, compared with the rest of the sample.

This analysis does little to help distinguish whether the differences are primarily about years of experience or about the school sector, although the teacher self-efficacy literature would tend towards experience-based explanations (Putman, 2012). However, there is some

evidence to suggest that this is a more complex, non-linear relationship in which experience plays a much greater role in self-efficacy at early-career and mid-career levels (Klassen & Chiu, 2010).

As well as considering that experience has a non-linear relationship with the self-efficacy scales, it may even be worth considering the interaction as a meaningful variable, since more experienced teachers may be more likely to teach in private schools. It can also be considered that each factor is meaningful within the other; that is to say, experience makes a difference within each sector, and the sector makes a difference within each group of experience. While further sampling would be needed to determine this, one possible explanation is that experience has a stronger effect on teacher efficacy ratings in schools with lower-achieving students (Yeo et al., 2008), which in this case would be the public sector.

6.5 Summary of Teachers' Data

In summary, the quantitative data shows substantial differences in how teachers' self-efficacy is scored across the two school types (private and public), although there also remains a common core of experience across the sector. Asking more, or different, questions in the surveys appears to be beneficial, which supports the need for further qualitative data generation, through interviews which can likewise compare experiences within and across sectors.

In terms of each research question, the following claims can be made:

- 1. Do the levels of self-efficacy among teachers differ between private and public primary Kuwaiti schools?*

For each measure of efficacy (student engagement, instructional strategies, classroom management, overall efficacy), the mean score was higher in the private sample than in the public sample. Differences are remarkably strong given the small sample size, with the most sizeable difference being in student engagement and the least difference in classroom management.

2. *What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?*

As the number of years of experience a teacher has increases, so too do ratings on all the efficacy scales. This relationship is strongest for the classroom management scale and weakest, though still of moderate strength, for the instructional strategies scale. There is possibly an inter-sectional relationship between school sector and years of experience, either due to different hiring practices in the two school types or an unbalanced sample in this study's recruitment. Specifically, private school teachers with 10+ years of experience reported higher efficacy on the student engagement scale and instructional strategies scale. Efficacy in classroom management was also reported to be lower in public school teachers who had the lowest levels of teaching experience, at just 1-2 years' experience.

6.6 Qualitative Data: Semi-Structured Interviews

The quantitative data indicates strong differences in efficacy ratings between teachers in the private and public sectors, and possibly by levels of teacher experience within each sector. To supplement this 'what' aspect of addressing the research questions, interviews were conducted to look at the 'why'. Qualitative data was generated through semi-structured interviews with six teachers in each site, (i.e., the same teachers who participated in the survey).

The intention is to use a coding approach that is sufficiently flexible, so the same analysis can be applied to both sites. The strength here is that analysis should be able to show points of difference, through discussing themes within but also across both school types. For this reason, thematic analysis, as described by Braun and colleagues (Braun et al., 2018; Braun & Clarke, 2006), was chosen. This is described as a "foundational method for qualitative analysis" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 78). Nevertheless, this section seeks to offer such transparency concerning how codes and themes were developed. Hence, the processes and 'key questions' offered by Braun and Clarke (2006) are used as subheadings to help

discuss the data itself and also give a narrative sense of how interpretation developed. Therefore, detailed analysis using the six steps of thematic analysis of Braun and Clark (2006) will follow.

6.6.1 Step One: Data Familiarisation

The data sets are sufficiently small, so it was possible to read them several times over. Braun and Clarke (2006) emphasise the importance of active reading, even at this stage: it is more than becoming familiar with the texts and involves “searching for meanings [and] patterns ... taking notes or marking ideas for coding that you will then go back to in subsequent phases” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 87). The difference in these notes between the two datasets helps to give an initial sense of how understanding of the data was developing in the early stages of this study. For instance, the following Figure 19 shows notes made while reading through the private school interviews.

Reading "must" be done at young age - is this about SLA or does it come from local norms, so you're "behind" if you don't?

Reading as one of the most important skills; foundational for writing and (to a lesser extent) speaking and listening. Does it need to be treated holistically, or is a phonics approach working?

Homework and reading at home important - is this about regular practice? Feeling comfortable?

Lack of intrinsic motivation, or a limited sense of student efficacy?

Teacher trying to share their own enthusiasm, build on interests of students (another benefit of online material?)

Teachers trying to avoid L1 (identity of school as 'bilingual'), but other students may jump in! Perhaps bilingual isn't seen as 'equally fluent' by students? How quickly do teachers 'give up' and switch back to Arabic? English still distinct classes rather than EMI, and almost no English at home.

Reading as a daily habit

Are online tools about access to more (more engaging?) content, or is there something motivating (e.g., ranking, earning stars, 'trending' tech) here that isn't present in physical books?

Need to feel secure to 'make mistakes', though competition seems to be about who reads the most/best. Might this always be the same students? Do some students consistently lack confidence? Some explicit aims to improve confidence and exposure (Private5 shows good knowledge on

efficacy). Too much testing? (mostly Private6) - culturally important, highly motivational, but can diminish intrinsic 'joy'. Labelling effect - "some of the girls they learn early, they pick it up that they are not the best reader"?

Common to differentiate, esp. by a diagnostic test, perhaps (Private3) even preferable to interventions (tho not Private5). Online can also differentiate by level, but everyone follows same texts in class.

Figure 19: Private School 'Step One' Notes Made in OneNote

While some of these ideas clearly relate to specific sections of individual interviews – for example, the note that says “lack of intrinsic motivation, or a limited sense of student efficacy?” links closely to the comment in Private3’s interview:

I would say that most of students consider reading as a boring skill! Once they start reading and face some difficult words they stop immediately

However, it is much more of a general impression from the six interviews and a question to ask while developing themes. Indeed, looking back now, it is difficult to remember which extract first prompted this note. It could just as easily have been “I do have students that wouldn’t try or even quit trying to read” (Private3); or “they can be top students in English and every other subject, but when it comes to reading, they find it hard. But in fact, they only lack of confidence because the only time they speak or read in English is in the English class. So, they tend to be shy” (Private1); or “constant praise and encouragement does damage them because then they will be afraid of failure and they will never learn from their mistake and they will give up” (Private5). Each gives a slightly different sense of student disengagement, prompting reflection on whether the teachers saw such hesitation as being located within the individual student or rather based on their own experience.

The data familiarisation step is all the more relevant when working with two related datasets, as in this study, offers an early, high-level comparison of the two sites. Figure 20 shows a simple way of enabling such an early comparison.

(public) Limited resources - not rich or interesting enough, teachers enrich with audio or video. Students don't get much choice of topic but perhaps don't want it anyway if it's not on the exam.

(Private) Teacher trying to share their own enthusiasm, build on interests of students (another benefit of online material?) - Are online tools about access to more (more engaging?) content, or is there something motivating (e.g., ranking, earning stars, 'trending' tech) here that isn't present in physical books?

(public) L1 'sometimes' or 'rarely'

(private) Teachers trying to avoid L1 (identity of school as 'bilingual'), but other students may jump in! Perhaps bilingual isn't seen as 'equally fluent' by students? How quickly do teachers 'give up' and switch back to Arabic? English still distinct classes rather than EMI, and almost no English at home.

(public) Severe lack of time for reading. Are newer teachers focused on getting through the work, but more experienced teachers perceive (or have) more freedom?

(private) Reading as a daily habit

(public) Some students "don't like" English and/or reading. "Any excuse", "refuse all the way", keep going to the bathroom, or "silly reasons" to not read. No reading at home.

(private) Homework and reading at home important - is this about regular practice? Feeling comfortable?- Lack of intrinsic motivation, or a limited sense of student efficacy?- Need to feel secure to 'make mistakes', though competition seems to be about who reads the most/best. Might this always be the same students? Do some students consistently lack confidence? Some explicit aims to improve confidence and exposure (Private5 shows good knowledge on efficacy). Too much testing? (mostly Private6) - culturally important, highly motivational, but can diminish intrinsic 'joy'. Labelling effect - "some of the girls they learn early, they pick it up that they are not the best reader"?

(public) Pressure from admin and parents to teach in a certain way and to pass students, esp. if involved in extracurricular activities- Class size and curriculum are limiting (no reading class), though a little more pedagogical freedom than before.- CPD 'useless', no meaningful feedback from observations.- Reading in early years is mostly outside the curriculum: "has nothing to do with the curriculum"; nor is it integrated as cross-curricular skill. Starts "all of a sudden" in year 3.

(private) Reading "must" be done at young age - is this about SLA or does it come from local norms, so you're "behind" if you don't?

(public) Self-efficacy as rare - just a few students, usually due to home background. Ability may be higher than we see in class because students are shy.

Motivate with praise or extra attention (e.g., in breaks, but some students don't want that). Some teachers integrate with speaking, drama, or show and tell, much more motivating.- Limits general performance, students cannot read exams

(private) Reading as one of the most important skills; foundational for writing and (to a lesser extent) speaking and listening. Does it need to be treated holistically, or is a phonics approach working?

(public) Students with difficulties left behind as pressure to focus on "high graders"

(private) Common to differentiate, esp. by a diagnostic test, perhaps even preferable to interventions. Online can also differentiate by level, but everyone follows same texts in class.

Figure 20: Comparison of 'Step One' Notes by Dataset

This helps to show where some codes or themes may relate to just one of the school types, where the experience is similar, and where there may be the same topic mentioned but the experience varies. For example, one early note could be around the topic ‘time’. In the public school, this was discussed as a barrier, since there was not enough time for reading in the school day. In contrast, reading was a daily habit in the private school.

6.6.2 Step Two: Generating Initial Codes

This step is primarily about organisation of ideas, and so it is less interpretative than later phases. The advice from Braun and Clarke (2006) is to look for ‘interesting’ aspects, though this is meant in a very general sense of relevance, since it is for later stages of the process to determine which codes develop into themes. There is also no intention to generalise about the datasets yet, for example, while technology was frequently discussed as a positive – increasing choice of texts and generally being motivation – there were also examples of technology being fashionable, where parents uncomfortable with using a tablet were no longer able to engage with their children’s reading at home in the same way they could with a physical storybook. Therefore, to help get a fresh perspective for Step Two, ideas from Step One were developed into initial codes around resources, habits, teachers’ knowledge of second language acquisition theory, and comments that might relate to efficacy, broadly defined.

Starting with the private school sample, the first round of coding resulted in 168 codes, although all but three of these were single-use codes and so some were soon compressed into groups, as shown in the table below. The data was also reorganised in line with the earlier quantitative analysis based on teachers’ years of experience, meaning that codes related to experience could be replaced by organising the transcripts into a document group, based on teachers’ experience levels.

Table 38: Organisation of Codes

| Code Groups | Code |
|--|---|
| barriers to student-centred approaches | culture where everyone has to read the same material |
| | too much pressure on testing means lack of time to enjoy learning |

| Code Groups | Code |
|--|---|
| | dominant surface approaches to learning |
| | tech limitation: some parents can't help their children |
| CPD benefits for practice | CPD as opportunity to see other techniques |
| | CPD impact on learners |
| | CPD helped to encourage student independence |
| | external CPD (British Council) |
| | "amazing" and "great impact" from CPD |
| | attended several CPD sessions |
| | lots of professional learning when in role |
| | school welcomes new ideas that are best for the students |
| | CPD within and outside the school |
| | help available for new teachers |
| | CPD on blended learning |
| | CPD on reading strategies |
| | 'amazing effect' of CPD |
| | CPD helpful |
| | regular CPD has a "great effect" |
| Daily practice | value of immersion in a language |
| | challenge to use English in daily life |
| | students need regular practice |
| | reading takes time and effort from students |
| | not much support from home |
| | reading as a daily habit |
| | limited exposure to English |
| | teacher and parents play important roles |
| | need daily practice |
| | need support from home |
| Daily practice teacher must encourage students | reading encouraged at home |
| differentiation by group and task | depend on TA for students with difficulties |
| | would prefer to keep students in class rather than intervention |

| Code Groups | Code |
|--|---|
| | tech has different levels |
| | teacher should be responsible for differentiation of tasks/activities |
| | different ways of teaching in each school |
| | girls and boys learn differently |
| | differentiate into three groups |
| | differentiation by task |
| | teacher knows students better than intervention teacher |
| | individual work |
| | group work enables differentiation and extra teacher support |
| differentiation by group and task teachers use assessment to differentiate | diagnostic test before a differentiated reading exam |
| differentiation by group and task teachers use assessment to differentiate | differentiate by group based on diagnostic test |
| difficulties for new teachers | difficulties in other schools around resources, classroom, behaviour |
| | "had to figure out" how to get students to understand teacher |
| | first year was hardest |
| | difficult at start of teaching career |
| | classroom management challenging in first year |
| | didn't understand what to do in first year of teaching |
| difficulty of reading | reading as a challenging task |
| | students find reading difficult |
| | non-native linked with difficulties |
| examples of reading activities | pictures to help comprehension for learners with difficulties |
| | activities assigned around reading: comprehension |
| importance of English as adults | English for employability |
| | "ready to face the world" |
| | English for social media |
| | English for travel |

| Code Groups | Code |
|---|---|
| | teacher motivates by pointing out benefits of certain English vocabulary |
| importance of reading | importance of classroom climate |
| | primacy of reading |
| | reading as most important skill |
| | importance of reading in English for modern world |
| importance of reading from an early age | reading needs an early foundation |
| | exposure at early age vital |
| | reading needs an early foundation, which is often missing |
| importance of resources for students to have choice of reading material | lots of resources = choice |
| intervention used | TA used for intervention |
| | baseline test identifies students for intervention (about a quarter of the class) |
| | intervention for 30m per week plus extra homework |
| | intervention from specialist ESL teachers |
| intrinsic motivation | teacher motivated by students who want to be taught |
| | teachers need to have high expectations |
| | students can be more confident if teacher shows they have confidence in them |
| | some students self-motivated |
| limited local expertise | school does not have an English specialist |
| low status of English in local context | not enough time spent on English |
| | expectations set of what a bilingual school will be like |
| | limited opportunities to use English |
| | challenge to "accept" English as a second language |
| motivating effect of tech | tech engages students |
| | tech used to encourage reading for pleasure |
| | reading program improves self-efficacy |
| | trend for more tech |
| | tech encourages reading more at home |

| Code Groups | Code |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| | stars for reading on the website |
| | motivating use of tech |
| | gamification of reading through iPad and Razkids |
| phonics needed before anything else | phonics prerequisite |
| | need phonics at very young age |
| rare use of L1 | rarely use L1 |
| | other students may provide translation |
| | tries English first, but sometimes uses Arabic |
| | all L2 from teacher, but some students help others using L1 |
| | Arabic used if other approaches are wasting time |
| | rare use of Arabic; prefer to use actions |
| | not very much use of Arabic in class |
| | very rare use of L1 |
| reading as an integrated skill | reading as an integrated skill |
| | writing also a challenge, but all skills related |
| | skills should be integrated, but hard to achieve |
| | reading and writing viewed together |
| | using integrated skills approach |
| | helps to integrate reading with other skills |
| | reading supports development of other skills |
| shouldn't praise students too much | need to avoid too much praise |
| some students far behind | some students far behind others |
| | 40% of class have difficulties |
| student-centred pedagogies | teachers paying more attention to students' interests when planning activities |
| | encourages self-assessment |
| | too much competition |
| | teachers need a genuine connection with students |
| | use student interests to hook them |
| | classroom climate that makes mistakes part of learning |
| | focus on resilience within efficacy |
| | questions to encourage curiosity - "what do you want to know more?" |

| Code Groups | Code |
|---|--|
| | difficult to teach thought processes |
| | reduce student reliance on teacher reading to them |
| | importance of reflection to "understand themselves" |
| | student-centred pedagogy |
| | group work normalised |
| | teacher values raising student confidence |
| | constructivist view of learning |
| students feeling shy | shyness as main issue |
| | some students lack self-confidence |
| | lack of confidence even in high-performing students |
| | lack of confidence only due to lack of experience/exposure |
| students give up too easily | students stop as soon as they find difficult words |
| | some students won't try or quit trying |
| students motivated by competition | reading competition |
| | reading competition motivates students |
| | school and class level competitions to encourage reading as much as possible |
| | motivated by tests |
| | reinforcement chart |
| | students get excited about competition |
| | 'best reader' challenge criterion rather than norm referenced |
| students motivated by competition extrinsic rewards | small gifts to reward voracious readers |
| students not motivated to read | students consider reading boring |
| | students can "block their minds" if they don't feel comfortable with the teacher |
| support and trust from admin | admin need to be in charge of and know the curriculum well |
| | admin gives freedom and support |
| | admin help to support and "be a cushion when things go wrong" |
| | school supportive |
| | school admin creates secure and stable environment for teachers |
| | admin "backing me up and supporting me" |
| | administrators are role models for teachers |

| Code Groups | Code |
|--|---|
| | admin trust teachers and support them "no matter what they hear from different sources" |
| | not much interaction with admin |
| | admin supportive |
| teacher must encourage students | teacher must encourage students who don't want to read |
| | encourage reading habits |
| | encourage all students to take part |
| teacher must encourage students shouldn't praise students too much | efficacy requires encouragement but not over-praise |
| teachers benefit from freedom | teacher has high level of freedom |
| | freedom gives teachers confidence |
| | must follow the curriculum, but teacher free to adapt based on student needs |
| | freedom to choose how to teach |
| | some curricula rich, others require more teacher effort |
| | teacher has free choice of texts |
| teachers use assessment to differentiate | can tailor lesson based on monitoring individual students |
| | online program teacher can monitor |
| | fluency test as a measure of reading ability |
| | diagnostic test to identify students who need extra help |
| | quantitative fluency test for all students |
| tech means more choice of text | internet to expand choice or variety in medium |
| | tech enables more choice of reading material |

The public sector interviews were coded after Step Two had been completed for the private sector responses. Whereas the private sector responses generated 168 codes, the public school responses generated 135. However, the smaller number of codes may also simply reflect the level of detail.

