

EGYPTIAN TEACHERS' PERSPECTIVE ON THE USE OF MULTIPLE
INTELLIGENCES THEORY IN THEIR EDUCATIONAL AND CULTURAL
CONTEXT

by

Nora H. El-Bilawi
A Dissertation
Submitted to the
Graduate Faculty
of
George Mason University
in Partial Fulfillment of
The Requirements for the Degree
of
Doctor of Philosophy
Education

Committee:

_____ Co-Chair

_____ Co-Chair

_____ Program Director

_____ Dean, College of Education
and Human Development

Date: _____ Spring Semester 2013
George Mason University
Fairfax, VA

Egyptian Teachers' Perspective on the Use of Multiple Intelligences Theory in Their
Educational and Cultural Context

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy at George Mason University

By

Nora El-Bilawi
Masters of Education
George Mason University, 2005
Bachelor of Arts
Ain-Shams University, Egypt, 2000

Directors: Marjorie Hall Haley, Professor
Ilham Nasser, Associate Professor
College of Education and Human Development

Spring Semester 2013
George Mason University
Fairfax, VA

Copyright: 2012 Nora H. El-Bilawi
All Rights Reserved

DEDICATION

I dedicate my dissertation to my family and friends. Particularly to my understanding and supportive husband, Mohannad, who has put up with these many years of research and always listened to my stories with patience and interest, I would not have done it without his belief on me. To our precious son Omar, who is the joy of our lives. A special feeling of gratitude to my loving and supportive parents, Hassan and Safaa whose words of encouragement and push tenacity ring in my ears; I owe every success to you both. To my sisters Abeer and Ghada, who have never left my side and are very special to me. I also thank my terrific in-laws who have always encouraged me.

I also dedicate this dissertation to my many friends who have supported and listened to me throughout the process. I will always appreciate all they have done, especially Sarah Mady and Reema Al-Saweel for being there for me throughout the entire doctorate program. Both of you have been great cheerleaders.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank my committee members who were more than generous with their expertise and precious time. A special thanks to Dr. Marjorie Haley and Dr. Ilham Nasser, my committee chairs for their countless hours of reflecting, reading, encouraging, and most of all patience throughout the entire process. Thank you Dr. Earle Reybold for agreeing to be my research methodologist and Dr. Beverly Shaklee for being the international education asset to my research.

I would like to acknowledge the Egyptian schools and their owners for allowing me to enter their premises and to implement my research with the teachers there. Special thanks go to the Egyptian EFL teachers who provided me with their quality time and valuable perspectives.

Finally I would like to thank the administrators in these schools that assisted me with this project. Everybody's excitement and willingness to provide feedback made the completion of this project.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Title Page.....	i
Copyright Page.....	ii
Dedication.....	iii
Acknowledgment.....	iv
Table of Content.....	v
List of Tables.....	vi
List of Figures.....	vii
Abstract.....	viii
Chapter 1.....	1-15
Chapter 2.....	16-50
Chapter 3.....	51-84
Chapter 4.....	85-139
Chapter 5.....	140-180
Appendices.....	181-197
References.....	198-213

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
Table 1: Field description.....	92-95

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
Figure 1: Theoretical framework	35
Figure 2: Research inquiry model.....	56
Figure 3: Inductive data analysis process	75
Figure 4: Data results	146
Figure 5: Egyptian linear schooling culture of centralization.....	151
Figure 6: Paradigm shift in educational reform in Egypt	166

ABSTRACT

EGYPTIAN TEACHERS' PERSPECTIVE ON THE USE OF MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES THEORY IN THEIR EDUCATIONAL AND CULTURAL CONTEXT

Nora H. El-Bilawi, PhD

George Mason University, 2013

Dissertation Co-Directors: Dr. Marjorie Haley and Dr. Ilham Nasser

In this dissertation research I explored Egyptian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' perspectives on the implementation of Gardner's (1999) multiple intelligences (MI) theory in private language schools at the primary level. Teachers' perspectives were studied within the frame of the educational reform that the Egyptian Ministry of Education (MOE) proposed in its National Strategic Plan of 2007 in which MI was included. Through my cultural approach, I assumed that the Egyptian culture might have an influence on Egyptian teachers' views and practices of MI. As a constructivist, I viewed teachers as creators of their own educational realities through their daily life and in their teaching pedagogies. The goal of this research was to discover if there were challenges and/or opportunities to implementing MI in Egyptian private schools and in EFL. I found that Egyptian EFL teachers value the use of MI in their lessons to create more active learning environments. However, teachers believe they lack the complete

knowledge and tools to integrate MI in their daily lessons due to lack of training. They also expressed concerns about the challenges they face as a result of the schooling culture and system within the Egyptian context that put teachers as the only center of change. I propose the need for a paradigm shift to implement practical changes toward educational reform in Egypt. This study may advocate for changes to the way educational leaders apply MI cross culturally.

CHAPTER 1: RESEARCH OVERVIEW

Introduction

In this chapter I outline the introduction to this proposed research study. The chapter includes the statement of the purpose, statement of the problem, my identity in relation to the research, justification of the research, goals and objectives, research questions, significance of the study, assumptions, and some important key words used in this research.

As educators we continually encourage integrating student-centered teaching methods into the educational system and gradually getting rid of teacher-centered ones. Gardner's MI theory (1999) provides a tool to advocate for modern teaching pedagogies. One of the major differences between traditional methods of teaching and more contemporary ones is that modern teaching methods always strive to better accommodate individual differences among learners. These modern methods transform teaching from a teacher-centered to a student-centered pedagogy with emphasis on students' individual real-life experiences and intelligences, which aim at developing students' creativity and critical thinking (Dewey, 1956). Hence, the multiple intelligences (MI) theory is a popular issue in education these days.

According to Wu and Alrabah (2009), foreign language classrooms are best when students are in the center of learning. Foreign language learners are far from being a

homogeneous group for which a uniform set of materials and teaching methods cannot be recommended. Wu and Alrabah (2009) continue, students learn a language under a variety of conditions and in a wide spectrum of cultural contexts. Thus, it is essential that foreign language teachers are well versed in various traditions and trained to incorporate cultural practices in their activities and lesson plans.

The literature agrees that culture affects people's intelligences and ways of approaching problem solving. "Culture is not just race, nationality or any particular social category—culture is experience" (Nisbett, 2003, p. 30). However, more empirical research is needed to investigate multiple intelligences across cultures to inform foreign language teachers about how to apply the MI pedagogy in ways that are applicable to the teachers' and students' cultural context. This knowledge will assist teachers in designing materials, teaching tasks, and associating activities congruently with the abilities, needs, and preferences of their diverse students.