The 32 code groups generated from the private school dataset were helpful in putting the initial codes from the public school sample into similar categories, although the majority of

analysis in combining the two datasets would occur later, in Step Three. At this early stage, using the similar code groups helped to identify some key differences between the datasets. A good example of this is the way school leaders (referred to as administrators) are discussed. The prompting question could be seen to have a slightly positive tone to it, since it was worded: “How does school administration support your work as a teacher?” Indeed, when looking at the responses from the private school interviews, there was some initial concern that this could have been a leading question, preventing teachers from criticising leadership. Codes in this category in the private school interviews included ‘administrators as role models’ and ‘school admin create secure and stable environment for teachers’. Some of these codes were also kept around to capture some of the sense of how the teachers talked about school administrators, such as the code ‘backing me up and supporting me’, which came from the quotation: “For me I believe the administration would be my head of the department she’s always backing me up and supporting me I love her so much and follow her as a role model” (Private3).

However, when looking at the codes under the same group for the public school respondents, these early concerns about the interview question being potentially leading soon faded. One teacher quickly responded with “Hmm ... Supporting me? Are you serious, they don’t do anything to support us” (Public4), showing that they were going to talk about supportiveness (or lack thereof) from administration and did not feel restricted by the wording of the question. This is represented in the network map below (Figure 21), where

codes in the administration group from the private school sample are in blue and those from the public school sample are in orange.

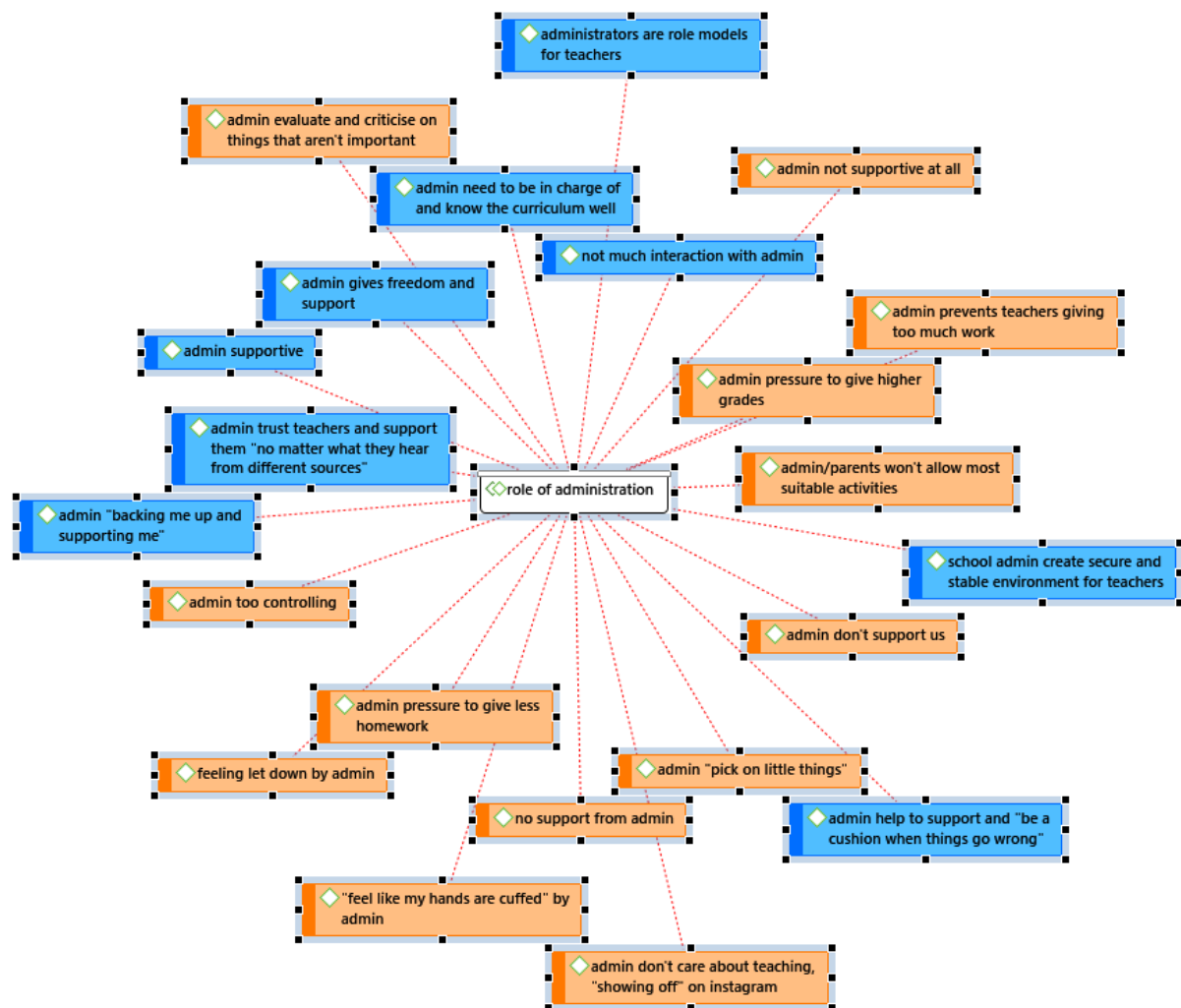


Figure 21: Initial Concept Map

Simply putting codes from the two different datasets into two colours shows the contrasting views within the same code group. Aside from “not much interaction with admin”, which is a fairly gentle comment that went into a more positive response, as seen from the full quotation:

“Mmm, I can’t say much about administration. It is almost impossible to find a problem-free workplace, but it works out at the end despite the difficulties. From my personal experience, in both schools that I have worked at, all the admins that I’m working with, are very supportive” (Private1).

Putting the two datasets alongside each other within a code group also suggests how the codes may eventually combine into themes. Specifically, there are issues around freedom vs. constraint, trust, or emotions. This is where the language used by participants can be illustrative of important themes,. For instance, the ‘school admin create secure and stable environment for teachers’ (Private1) contrasts with ‘I feel like my hands are cuffed by admin’ (Public5) and seems to capture some sense of the difference in cultures between the public and private schools.

6.6.3 Step Three: Searching for Themes

The ‘themes’ part of thematic analysis comes after these initial ideas have been formed, so it is appropriate to think of it as reanalysing rather than analysing.

The ‘motivating effects of tech’ code group were reanalysed and the original quotations re-examined. This helped to draw attention to where technology was motivating because of its novelty value, the increased choice it made available to students, its links to extrinsic rewards, or its support of differentiated reading. As the codes were reorganised so too were they combined, by looking across the two datasets. A good example of this is the technology theme. This group only comprised codes from the private school dataset, specifically ‘motivating effect of tech’, ‘tech means more choice of text’, ‘tech enables differentiation’, and one slightly negative code, ‘tech limitations: some parents can’t help their children’. While technology, and specifically some of the apps used to encourage reading at home, were important in the private school sample, there was no related discussion in the public school codes. One option is simply to note this as a difference, and certainly it is helpful to reflect that the private school has access to resources that are not available to teachers and students in the public schools. However, it was decided that themes should, wherever possible, speak across the two datasets. This prompted further questions around, for instance, the role of reading at home, the choice available to students, and how students were motivated to read

independently. After trying a few different combinations of code groups, ‘choice’ seemed to resonate well.

A new code group was therefore created, labelled simply ‘choice’ at this stage. Some of the codes in this new group came from the technology group, such as ‘internet to expand choice or variety’. However, it also brought in codes around teacher choice – as in permission to choose materials other than the class textbook (an option in the private school, but either not allowed or requiring permission in the public school), and also choice simply from having a well-stocked library or classroom bookshelves. Emotion was again evident, with one teacher (Public6) speaking of it being their “dream” that they could give children books to take home and discuss with them back in school. There was also discussion of limitations, such as students in the public school not being able to choose material that was interesting to them. Here, discussion varied. Some saw this as an inability to choose texts other than the assigned textbook, which used more dialogue rather than stories. Others spoke of the importance of students being able to choose their own topics to read. For instance, one teacher (Private5) mentioned how their students were interested in WWE wrestlers. The literature here tends towards recommending that students should be allowed to choose their own reading materials, but that learning to make appropriate choices is a skill which should be taught (Kragler & Nolley, 1996).

Codes around this new group of choice also returned to discussions around school administrators, helping to contrast the private school where new ideas were welcomed and teachers were supported to go beyond the curriculum with the public school, where time constraints meant that there was not enough space to ‘get through’ the core curriculum.

6.6.4 Step Four: Reviewing Themes

The fourth step is described across two levels, centring around a thematic map. This means that codes within a theme make sense together. The aim is a thematic map in which: “Data within themes should cohere together meaningfully, while there should be clear and identifiable distinctions between themes” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 91). Having satisfied these criteria at the level of each interview, the next level is to consider the dataset as a whole.

By this stage, there was already substantial moving around of codes within code groups. Dominant groups were developing around choice and space, emotional responses, and responsibility. These were still loose topics and not yet at the stage of themes. Figure 22 which follows is an example of how ‘emotional responses’ developed as a group.

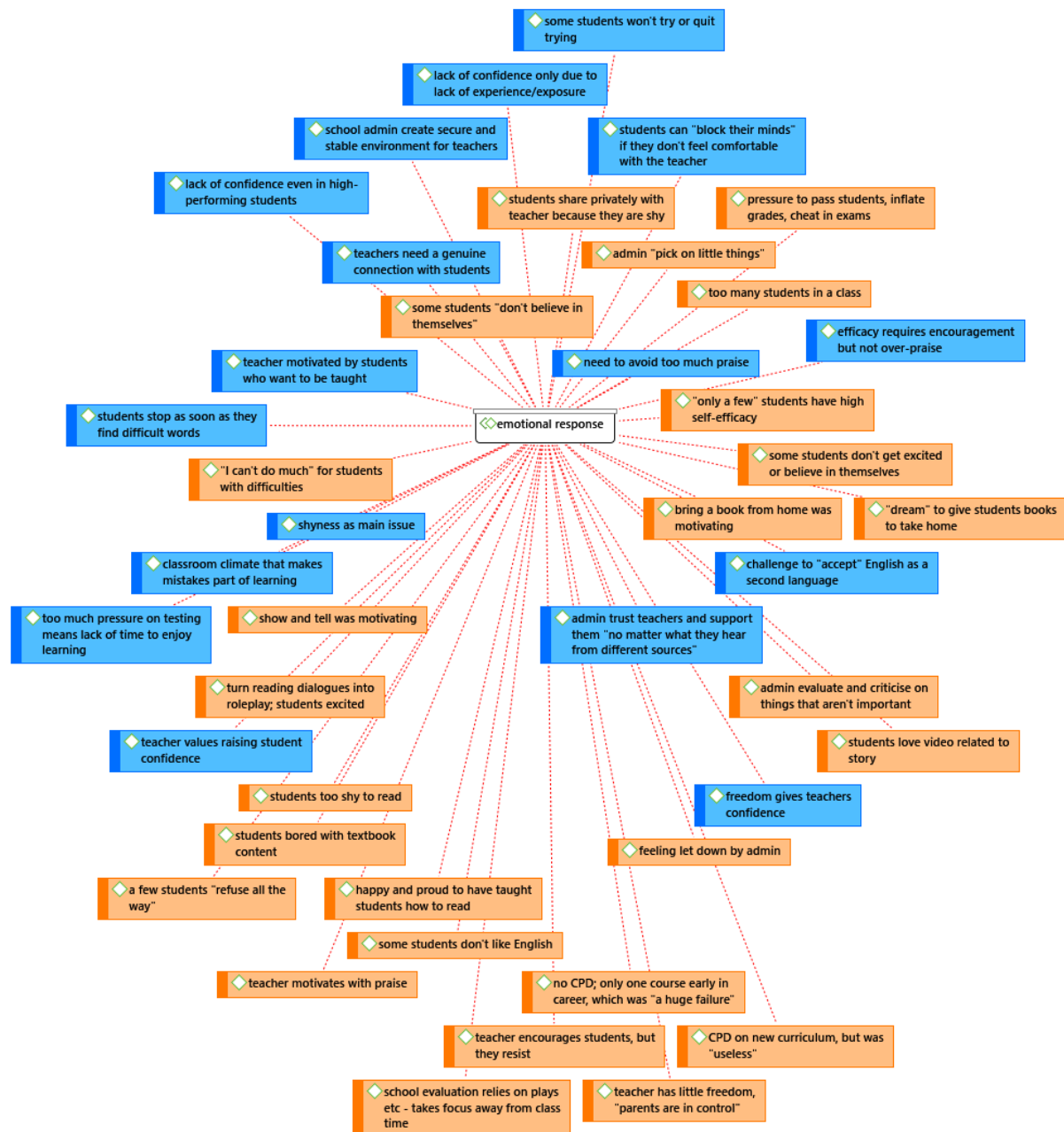


Figure 22: Developing Concept Map of 'Emotional Response' Theme

This shows the complexity of trying to turn code groups into main themes. It is also revealing that the initially sharp contrasts between the public and private school responses are slightly diminished: it is no longer the case that all the positive feelings are in blue and all the negative sentiments are in orange, although much of this remains the case. There is also still some unresolved overlap with agency. For example, the codes around feeling helpless when trying support children with difficulties often conveyed emotion, but there was also a sense of restriction if the helplessness was seen as at least partly caused by lack of curriculum time, poor behaviour, students not having sufficient grounding in phonics, or a lack of resources or support from school administrators. Likewise, there were many mentions of students feeling shy, which made sense alongside similar discussions of misbehaviour where students would refuse to read, refuse to come to class for intervention sessions, or make excuses to try get out of class, such as repeatedly asking to go to the bathroom. Connections between these codes were needed so that the concept map could be updated.



Figure 23: Concept Map as Themes Developed

Putting this diagram together using the simple Smart Art tools in PowerPoint was helpful in suggesting an overall theme of teacher agency. At the same time, it was a little restrictive since some of the emotional responses seemed like they could work as branches of the other boxes. For instance, responsibility was created with three main code groups radiating from it: having to get through the curriculum, having to keep pace, and having to please parents. These were all felt much more strongly in the public school than the private school, so the ‘under pressure’ category radiating from ‘emotional response’ could have worked here as a further branch, perhaps with orange colour coding as before.

However, keeping emotional response separate was helpful when considering how the experiences could vary by school type. In the private school, the same responsibility was present, but was experienced in a different way. Here, responsibility to get through the curriculum was related less to emotional response and was more about choice and space – teachers here had time in their day for English and a wider range of higher-quality resources to support them in enriching, rather than simply delivering, the curriculum. Likewise, pressure to please seemed to come from all areas in the public school – pleasing students who demanded to know if what they were learning was on the test, pressure from school administrators wanting to raise student grades or free up students for extracurricular performances, and pressure from parents to give students good grades and have students competing against each other. The code ‘have to please parents’ therefore combines with the emotional response of ‘under pressure’ or even ‘frustrated’ in the public school, but in the private school it links with support from home, as expressed in the ‘tech and home culture’ code.

At this stage, it was helpful to think of ‘lighting up’ different boxes on the concept map when trying to explain the narratives from the interviews, so another round of general re-reading of transcripts was conducted, to try to keep the stories distinct. For example, Public4 was an experienced teacher who spoke of the problem that reading does not come into the curriculum in any meaningful way until year 3. This could be integrated simply through the ‘have to keep pace’ responsibility branch of the concept map. Her phrase “all of a sudden” to describe this shift, and that reading is previously not included “at all”, as well as describing this as “one of the most difficulties that I face” all suggested an emotional

response of frustration. There was perhaps a combination here under the theme of agency, that the teacher felt unable to affect what happened lower down in the school. In this case, ‘choice and space’ did not quite offer what was needed to explain her frustration – perhaps a lack of insight in the early years’ curriculum? A belief in phonics or second language acquisition theory that was not shared by her colleagues? All of the codes in choice and space suggested a desire for individual freedom, so perhaps a sense was lost here that freedom requires support from colleagues to develop slowly learnt literacies and skills, which must be acquired gradually and are not the responsibility of any one teacher. This was helpful to reflect upon as analysis moved to Step Five and themes were to be named in ways that expressed the various meanings within the two datasets.

6.6.5 Step Five: Defining and Naming Themes

Having the quantitative data to aid interpretation of themes across the two samples was helpful in considering how themes could speak for all the teachers in the sample or were distinct experiences of teachers in one particular setting. There is further refining in this stage, with the aim of clarifying the “‘essence’ of what each theme is about” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 92). This involves thinking about the main themes and presenting an account which explains “what is of interest about them and why” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 92).

In this case, there were three main themes which came from the central topic of ‘teacher agency’. It was noted towards the end of the previous section that ‘shared responsibilities’ seemed to be missing from the concept map, and this turned out to be an important stage in developing theme names. It drew reflection on what it meant to have choice and space from administrators. Originally, this was coded very much as it felt at the time – about teachers being given permission to use materials/texts apart from the set texts, given space from the burdens of a curriculum that is unsuitable to the needs of learners. When restrictive, a lack of choice and space was seen by teachers as having their needs deprioritised by administrators more concerned with how the school was presented on social media, or avoiding parents complaining of low grades or too much homework on a Thursday because it is the start of the weekend.

This is where the power of thematic analysis is revealed, and where the analysis offers observation that could not be gained just from working through transcripts repeatedly or trying to collapse codes into ever-tighter groups. Being open to the view that themes can ‘emerge’ at this point of the process, and noticing that the experience of Public4 regarding shared responsibilities was not suitably captured, did help the researcher to think of a new theme. This moved away from the narratives as presented during the interviews, which did have a strong sense of individualism in how teachers spoke of freedom, or the lack thereof. Instead, combining with agency helped the researcher to reflect on what the narratives meant: school administrators and teachers did not share the same goals or sense of responsibilities as to how those goals should be met, which was now organised under a new theme name of ‘teacher beliefs within a culture’. This incorporates the two key constraints of ‘having to please parents’ and ‘having to get through the curriculum’ but still conveys the sense of frustration by adding ‘convincing administrators of the best approach’.

A similar tension could be read into the complaints about parental pressure or interference. It seems unlikely that parents would not want their children to learn to read, raising questions about how to interpret those parts of the interviews where this seemed to be the case. Where a teacher might be frustrated that they cannot set homework for a Thursday (which is the last day of the week in Kuwait, instead of Fridays), parents might be feeling frustrated that teachers are not aware of their after-school commitments. Similarly, there seemed to be a tension in extracurricular activities taking time away from class. Some parents and administrators may be very enthusiastic about these events – indeed, many can be overenthusiastic – but it again seems doubtful that anyone would argue that such events are more important than learning to read.

It is important to refine down to a few key themes, which can be discussed at greater length in Step Six. Specifically, the branches and sub-branches from the earlier diagram showing key themes of ‘emotional response’, ‘choice and space’ and ‘responsibility’ were rearranged around new themes of ‘individualised teacher beliefs’ and ‘teacher beliefs within a culture’. As seen in the following diagram (Figure 24), the ‘responsibility’ theme could be moved in its entirety inside the new ‘teacher beliefs within a culture’ heading, while

‘emotional response’ and ‘choice and space’ were split between the two key themes and some of their sub-themes rephrased.

Finally, the main three themes are: 1) perceived value of teacher agency balanced against shared responsibilities for learning and education, 2) role and limitation in teaching beliefs and learning, and 3) impact of resource availability on teaching and teachers.

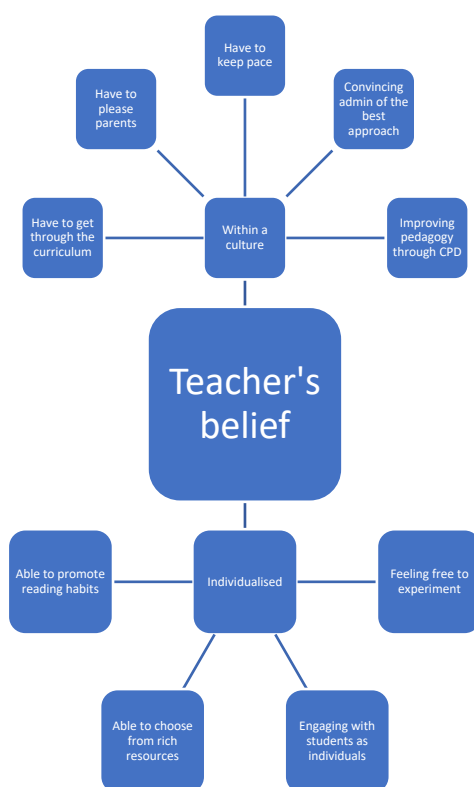


Figure 24: Final Concept Map

6.6.6 Step Six: Producing the Report

A total of 12 teachers (six assigned to public schools and six to private schools) participated in the interviews. The data within the transcripts was subject to the method of thematic analysis described by Braun and Clarke (2006). Data familiarisation and open coding led to the derivation of three themes: 1) perceived value of teacher agency balanced

against shared responsibilities for learning and education, 2) role and limitations in teaching beliefs and learning, and 3) impact of resource availability on teaching and teachers.

These themes highlight the varied views, experiences and factors influencing the teaching of English reading by public and private school teachers, which is information that can contribute to answering the research question. Variances between the views and experiences of teachers across public and private schools are defined where appropriate in-text, in order to highlight potential factors influencing the learning of primary school children in Kuwait. The findings are presented below across three thematic subheadings.

Theme 1: Perceived value of teacher agency balanced against shared responsibilities for learning and education

This first theme identifies the similarities and differences in teacher responses to questions centred around the factors influencing the education of students, which comprised both teacher-related and non-teacher-related influences. Most participants stated that due to the very nature of the teaching profession and their underlying motives for entering into teaching, they held important and direct responsibilities for the education, learning and development of students. This was particularly evident across teachers as they identified that, as a profession, they spent a substantial amount of time with students on a daily basis and thus had a clear responsibility to educate students in the absence of alternative options, such as home learning or one-to-one private tuition.

“we are teachers ... our duty is to teach ... it is a great responsibility and one we must uphold throughout our careers” [private 1]

“spent the same time with students as their parents ... our influence is the same” [private 2]

However, other teachers did not appear to express the same level of agency for student learning and development; this was apparent among the responses of public school teachers,

more than private school teachers. For example, a public school teacher acknowledged that they were in a position of responsibility for teaching English reading but that much of the learning potential and performance of students fell outside their control. This respondent also stated that teaching was a dynamic process that not only relied upon teachers' skills and knowledge but also the direction, guidance and support of parents of students – the contribution from both parties promoting ideal learning of students.

“we are as teachers, responsible for education, but we cannot control whether students learn” [public 4]

“the parents also affect learning ... most subjects require input and work at home” [public 4]

In contrast, a private school teacher noted that it was their professional and utmost duty to optimise the learning of all students; this appeared to be independent from relying upon parental education outside of the classroom environment. However, private school teachers did acknowledge that promoting parental education and self-learning of English reading could enhance the academic performance of students, by helping to combine knowledge learnt in the classroom and by advancing English reading fluency through repetition and practice. Such teachers placed less emphasis on the role of students' parents in supporting the learning of English reading, with one respondent denying that parental input was very occasionally required to address any lacks in private school education.

“we are the only profession to influence students' lives both now and in the future ... we try hard and anything less is not acceptable” [private 3]

“parental support is useful ... we together can progress students' learning of English to a high level” [private 2]

Most teachers, across both public and private schools, responded with statements to ensure that the teaching of English reading was consistent with educational curricula and projected to meet performance expectations and predefined goals. However, there were some

slight differences in the views of private and public school teachers, with the former often seeking to exceed expectations, while the latter tended to emphasise the importance of projecting students towards meeting academic expectations, but holding little belief that students would or could exceed English reading targets.

“we strive to teach students to a level of or higher than the curricula expects” [private 4]

“the teaching is guided by students’ ability ... in some cases these has to change from the curriculum ... and expectations decrease as a result” [public 5]

Such responses appear to reflect variances in the duration of experience and intrinsic passion of participants in teaching English reading. Some teachers used passion for English teaching by reporting that they thoroughly enjoyed their role and always wanted new and interesting ways to try and enhance the learning of students. However, other teachers appeared less passionate about teaching English reading, reporting reasons varying from lack of fluency in speaking the English language to a lack of desire to teach students a non-native language, due to perception of cultural tradition. One teacher even reported that they disliked teaching English reading, as it was a difficult language to learn and teach others, but also one that would simply drive students away from Kuwait in the future, in instances where children pursued careers outside of the education system.

“teaching has also been a fun and enjoyable job ... I do not remember a time when I disliked teaching ... it is very rewarding” [public 4]

“teaching English is very difficult ... I do not speak good English ... but the system expects me to teach ... this is frustrating and a great burden” [public 2]

Teachers across both public and private schools also reported that their capacity to teach students was limited by higher administration restrictions and institutional cultures, which tended to dictate the curricula, teaching approaches and resources allowed and available to support student learning. The issue of resource availability and access is further described within theme three. As a result of such higher influences, teachers reported feeling restricted

by higher powers and this directly affected the quality of teaching and, in turn, perceptions of students' learning of English reading.

“the higher staff and the system ... it limits our teaching methods and dictates our ability to use resources to help improve student learning” [public 1]

Moreover, some teachers reported having prior conflicts with the administration staff regarding various issues. Instead of promoting resolution of said problems, conflicts tended to widen the disconnection between education systems. This was viewed by teachers as representing a failure of the education system, but one that was largely outside their control. In contrast, some teachers in private schools reported that they had more desirable relationships with the administration staff and this helped to optimise the quality and effectiveness of education, by allowing teachers to alter curricula and cultures in accordance with the individual needs of students. One participant reported that they had freedom of choice regarding the ways in which they could teach students. This appeared to show enjoyment for both teachers and students, and even with improvements in students' English reading performance.

“I have had an argument with some staff ... our aim is to teach students and yet their aim seems to be the opposite ... I don't know how this can be resolved” [public 2]

“we tend to use mixed methods depending upon students' needs ... I like the freedom as I can be creative in the classroom ... this helps students to engage in the learning process” [private 6]

Participants' capacity to teaching English reading was also reported to be influenced by parental views and pressures. On the one hand, teachers desired to educate students to a predefined level of English reading, but this conflicted with the expectations of parents: some lacked a desire for their children to learn the English language, while others were more supportive and encouraged teachers to exceed academic expectations. Furthermore, some

teachers reported frustration in not being able to set homework on certain days of the week, as this would not be completed due to cultural and other life commitments that parents wanted their children involved in. Homework was seen to be a critical part of teaching English reading, as teachers believed that linking information taught in the classroom and practising reading was key to advancing fluency, as well as both meeting and exceeding academic performance expectations. Therefore, there was a strong sense that teachers were committed to both pleasing parents and avoiding conflict, as any educational support outside the classroom was desired to help teachers meet academic targets.

“parents expect their children to become effective learners and exceed all expectations but this is not always possible and this leads to difficult discussions” [public 1]

“we try our best ... setting homework ... but sometimes this is rejected, parents say it’s not convenient but I am not sure what is going on if they want their child to learn” [private 3]

Theme 2: Role and limitations of teaching beliefs and learning

This second theme builds on the findings of the first theme by highlighting teachers’ views, beliefs, perceptions and the various factors limiting in teaching and learning English reading. First, when asked about the term ‘self-efficacy’, teachers tended to describe it as a quality of students that accepted, embraced and sustained the desire to learn and advance English reading ability. However, not all teachers appeared to fully understand the concept, with some describing self-efficacy as students relying on themselves to learn a subject. In another case, self-efficacy was described as the ability or willingness of students to educate themselves in the absence of input from others.

“self-efficacy ... I see as an attribute, something that enables students to enjoy learning, accept its purpose and to help advance learning to higher levels” [private 5]

“something that students require in themselves to be able to learn” [public 1]

Notably, teachers reporting more accurate definitions of self-efficacy also recognised that there were marked differences in the self-efficacy of students learning English reading. Some students were committed and dedicated to learning by expressing intense concentration, desiring to practise reading at all possible opportunities, engaging in homework activities and adopting self-educational measures outside of the classroom to enhance learning. In contrast, other students were seeming to have low self-efficacy, as they were distractible, failed to concentrate in the classroom, rarely completed homework and almost never attempted to embrace new ways to support their learning of English reading.

“students with a strong ability to self-educate ... at home, with homework and even in wider aspects of life” [private 2]

“some cannot learn, they are distracted by other things ... can’t concentrate and are not reactive to the support we provide them with” [public 2]

The level of students was also described by teachers in other ways. Some participants reported that students were not inspired or felt no enjoyment in learning English reading, despite knowing that learning the language could help to enhance their future. However, teachers did note that it was difficult for students to self-project themselves into the future, given their young age and limited life experience in understanding the external world and how life operates. Moreover, teachers reported that students lacked belief in themselves, were lacking in self-confidence and held erroneous views that they were not able to learn or perform to a desirable academic level.

“it was clear in some situations that students simply don’t enjoy English ... we do explain why learning is important” [public 1]

“students lack belief in themselves, confidence is low ... both affect learning” [private 3]

As a result of such observations, teachers found these students adopted passive and non-engaging roles in the classroom, with minimally expressive and avoidant body language, which directly affected concentration and learning capacity. Furthermore, teachers noted that these students avoided learning or practising English reading, even after receiving one-to-one support or an invitation to express their views or read aloud in the classroom. As a consequence, teachers held concerns for students lacking self-confidence and a willingness to learn English, despite its marked difficulty as a subject. This brought feelings of uncertainty and hopelessness on how to tackle the problem, particularly in the absence of parental and the administration support.

“students adopt a non-leaning position, head down, no eye contact, just non-engaging, teaching is then impossible” [public 4]

In contrast, private school teachers tended to find that students held more positive attitude towards learning English reading. Such students were reported to have a natural ability to learn new subjects and learning material for both clear and unclear reasons. Teachers reported that such students were easily engaged, concentrated in all classes, desired and were driven to learn English reading both within and outside the classroom environment, and actively participated in practising reading within small groups and out loud. Moreover, teachers found these students performed to academic expectations and often exceeded performance criteria – more so than appeared to be apparent among students in public schools.

“you can see students who are going to excel ... intense concentration and a natural desire to learn and become better at English” [private 2]

“some students who concentrate in class do well but not always to my predictions as the English teacher” [public 4]

However, it was apparent that teachers considered that students rarely embraced a challenge in learning English reading; they became stuck when faced with difficult learning

and relied on teachers to progress them through the difficulties, without utilising their own creativity or estimation. Teachers desired more students to develop and enhance their skills, however, there was consistent uncertainty and a lack of knowledge on how teachers could support students in this regard.

“English is a hard language to learn, most students become stuck and this challenge of learning is not used to their advantage” [private 6]

Notably, one private school teacher stated that they intended to meet with the administration staff and higher educational authorities to help address the current lack of reading skill among primary school students across Kuwait. This respondent suggested that a global lack among students was not only a factor compounding the learning of primary school students in English reading, among other subjects, but it also hindered learning, development and progress in later education. Thus, it was viewed that improving the encouragement skills so students would believe in themselves across the board could help to improve the quality and prospects of students entering and exiting the educational system; this is a factor that was also projected to benefit Kuwait as a developing nation.

“I have tried once to address the problems affecting our ability as teachers but with some resistance ... we cannot educate our young children to become good learners in higher education” [public 3]

Finally, teachers mainly in public schools recognised that they lacked ongoing education and training in novel ways to teach students. This was viewed to not only impact on the quality of teaching and the learning of students, but also on their ability to inspire and sustain students' enjoyment of learning. In turn, teachers reported that inspiration and enjoyment of learning were factors likely to promote increases their attitude towards teaching in turn, this could ensure learning progressed on a route towards meeting and/or exceeding academic expectations.

“we do not get training opportunities ... we rely on our past experiences to direct our teaching methods” [public 5]

Participants reported that their approach to teaching English reading relied on their experience and past observations of other teachers. They had little time to engage in observational practices, due to time constraints within the education system and the intensive learning needs of students. Thus, they were forced to adopt their own ways of teaching or be guided by institutional guidelines. This presented teachers with further uncertainty regarding how to improve the education of students. In some cases, trials of teaching methods were employed, to help identify the most effective ways to enhance students' learning of English reading. However, given that the varied methods of teaching attempted could not be reliably correlated against performance criteria.

“the pressure is high, we have large classrooms of students and little time to come up with new ways of teaching or in providing support for students who need more attention” [public 2]

“I do not know how teaching can be changed ... we are restricted” [public 1]

Theme 3: Impact of resource availability on teaching and teachers

This final theme highlights another important factor influencing the education and learning of students in regard to English reading: resource access and availability. Teachers reported that English reading education relied heavily on the use of text books. However, access to books was limited in public schools where teachers noted that the libraries were poorly stocked and the content of available books was not always appropriate to the level of learning students were undertaking. In contrast, a greater variety of appropriate books were available to students in private schools. Private school teachers noted that greater funding helped to source such materials to boost English reading education.