In this study, I focused on Egyptian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers from kindergarten through 8th grade who are part of the Egyptian strategic plan. My primary purpose was to examine the practices associated with the theory of multiple intelligences in a non-Western context—that is, Egypt. I did not intend to concentrate on evaluating the MI theory and its outcomes, nor did I plan to determine whether the theory is effective. The overarching aim was to explore the perspectives of in-service Egyptian EFL teachers and their MI-based approaches and practices in the Egyptian schooling context.

I chose Egyptian teachers because of the new educational reform in Egypt where the EFL teachers use MI theory as a new educational method of teaching. Reformers agreed that Egypt needed an education system that encourages creativity, critical thinking, active learning¹, and teamwork rather than rote memorization and passive learning (National Strategic Plan for Pre-University Education Reform in Egypt, 2007/08–2011/12), and that is when MI theory was introduced in teacher training as one of the tools that advocates for active learning methods.

The Ministry of Education (MOE) has made unprecedented efforts in reforming its pre-university educational system over the past 3 years. One of these educational reforms is providing teachers with training programs on how to differentiate instruction, and MI theory and practices were introduced as one of the means to achieve this reform.

Statement of the Purpose

The purpose of this study is to explore MI and its practices across cultures, especially in the Middle Eastern context of Egypt. I used qualitative inquiry to understand the connection between teachers' schooling culture and their use and understanding of MI. I wanted to listen to EFL teachers' perspectives in order to understand if their culture was an opportunity or an obstacle for them when implementing MI. I know that some researchers in the field may look at this previous statement from a post-colonialist position that appreciates all cultures without seeing that cultures may be viewed as "obstacles" to change. Alternatively, I respond to this from a Bourdieu cultural perspective, in which I

¹ Active learning puts the responsibility of organizing what is to be learned in the hands of the learners themselves and ideally lends itself to a more diverse range of learning styles (Dodge 1996). All learning is in some sense active, but active learning refers to the level of engagement by the student in the instructional process (Fern et al., 1993).

view cultures as sources of social reproductions that in some cases create resistance to change (more will be discussed in Chapter 2).

Another purpose of this research is to investigate if the EFL teachers are amenable to a change toward the use of MI practices and what these practices entail from creative ways of thinking to changing the environment and so on. I was interested in learning more about teachers' difficulties in the implementation of MI in their classrooms and reasons behind that.

The findings could serve my final purpose in creating cross-cultural understanding of the importance of the role of cultures in shaping teachers' abilities to change and to use theories like MI in their classrooms. Educators and researchers, in an international context, should be aware of integrating teachers' cultural backgrounds when trying to implement new teaching theories and methods.

Statement of the Problem

Howard Gardner viewed intelligence as “the capacity to solve problems or to fashion products that are valued in one or more cultural settings” (Gardner & Hatch, 1989, p. 62). He created a specific map of the eight intelligences that he thinks students must acquire; hence, teachers may integrate such intelligences in their lesson plans. However, I found that the problem lies in the implementation of the theory rather than in the theory itself.

My curiosity about this research arose from my experience in the field, where I found that many foreign language teachers, who should know about the nature of their students' diverse backgrounds, are still using their own teaching philosophies and methods

and refer back to their own educational background and culture when interacting with students. Education practitioners, school administrators, and teachers have been looking at MI theory and trying to implement it in classrooms from their own isolated perspectives. Many of these MI-based practices excluded the key element of the theory, which is integrating and considering teachers' and students' cultures and schooling. These aspects are key factors in the teaching and learning preferences and intelligence used in classrooms.

Moreover, when introducing the theory of MI in “non-Western” cultural contexts, the teachings of MI practices should be developed to match the hosting culture to avoid any clashes between the theory practices and the cultural context (Chen, Moran, & Gardner, 2009). Teacher training programs that do not address such an issue might lead teachers into a “one size fits all” strategy; for example, teachers randomly practice MI in their classrooms in one specific way in which they enforce certain intelligences more frequently because of their own comfort zone, mind habitus,² cultural preferences, and/or religious beliefs (Pratt & Collins, 2000).

Furthermore, in Chen et al. (2009), Gardner's chapter addressed the phenomenon of the success of MI implementation in some countries and its failure in others. In an attempt to address this issue, Gardner explains, “Japan has proved quite uncongenial to the MI meme” (2009, p. 8). This might be because the Japanese population thinks

² According to Bernard and Spencer in the *Encyclopedia of Social and Cultural Anthropology* (2009), mind habitus is the set of predispositions of individuals' behaviors where they became habits in the course of socialization—a custom of how to behave in relation to societal interrelations. Thus, mind habitus makes individuals assume that their own ideas and practices are right.

“sociologically”—that is, in a collective cultural context—as opposed to “psychologically”—that is, in a manner that digs deeper in the inner-self. In other words, if a certain culture is accustomed to a certain mind habitus, it is difficult for this culture to transfer to some other ways of thinking unless this new thinking forms a new mind habitus that is re-aculturated into a society’s cultural capital.

Gardner highlights the difficulties he experienced in introducing the MI theory in France (Chen et al., 2009). He explains that even though he has translated his books in French, thus far there has been no strong advocacy for applying the theory in French schools. Gardner proposes that one reason for that is French school system is closely related to the French culture; it is based on a hierarchal bureaucracy that, in order to enter an “elite” school, a student must pass several intelligence quotient (IQ), linguistic, and logical measures. This system does not advocate for the need to address any other diverse or creativity needs and integrate them in their educational regimen. Would the conflict relate back to the cultural context where the theory is applied?

The previous analogy highlights the problem of the correlation between cultural contexts and constructs of a society and the application of the MI theory. Gardner’s argument highlights that if a school’s culture mismatches with the MI practices of teachers or the whole school system, then the process of application will be doomed to failure and inapplicability (Chen et al., 2009). Hence, there is a great need for more empirical studies to address this phenomenon.

My Identity in Relation to the Research Problem

An example of the previously argued problem of the disconnection between MI practices and its integration of the social and the school cultural context sparked my interest in exploring this issue further. The following situation happened to me when I taught English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) 4 years ago. I was in a mainstream classroom and co-teaching with the general educator in a science class. We were working in a regular cooperative group activity, and I noticed an ESOL student was not participating in the activity—an Iranian Muslim girl who had just arrived a week earlier to our school. I asked if the teacher knew what the problem was with this student, but the teacher did not know and she indicated that the student had been demonstrating this same behavior since starting at the school. The teacher said that she had been using the ESOL strategies we both had been talking about and that the girl would still show some hesitance in participating, especially when they were in groups or if they were learning kinesthetically and using songs to learn material. I decided to put on my researcher's hat to learn more about this student's background because not all Middle Eastern Muslims have the same cultural or religious beliefs. This girl was only a third grader and was veiled, so I did not speak to her in my investigation. Instead, I interviewed her parents, only to find out that she did not like group work because she was raised to believe that mingling with boys was inappropriate; this eliminated her from the learning process almost immediately. Singing or listening to music, jumping and dancing around, and going to physical education (PE) classes were also forbidden activities in her religion and cultural beliefs. Although this girl might have been strong in kinesthetic, musical, and/or interpersonal intelligences, she and her family had a different perspective on these

learning experiences. The issue here was finding ways to accommodate such intelligences in a manner that was appropriate and would match with this different cultural and religious belief.