“text-books are used as the main material to support English learning ... we use them to read and practise all the time” [public 1]

“we have a range of books, differing topics, various levels of ability” [private 5]

However, teachers in private schools also found that some of the books designed to support English reading education were either over the level or under the curricula expectations. Teachers even reported that students admitted that the resources were not ideal for supporting their English reading practice, as they were often centred around topics of no clear or believable interest to students. In effect, such materials were lacking in age-appropriateness, which ultimately lacked students’ interest in attempting to practise reading the English text. It appeared that the front covers of books and magazines were markedly influential over student learning; the front cover illustrations were the students’ primary source of observing whether the content would be enjoyable or interesting to read.

“the books are not always ideal for practising English reading ... students find them too hard or too simple” [private 1]

“the students tend to pick books to practise reading based on the images ... this does not seem to help learning” [private 3]

Other resources used to support student learning of English reading were audio and video materials, which were either played on dated equipment (such as CD players or televisions) or via online platforms accessible through the internet. Although teachers found these resources supported and stimulated students in practising English reading and to overcome difficulties in learning English, the availability of such equipment was varied and directly affected the learning.

“modern technology ... it is good to support teaching with different sensations of learning ... hearing, visualising with reading ... however, we rarely have this equipment” [public 6]

The internet was much more readily available in private schools, compared to public schools. As online platforms contained markedly useful learning content to support English reading, teachers admitted that this was an important factor contributing to the academic success of students in private education. In contrast, teachers working in public schools reported that the media content used to supplement English reading education was not always appropriate to students' learning abilities. In addition, there was a lack of variation in the content available, with teachers often having to use the same content to support various aspects of the English reading curricula, while recognising that such approaches were outside of their control.

“the internet is a great help ... there is so much material out there to help English learning” [private 4]

“the content is sometimes lacking similarity to the level of students in the class” [public 2]

Furthermore, teachers found that education could not always be completed by the use of content played through audio and video equipment, as such technology had to be shared across classrooms and this restricted use to specific days of the week. This meant that the content could not always be used at times in the educational curricula where it could benefit students the most. In addition to the sharing of technological equipment, teachers also found that such equipment was unreliable, as it often broke down and was out of action for extended periods of time. This meant that teachers continually relied on their own in teaching English reading.

“we share equipment with other teachers ... it is not always prioritised for English teaching” [public 4]

“it [technology] is also unreliable, breaking down and then we cannot use for long time” [public 1]

Aside from the limitations of resources to support English reading education already reported, teachers also found that their own level of English fluency impacted on the ability to utilise such resources. In some cases, teachers felt confident and able to utilise resources to support English reading education, as they were sufficiently fluent in both reading and speaking the English language, as well as translating English and Arabic. However, other teachers felt less able and confident when using available resources, due to a lack of fluency in the English language; these teachers relied on materials they were familiar with.

“we teach English but it is not our first language ... we are limited by our abilities in English both speaking and reading” [public 2]

Access to resources to support English reading education outside of the classroom (at home) also impacted on the education of students. Indeed, teachers often relied on students practising reading at home, in order to motivate, support and advance classroom learning. But home reading was lacking to access to appropriate reading content. Teachers reported that parents were not always able to afford books for their children, or that parents purchased books that were not appropriate to the English reading level of their children. Moreover, schools in both the public and private sectors did not have the capacity to lend books out to students, as few copies of the same book were in short supply. Teachers reported that in an ideal world, children would be provided with the same book to support English reading practice and learning in the classroom for all students.

“we like parents to help us teach children English at home but parents also have no access to equipment and materials to do this” [public 3]

“books are also in short supply ... we can’t co-ordinate teaching as students cannot read the same book each at home” [public 6]

6.7 Combining the Data

Following the separate analyses, combining the data returns to the research questions to compare the separate findings to see how the data sources offer different insights which can be supplemented with ideas from the literature review. The first insight is that there are substantial differences, observed in both data types, between the type of school. Indeed, the mean scores are so high in the private school that the experience of teaching reading in English in these schools seems remarkable, in terms of teachers' self-efficacy scale. The public school respondents seem more in line with the normal TSES profile, still with moderate-to-high ratings and a standard deviation slightly lower than the original TSES. This matched closely with how teachers in the different settings spoke of efficacy, such as whether they found curriculum demands manageable or not.

Differences were also evident in how some negative codes are only used in the qualitative data from the public school teachers, such as students misbehaving to resist reading in English, which did not come up as a topic in the private school data. However, there were also similarities, such as when teachers indicated that student engagement was something they had less control over, compared to more teacher-focused efficacies in the classroom management and instructional strategies scales.

There was some discussion in the interviews regarding student beliefs, ranging from certain students who appeared to have intrinsic motivation through to those who would refuse to believe that they could read. Moreover, student reluctance to read was often discussed in terms of students being shy, with examples of students who would read to the teacher during breaks or who could be encouraged to read with a little prompting and reassurance. Looking back on these discussions, it appears that in the public school, 'reading in class' may be interpreted mainly as 'reading aloud', such as going around the class with each student reading a few sentences. Thus, it is possible that being unwilling to read is combine in the public school with being unwilling to read aloud to the class. This could be an issue worth exploring further; while reluctance to read aloud can be associated with a lack of fluency (Paige et al., 2012), even highly proficient readers may be reluctant to read aloud because they feel embarrassed (Nurlaelah, 2019). Furthermore, reading aloud as a productive pedagogical strategy requires establishing a suitable classroom climate and making reading

aloud a regular, comfortable routine (Landreth, 2018). Indeed, in a competitive and exam-oriented setting, students may be entirely reasonable in their reluctance to read aloud.

Combining the data from across these various sources may have highlighted where efficacy is over-individualised. This may happen at the level of individual students, as well as teachers. The students who feel too shy to read are also in those classes where teachers are trying to create a classroom climate in which mistakes are seen as valuable learning experiences. It is difficult to accommodate these values – students need to feel able to make mistakes in front of their peers, if they are all going to be able to learn together. So too must teachers feel that they are building on the work of previous teachers when they take over a class, and that all teachers are working together to engage with learner needs, in ways which are developmentally appropriate and are based on the best available knowledge of how children learn to read in a second language.

Integrating the quantitative and qualitative data for each research question leads to the following claims:

1. *What are the teachers' beliefs or perceptions about teaching English reading in private and public primary schools in Kuwait?*

Teachers' beliefs at the individual level relate to the extent to which teachers felt free to innovate and choose from available resources, such that more choice and freedom. This could be partly explained by teachers seeing that in very general terms. It may be the case that, in contrast with Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy (2001), teacher efficacy in this context was more conceptualised as relating to either the individual or the school level, rather than seeing distinctions between instructional strategies, classroom management or student engagement. This is particularly evident during discussions of external pressure from parents or administrators which, at certain times of the week or year, can require teachers to completely change their teaching.

2. *Do the levels of self-efficacy among teachers differ between private and public primary Kuwaiti schools?*

Availability of resources affected individual efficacy ratings, with the better library and resource provisions in private schools associated with higher efficacy. A richer range of available books and more class time were key factors at the individual level. At the ‘within a culture’ level, access to professional development was a key in private schools but a limiting factor in public schools, where the provision of continuing professional development CPD was generally described in negative terms. Teachers in the private schools also spoke of the curriculum as a limitation that could be satisfied and then built upon, whereas the experience in public school settings was discussed more in terms of not having the time or resources to ‘get through’ the curriculum, making it a much more limiting than in the private schools. Incorporating the quantitative data, where the strongest differences were found for student engagement, suggests that there may also be a difference not just in the schools but in the students themselves, with students in the private school more receptive to their teachers and therefore acting as loudspeakers of teacher efficacy.

3. *What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?*

Access to high-quality professional development, well-stocked libraries, and a range of texts that engaged students were key factors in how teachers expressed their view in influential teaching, both within the culture and individually. Of these, the quality of professional development may be loosely associated with increased teacher experience, although it may carry a stronger effect in private schools than in public schools, because of differences in the quality of professional development available. This may be especially true for student engagement, particularly in the private school, where more experienced teachers feel more able to exercise their self-efficacy in supporting students learning to read.

6.8 Discussion

In summary, this research sought to investigate the role of self-efficacy in teaching English reading within Kuwait public and private schools, and this discussion component is from the perspectives of teachers. This was conducted in response to several knowledge gaps; uncertainty of how teachers can enhance the learning of students in English reading, the factors influencing student learning of English, and the differences in English reading performance and the factors influencing learning and such performance in public and private school students in Kuwait. Based on a 12 teachers, the thematic analysis identified three pertinent themes: 1) perceived value of teacher agency balanced against shared responsibilities for learning and education, 2) role and limitations in teaching beliefs and learning, and 3) impact of resource availability on teaching and teachers.

The perceived value of teacher agency balanced against shared responsibilities for learning and education, defined the concept of agency as ‘the capacity to act’. This concept has observed increasing attention across educational literature and practice, worldwide, due to its marked influence over student engagement and the support of engagement during learning (Priestley, 2015). Indeed, theorists and educationalists have previously observed that the desires and behaviours of students to learn and develop themselves, both inter-personally and professionally, receive greater influence from social forces, as opposed to extra-social factors, such as educational culture or access to resources (Pantić et al., 2021). This may suggest that students’ willingness to learn English reading in this study depended and varied in accordance with differences in teacher agency, their passion for the subject being taught, and their ability to inspire students to learn. However, agency is a complex phenomenon to describe and one that has received varied definitions; some opposing to the former definition and implying that agency is a quality that can be acquired and exists on a spectrum to shape the ability of teachers to influence student learning (Priestley, 2015).

In addition, the acquisition and impact of teacher agency is reported to depend upon prior teaching experience (thus the duration of teaching may have influenced the ability of students to learn English reading), as well as being centred around future goals (academic performance), but weakened by what teachers may view as academically possible given limited funding, resources and the maturity and self-efficacy of students (Leijen, Pedaste, &

Baucal, 2021). Wider literature has also revealed that teachers utilise agency to adapt to or resist aspects of educational approaches and policies, thus suggesting (in line with teachers' accounts in this study) that student learning could also be influenced by the guidelines and curricula imposed upon teachers within Kuwait (Buchanan, 2015; Lockton & Fargason, 2019). In addition, the literature also suggests that teacher agency is considered by the cultural degrees of schools, with reports that culture shapes the passion of teachers to draw on all learning opportunities to benefit the performance and prospects of students (Datnow & Hubbard, 2002). Furthermore, teachers who have sufficient agency have also been found to act as key change agents within educational contexts – change agents that seek to stimulate and ensure reform, in order to improve the quality of teaching and the academic attainment of students (Pantić et al., 2021).

In view of the importance of agency in the learning process as discussed across the wider literature, agency in the specific context of Kuwait schools was found in this study to centre around pressure and effectiveness in completing set curricula and in using resources available to support learning and assist students in self-/parent-directed learning. However, this accompanied with teacher-related stress and frustration because of the challenges in competing curricula, as many students required intensive support to attain a desired level of English reading. This was not always possible to achieve, due to the inability to students to utilise self-/parent-direct learning and the resource limitations within public schools. Indeed, a body of evidence has also revealed that public teachers who taught within resource-limited settings frequently encounter distress, in response to recognition that their students are unlikely to achieve desired learning objectives or a specific level of performance in examinations (Anwar, Ishak, & Khan, 2012; Herman, Hickmon-Rosa, & Reinke, 2017). Teacher-related distress has also been correlated with poor academic performance in resource-d countries, further confirming that the qualities of teachers and their adaptation to difficult situations are more influential on the academic performance of students, compared to extra-social factors (Brady & Wilson, 2021; Ramberg, Brodin Låftman, Åkerstedt, & Modin, 2020).

Previous studies related to the study conducted here have also referred to the importance of teacher agency and self-efficacy in driving student learning of English reading. First,

Alibakhshi, Abdollahi, and Nezakatgoo (2021) explored the views and perceptions of 15 language teachers in Iran, to identify the individual, institutional and educational backgrounds of self-efficacy. They found that those with the highest self-efficacy had verbal intelligence skills, an intrinsic and strong motivation for teaching, prolonged teaching experience, high teaching literacy, proficiency with information technology, high job satisfaction, and literacy within aspects of classroom management. Although teachers in this study did not report on all of these factors within their accounts, teaching experience, verbal intelligence and classroom management did emerge as consistent factors that influenced teachers' perceptions. The cited authors also revealed that quality of work life, support from teaching colleagues and support from school leaders also influenced self-efficacy, as did prior attendance at courses designed to boost teaching quality, dynamicity and efficacy (Alibakhshi et al., 2021). Indeed, teachers in this study also noted that a lack of support and ongoing education and development opportunities were factors that hindered generic teaching quality and the their perceptions on teaching.

In another study exploring the views and perceptions of teachers responsible for English education of primary school students in Korea, Lee (2009) found that the most consistent factors perceived to influence teaching efficacy were teachers' attitudes toward the English language, teachers' proficiency in speaking and reading English, plus varied teacher characteristics. Indeed, teachers interviewed in this study did not provide direct responses to suggest that attitudes towards the English language were poor; however, some teachers did identify that their proficiency in the English language was a factor hindering the effectiveness of teaching. In the context of language education in general terms, most teachers are rarely completely fluent within multiple languages, a quality that can markedly benefit teaching efficacy and student performance. However, in resource-limited settings, such as Kuwait, it is unlikely that teachers are able to reach ideal proficiency in English (Cheng, 2019). This may be due to limited access to supportive resources, development courses and having little to no opportunity to engage themselves in English-speaking countries to enhance their range of English-speaking skills (Shuqair & Dashti, 2019).

In a recent study of 150 English teachers in Kuwait, Almusawi, BinAli, and Alqallaf (2019) found that there were consistent shortages in both knowledge and proficiency in

teaching across most participants, thereby highlighting the poor willingness and readiness of teachers to teaching English reading to young students. Notably, the authors not only found that there was a lack of correlation between teachers' knowledge and proficiency with student performance but there was no correlation between teaching efficacy and the hours of training completed, which suggests that the quality of teaching education and support within Kuwait is poor, requiring immediate attention and revision at the policy level (Almusawi et al., 2019). In response to the limited resources for teachers in Kuwait to support English reading learning, as identified in this study, there were reports from some teachers that they attempted to adapt to the restrictions of the education system and its facilities by using an individualised or 'trial and error'-based approach to delivering education. In effect, some teachers found that they were able to better engage and inspire students to learn English by utilising more creative approaches to teaching the language, such as role play and acting. Indeed, a range of research studies have showed that many English language teachers, among teachers of other languages, use creative approaches to teaching, as these usually lead to improvements in student engagement, enjoyment and academic performance, compared to approaches that employ traditional teaching techniques (Hana & Hacene, 2017; Mota Pereira, 2016; Richards, 2013). However, teachers operating within developing nations, particularly in Arabic regions, observe some confusion and uncertainty over the meaning of creativity and/or how to include creativity into the classroom to support student learning (Hana & Hacene, 2017). Thus, not all teachers in Kuwait may be placed or prepared to deliver high-quality English education for primary school children, further highlighting shortages in teaching training.

Teachers in this study also believed that the English teaching was hindered by the inability to provide personalised and one-to-one education, instead having to employ group-based approaches to teaching, leaving them uncertain about the use of content, level of content, and extent of teaching of English reading. Personalised education is highly desired for young students of both primary and secondary school age, given that such education can be tailored to suit the individual needs of students. This not only increases student enjoyment and engagement with learning but also promotes self-directed learning, in the absence of parent or teacher pressure to advance learning beyond curricula expectations (Xu, 2021). However, in view of the limited number of teachers and the growing number of students in Kuwait schools, as well as wider issues in increasing teacher-student relations such as limited

funding and migration of native teachers, personalised education may never be feasible (Alobaid, 2006). Despite this, private schools in Kuwait tend to have fewer students within classrooms, offering teachers more opportunity to tailor education to the varied needs and abilities of students, compared to teaching in public schools where classroom sizes are much larger, which prevents the ability to tailor education (Alfelaij, 2016).

In response to the inability of teachers to modify the education system to improve teacher-student relations, as a means of enhancing student learning, teachers may instead advocate self-directed and parent-directed learning to support any shortages in individual education that cannot be met within the classroom environment (Al-Fadley et al., 2018). This study also identified that teachers desired to use information technology to support English reading education but the limited access to equipment and software and the poor proficiency of both teachers and students in using advanced technology acted as a hindrance to teaching and learning, which has also been supported in a prior study of teachers in Kuwait (Alfelaij, 2016). In addition, technical factors were also found to obstruct the use of information technology in some education settings, including slow internet speeds, poor availability of computers, limited access to technology repair and maintenance services, and high costs of technology (Alfelaij, 2016). Not all of these issues were evident among teacher interviews in this study, but it is reasonable to assume that these factors would have hindered the quality of English reading education provided to primary school students, given the sufficient representation of teachers included in the study of Alfelaij (2016).

Finally, this study identified that teachers of students with learning difficulties or who had lagged behind in performance observed a degree of hopelessness for learning. This appeared to be due to uncertainties of how teachers could address the differences in student abilities, without support from the education system or the students' parents. Indeed, prior research has also found that English language teachers observe similar hopelessness in resource-poor countries, due to the simple lack of wider opportunities for students to support classroom-based learning with material and content from different information sources (Aldaihani, 2010). Such insights are in complete difference to teachers operating in resource-rich countries where education can be enhanced by different information sources, particularly

when access to materials and the internet is widespread, simple and available (Aldaihani, 2010).

While this study has provided valuable insight into the views of teachers regarding their belief and students' performance in learning English reading, the findings must be considered in view of some methodological limitations, as discussed in the following subsection.

6.8.1 Implications for Educational Practice

Despite some limitations, the findings of this study have important implications for ongoing educational practice. It is imperative that teachers and educational bodies develop a means to support students in developing and strengthening their reading performance, as this may promote meaningful improvements in learning and performance in the future.

From the qualitative findings of this study, it is clear that teachers require various measures to supplement education, with the intensity of need differing between public and private schools. It is recommended that public school teachers are provided with learning and development opportunities, to assist in enhancing their passion, desire and drive to provide higher quality education for students. However, such teachers will require support in the form of more staff, to allow teaching in smaller groups and, in some cases on a one-to-one basis, as well as greater funding and increases in resources to supplement English reading education. In private schools, it is advised that teachers displaying qualities consistent with ideal education and student performance are used as role models, to assist in supporting and training other teachers in both private and public schools, in order to benefit student learning across Kuwait. Finally, a national campaign is needed to help improve the awareness of parents in supporting their children's education outside of the classroom, given that the ongoing limitations of education in Kuwait are likely to need some time to improve.

6.8.2 Conclusion and Recommendations for Research

In summary, this mixed-methods research explored self-efficacy in teaching and learning English reading among primary school students in Kuwait. The findings identified that self-efficacy is not only critical for equipping students with the desire, knowledge and skills to learn English but also for sustaining engagement in education. Various factors limit the

capacity of teachers to teach English reading in public and private schools and therefore, efforts are needed to address the varied problems that will simply continue to appear in the absence of awareness and involvement at the policy level. Finally, further research is needed to build on the findings of this study, to explore whether a more direct relationship exists between self-efficacy and academic performance more generally (subjects other than English reading). In addition, similar research to this study is needed to explore whether similar findings exist across other primary and secondary school contexts. Further research should also explore the factors influencing parental support of English reading, as this may highlight additional avenues to address the current and ongoing differences in academic performance.

Chapter 7: Conclusion and Recommendations

7.1 Introduction

This final chapter provides a reminder of the main aims of the study and what has been done. This is followed by an overview of the key findings, before outlining what has been learnt in terms of each research question. Reflecting on how these questions have been addressed, and after which the limitations identified in the current study and new questions arising. Recommendations for future research are offered, to show how this study could support progression to address gaps related to the original aims of the study. Following this discussion of the potential theoretical impact of this study is an overview of implications for practice and potential future research. Finally, some reflections are offered on the thesis as a learning journey and the impact of this study at a personal level.

As a reminder, this study was centred around reading in English language education for primary school children in Kuwait and wondering whether self-efficacy could help to explain some differences in attitudes to reading or reading ability. In this regard and as a reminder, the study's three main objectives are:

1. Determine whether there is a difference in self-efficacy in primary private and public school children learning of reading in English, and whether educational efforts are required to assist children in acquiring this skill prior to, rather than during or after, a period of learning.
2. Identify whether there is a difference in teachers' self-efficacy and the teaching and learning of reading in English among primary private and public school children, and use this information to inform revisions to continuous professional development curricula.
3. Identify the factors promoting and hindering the learning of reading in English language among school children, to inform changes to educational approaches and curricula that will favour more effective and efficient learning of the language.

By comparing practices in EFL classes, there was also the opportunity to reflect on pedagogical change in Kuwait, because of recent policy shifts towards CLT approaches. Thus, teachers beliefs about teaching, use of English, reading and student efficacy would all be relevant to the wider discussion of how both students and their teachers experience teaching and learning. Having a point of comparison between public and private schools added a further dimension to the discussion. Specific research questions were formed to guide the data collection and analysis (copied into the following Table 39, for convenience).

Table 39: Reminder of Research Questions

| | |
|---|--|
| 1 | What is the role of self-efficacy in the teaching and learning of reading English among private and public primary schools in Kuwait? |
| 2 | Do the levels of self-efficacy and reading outcome among primary students differ between private and public primary Kuwaiti schools? |
| 3 | What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait? |
| 4 | Do the levels of self-efficacy among teachers differ between private and public primary Kuwaiti schools? |
| 5 | What are the teachers' belief or perceptions about teaching English reading in private and public primary schools in Kuwait? |

It was argued in the methodology chapter that the importance of local context and lack of similar research in this area provided a rationale for a mixed-methods design, but that this would not go so far as to establish a case study and might still have some ambitions towards generalisation. For this reason, some well-established research tools, while not used extensively in a Middle East context, were included in the quantitative part of the study. With minimal language adaptations to make the survey tool more accessible to respondents, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2001) Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale provided numerical data to compare between sites. Likewise, Wigfield and Guthrie's (1997) Motivation for Reading Questionnaire was used with students, again with minimal adaptations. Students also

completed the New Group Reading Test, to compare their reading comprehension abilities. In support of these three sources of numerical data, parents completed a demographics questionnaire, to give helpful context about students' experiences of reading at home, while semi-structured interviews were carried out extensively with students and teachers at both study sites. Working across these different data types in a process of triangulation helped to explore emerging findings and interpretations, giving a useful balance of numerical and narrative data that fitted with Kettley's (2010) description of mixed-methods analysis in educational research.

7.2 Main Findings

When considering, in its broadest sense, the potential role of self-efficacy on EFL reading pedagogies, the general approach taken in the present study was to start with insights from the quantitative data which were then explored in the qualitative data. One of the most striking insights from the quantitative data was the difference between public and private schools. This was apparent for students, parents and teachers. The demographic information from parents gave some useful insights into the home environment, where students attending the private school were more likely to see reading modelled in the home and routinely see books around their home environment. This was not always consistently the case regarding books in English, but there was a clear distinction in English books being far more common in the homes of students attending the private school.

For students themselves, the NGRT results showed substantial differences in reading ability, with performance much higher in the private school. Likewise, the private school sample reported much more positive attitudes on the MRQ, although relationships between responses at the individual level were more varied. Some MRQ items were able to model NGRT performance, but the differences in MRQ ratings between the two school types were much smaller than those found in NGRT performance. Thus, in terms of self-efficacy beliefs rather than just performance, differences were not as substantial as might have been expected. As discussed in earlier chapters, there is some literature supporting the view that parental education level is a predictor of student academic achievement (Caponera & Losito, 2016;

Desimone, 1999), due mostly to educational and economic capital, but perhaps with some genetic contribution too.

Among teachers, there were substantial differences in self-efficacy ratings across every measure, whether in public or private school. Even with allowances for the small sample size, differences were statistically significant and, on every measure, showed the same trend of ratings being much higher in the private school and for more experienced teachers. One of the obvious challenges to self-efficacy ratings is that these are self-evaluations, so the extent to which teachers feel they are able to do something well may not match with how others view their performance, or indeed if or how such efficacies lead to improved student outcomes. Also, the difference between school types does not directly address the question of the impact of such efficacies specific to teaching and learning reading in English. Here, the interview data helped to address this aspect of the question, by highlighting how discussions of teachers' belief tended to focus on teachers' freedom to improve and create and the range of high-quality teaching and learning resources available to them and their students. The thematic analysis also suggested that there could be different sources and influences on the teachers in the two types of school, particularly in how professional learning was experienced. It will be recalled from the literature review that the main source of developing self-efficacy is thought to be "experience in overcoming obstacles through persistent effort" (Bandura, 1997, p. 80), which may help to relate higher self-efficacy among the private school teachers to their positive descriptions of having freedom to try new things and being supported by their school's leadership and parents. Relating more specifically to professional learning, Bandura also argues that another key source of self-efficacy is seeing peers overcoming similar challenges, so the higher number of years of experience among teachers in the private school could be part of the reasoning here.

7.2.1 RQ1

Central Question: What is the role of self-efficacy in the teaching and learning of reading English among private and public primary schools in Kuwait?

Differences in self-efficacy appear to relate to differences between private and public schools as identified in the staff and student data. Combined with the literature review, this suggests that self-efficacy is a useful way of thinking about the reasons for differences in attitude or performance based on measures such as a teacher feeling that they have effective professional learning opportunities, students having more access to English-language children's books in their home, or how students perform on a reading test. It is suggested that self-efficacy may help to explain where teachers in the private school felt more supported and freer to innovate, showing how self-efficacy can impact on pedagogy. For students, self-efficacy may be a useful way to explain some differences in performance, perhaps around motivation to read.

7.2.2 RQ2

Do the levels of Self-efficacy and reading outcome among primary students differ between private and public primary Kuwaiti schools?

Between the public and private sectors, there are differences in the student experience. Higher test scores and more positive assessments on the MRQ scales in the private school suggest this. While the extent and type of these differences varied between the two time groups, the general trend indicates that pupils at the private school are more efficacious and perform better. This does not, however, establish whether variations in performance are connected to efficacy or if both are boosted by another variable related to the school type or even the students' home lives. Examining the subscales and developing a model with multiple predictors can help to demonstrate how self-efficacy and performance might be related in the two school types. While there are few students of comparable ability when comparing the two school types (i.e., even the lowest scorers in the private school tend to outperform the highest scorers in the public school), the multiple predictor model suggests that the change in NGRT test score between the two sample points may be related to self-efficacy ratings, but that the influence may be affected by other unknown variables and might affect the lower scoring students more than it does the higher scoring students.

7.2.3 RQ3

What are the perceptions of teachers and learners about the factors influencing English reading development in public and private primary schools in Kuwait?

Remembering from the literature review that the role of context is still poorly understood (Şirin & Sağlam, 2012), there were still descriptions of the learning environment that suggested different factors in the two school types that might have an effect. Most apparent was that availability of resources accounted for much of the difference from the perspective of teachers. Private schools were better resourced, not just in terms of the curriculum time given over to reading due to timetabling and less wasted time, but also in the physical and virtual resources available for engaging reading material for students. When expanding the definition of ‘resources’ to include professional learning opportunities for teachers, the difference seemed not just about the quality of provision (although it is feasible that private schools might pay for higher quality CPD sessions than public schools), but in how the teachers felt about their ability to put their professional learning into practice. In much the same way as teachers spoke of their pedagogical freedom or lack thereof, the ability to translate professional learning into practical changes was in stark contrast between the two school types. Some of this may be due to the quality of CPD provision, since teachers in the private school already had some successful experiences of pedagogical change using new approaches.

It may therefore be the case that, as with the teachers, students in the private school felt free to learn in more flexible and advanced ways. Their access to a wider range of reading resources, both digital and through the library, may be a contributing factor in feeling able to engage with reading in more varied and personal ways. Likewise, both the MRQ responses and parents’ survey responses showed that students at the private school had more opportunities to practise their English, including having such opportunities on a more regular and consistent basis. Consistency and regularity are both important for developing learning, as is the opportunity afforded by better resourcing for students to engage in self-directed learning. When looking more specifically at individual MRQ responses through a regression model, some internal factors were also highlighted as contrasting between the public and private schools. The differences could, in large part, be recognised to just five MRQ items: 5,

10, 20, 21 and 24. The first two relate to enjoying challenging books and reading about favourite subjects in English, which could both relate to the quality of digital and library resources. The latter three items relate to reading with peers, which could likewise reflect the private school teachers' increased use of more collaborative and communicative pedagogies, in contrast to the more exam-oriented approaches described in the public school.

7.2.4 RQ4

Do the levels of self-efficacy among teachers differ between private and public primary Kuwaiti schools?

The survey data gave a clear 'yes' to this question, although there remains a minor follow-up question about whether the school sector might be distracting more meaningful differences based on teacher ability and proficiency. It remains to be seen whether the same teacher might have a different experience of efficacy in the different school sector, although since the type of teachers employed by a school is itself a point of difference in the schools, such a limitation may not be too problematic. In addition to the simple matter of ratings being higher in the private school than in the public school, the qualitative data showed that teaching was discussed much more positively in the private school, supporting the quantitative finding that the level of self-efficacy was higher in such schools. When considered alongside the literature on self-efficacy in education, one simple explanation could be that teachers in the private schools were more selectively hired and so generally had more positive experiences of education themselves, resulting in stronger efficacy and more secure self-concept (Pintrich, 2003; Lackaye & Margalit, 2006). As Stobart (2008) also points out, those in senior academic roles tend to assume that education is better and that students are able to overcome problems with consistent effort, both of which relate to self-efficacy beliefs.

7.2.5 RQ5

What are the teachers' beliefs or perceptions about teaching English reading in private and public primary schools in Kuwait?

Much of the discussion among teachers in this study differed from that in Western-centric studies, such as Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001), suggesting that it might not be helpful in a Middle Eastern context to place too much emphasis on distinctions between different scales of efficacies. As Bandura suggests, “there is no all-purpose measure of perceived self-efficacy” (Bandura, 2006, p. 307), so it is important to decide which measures are relevant to the participants in any particular context rather, even when using a well-established tool like TSES. However, when discussing teachers belief in the qualitative data and the differences between the experiences of public and private school teachers it became more apparent. Specifically, teachers in the private school felt more able to innovate and saw greater value in such improvement. This is reflected in the discussions around professional learning, where teachers in the private school spoke highly of the additional learning they undertook as teachers, while teachers in the public school did not see much value in continuous professional development. As for the TSES, given that efficacy ratings were lower in the public school, the overall impression is rather negative with public school teachers feeling unable to meet the demands of the curriculum, administrators and parents, but also not seeing many possibilities for doing the job any better than they currently are. In contrast, the teachers in the private school felt free right now, but also had a greater sense of positivity for their ability to improve as teachers.

Self-efficacy offers a valuable lens for interpreting such comments, suggesting that the exercising of self-efficacy builds a sense of mastery and increases an individual's feelings that they can improve further. In contrast, teachers who feel that their efficacy is constrained or has already reached its limits are less likely to push themselves to high levels or believe that improvements will be easy or even possible and by that it need further studies upon this.

7.3 Limitations of the Study

7.3.1 Methodology

The methods used in this study have some baseline implications for the overall quality and impact the outcomes may have upon local education practice and guidelines. Although the mixed-methods design has an advantage for facilitating the triangulation of data, the qualitative and quantitative perspectives are at risk of some methodological flaws. In regard to the quantitative surveys, these were conducted cross-sectionally at isolated points in time, and thus the findings can only be reflections of data at such time points. Indeed, the responses to surveys among participants could change dynamically with time throughout the academic year, and such observations can only be captured with prospective temporality over a longitudinal period, which was not feasible for the researcher. Therefore, some caution has to be taken when interpreting the results, given the risk of under- or over-representation of survey scores/outcomes.

7.3.2 Student Data

While the findings of this study have some important implications as previously noted, it is best practice to acknowledge the methodological limitations of the research methods, as this could have affected the validity and reliability of the reported findings. Checking the reliability of test scores (NGRT) is less straightforward. Whereas the MRQ used adjectival rating scales to give a score of 1-4 for each response, the NGRT is binary: a score of one for a correct answer, and a score of zero for an incorrect answer. While it is common enough to add up a pupil's score to say how well they have performed on a test, this does not necessarily satisfy the standards needed for inferential statistics. For instance, a score of zero is also given if a pupil does not answer a question, but this could be due to a range of reasons which make it unfair to assume the pupil would have got the wrong answer had they attempted the question. Indeed, in a multiple-choice test, a pupil could score more through blind luck than they would from missing questions. Poor timekeeping or poor exam technique cannot simply be assumed to reflect poor reading ability in a research tool. Likewise, simply taking a mean score could be unfair, since not all the questions will necessarily be equally difficult and pupils could spend different amounts of time on each question.

In the assessment literature, such concerns are discussed in the foreign language context by Bachman and Palmer (1996), whose concept of usefulness includes construct validity. In this case, the use of the test is to measure reading comprehension, so it is reasonable to include understanding the text of the test itself and being able to read a text efficiently enough to answer questions within a time limit. However, given the age of the children, some allowance should also be made for inexperience with testing, short attention spans, and inefficient working habits, as distinct from inefficient reading strategies (especially given that English is a foreign language) or poor timekeeping and planning. Finally, the cross-sectional nature of the survey meant that the data was captured at a single point in time; thus the findings may not be reflective of the true (average) data that would be captured over various periods of time.

Furthermore, the analysis and that of the qualitative component were based on a small sample of Kuwaiti primary school children and thus, the findings cannot be assumed to represent the findings and views of children across other Kuwaiti schools. However, all participants were sampled until the point of data sufficiency, which ensured that data collection could be completed as no new information would have been gained from interviewing additional teachers or students (Malterud et al., 2015).

7.3.3 Parents Data

The parents demographic questionnaire showed some limitation, which are in fact related to Xia et al. (2019) study, while it set out to explore similar findings in a large-scale quantitative study of the impact of parental encouragement to read (Xia et al., 2019). A complete replication was not possible due to several limitations. For instance, the sample size in Xia et al. (2019) of 245 was ideal for cross-sectional comparisons and the use of path analysis. The use of mixed methods in this thesis, and the size of the study site, meant that a similar sample size was not possible, though the addition of qualitative data can ease this limitation. Indeed, Xia et al. (2019) point out that a lack of qualitative and longitudinal comparison is a limitation in their study, so these are aspects of Xia et al. (2019) that the current thesis may be able to improve upon. Xia et al. also suggested that future research could usefully look at how “specific types of books are related to pupils’ reading motivation”

and “how to turn reading motivation into reading achievement” (Xia et al., 2019, p. 6). While the causal link of book type to motivation to achievement has not been demonstrated, the regression analysis in this present study offers the useful suggestion that one of the main benefits could be from having children’s books in English at home, even where these are not part of a reading routine.