This personal story intrigued me to build my motivation and interest shaped my research and highlighted where the problem begins.

Justification of the Study

Despite its significance, the relationship and the connection between Gardner's theory and its interrelationship with language teachers' cultural backgrounds have received scant scholarly attention (Wu & Alrabah, 2009). Moreover, the need to understand this connectivity as a means for educational reform in culturally specific societies, such as Egypt, is also a fairly new field research topic. Hence, this research investigated the relationship of MI theory, social development, and educational reform in an Egyptian context.

Research Goals and Objectives

The overall objective of the study is to bridge cross-culture and to create more international understanding about the MI theory's implementation in different cultures and the relationship between the theory and the teachers' schooling cultures. This understanding creates a channel for communication on how teachers in the Middle East, especially in Egypt, perceive educational changes and reforms initiated globally and the challenges they face in implementing such rapid educational changes.

One of the outcomes of this research is to understand the view of MI theory as a tool for reform in Egypt from the perspective of EFL teachers. From reading through the

National Strategic Plan of Education in Egypt, I believe that the MOE is leading a great educational reform geared toward teacher performance and advocacy for active, creative, and critical thinking. Hence, another outcome would be exploring the ways Egyptian EFL teachers link creative and critical thinking, the use of MI, and the educational reform the government is looking for in the education strategic plan.

Research Questions

To further understand and explore the nature of the interrelationship between the MI implementations and foreign teachers' cultural backgrounds, I shaped my research questions. My dissertation research explores the following research questions (RQ):

RQ 1: What do Egyptian EFL teachers know about the MI theory?

RQ 2: What are the views and perspectives of EFL teachers about the implementation of MI theory in Egypt?

RQ 3: How do the educational background, teaching philosophy, and schooling culture of Egyptian EFL teachers influence their perspective on the use of MI?

RQ 4: How do Egyptian EFL teachers view the link between MI and the educational reform the government is looking for in the education strategic plan?

RQ 5: What are the challenges and opportunities facing EFL teachers' attempts to implement MI in their classrooms in Egypt?

RQ 6: In what ways does Egyptian culture inspire or inhibit individual creativity and use of MI practices?

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study lies in the connection I drew between MI theory and its implementation in the Egyptian culture. The study attempted to provide an understanding of MI in Egypt under the educational reform together with EFL teachers' perspectives on the theory within their Egyptian cultural context. This topic is one of the few empirical studies conducted to research this phenomenon.

Moreover, the study is significant in that it addresses the needs of an ever-growing population: English as a Foreign Language teachers who are responsible for providing EFL learners with appropriate differentiated instruction through the use of MI theory. Equally important is the significance of teachers' self-examination and how their perspectives influence what takes place in their classrooms on a daily basis. This may be achieved by developing practical and authentic teachers' professional development opportunities (King et al., 2009).

This research encouraged teachers' reflective practices using the interviews of the participating teachers. The first practice is to understand the phenomenon. The second is to get teachers to evaluate themselves and reflect on their teaching practices. When teachers critically reflect on their teaching, they develop a deeper understanding of their own teaching, their differentiation techniques, and their problem-solving skills, which enable them to fix their teaching behaviors and practices (Honigsfeld & Schiering, 2004).

Assumptions

Starting this research I had few "insider's" assumptions (Fay, 1996), (see Chapter 5 for an analysis of my insider-ness). One of my assumptions that there might be problems in implementing the theory of MI in Egypt because of the traditional teaching and learning

culture in schools and because of the low socioeconomic context of education in Egypt, which should influence schools' settings. My second assumption was that Egyptian teachers have not learned in an interactive and creative manner when they were students themselves. As a result of the educational system in Egypt, critical thinking, creativity, and learning differentiation were not stressed or used at any educational level, not even in the School of Education, where most of these teachers graduated. A third assumption is that if teachers only received a few staff development trainings using MI, there are no guarantees that they can actually apply it and that they will not go back to what they are used to or comfortable with. Also, there are no guarantees that the training they have received is true to MI theory, especially because training was not conducted by authentic "Western" MI experts. So, the assumption here was that Egyptian EFL teachers might not be capable of using MI theory due to challenges related to professional development and or culture.

Although most teachers admit that they have awareness of MI theory, they might not be as aware of how their own preferred intelligences, learning styles, and/or own biases weigh heavily on their MI-based instructional and assessment practices. I believe that the theory in its application might need to be reframed when applied in different cultural contexts in order to respond to the local educational and cultural realities. The following define the salient key terms used throughout this dissertation.

Functional Definitions of Key Terms

Beliefs: According to the *Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy* (Schwitzgebel, 2011), beliefs refer to “the attitude we have, roughly, whenever we take something to be the case or regard it as true” (para. 1).

Cultural context: For the purpose of this research, cultural context is the surrounding environment or circumstances in a certain culture (e.g., language, socioeconomic situation, religion, community and neighborhood) (Hall, 1976).

Culture: For the purpose of this research, culture in the anthropological sense is defined as the meanings and behaviors groups of people develop and share over time (Hall, 1976).

Schooling culture: It is a set of tacit expectations and assumptions that direct the activities of school personnel and students; hence, school culture is not a static entity. It is constantly being constructed and shaped through interactions with others and through reflections on life and the world in general (Finnan, 2000). School culture develops as staff members interact with each other, the students, and the community. It becomes the guide for behavior that is shared among members of the school at large (Finnan, 2000).

Mind habitus: According to the *Encyclopedia of Social and Cultural Anthropology* (Bernard & Spencer, 2009), mind habitus is the set of predispositions of individuals’ behaviors where they became habits in the course of socialization—a custom of how to behave in relation to societal interrelations. Thus, mind habitus makes individuals take for granted that their own ideas and practices are right. In the realm of my research, I look at a teacher’s mind habitus as the teaching approaches used in classroom activities and lesson plans. The mind habitus creates its own comfort zone and point of reference where they can always return to for comfort.

Multiple intelligences: Intelligence was once seen as the ability to perform well on linguistic and logical–mathematical problem solving. This “IQ” (intelligence quotient) concept of intelligence has dominated the academic literature for a long time. Research on intelligence by Gardner (1999) has begun to offer a new paradigm that changed the way educators view intelligence. It is a theory that was developed to document the fact that human beings have different kinds of intellectual strengths and that these strengths are very important in how students learn and how people represent things in their minds and then how people use them in order to show what it is that they have understood (Gardner, 1983). This nascent interest in Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligences by language teachers is consistent with the need to accommodate learner individual differences to promote optimal learning conditions in the classroom. Gardner (1999) suggested that, although all humans possess the eight intelligences, each person has his or her own particular blend or amalgam of intelligences.

Traditions: In this specific research, tradition to me is simply a collection of time-honored customs and beliefs passed down through generations; people have found them to be their common ground merely because things have always been done in this specific manner (Giddens, 1994). Any attempt at innovation is opposed in the name of tradition, which is considered first and foremost as a conservative force in society and a safeguard against a dangerous liking for novelty or even against any suggestion of a wider outlook. Tradition is favored because it prevents change (Yves Congar, 2004).

Democratic/Undemocratic education: It is the conventional, hierarchical, more coercive education system present in most public schools (Morrison, 2007). Critical educational

theorists, who would include John Dewey and more contemporary authors such as Paulo Freire, believe that our schools should emphasize a commitment to a democratic system in which each person is honored in a just community (Purpel, 1989).

Values: Values are commonly held standards of what is acceptable or unacceptable in a community or society. Every culture carries a series of key beliefs, notions, and concepts, which are defined as the cultural values that people share in a particular culture (Hofstede, 1991).

Western: I view this through a cross-cultural psychology lens. In this field, the term “Western” is used to refer to technological, industrialized, modern cultures such as the United States, Canada, Western Europe, or Russia (Duchesne, 2011). According to Duchesne (2011), the description of something or somebody as “Western” generally carries unwarranted value judgments regarding degree of civilization, development, or cultural advancement. I would like to note that Western cultures and non-Western cultures are not homogeneous; societal and sub cultural variations of all sorts provide valuable material for comparisons among groups or examination of patterns within groups (Rogoff, 1991).

Conclusion

To conclude, it should be noted that this study is a first attempt at investigating a topic on which there is little to no prior research, especially in the Middle Eastern context. Further, this research bears witness to the call for future empirical and longitudinal fieldwork.

In Chapter 2, I explain the research framework and review the literature around this topic to closely analyze and understand the research phenomenon. I will introduce the Egyptian educational system, the traditional teaching and setting, and the new call for change and reform.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Introduction

In this chapter I will review the literature that supports my research purpose and goals on the use of multiple intelligences in the Egyptian context. I will briefly review Piaget, Vygotsky, and Bronfenbrenner's views on the relationship between language learning and the surrounding social cultural context. Moreover, I will provide the overarching framework of my research study.

My study of Gardner's multiple intelligences (MI) theory is based on the constructivist belief that humans are the generators of knowledge through their cultural lens, experiences, social interactions, traditions, and religion. Therefore, I intend to learn about Egyptian teachers' views on the use of Gardner's MI theory when used within their Egyptian cultural contexts.

The role of culture when acquiring a foreign language is a widely acknowledged position in the foreign language acquisition dialogue. Culture has no longer been seen as "an 'add-on' but rather an 'integral part' of foreign language learning" in the second-language classroom (Courchene, 1996, p. 1). The teacher and learner inherit language and logic development as members of a particular culture and these are learned throughout their lives (Wertsch, 1997). According to Piaget (1950), without the social interaction with other more knowledgeable people, it is impossible to acquire social meaning of languages

and learn how to communicate with them. From the social constructivist viewpoint, it is thus important to take into account the background and culture of the teacher and learner throughout the learning process because this background also helps to shape the type of knowledge created (Wertsch, 1997). Accordingly, foreign language learning must not be separated from acculturation or the integration of the hosting culture and the foreign language learned (English).

According to Vygotsky's social and cognitive development theory (1978), cultural and social interactions play a role in students' educational and cognitive development. Looking at the connection between students' intelligences and learning preferences from a socialist lens, Vygotsky's social cognition theory focuses on the connections between people's learning development and the cultural context in which they act and interact in shared experiences (Crawford, 1996). The social cognition–learning model asserts that culture is the prime determinant of individual development. Therefore, one's learning development is affected in many ways by the culture—including the culture of family environment—in which one is entangled (Vygotsky, 1978). He claims humans use tools that they develop from their culture to mediate their social environments and develop their learning process; unless these cultural tools are met with a fostering environment in their classrooms, students might face obstacles where there is a collision between what they acquired as their cultural survival tools and what or how things are in fact taught at schools (Chen et al., 2009). From the previous discussion I came to understand that Vygotsky's theory calls for interactive teaching and learning pedagogy where the teacher's role is to build an environment that stimulates creative thinking and where the

educational system provides emergent curriculum. In Egypt there is a need to create instructional procedures that are powerful enough to build connections between the input—teachers’ practices—and the output—students’ cognitive development and production. Because the MI calls for that interactive teaching and learning relationship, the theory’s practices should match with students’ cultural constructs.

In emphasizing the role of culture in learning, cognition, and creative thinking Bronfenbrenner’s ecological theory (1979) creates a link to what he calls the cultural layers of a society. He argues that creative thinking cannot be developed in isolation from these layers surrounding individuals. The interaction between these layers in the person’s maturing biology, immediate family/community environment, and societal landscape fuels and steers this person’s cognitive development. The theory, from my perspective, is another way of defining what Vygotsky might call “cultural constructs.” Bronfenbrenner (1979) illustrates his view on what influences and shapes each person in a society. These layers are microsystem, exosystem, and macrosystem. In detail, the microsystem is the layer closest to a person; it identifies relationships and interactions of a person with the immediate surroundings including family, school, neighborhood, or school environments (Berk, 2000). The interaction of structures within a layer and interactions of structures between layers is key to this theory. The exosystem is the layer defining the larger social system in which a person does not function directly; parent workplace schedules or community-based family resources are examples (Berk, 2000). A person may not be directly involved at this level but still feels the positive or negative force involved within his or her own system. Last, the macrosystem is the layer considered the outermost of a

person's environment. Although not a specific framework, this layer is composed of cultural values, customs, and laws (Berk, 2000).

In this research I conducted an empirical study to explore the application of MI theory within the Middle Eastern cultural context, specifically Egypt. I focused on EFL Egyptian teachers' perspectives in using MI in their language classes. I investigated the applicability of the theory to their cultural context and the problems and challenges associated with how they view the theory through their Egyptian lens.

To solidify my research argument, I studied and reviewed a wide range of literature related to the topic. The following sections include the literature reviews and theoretical framework enfolding my dissertation topic to support my research argument.