7.3.4 Teacher Data

This mixed-methods research has provided valuable insight into the views, perceptions, experiences and preferences of teachers and primary school students in both public and private education regarding the role, value and factors influencing teaching and learning English reading. However, there are some methodological limitations to be considered.

First, the quantitative component of the research relied on several survey instruments to collect and inform the analysis data, including the TSES, the MRQ and the NGRT. Self-efficacy can be described through social cognitive theory, where it is thought that the presence and strength of beliefs about one’s own teaching ability directly influences coping with educational tasks, meeting teaching obligations and addressing and resolving issues and challenges related to student learning (Caprara et al., 2006). Thus, with self-efficacy being a personality trait, quantification of self-efficacy levels can be challenging, although the TSES appears to represent the most suitable instrument to ascertain teachers’ self-efficacy and discriminate variances in self-efficacy between teachers (Barni et al., 2019). Although the overall internal consistency was moderate to high for all instruments, the Cronbach alpha for some specific items was less desirable. This may have affected the reliability of the data captured and, in turn, the validity of the analyses performed. Second, the quantitative element was based on a small sample of teachers and students. Finally, the quantitative component also suffered in external validity, as the study was conducted in single centres (one private and one public school). Therefore, the findings may not reflect other schools in Kuwait.

The qualitative element of the research was also subject to limitations. First, a smaller sample of participants were included in the interviews and while qualitative research focuses upon capturing large amounts of data, this presents a risk of deriving incomplete information regarding a construct of interest and in generating generalisable evidence. Selectivity in the

recruitment process also confers a risk of deriving insufficient or biased outcomes, as participants with specific characteristics may have been knowingly or unknowingly selected to take part in the research. Finally, few methods were employed to enhance the overall trustworthiness of the findings. Member checking would have been useful in optimising the confirmability of the findings but this technique was not employed, due to a greater need to maintain participant confidentiality and anonymity. However, credibility in the qualitative findings was enhanced through data and investigator triangulation and through the author maintaining a reflexive and objective position throughout the conduct of the research, to limit the risk of researcher subjectivity emerging in or influencing the reported themes.

7.3.5 Summary of limitations

Limitations and strengths specific to the methodology have already been outlined, but some final reflections on limitations of the study as a whole are also needed. While taking a theory that has been mostly developed in Western countries and applying it to a new context was helpful in identifying a novel area and gap for research, such an approach brings with it limitations in how effectively such a theory can be used as an analytical lens. The use of thematic analysis helped to mitigate many of these limitations. Nevertheless, there remains a need for discussion across the Middle East to theorise more in educational research. As more teachers take up doctoral studentships in the UK, this may gradually improve; although Ashwin (2012) points out that a lack of theorisation remains a problem, even in the UK's educational research scene.

Therefore, it is important for academics working in the Middle East to engage with theory and publish conceptual papers or lead conference discussions that will unpack theories, such as self-efficacy, and forge new directions for research in this context. In offering this lack of context-specific theoretical framework as an unavoidable limitation to the current study, it is hoped that this study contributes in some small way to prompting such future discussions.

7.4 Recommendations for Future Research

As mentioned in the summary of findings in RQ: *Do the levels of self-efficacy among teachers differ between private and public schools in Kuwait?*, the strong differences in self-efficacy ratings between teachers in the two school types might not necessarily be entirely due to the type of school. In part, this was a constraint of sample size, since it was not possible to create a matched sample or create interaction variables within a regression model. It was not possible for this study to say, for instance, whether equally experienced teachers had different ratings of self-efficacy depending on their school sector. This is because the more experienced teachers were almost all employed in the private sector. Even with a larger sample, those experienced teachers who choose to stay in the public school system might be exceptional in some ways, given the general trend in Kuwait is for teachers to move into the private sector later in the career.

Related to issues around self-reporting of teacher's belief, it was also not possible to make any claims about the proficiency, quality or effectiveness of teachers in the public school. A follow-up study taking a matched sample of teachers could help to address some of these questions. One possible alternative would be to take advantage of initial teacher education placements; since student teachers could be randomly assigned to one or the other school type, there would already be some indication of the quality of their teaching based on their performance on their teacher education program, and their levels of experience would be identical. However, even here there could be variance in the quality of mentoring and the availability of educational resources, showing how any future study will face similar limitations to the present study. Indeed, more in-depth qualitative work to understand the day-to-day experiences of efficacy might yield more valuable insights.

7.5 Implications for Future Research and Practice

Educational research in Kuwait relies to a substantial extent on the efforts of doctoral students from Kuwait who are studying in Western countries, particularly the UK. As seen in the literature review, finding studies with relevant populations was difficult and relied heavily on theses from the British Library's archive. While it is hoped that educational research in

Kuwait can develop beyond this in the future, for now it is important that the present study can help to shape future research studies.

In this respect, one important finding is that there may be a substantial difference between public and private schools, and that the scale of difference could be so strong that studies can only be designed to compare the two, making studies of the Kuwait educational system as a whole problematic. Similarly, researchers hoping to make claims about Kuwait's schools will need to be aware of the potential for such differences, and not make assumptions based on data from just one school type. With access to participants a common problem at doctoral level, such sampling issues should be anticipated from an early stage.

Future research may also find that the MRQ, NGRT and TSES surveys require greater modification than was conducted in this study. While light modifications were intended to keep as close to the well-established measures as possible, future studies may benefit from a more exploratory qualitative pilot stage. As indicated in the regression analysis of the present study, there could be a smaller number of items that sound more strongly and so survey tools could require adaptation.

Finally, there are some implications for teaching practice, the different attitudes to CPD between teachers in the two school types should be explored, to see if the differences are due to the quality of CPD, the ability of teachers to apply their learning in their context, or if it is more about the attitudes of teachers. This will be important, since CPD is often used as the route to change and improvement. Following this, exchanges between schools could be helpful, as teachers from the public schools look to see what might be improved. Many of the digital resources might be conveniently adopted in public schools, for example, or teachers may find ways to improve the partnership with school administrators and parents. In terms of self-efficacy for learners, teachers in similar schools may also consider how offering students more choice in reading materials and opportunities to read with peers can be effective for improving student efficacy beliefs and motivation to read.

7.6 Strengths of This Study

The study offers one of very few comprehensive, mixed-methods studies in a young learners context in Kuwait. It also takes account of the views of teachers, parents and students. The use of NGRT helps to move beyond self-reported efficacy beliefs, and the use of piloting and two different data collection windows offers an element of longitudinal comparison that is rare in the literature.

As such, the study makes what is hoped to be one of the pioneering contributions to better understanding how self-efficacy is experienced by learners and teachers in this and similar contexts. In this respect, it indicates some of the methodological challenges that future researchers will need to consider to contexts such as Kuwait.

7.7 Conclusion

This chapter has considered the extent to which the study has met its aim of better understanding the potential and role of self-efficacy in Kuwait, with respect to the teaching and learning of reading in English. It has discussed some of the reasons for differences between the public and private school experience, offering some insights into how self-efficacy can be used as a theoretical lens to frame such differences. While the limits of the theory have been explored and some modifications offered, the overall findings show that the theory is a helpful one for understanding some of the reasons for differences in students' attitudes and abilities in reading in English, as well as some of the ways in which such differences could be addressed through teachers' professional learning, school resourcing decisions, and enhanced relationship between parents, school administrators and teachers.

The study is important because it shows how self-efficacy can help to understand some of the differences between private and public schools in Kuwait, indicating where changes could be made to support teachers and students in developing their skills. It has also suggested that teachers belief in the Kuwait context relates closely to the professional learning and sense of freedom, while for the development and influence of students learning to read, it has highlighted the importance of English-language reading material being a

regular part of their lives rather than English being a discrete subject, possibly suggesting value in exploring pedagogies such as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL).

The main theoretical contribution of this study is to support Bandura's (2006) explanation of how context affects self-efficacy, although the present study suggests that there could be more commonality in group experiences of self-efficacy than previously thought. Aside from developing theory, the study also suggests some practical changes. Changes that managers in public schools may wish to consider so as to reduce restrictions on teachers include giving more freedom and working to improve the extent to which teachers feel supported by managers. There could even be simple changes made to increase the availability of English-language books in children's homes, such as increasing library borrowing limits. The discussion around teachers' contrasting attitudes to their CPD provision also shows a need to better understand the reasons for such attitudes if CPD is to be more effective in the public schools, specifically whether sharing CPD with private school colleagues would be worthwhile or if the differences in attitudes are more to do with the teachers themselves rather than the CPD provision.

Expressed in terms of the objectives identified at the start of this chapter, the contributions of the current study can be summarised thus:

1. It has been demonstrated that self-efficacy positively correlates with reading test performance and that the strength of association may be highest for those learners who experience low self-efficacy
2. It has not been determined whether developing self-efficacy will have a contributing impact on reading improvement. Students with the lowest levels of self-efficacy had correspondingly low performance in reading assessments, but it remains unclear whether there is a direct causal relationship such that improving efficacy in and of itself will positively affect reading ability
3. It has been shown that teachers with higher self-efficacy are more advanced in their pedagogy, engage more strongly in professional learning, and act to enrich the curriculum for their learners

4. Teacher professional learning has more positive impact on teachers in the private school, but it remains to be seen whether this is about the quality of the CPD offered or about school culture more generally
5. The availability of books in English may be a key factor in promoting learning to read in English, particularly in the home. Other resources, such as using technology to access more authentic texts, may also support learning. Parental education and home income levels may also have an impact.

As such, there may be benefit in considering research which looks in more detail at school and home cultures around the use of English, including pedagogies related to CLIL and the modelling of reading in the home. It would also be interesting to take a longer-term longitudinal approach to teacher self-efficacy, perhaps considering a focused sample to look at how teachers experience the shift from public to private school employment.

Appendices

Appendix A: Motivation for Reading Questionnaire

Appendix B: Parents Demographic Questionnaire

Appendix C: Teachers Sense of Efficacy Scale

Appendix D: Interview Questions (Teachers and Students)

Appendix E: Ethical Approval (University of York)

Appendix F: Ministry of Education Ethical Approval and Permissions (Kuwait)

Appendix G: Consent Forms

Appendix H: First Version of Code Groups for Students Interviews

Appendix I: Updated Version of Group Codes for Students Interviews

Appendix J: Example of Coding and Themes 1-3 for Students Interviews

Appendix K: Example of a Model of the Relationship between Attitude, Self-Efficacy and Academic Performance (Yashima et al., 2004).

Appendix A: Motivation for Reading Questionnaire¹

Demographic data

| |
|--|
| Please choose as applicable. |
| Name: |
| Gender: <input type="checkbox"/> Boy <input type="checkbox"/> Girl |
| School Sector: <input type="checkbox"/> Public <input type="checkbox"/> Private |

For many of the statements, you should think about the kinds of things you read in your class , and then circle your answer:

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|--|--|--|------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| | A Lot Like Me | Somewhat Like me | A Little Like Me | Nothing Like Me |
| Statement | Very Different From Me 1 | A Little Different From Me 2 | A Little Like Me 3 | A Lot Like Me 4 |
| 1. I like it when the questions in the English books make me think. | | | | |
| 2. If my English teacher discusses something interesting I might read more about it. | | | | |
| 3. I like hard, challenging English books. | | | | |
| 4. I don't know that I will do well in reading in English next year. | | | | |
| 5. If a book in English is interesting I don't care how hard it is to read. | | | | |

| | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|
| 6. I have favorite subjects that I like to read about in English. | | | | |
| 7. I visit the library often with my family. | | | | |
| 8. I enjoy reading books about living things. | | | | |
| 9. I am a good reader in English. | | | | |
| 10. I usually learn difficult things by reading in English. | | | | |
| 11. My parents often tell me what a good job I am doing in reading in English. | | | | |
| 12. I read in English to learn new information about topics that interest me. | | | | |
| 13. If the project is interesting, I can read difficult material in English. | | | | |
| 14. I learn more from reading in English than most students in the class. | | | | |
| 15. I like to read in English about new things. | | | | |
| 16. I often read in English to my brother or my sister. | | | | |
| 17. I like having the teacher say I read well in English. | | | | |
| 18. I read in English about my hobbies to learn more about them. | | | | |
| 19. My friends and I like to trade things to read in English. | | | | |
| 20. My friends sometimes tell me I am a good reader in English. | | | | |
| 21. I like to help my friends with their schoolwork in reading in English. | | | | |
| 22. I sometimes read in English to my parents. | | | | |
| 23. I like to get compliments for my reading in English. | | | | |
| 24. I talk to my friends about what I am reading in English. | | | | |
| 25. I am happy when someone recognises my reading in English. | | | | |

| | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|
| 26. I like to tell my family about what I am reading in English. | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|

Appendix B: Parents Demographic Questionnaire²

1. Demographic data

| |
|--|
| Please choose as applicable. |
| 1. Mother |
| 1a. Nationality: |
| 1b. Level of education: <input type="checkbox"/> High school <input type="checkbox"/> Diploma <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor Degree <input type="checkbox"/> Master Degree <input type="checkbox"/> Doctoral Degree |
| 1c. Type of school attended: <input type="checkbox"/> Public School <input type="checkbox"/> Private School |
| 1d. Did you study abroad in an English speaking country? <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No If yes, for: <input type="checkbox"/> Lower school <input type="checkbox"/> High School <input type="checkbox"/> Diploma <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor Degree <input type="checkbox"/> Master Degree <input type="checkbox"/> Doctoral Degree |
| 2. Father |

² The original questionnaire was in Arabic

| |
|--|
| 2a. Nationality: |
| 2b. Level of education: <input type="checkbox"/> High school <input type="checkbox"/> Diploma <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor Degree <input type="checkbox"/> Master Degree <input type="checkbox"/> Doctoral Degree |
| 2c. Type of school attended: <input type="checkbox"/> Public School <input type="checkbox"/> Private School |
| 2d. Did you study abroad in an English speaking country? <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No If yes, for: <input type="checkbox"/> Lower school <input type="checkbox"/> High School <input type="checkbox"/> Diploma <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor Degree <input type="checkbox"/> Master Degree <input type="checkbox"/> Doctoral Degree |

2. Marital status

| Please choose as applicable. | |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Married |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | Divorced/ Separated |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Widowed |

3. Children

3a. Number of children:

Mother

3b. How often do you speak Arabic with your child?

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|--------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Never |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | Rarely |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Often |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | All the time |

Mother

3c. How often do you speak English with your child?

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|--------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Never |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | Rarely |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Often |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | All the time |

Father

3d. How often do you speak Arabic with your child?