Literature Review

The following is a presentation of my review of literature that pertains to my research topic and questions. I will be discussing some of Gardner's work on MI and the critical views on the theory, the appeal of MI around the world, and the MI theory and its relation to creative thinking.

Review of Gardner's MI theory (1999)

Gardner has been, in Smith and Smith's (1994) terms, a paradigm shifter. Gardner viewed intelligence as "the capacity to solve problems or to fashion products that are valued in one or more cultural settings" (Gardner & Hatch, 1989, p. 6). The theory of multiple intelligences has initiated through cognitive research as it "documents the extent to which students possess different kinds of minds and therefore learn, remember, perform, and understand in different ways" (Gardner, 1991, p. 18). Gardner initially

formulated a list of eight intelligences that he suggested are common among people in general: linguistic, logical–mathematical, musical, bodily–kinesthetic, spatial, naturalistic, interpersonal, and intrapersonal. The first two have been typically valued in schools; the next four are usually associated with the arts; and the final two are what Gardner called “personal intelligences” (Gardner, 1999, p. 41).

Gardner (1999) says:

“[Individuals’ differences in intelligences] challenge an educational system that assumes that everyone can learn the same materials in the same way and that a uniform, universal measure suffices to test student learning. Indeed, as currently constituted, our educational system is heavily biased toward linguistic modes of instruction and assessment and, to a somewhat lesser degree, toward logical-quantitative modes as well. A contrasting set of assumptions is more likely to be educationally effective. Students learn in ways that are identifiably distinctive. The broad spectrum of students—and perhaps the society as a whole—would be better served if disciplines could be presented in a numbers of ways and learning could be assessed through a variety of means.” (Gardner, 1999, p. 41–43)

In other words, an individual’s intelligence should not be viewed from one angle with one definition measured by a test. Gardner has provided a new understanding of human intelligence to be a multiple one; we can appreciate each individual as a human being who shares a uniqueness of his or her own to communicate with the surrounding society. Moreover, Gardner’s theory has opened the eyes of educators that education

measures should be addressing each individual child with the talent of intelligence the student possesses. This assumption that every child has his or her own different intelligences will certainly have implications for further educational needs. Therefore, educators need to find a new teaching formulation in relation to the theory's design that appreciates individuals' intelligence. The curriculum needs to be applicable to the MI practices in the planning, implementation, and evaluation in order to be able to serve all intelligences (Hatch & Gardner, 1993).

The concept of multiple intelligences has gained attention because of its cultural referencing in which Gardner references culture as the main influence in the development of learners' intelligences by defining what is valued for every individual. According to Baruth and Manning (1992), "Knowing that a relationship exists between cultures and education is a prerequisite to effective teaching, but continuing to teach with styles and strategies appropriate only for middle-class Anglo learners fails to meet the needs of culturally diverse children and adolescents" (p. 332).

Appeal of MI around the world

Gardner affirms that MI theory is now an international theory and that he has no control over it (Chen et al., 2009). He further explains that MI became a "meme—a unit of meaning created at a certain place and time, that has spread widely in the past quarter century" (p. 8).

The spread of MI reached many countries and led to research and to explore the influence of the theory on their cultural contexts. For example, in a Middle Eastern study implemented in Jordan to evaluate curriculum development using MI as their reforming

strategy, Alghazo, Obeidat, Al-trawneh, and Alshraideh (2009) investigated, in a comparative study, the difference between the types of multiple intelligences integrated in Arabic and in English social studies books. Their research questions explore the following: the multiple intelligences found in the Arabic and English social studies book for the first three grades and whether they are logically ordered according to multiple intelligence theory from one grade to another, and the degrees of distribution of the multiple intelligences between the textbooks and how they may differ. To achieve the goal of their study, they developed an instrument that contained 30 questions with five divisions, each representing one kind of the multiple intelligences. The researchers piloted their topic before conducting this research study in order to develop their research instrument. As a result of the pilot study the researchers devised 27 items and distributed them over a number of domains. A first draft of the instrument was distributed to 11 reviewers majoring in educational psychology, statistics, and methods of teaching to check how suitable the instrument was for the purpose of the study and how related were the items to each field. They were also asked to see all the items and give their opinion by changing, deleting, or adding any new item they felt was necessary for the study. After the instrument was revised by the reviewers the researchers took in the changes required and the instrument was formed in its final version consisting of 23 items distributed over five domains. The first domain is visual intelligence, which consisted of four items; the second field is verbal intelligence, consisting of four items; the third field, the physical intelligence, consisted of four items; the fourth field, social intelligence, consisted of five items; and the fifth field, natural intelligence, consisted of six items.

They intended to investigate what types of intelligences are the most dominant or recurring in the English versus the Arabic social studies books for the first three elementary grade levels. The examined intelligences were visual, auditory, physical, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and environmental (natural). According to Alghazo et al. (2009), the most common types of multiple intelligences in all books (Arabic and English across grade levels) are the visual (spatial) types. The researchers relate this result to the fact that children at these early grade levels depend on concrete visual pictures because they are appealing to this age, which encourages them to retain and understand information for a longer period. However, the researchers found that the next most common kind of intelligences in the English social studies books across the three grade levels were the interpersonal and musical intelligences. The textbook provided several activities that allowed for cooperative discussions and rhyming songs to incorporate in the classroom. Although Arabic social studies books, at three grade levels, indicate the domination of intrapersonal and auditory intelligences, the Arabic textbook had many memorization and multiple-choice questions together with many references to use audiotapes associated with the book for classroom activities. The researchers indicated further findings where the results showed some illogical flow in some of the multiple intelligences in the Arabic and English language textbooks. The researchers recommended putting a scale for the multiple intelligences for each textbook and each grade so that it flowed in a logical way that was suitable with the developmental characteristics of the students.

From understanding this research's findings, I created a new connection here with my research in that there is a great influence of a society's cultural ideologies on this country's educational system including curriculum and teaching methods. In other words, the English social studies textbooks were more influenced by Western teaching ideologies and cultural constructs, whereas Arabic social studies books were more influenced by the Middle Eastern, Jordanian, cultural context and teaching ideologies. Due to my continuous search for Middle Eastern literature that tackled this topic, I may claim that the significance of this study lies in the fact that it is one of the few Middle Eastern studies that investigates the interrelationship between culture and the integration of multiple intelligences in schools.

Moreover, in Gardner's chapter in Chen et al. (2009) about the internationality of the theory, he claims that the implementation of the theory was successful in several other international arenas in countries such as Ireland, where the MI theory was integrated together with a Project Zero professional development (PD) initiative focused on teaching for understanding. Gardner further speaks that other countries like China, the Philippines, and South Korea are among the countries that successfully implemented MI. Gardner attributes the successes in the previously listed countries to several reasons. China's Ministry of Education (MOE), one of his more comprehensive examples, and its role in working attentively in popularizing the theory provided academic writing and rich literature on the uses and the importance of the MI theory to spread the wisdom of MI. China's MOE also introduced Gardner himself to the educational community in China via media and several invitations to public events. These vast presentations and

introductions to Gardner and his MI theory involved and provided Chinese educators in the education reform plan, where MI was part of it, with tips on the theory's practices. Gardner further notes that individuals in China, such as Zhilong Shen and Jie-Qi Chen, also were essential in spreading the theory. Those individuals hosted conferences and events that attracted hundreds of educators around the globe to share their perspectives and ideas, thereby promoting the use of MI. This is important because it sustains the relationship between the hosting culture and the original culture of the MI theory. This is one of the issues that I would like to know whether it influenced or contributed to the success or failure of the application of the theory in Egypt.

Also, according to Gardner (Chen et al., 2009), in the Philippines many educators acquired the authentic MI theory by maintaining a dialogic relationship with Gardner himself. They invited him to visit school sites designed to integrate the theory and asked for Gardner's continuous feedback and recommendations, which helped them create the foundation of MI implementation and spread the idea widely among schools there. When they implemented the theory of MI in South Korea they did not leave its applications to expand in isolation; instead, the Korean MOE sustained these efforts by conducting several empirical research efforts to ensure quality in the application, to create more approaches to the theory that fit their schools' needs, and to improve any issues of MI integration (Chen et al., 2009). I am not sure if any of these experiences happened at all in the Egyptian case; this is something I will need to investigate. I believe that the importance of seeking the advice and expertise of Gardner himself together with experiencing the quality of MI applications have a great impact on sustaining the

authenticity and power of the MI theory in schools of any cultural context. Unfortunately, I would have benefited more if Gardner had provided more details regarding each country's success in implementing the MI theory. I would have gained a better understanding of these countries' experiences in integrating the theory and in experimenting the theory's applicability to their cultural context.

Creativity in relation to MI

The government of Egypt was certain in 2007 that the educational system needed a call for reform; this reform would call for enhancing multiple thinking and creative learning in schools. When the strategic plan including all cadre programs was first initiated in 2007, the target was to implement creative and critical thinking in teachers' pedagogies and approaches to address students' diverse learning needs. Hence, the overarching term or vocabulary used in that reform plan was "creative thinking." More than specifically focusing on MI theory and practices as a vehicle to enhance creativity, teachers who participated in these cadre programs were educated about the strategies they could use in advocating for creative thinking (Wald & Castleberry, 2000). Teachers were also provided with tools that can enable them to integrate creative thinking in their lesson plans. The theory of MI was introduced to the teachers, especially those who were enrolled in recent follow-up professional development, as one of these tools that foster creative thinking and address students' diverse needs. MI plays the role of providing multiple thinking intelligences and channels to enable creativity's sustainability. Action learning, represented by the implementation of MI, is believed to be crucial for continuous accumulation of action knowledge and development of creativity and intelligence to cope

with the challenges of local and global changes (Wald & Castleberry, 2000). In other words, creativity rises from multiple forms of intelligences.

I would like to further explore the different views and characteristics of creativity globally, especially because the Western and the Middle Eastern contexts are the focus of my study. However, there is a gap in the literature that addresses the Middle Eastern perspective on creativity. Therefore, when I found literature on the East, which I considered to be the closest to some of the Middle Eastern cultural constructs, I decided to analytically explore those and tackle the creativity perceptions in the East and match their constructs with the Middle East.

Puccio and Gonzalez (2004) suggest that the challenges of encouraging the integration of creativity in some school systems are due to the forces of Eastern cultures on personal development, educational practices, and child-rearing practices, which in some cases inhibit creativity. They further explain that no one model of integration of creativity should fit all cultures; different cultures place emphasis on different factors that require continuous modification of creativity tools and designs to match with the Eastern educational needs (2004). Ng (2001) affirms that culture shapes individuals' ability to express their creativity because culture is the key factor that shapes an individual's beliefs, values, and behaviors.

Educational practices of creativity through the use of MI. It is the same globally that school systems are the first to be either blamed for hindering creativity or thanked for training the citizens to think creatively (Ng, 2001). According to Ng (2001), many practices exist in the school systems that work as factors in hindering creative

thinking; these school systems usually share the same educational practices or context (for example, curriculum recitation, teacher-centered instruction, seatwork positions, overcrowded classrooms, content memorization, and score-based teaching orientation). Many of these practices exist in the Eastern school systems. I believe they also exist in the Egyptian school system. Ng (2001) further explains that several governments in the East (I believe it is the same case in Egypt) try to infuse the idea of fostering creative thinking in education. However, the process of integrating the concept is not greatly accepted by educators and is slow to be implemented. Some reasons for this slow process are as follows. First, some teachers have habitual approaches to teaching. In spite of their knowledge about integrating creative thinking in their classroom activities, they still subconsciously go back to their traditional ways of teaching while believing that all of their learning activities stimulate students' creativity (Tan, 2001). I relate this dilemma to what Bourdieu calls "the mind habitus" of teachers. Second, the assessment and testing system does not evaluate students' creative thinking, but rather tests their academic achievement (Tan, 2001). Third, the public perception of creative thinking from the Eastern (Middle Eastern) viewpoint might judge a student who questions things and tries to change them around as being impolite and disrespectful. This perception is different from what students are encouraged to do in the Western schools, where students are encouraged to think outside-of-the-box, to ask questions, and to experiment (Chan & Chan, 1999). Last, teachers might be teaching in a certain way due to either a cultural influence in which they are consciously conforming to what the society and parents are expecting from them to teach and the classroom should look like (Tan, 2001), or teachers

may be more influenced by their personal environments, unconsciously, that engage them in their “used to” processes that inhibit creativity (Soh, 2000, p. 102).

According to Ng (2001), there is a significant difference in how children are raised and exposed to creative thinking in different cultures. Children in the East and Middle East are taught to obey, respect, not argue, and honor their parents; they are asked not to do anything that would make their parents ashamed or disappointed, which creates what Ng (2009) calls the learners’ “cognitive conservatism” or uncritical learners (p. 29). I believe that this relationship leads to an undemocratic authoritarian system that closes the channels for creative thinking. In contrast, Ng (2001) continues, children in the West and other cultures usually are raised to be independent and to think critically.

I agree with Ng (2001) that the Western educational system creates students who are task involved and intrinsically oriented, which means that they use all of their creative tools to finish a task because they want to finish it. Eastern and Middle Eastern societies, however, develop an extrinsically oriented system in which students view the activity as a means to an end—that is, to receive a higher academic grade or because of social pressure (Ng, 2001). In my opinion, in the Middle East, students are not exposed to experimentation because of the higher competitive nature and performance-oriented system. In fact, students look to authority to dictate to them how to learn and what is considered to be true without doing any experimentation or questioning.