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|--------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Never |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | Rarely |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Often |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | All the time |

Father

| 3e. How often do you speak English with your child? | |
|---|--------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Never |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Rarely |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Often |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | All the time |

4. **Income**

| Please choose as applicable. | |
|---|-----------------------------|
| Which status would best describe your total monthly income: | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 1000 Kuwaiti Dinar or below |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 1001 – 2000 Kuwaiti Dinar |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 2001 Kuwaiti Dinar or above |

5. **Housing**

| Please choose as applicable. | |
|--|---|
| Do you have a house maid/ keeper living in the house who speaks English? | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Yes : what language does your child speak to him/her? |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | English |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Arabic |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | No |

6. **Reading**

| Please choose as applicable. | |
|--|-----------------------|
| 6a. As a parent how often do you read Arabic books for pleasure? | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Never |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | Once or twice a month |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | About once a week |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Several times a week |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Daily |

| Please choose as applicable. | |
|---|-----------------------|
| 6b. As a parent how often do you read English books for pleasure? | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Never |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | Once or twice a month |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | About once a week |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Several times a week |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Daily |

| Please choose as applicable. | |
|--|--------|
| 6c. How many Arabic books for adults do you have in your home? | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 1-20 |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | 21-40 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 41-60 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 61-80 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 81-100 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 100+ |

| Please choose as applicable. | |
|---|--------|
| 6d. How many English books for adults do you have in your home? | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 1-20 |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | 21-40 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 41-60 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 61-80 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 81-100 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 100+ |

| Please choose as applicable. | |
|--|--------|
| 6e. How many Arabic books for children do you have in your home? | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 1-20 |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | 21-40 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 41-60 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 61-80 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 81-100 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 100+ |

| Please choose as applicable. | |
|---|--------|
| 6f. How many English books for children do you have in your home? | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 1-20 |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | 21-40 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 41-60 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 61-80 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 81-100 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 100+ |

| Please choose as applicable. | |
|--|---|
| 6g. How many times in a typical week do you read Arabic books with your children at bedtime? | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 0 |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | 1 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 2 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 3 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 4 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 5 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 6 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 7 |

| Please choose as applicable. | |
|---|---|
| 6h. How many times in a typical week do you read English books with your children at bedtime? | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 0 |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | 1 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 2 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 3 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 4 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 5 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 6 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 7 |

| Please choose as applicable. | |
|---|---|
| 6i. How many times in a typical week do you read Arabic books with your children at other times of day? | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 0 |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | 1 |

| | |
|--------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 2 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 3 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 4 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 5 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 6 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 7 |

| | |
|---|---|
| Please choose as applicable. | |
| 6j. How many times in a typical week do you read English books with your children at other times of day? | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 0 |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | 1 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 2 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 3 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 4 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 5 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 6 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 7 |

| | |
|---|-------------------|
| Please choose as applicable. | |
| 6k. How satisfied are you with the level of your child's reading in English in school? | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Very Dissatisfied |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | Dissatisfied |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Satisfied |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Very Satisfied |

| |
|-------------------------------------|
| Please choose as applicable. |
|-------------------------------------|

| 6l. How important is it that your child learns to read in English at school? | |
|--|-----------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Not Important |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | Quite Important |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Important |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Very Important |

| Please choose as applicable. | |
|--|--------------|
| 6m. How often does your child use games or applications to communicate with other people in English? | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Daily |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | Twice a week |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Once a week |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Never |

Appendix C: Teachers Sense of Efficacy Scale³

| |
|--|
| 1. Gender <input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female |
| 2. School sector <input type="checkbox"/> Private school <input type="checkbox"/> Public school |
| 3. Year of experience <input type="checkbox"/> 1-2 years <input type="checkbox"/> 3-5 year <input type="checkbox"/> 6- 10 years <input type="checkbox"/> 10+ years |

| Teachers Beliefs | | How much can you do? | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------------|-----|-------------|-----|----------------|-----|-------------|-----|--------------|
| Please indicate your opinion about each of the statements below. | | Nothing | | Very Little | | Some Influence | | Quite A Bit | | A Great Deal |
| | | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) |
| | | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) |
| 1. | How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students in reading? | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) |
| 2. | How much can you do to help your students think critically in reading activities? | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) |
| 3. | How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in reading classroom? | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) |
| 4. | How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in reading? | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) |
| 5. | To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior? | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) |
| 6. | How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in reading? | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) |
| 7. | How well can you respond to difficult reading questions from your students ? | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) |
| 8. | How well can you establish routines to keep reading activities running smoothly? | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) |
| 9. | How much can you do to help your students value reading? | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) |

³ The original questionnaire was in Arabic, but the English version was available for suitability of the participants

| | |
|---|-------------------------------------|
| 10. How much can you gauge student reading comprehension of what you have taught? | (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) |
| 11. To what extent can you craft good reading questions for your students? | (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) |
| 12. How much can you do to foster student creativity in reading? | (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) |
| 13. How much can you do to get children to follow reading classroom rules? | (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) |
| 14. How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing in reading? | (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) |
| 15. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy? | (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) |
| 16. How well can you establish a reading classroom management system with each group of students? | (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) |
| 17. How much can you do to adjust your reading lessons to the proper level for individual students? | (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) |
| 18. How much can you use a variety of reading assessment strategies? | (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) |
| 19. How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire reading lesson? | (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) |
| 20. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused in reading? | (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) |
| 21. How well can you respond to defiant students? | (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) |
| 22. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in reading? | (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) |
| 23. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your reading classroom? | (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) |
| 24. 24.How well can you provide appropriate reading challenges for very capable students? | (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) |

Appendix D: Interview Questions (Teachers and Students)

Teacher Interview Questions

1. How many years have you been teaching?
2. What are the difficulties that you face as a teacher in teaching reading in English?
3. What is your opinion towards teaching reading in English in the primary school?
4. What role does the pedagogic method play on young learners' self-efficacy to read in English?
5. How often do you resort to the young learners' mother tongue to explain a word they did not understand?
 - a. Why do you do that?
6. How much leverage do you have as a teacher in (private/public) school in teaching reading in English to young learners?
 - a. What impact does that then have on your ability to feel that you are able to teach reading in English?
7. To what extent the integration of skills may impact the teaching and the learning of reading in English?
8. How much can you do to help young learners with difficulties in reading in English?
9. How can you motivate your class of young learners to read in English?
 - a. What helps you to teach reading in English?
 - b. What stops you feeling able to do that?
 - c. What other barriers do you face while doing that?
10. Now speaking of your own personal experience as a teacher, can you tell me about the most difficult time you went through in your teaching career and how did you overcome it ?
11. Can you tell me about the best time or unforgettable moment you had in your teaching experience?
12. How does school administration support your work as a teacher?
13. Last question, in your teaching career did you had any teaching training courses and how did it effect your teaching experience?

Student Interview Questions

1. Do you like reading?
2. English or Arabic?
3. What do you like about reading?
4. In your school, do you remember how you were taught to read in English?
5. Do you have a library at your school?
6. That's great, Can you tell me about the type of books that you have in the school library?
7. Can you tell me what's your favourite type of book?
8. Do you like to read books with pictures or without?
9. When your teacher teaches you reading in the class, does she use Arabic?
10. In the classroom, can you tell me what type of tools and instruments that your teacher use while teaching reading?
11. Now you are in year five, how do you see yourself in reading in English from 1 -10?
12. Can you remember an event where you felt you reading in English very well in class?
13. Let's say your English gave you a new book in class and asked you to read it out loud? How would you feel about it?
14. How would you feel how do you feel if your teacher interrupts you while you were reading aloud in the car in the classroom?
15. Does your teacher praise you while you read?
16. Can you tell me why would you want to learn more on how to read on reading in English?
17. In your classroom do you like group work when it comes to reading or do you like to read by yourself?
18. What do you feel confident more if your teacher reads the text from the book 1st?
19. Can you describe how your teacher teaches reading in the classroom?
20. Can you describe someone who has an influence in your reading in English?
21. Do you usually get your expected grades in Reading?

Appendix E: Ethical Approval (University of York)

THE UNIVERSITY *of York*

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Heslington, York, YO10 5DD

Email: education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk

Web: www.york.ac.uk/education

11 December 2017

To whom it may concern

Subject: Ethical Approval

I am writing to you as the Chair of Ethics Committee in the Department of Education at the University of York, to confirm that Jenan Alrefae's doctoral research/Claudine Bowyer-Crane's research project titled "The role of motivation in teaching and learning to read in English: a comparison of public and private primary school practice in Kuwait." has been approved by the committee.

Should you have any questions or concerns about the conduct of this piece of research, please do not hesitate to contact me at the address above.

Yours sincerely



Dr Nadia Mifka-Profozic
Chair of the Ethics Committee.

Appendix F: Ministry of Education Ethical Approval and Permissions (Kuwait)

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
Educational Research and
Curricula Sector
EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH ADMINISTRATION

وزارة التربية
قطاع البحوث التربوية والمناهج
إدارة البحوث التربوية

Ref.: _____
Date: _____

الرجع: ٢٦٠
التاريخ: ٢٠١٨/١٠/٢٤

السيد المحترم / أ. منصور الظفيري
مدير عام منطقة حولي التعليمية
تحية طيبة وبعد...

الموضوع / تسهيل مهمة

تقوم الباحثة / جنان نجيب الرفاعي المسجلة على درجة الدكتوراه
بإجراء بحث ميداني بعنوان "دور التحفيز في تدريس وتعلم القراءة باللغة
الانجليزية مقارنة بين مدارس ابتدائية حكومية وأخرى خاصة في دولة
الكويت".

فيرجى تسهيل مهمة المذكورة أعلاه من خلال تطبيق استبانة + بطاقة
مقابلة + اختبار قراءة لفئة انجليزية على معلمي ومعلمات وطلبة المرحلة
الابتدائية وأولياء أمور الطلبة التابعة لمنطقتكم التعليمية خلال العام الدراسي
الحالي 2018/2019م.

مع خالص الشكر والتقدير

مدير إدارة البحوث التربوية
م. الهادي صالح العنزي
م. الهادي صالح العنزي

نسخة الملف
Nawara

AL-Qurain - Block (1) Street No. (1)
Tel.: 25417942 - Fax: 25417694 - 25417943
Email: behooth@hotmail.com

القربين - قطعة (1) - شارع رقم (1)
تلفون: ٢٥٤١٧٩٤٣ - فاكس: ٢٥٤١٧٦٩٤ - ٢٥٤١٧٩٤٣

Website: www.moe.edu.kw

الرقم : ٣٤٨٩٦
التاريخ : ١٨/١١/٢٠١٨ م



وزارة التربية
الإدارة العامة لمنطقة حولي التعليمية
إدارة الشؤون التعليمية
مكتب المدير

" نشرة "

للمرحلة الابتدائية (بنين / بنات)

السادة و السيدات / مدراء ومديرات المدارس ... المحترمين
تحية طيبة وبعد

الموضوع : تسهيل مهمة

بالإشارة إلى الموضوع أعلاه ، وبناء على الكتاب الوارد إلينا من إدارة البحوث التربوية رقم (٢٦٠) بتاريخ ٢٠١٨/١٠/٢٠م بشأن تسهيل مهمة الباحثة / جنان نجيب الرفاعي ، المسجلة على درجة الدكتوراه في جامعة يورك في المملكة المتحدة البريطانية ، بإجراء بحث بعنوان " دور التحفيز في تدريس وتعلم القراءة باللغة الانجليزية مقارنة بين مدارس ابتدائية حكومية وأخرى خاصة في دولة الكويت " من خلال تطبيق إجراء مقابلات شخصية وتطبيق (استبانة + بطاقة مقابلة + اختبار قراءة لغة انجليزية) المختومة صفحتها من إدارة البحوث التربوية على معلمي ومعلمات و الطالبات وأولياء الأمور وذلك خلال الفصل الدراسي الحالي ٢٠١٨/٢٠١٩ م .
يرجى التكرم بتسهيل مهمة المذكورة .

مع خالص التحية ...

مدير إدارة الشؤون التعليمية

دلال النباهض
مدير إدارة الشؤون التعليمية



منطقة حولي التعليمية
إدارة الشؤون التعليمية

* نسخة لكل من :

- مدير عام منطقة حولي التعليمية

- مراقب التعليم الابتدائي

- للملف

تليفون : ٢٥٦٥٧٤٢١ - فاكس : ٢٥٦٥٧٦٢١ - ص.ب : ١٣٣ حولي - الرمز البريدي ٣٢٠٠١ الكويت



Date :

التاريخ : ٢٧ / ١٢ / ١٤٣٩

Ref. :

الرقم : ٧٧٦ / ٢٠٠٠

السيدات والسادة المحترمين / مديري المدارس
تحية طيبة وبعد ،،،،الموضوع : تسهيل مهمة الباحثة/ جنان نجيب الرفاعي من جامعة يورك لإجراء بحث
بعنوان دور التحفيز في تدريس وتعلم القراءة باللغة الانجليزية))وذلك من خلال تطبيق الاستبانة المختومة من إدارة البحوث التربوية وإجراء مقابلة
شخصية مع المعلمين والمعلمات في جميع المراحل الدراسية للعام الدراسي ٢٠١٧-٢٠١٨ .
نحيطكم علما مانع لدى الإدارة العامة للتعليم الخاص من تسهيل مهمة الباحثة
لتطبيق الاستبانة ومقابلة المعلمين والمعلمات .

مع خالص التحية ،،،،،

مدير عام
الإدارة العامة للتعليم الخاص

ست/جنان الرفاعي
مديرة عام
الإدارة العامة للتعليم الخاص بالأمم المتحدةنكحل من
مدير عام الإدارة العامة للتعليم الخاص .
توجيه العام للأنشطة التربوية .
توجيه الأنشطة التربوية .
لللف / موصومة



Department of Education
Heslington, York, YO10 5DD
Direct Line: (01904) 322526
Fax: (01904) 323459
Email: poppy.nash@york.ac.uk
Web: www.york.ac.uk/educ

Information Page and Consent Form

The role of self-efficacy in teaching and learning to read in English in a public and private primary school practice in Kuwait.

Dear teachers,

Jenan Alrefae is currently carrying out a research project about the of role self-efficacy in teaching and learning to read in English in primary government and private schools in Kuwait. I would like to ask you to take part in my research.

What would this mean for you?

The aim of this research is to find the role of self-efficacy in teaching and learning to read in English in both private and public schools in Kuwait. To achieve this, one key part of this research is for you as a teacher to participate in a semi structured interview.

The interview will last around 30 minutes and will be audio recorded. Fragments of the interview recording or transcript may be used in research materials (e.g., publications, website, information pack).

Anonymity

The data that you provide (interview) will be stored by code number. Any information or personally identifying information will be stored separately from the data.

Storing and using your data

Data will be stored on a password protected computer. The data will be kept for three years after which time it will be destroyed. The data may be used for future analysis and shared for research or training purposes, but participants will not be identified individually. If you do not want the data to be included in any information shared as a result of this research, please do not sign this consent form.

You are free to withdraw from the study at any time during data collection and up to one week after the data is collected. After that time, identifying information will be destroyed and it will be impossible to withdraw your data as it will be anonymous.

Information about confidentiality

The data that I collect (audio recordings and transcripts) may be used in *anonymous* format in different ways. Please indicate on the consent form attached with a ☒ if you are happy for this anonymised data to be used in the ways listed.

If you have any questions about the study that you would like to ask before giving consent

⁴ All consent forms were translated into Arabic prior to distribution

or after the data collection, please feel free to contact Jenan Alrefae by email Jnaa501@york.ac.uk or the Chair of Ethics Committee via email education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk

Your cooperation is highly appreciated in this study, please complete the form attached and hand it in to the researcher.

Please keep this information sheet for your own records.

Thank you for taking the time to read this information.

Yours sincerely

Jenan Alrefae

Please initial each box if you are happy to take part in this research.

I confirm that I have read and understood the information given about the above named research project and I understand that this will involve my participation taking part as described above. ☐

I understand that the purpose of the research is about the role self-efficacy in teaching and learning to read in English in primary government and private schools in Kuwait. ☐

I understand that data will be stored securely in a password protected computer and only Jenan Alrefae and her supervisor will have access to any identifiable data. I understand that teachers' identities will be protected by use of a code or pseudonym. ☐

I understand that the data obtained from teachers will not be identified and the data may be used:

in publications that are mainly read by university academics ☐

in presentations that are mainly attended by university academics ☐

in publications that are mainly read by the public ☐

in presentations that are mainly attended by the public ☐

freely available online ☐

I understand that data will be kept for three years after which it will be destroyed. ☐

I understand that data could be used for future analysis or other purposes [e.g. other research and teaching purposes] ☐

I understand that I can withdraw my data at any point during data collection and up to one week after data is collected. ☐

Name:

Date:

Signature:

Information Page and Consent Form

The role of self-efficacy in teaching and learning to read in English in public and private primary school practice in Kuwait.

Dear Parent,

Jenan Alrefae is currently carrying out a research project about the role of self-efficacy in teaching and learning reading in English in primary government and private schools in Kuwait. I am writing to ask if your child is able to take part in the study.

What would this mean for you?

The aim of this research is to find the role of self-efficacy in teaching and learning to read in English in both private and public schools in Kuwait. To achieve this, one key part of this research is for you as a parent of the participated student to answer a demographic questionnaire.

Anonymity

In order to link the questionnaire data the reading comprehension test results and the MRQ, names will be collected initially but these will be replaced with codes or pseudonyms once the data is collected.

Storing and using the data

Data will be stored in a password-protected computer. The data will be kept for three years after which it will be destroyed. The data may be used for future analysis and shared for research or training purposes, but participants/children will not be identified individually. If you do not want your/your child's data to be included in any information shared as a result of this research, please do not sign this consent form.

You are free to withdraw from the study at any time during data collection and up to one week after the data is collected. After that time, identifying information will be destroyed and it will be impossible to withdraw your data as it will be anonymous.

Information about confidentiality

The data that I collect (test results and questionnaire responses) may be used in *anonymous* format in different ways. Please indicate on the consent form attached with a ☒ if you are happy for this anonymised data to be used in the ways listed.

I hope that you will agree to your child taking part in the study. If you have any questions about the study that you would like to ask before giving consent or after the data collection, please feel free to contact Jenan Alrefae by email Jnaa501@york.ac.uk or the Chair of Ethics

Committee via email education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk

If you are happy for your child to participate, please complete the form attached and hand it in to the teacher.

Please keep this information sheet for your own records.

Thank you for taking the time to read this information.

Yours sincerely

Jenan Alrefae

Please initial each box if you are happy to take part in this research.

I confirm that I have read and understood the information given to me about the above named research project and I understand that this will involve my child taking part as described above. ☐

I understand that the purpose of the research is about the role self-efficacy in teaching and learning to read in English in primary government and private schools in Kuwait. ☐

I understand that data will be stored securely in a password protected computer and only Jenan Alrefae and her supervisor will have access to any identifiable data. I understand that my child's identity will be protected by use of a code or pseudonym. ☐

I understand that my data will not be identified and the data may be used:

in publications that are mainly read by university academics ☐

in presentations that are mainly attended by university academics ☐

in publications that are mainly read by the public ☐

in presentations that are mainly attended by the public ☐

freely available online ☐

I understand that data will be kept for three years after which it will be destroyed. ☐

I understand that data could be used for future analysis or other purposes [e.g. other research and teaching purposes] ☐

I understand that parents can withdraw their data at any point during data collection and up to one week after data is collected. ☐

Child's Name:

Date:

Parents Signature:

Information Page and Consent Form

The role of self-efficacy in teaching and learning to read in English in public and private primary school practice in Kuwait.