Criticism of the MI theory

Along with the popularity of multiple intelligences, there has been a growing body of criticism of the theory (Armstrong, 2009). In fact, one of the criticisms against MI

theory is that there have not been enough responses to address such critical analysis by MI advocates. Willingham (2004), for example, observes, “Textbooks [on MI theory] for teachers in training generally offer extensive coverage of the theory, with little or no criticism” (p. 24). Traub (1998) writes, “Few of the teachers and administrators I talked to were familiar with the critiques of multiple intelligence theory; what they knew was that the theory worked for them. They talked about it almost euphorically” (p. 22). Armstrong (2009) lists those critiques and analyses to be as follows: MI theory lacks empirical support, no solid research support for MI exists in the classroom, and MI theory dumbs down the curriculum to make all students mistakenly believe they are smart. All of these criticisms to the theory might or might not be valid; it is not my research focus to evaluate the theory, but I wanted to provide synopses of what is out there in the literature. I am neither going to review those in detail or to provide answers to clear up what I believe are some key misconceptions about the theory. Furthermore, despite my belief that the theory is revolutionary in its practices and that any criticism to it might be a misconception, there are some challenges that face the application of the theory.

Challenges to the MI theory

Gardner did not intend to develop a theory of the human mind with implications for educational practices, but educators around the world have embraced the MI meme to use as a framework for teaching (Chen et al., 2009). Chen further notes that the impact of MI meme differs from one culture to another; it all depends on the different characteristics and behaviors of the culture of schools, teachers, students, curriculum, and communities.

According to Gardner, some countries introduced to the MI practices have shown

less interest or failed to embrace the theory and make the ultimate use of it in their schools (Chen et al., 2009). Gardner in Chen et al. (2009) addresses this issue with no clear answer as to why or what could be the exact problem. How could the theory work well in some countries, but not in others?

Through the previous analogy the problem remains clear to focus on the correlation between cultural contexts and constructs of a society and the application of the MI theory. The argument highlights that if a culture mismatches with the MI practices of teachers or the whole school system, then the process of application will be doomed to failure and inapplicability.

Cultural zone of proximal development. Chen et al. (2009) sought to research why some cultures succeed in applying MI and others fail. Chen found that the most important factor is “a culture’s readiness” (p. 387) and its developed priorities. In other words, Chen believes that some cultures may not be ready for change that goes beyond the change in implementation only. This cultural readiness for change is essential to the implementation of teaching theories like MI.

Chen extended Vygotsky’s notion of the zone of proximal development to discuss “cultural readiness” in relation to what he calls the cultural zone of proximal development (CZPD). It is a culture’s current level of functioning in relation to a level of readiness to change in teaching and learning practices that could be reached and supported via various channels and directions (Chen et al., 2009). Those power-changing channels are leadership, teacher buy-in, community and family involvement, new models and resources, ideologies, values, relevant expertise, political climate, historical influences,

educational policies, economic status, schools' performance, collaboration between schools and university researchers, and educational system (Chen et al., 2009). There is a correlation, according to Chen (2009), between the level of integration of these channels and the level of cultural readiness to change in their application of MI practices. When these forces or channels are weak, a friction between MI meme and cultural practices begins creating cultural rejection.

Cultural bias against some intelligences. Shearer (2009) looked at some cultures to draw a relationship between the MI meme and its actual classroom practices in different countries. He found that some cultures have biases against intelligences. First, Shearer (2009) lists that working in an activity that requires using hands and crafts is associated in some cultures with labor work rather than considering it kinesthetic intelligence. Second, working with musical and artistic intelligences is considered, in some cultures, as “mere aptitudes” (p. 357). Third, in cultures that do not associate with animals, as in Hong Kong, it is difficult for them to implement and appreciate the naturalistic intelligence. Fourth, Shearer (2009) continues that kinesthetic and musical intelligences are not strongly encouraged in some Arabic and Iranian cultures because students are not allowed to interact or use music as part of education; these intelligences are considered culturally inappropriate unless they are within the “religious frame” of accepted instruments, tones, and classroom context (boys-only or girls-only schools). Fifth, some cultures look at interpersonal activities not as cognitive skills but as personal qualities; this is the case especially for many parents in Asia, who may care more about the academic scores and IQ than students' interaction (Shearer, 2009).

Cultural Framework of the Study

My theoretical framework is based on Bourdieu's cultural capital theory. I link this approach with the cognitive and learning theories, specifically Vygotsky's and Gardner's theories (Hammond et al., 2001).

This study's framework is influenced by my literature review of Vygotsky's sociocultural cognitive learning (1978) in which he introduces the idea that all learning occurs in a cultural context and involves social interactions. As I mentioned in earlier sections, Vygotsky emphasizes the role that culture and language play in developing students' thinking and the ways in which teachers and peers assist learners in developing new ideas and skills (Vygotsky, 1978). The associations that people formulate and the understandings they develop are dependent upon and influenced by what is valued and what is experienced at home, in the community, and within the classroom-learning environment (Vygotsky, 1978). Culture influences the knowledge and experiences people bring to the classroom and the ways in which they communicate; the social context of communication, created within the classroom, together with the defined teachers' and students' roles are all influencing the learner's construction of knowledge (Hammond et al., 2001). Vygotsky's work led to an emphasis on the need for cooperative and communicative learning in the classroom that helps students learn explorations.

Gardner's work on the MI theory belongs to the cognitive and developmental learning theories (Hammond et al., 2001), which I talked about earlier in detail in my literature review. As part of the cognitive developmental learning field, Gardner's MI theory (1991–1999) came to complement Vygotsky's theory by adding the notion of

identifying individual differences among learners to better understand and guide the learning process. People can be seen as possessing a number of intelligences beyond the linguistic and logical–mathematical abilities typically emphasized in schools (for example, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences, musical, kinesthetic, and spatial abilities) (Smith & Smith, 1994).

Gardner and Vygotsky, as developmental learning theorists, brought to education the ideas that teachers can be more effective if they organize learning so that it is responsive to the child’s stage of development, if they connect learning to the child’s prior knowledge and experiences, and if they use the social and natural environments as opportunities for learning (Hammond et al., 2001). According to Hammond et al. (2001), these theorists’ ideas about socially situated learning and the differences in the construction of knowledge put emphasis on both experience and reflective thinking as a basis for learning. They both attempted to establish child-centered schools for students to approach learning through their own experiences with the understanding that all learning is accessible (Hammond et al., 2001).