Dear Parent/Carer,

Jenan Alrefae is currently carrying out a research project about the role of self-efficacy in teaching and learning reading in English in primary government and private schools in Kuwait. I am writing to ask if your child is able to take part in the study.

What would this mean for my child?

Your child and their classmates will be asked to answer a reading comprehension test at the beginning and the end of the academic year as well as filling out a questionnaire about the measurement of motivation for reading in English. Your child will also be asked to take part in an interview with the researcher and in the presence of the home teacher that will last for 15 minutes. The questionnaire is based on a Likert scale from 1-4, where 1 is 'Very different from me', and 4 is 'A lot like me'. Further, the pupils are required to give their opinion on statements such as "I like hard, challenging books," and "I am a good reader." Consequently, I will interview a sub-group of pupils that answered the questionnaire. This may include your child. This interview will be carried out in the presence of one of the school teachers. This group interview will be based on answers to the questionnaire, and will explore possible explanations for their attitudes (e.g. motivation) towards reading in English. Students will be asked for verbal consent if they would like to take part in this research and they can withdraw at any time during data collection.

Anonymity

In order to link the reading comprehension test results to the questionnaire data, names will be collected initially but these will be replaced with codes or pseudonyms once the data is collected. A list of names and codes will be kept separate from the data so that data linkage

can take place between the comprehension tests and questionnaires. Once all data is linked the identifying information will be destroyed.

Storing and using the data

Data will be stored in a password-protected computer. The data will be kept for three years after which it will be destroyed. The data may be used for future analysis and shared for research or training purposes, but participants/children will not be identified individually. If you do not want your/your child's data to be included in any information shared as a result of this research, please do not sign this consent form.

The children are free to withdraw from the study at any time during data collection and up to one week after the data is collected by contacting Jenan Alrefae.

Information about confidentiality

The data that I collect (audio recordings / transcripts / test results and questionnaire responses) may be used in anonymous format in different ways. Please indicate on the consent form attached with a ☒ if you are happy for this anonymised data to be used in the ways listed.

I hope that you will agree to your child taking part in the study. If you have any questions about the study that you would like to ask before giving consent or after the data collection, please feel free to contact Jenan Alrefae by email Jnaa501@york.ac.uk or the Chair of Ethics Committee via email education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk

If you are happy for your child to participate, please complete the form attached and hand it in to the teacher.

Please keep this information sheet for your own records.

Thank you for taking the time to read this information.

Yours sincerely

Jenan Alrefae

Please initial each box if you are happy to take part in this research.

I confirm that I have read and understood the information given to me about the above named research project and I understand that this will involve my child taking part as described above. ☐

I understand that the purpose of the research is about the role self-efficacy in teaching and learning to read in English in primary government and private schools in Kuwait. ☐

I understand that data will be stored securely in a password protected computer and only Jenan Alrefae and her supervisor will have access to any identifiable data. I understand that my child's identity will be protected by use of a code or pseudonym. ☐

I understand that my child's data will not be identified and the data may be used:

in publications that are mainly read by university academics ☐

in presentations that are mainly attended by university academics ☐

in publications that are mainly read by the public ☐

in presentations that are mainly attended by the public ☐

freely available online ☐

I understand that data will be kept for three years after which it will be destroyed. ☐

I understand that data could be used for future analysis or other purposes [e.g. other research and teaching purposes] ☐

I understand that parents can withdraw their child's' data at any point during data collection and up to one week after data is collected. ☐

Child's Name:

Date:

Parents Signature:

Appendix H: First Version of Code Groups for Students Interviews

| Code Group | Code |
|---|--|
| teacher strategies | audio tool extra reading practice to improve good teacher only English teacher only teaches reading using English teacher praises reading teacher reads aloud Teacher sometimes uses Arabic in class Teacher uses Arabic teacher uses cards teacher uses CD Teacher uses data show and iPad teacher uses different tools for different year groups teacher uses iPad teacher uses phone teacher uses pictures Teacher uses Projector teacher uses projectors and pictures teaching using a reading chart tools and instruments vocab and grammar flashcards in classroom |
| Teacher uses technology in support of books | audio tool teacher uses CD Teacher uses data show and iPad teacher uses iPad teacher uses phone Teacher uses Projector teacher uses projectors and pictures |
| Teacher uses physical resources for whole-class work | teacher reads aloud teacher uses cards teacher uses pictures teaching using a reading chart/vocab and grammar flashcards in classroom |
| Arabic used occasionally to describe or translate at word level | Teacher sometimes uses Arabic in class Teacher uses Arabic |
| Praise encourages reading aloud and wider reading | Okay with being interrupted by teacher teacher praises reading |

| | |
|-------------|--|
| aspirations | <p>admires hard working good reader friend</p> <p>cousin influences</p> <p>felt like I had accomplished a life goal by reading more</p> <p>helping others motivates me to learn English</p> <p>high self-efficacy</p> <p>travel motivates me to learn English</p> <p>want to be like the best student in class</p> |
| pride | <p>pride</p> <p>proud of self when praised</p> <p>proud of self when read very fast</p> |
| library | <p>adventure books in library</p> <p>Big books and short stories</p> <p>Did not read in workshop held in library</p> <p>doesn't use library</p> <p>every week</p> <p>example of book in library</p> <p>favourite type of book</p> <p>favourite type of book: diaries</p> <p>how to books in library</p> <p>non-fiction books in library</p> <p>read books in the library</p> <p>reference books in library</p> <p>school has library</p> <p>scientific and comic books in library</p> <p>share books in the library</p> <p>There is a library</p> <p>type of books</p> <p>visit library every week</p> <p>visit library weekly</p> |

| | |
|----------------------|---|
| enjoyment of reading | <p>Arabic</p> <p>doesn't like reading</p> <p>don't like to be interrupted when reading</p> <p>favourite type of book</p> <p>favourite type of book: adventure</p> <p>fun</p> <p>like group work or working alone</p> <p>like reading</p> <p>like reading games</p> <p>likes correction while reading aloud</p> <p>likes groupwork</p> <p>likes pictures for understanding</p> <p>likes praise from parents and teacher</p> <p>likes reading</p> <p>likes reading in English and Arabic</p> <p>likes teacher to model pronunciation</p> <p>nervous and fun reading aloud</p> <p>no favourite type of book</p> <p>prefer books with pictures</p> <p>prefers books without pictures</p> <p>prefers English</p> <p>Prefers reading in English</p> <p>pupil likes to read first</p> <p>reading associated with other tasks such as making up stories and drawing</p> <p>reading competition encouraged me to read more</p> <p>reading gives me time to do creative things</p> <p>reads about animals, likes lions</p> <p>reasons why they don't like reading</p> <p>slightly likes reading</p> <p>willing to read aloud</p> <p>without picture</p> |
| family | <p>cousin influences</p> <p>father helps with reading</p> <p>likes praise from parents and teacher</p> <p>motivated by family</p> <p>parents help</p> <p>sometimes worried that mum will be mad at me if I get a poor grade</p> |

| | |
|--------------|--|
| motivation | <p>feel happy when praised</p> <p>helping others motivates me to learn English</p> <p>instrumental motivation</p> <p>lived in UK 5 years</p> <p>motivated by a peer</p> <p>motivated by family</p> <p>motivated to use reading to become a better writer</p> <p>praise motivates me to read more</p> <p>reading competition encouraged me to read more</p> <p>reading for future job</p> <p>Studied abroad for 5 years</p> <p>success as a class endeavour with reward</p> <p>travel motivates me to learn English</p> |
| assessment | <p>9/10 reading skills</p> <p>achieves expected grade</p> <p>confident in reading English</p> <p>give self a lower grade because of the spelling mistakes</p> <p>gives self 9 because they get confused</p> <p>mostly don't feel anxious about grades</p> <p>mostly get the reading grade I expect</p> <p>no memory of reading well in class</p> <p>rates own English reading ability 10/10</p> <p>reading score 7.5</p> <p>reading score 8</p> <p>sometimes gets expecting reading grade</p> <p>sometimes worried that mum will be mad at me if I get a poor grade</p> <p>success as a class endeavour with reward</p> <p>timed reading</p> |
| difficulties | <p>difficult vocabulary</p> <p>Easy for some hard for some</p> <p>feel more confident if teacher reads first</p> <p>hard words are obstacle</p> <p>nervous and scared to make mistakes</p> <p>reading is easier than writing</p> <p>working in groups helps with hard books</p> <p>would feel embarrassed if teacher interrupted me reading aloud</p> |

| | |
|---------------------|--|
| learning strategies | doesn't memorise doesn't tend to memorise when reading English and Arabic exposed to reading how they were taught learn reading from book and YouTube listening followed by reading and acting out memorises text nervous about reading aloud no memory of being taught reading aloud repeat teacher, read by self/in pairs silent reading sound the word out to work out meaning taught English with sentences told to use context clues to find unknown meanings use pictures to figure out meaning uses explore sheet wall display for unknown vocabulary would be silent before reading aloud |
| friends | admires hard working good reader friend friends help me motivated by a peer |

Appendix I: Updated Version of Group Codes for Students Interviews

| Code Group | Code |
|--|---|
| Teacher uses technology in support of books | audio tool teacher uses CD Teacher uses data show and iPad teacher uses iPad teacher uses phone Teacher uses Projector teacher uses projectors and pictures |
| Teacher uses physical resources for whole-class work | teacher reads aloud teacher uses cards teacher uses pictures |

| | |
|---|---|
| | teaching using a reading chart vocab and grammar flashcards in classroom |
| Arabic used occasionally to describe or translate at word level | only English teacher only teaches reading using English Teacher sometimes uses Arabic in class Teacher uses Arabic |
| Praise encourages reading aloud and wider reading | Okay with being interrupted by teacher pride proud of self when praised teacher praises reading |
| desire to help others by being a better reader | admires hard working good reader friend cousin influences, is a fast reader felt like I had accomplished a life goal by reading more helping others motivates me to learn English travel motivates me to learn English so I can help my friends who don't speak English want to be like the best student in class |
| library mainly for choosing your own books | adventure books in library Big books and short stories Did not read in workshop held in library doesn't use library every week example of book in library favourite type of book favourite type of book: diaries how to books in library non-fiction books in library read books in the library reference books in library school has library scientific and comic books in library share books in the library There is a library type of books visit library every week visit library weekly |
| enjoyment of authentic reading texts and group tasks | Arabic doesn't like reading don't like to be interrupted when reading favourite type of book favourite type of book: adventure fun like group work or working alone like reading like reading games likes correction while reading aloud |

| | |
|---|---|
| | likes groupwork likes pictures for understanding likes praise from parents and teacher likes reading likes reading in English and Arabic likes teacher to model pronunciation nervous and fun reading aloud no favourite type of book prefer books with pictures prefers books without pictures prefers English Prefers reading in English pupil likes to read first reading associated with other tasks such as making up stories and drawing reading competition encouraged me to read more reading gives me time to do creative things reads about animals, likes lions reasons why they don't like reading slightly likes reading willing to read aloud without picture |
| parents as teacher role | cousin influences, is a fast reader father helps with reading likes praise from parents and teacher motivated by family parents help sometimes worried that mum will be mad at me if I get a poor grade |
| praise and opportunities to help others as main motivators | class competes against other classes to read the most books feel happy when praised helping others motivates me to learn English instrumental motivation lived in UK 5 years motivated by a peer motivated by family motivated to use reading to become a better writer praise motivates me to read more reading competition encouraged me to read more reading for future job Studied abroad for 5 years travel motivates me to learn English so I can help my friends who don't speak English |

| | |
|---|--|
| assessment improves confidence and motivation | <p>9/10 reading skills</p> <p>achieves expected grade</p> <p>class competes against other classes to read the most books</p> <p>confident in reading English</p> <p>give self a lower grade because of the spelling mistakes</p> <p>gives self 9 because they get confused</p> <p>mostly don't feel anxious about grades</p> <p>mostly get the reading grade I expect</p> <p>no memory of reading well in class</p> <p>proud of self when read very fast</p> <p>rates own English reading ability 10/10</p> <p>reading score 7.5</p> <p>reading score 8</p> <p>sometimes gets expecting reading grade</p> <p>sometimes worried that mum will be mad at me if I get a poor grade</p> <p>word per minute as measure of success</p> |
| difficulties around unfamiliar vocabulary | <p>difficult vocabulary</p> <p>Easy for some hard for some</p> <p>feel more confident if teacher reads first</p> <p>hard words are obstacle</p> <p>nervous and scared to make mistakes</p> <p>reading is easier than writing</p> <p>working in groups helps with hard books</p> <p>would feel embarrassed if teacher interrupted me reading aloud</p> |
| varied learning strategies | <p>doesn't memorise</p> <p>doesn't tend to memorise when reading English and Arabic</p> <p>exposed to reading</p> <p>extra reading practice to improve how they were taught</p> <p>learn reading from book and YouTube</p> <p>listening followed by reading and acting out</p> <p>memorises text</p> <p>nervous about reading aloud</p> <p>no memory of being taught</p> <p>reading aloud</p> <p>repeat teacher, read by self/in pairs</p> <p>silent reading</p> <p>sound the word out to work out meaning</p> <p>taught English with sentences</p> <p>teacher uses different tools for different year groups</p> |

| | |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| | <p>told to use context clues to find unknown meanings</p> <p>use pictures to figure out meaning</p> <p>uses explore sheet wall display for unknown vocabulary</p> <p>would be silent before reading aloud</p> |
| support and motivation from friends | <p>admires hard working good reader friend</p> <p>cousin influences, is a fast reader</p> <p>friends help me</p> <p>motivated by a peer</p> |

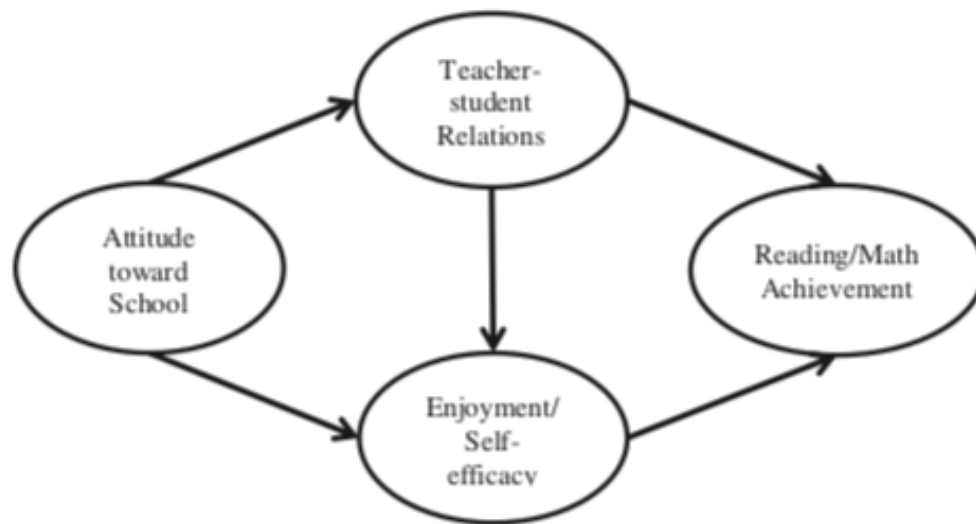
Appendix J: Example of Coding and Themes 1-3 for Students Interviews

| Subject Quotation | Codes | Theme 1 |
|---|------------------------|---|
| "I travelled and stayed in Canada where everyone spoke English.. I had to learn quickly or I could not understand" | Past experience | Exposure to and demand for fluency in reading English |
| "my parents taught me... it made me ready for school" | Historic exposure | |
| "English is spoken everywhere in the world.. it is important to learn" | Social utility | |
| "I want to travel and see other places... maybe work and live somewhere new.. I know I need to be good at English to do this" | Social prospects | |
| "I want to be a doctor and English is the common language and needed to go to college and university to learn about being a doctor" | Occupational prospects | |

| Subject Quotation | Codes | Theme 2 |
|--|---|---|
| "the teacher would ask to read out parts like a play and we did, it was funny and we all laughed together.. I will always remember this" | Positive emotional facilitators of learning | Enjoyment and pleasure of reading English |
| "the competitions were scary.. I tried to prepare but I was so nervous I could not read as I did at home" | Aversive emotions to learning | |

| Subject Quotation | Codes | Theme 3 |
|--|----------------------------|---|
| "I liked when the teacher used English, Arabic we know, but hearing the words was helpful" | Promotive teaching factors | Teaching approach and educational materials |
| "I made more mistakes... I like sitting down and concentration.. standing is more difficult" | Aversive teaching factors | |

Appendix K: Example of a Model of the Relationship between Attitude, Self-Efficacy and Academic Performance (Yashima et al., 2004).



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