I link Vygotsky’s and Gardner’s work with a cultural approach selecting Bourdieu’s theory of symbolic power to build my theoretical framework. This approach explores the impact of the surrounding environment on framing and shaping an individual’s mind habitus and investigates the question of whether this mind habitus may inhibit change, which is the main argument of my research. I view this relationship in the following illustration:

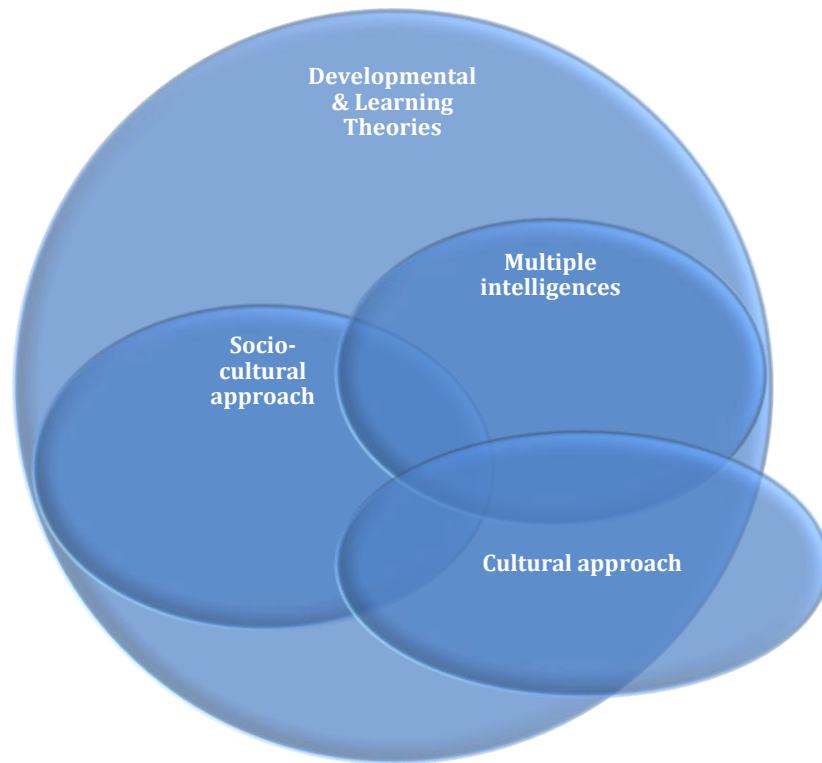


Figure 1: Theoretical framework

Cultural capital (1984)

Bourdieu's cultural approach intersects with the previously analyzed literature in the idea that individuals are actively involved and belongs to certain social components that shape the individual's views of learning, teaching, and cognitive intelligences.

Bourdieu argues that, above and beyond economic factors, "cultural habits and...dispositions inherited from" families are fundamentally important to school success (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1979, p. 14). His sociological conception of culture focuses not only on the idea of culture as the shared norms and values, but also on the idea that culture

shares many of the properties characteristic of economic capital (Lareau & Weininger, 2003).

Indeed, from Bourdieu's highly critical point, modern systems of schooling are far more adept at validating and augmenting cultural capital inherited from the family than they are instilling it in children who enter the institution with few or none of the requisite dispositions and skills. Consequently, he maintained, the educational systems of modern societies tend to channel individuals toward class destinations that largely (but not wholly) mirror their class origins (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1979). To elaborate on the idea, a society is divided according to cultural and economic characteristics and hierarchies. Thus, those who have resourceful dispositions will continue to inherit this monopolization of profits.

Consequently, if I look at the Egyptian society through this lens, I believe I would find that those who are "advantaged" with a high level of education have the opportunity of enrolling in international schools and belong to the upper class can acquire social capital. Belonging to the international school's social capital means the student is receiving an elite education in the sense of having accessibility to resources and a teacher with a high level of expertise who is either a foreigner or was educated in a Western system. Classroom size, curriculum that follows a Western system, and a relaxing school culture are all dominant characteristics. This means that this group follows a well-established and already reformed system. The "disadvantaged" groups are those who belong to the middle or low cultural class. In my opinion, those students are the ones who attend the regular experimental or language schools (middle class) or receive less than regular schooling in public schools (lower-level class). I believe that disadvantaged

students lack access to resources, experience teacher quality that is very moderate to low because those teachers belong to this same disadvantaged class, face large classroom sizes, and have a struggling curriculum that follows the government's mandates. This means that these students are following the Egyptian educational system that is still struggling and under major reforms and changes.

Bourdieu's work was devoted to introducing the social mechanisms that lie behind the cultural or educational differences (Merleau-Ponty, 1962). The cultural capital variation appears in the competition for resources, or class, and across various social fields (Merleau-Ponty, 1962). According to Bourdieu, each field within society is structured according to what is valuable within it (educational, cultural, economic, political, etc.) (1984).

Mind habitus

The previously discussed framework—individuals' cognitive development and intelligences preferences are shaped according to their cultural constructs and multiple social layers—paves the road for what Bourdieu calls *mind habitus*. The habitus, as defined in Chapter 1 by Bernard and Spencer, is “a set of predispositions to certain behaviors inculcated in the course of socialization, to account for the way that people everywhere come to have a sense of how to behave, and thus to take for granted their own ideas and practices as right” (*Encyclopedia of Social and Cultural Anthropology*, 2009, para. 2). Bourdieu's habitus determine humans' relationship with the society, producing patterns or structures of behavior whose limits are shaped by the accepted traditions and

beliefs of individuals (Mitrovic, 2005). Hence, it is these inherited individuals' practices that hinder or foster change.

This study looks at Egyptian EFL teachers' perspectives and attitudes toward the use of MI theory as part of the educational reform in Egypt in relation to their mind habitus. Bourdieu suggests that some individuals act toward change as a result of their habitus mind. He explains that change is overwhelming and could cause rejection problems against the strong power of reform.

Bourdieu's cultural capital and mind habitus are his most important defined structures of culture. By going back to Bourdieu's original conception of habitus and cultural capital I can analytically distinguish cultural capital from habitus. Cultural capital should include primarily knowledge and expertise—things individuals have (abstractly)—whereas habitus should include practices—things individuals do, their actions. In other words, we might say that cultural capital includes the resources individuals attain, but habitus includes the uses individuals make of those resources (Lareau and Horvat, 1999).

Literature on the Egyptian Context of the Study

Education System

Levels of education and types of schools

The public education system in Egypt, pre-university period, consists of three levels. First is the basic education level for 4 to 11 year olds—that is, kindergarten for 2 years followed by primary school for 6 years. The second level is the preparatory school for 3 years for ages 11 to 14. Third is the secondary school level for 3 years for ages 15 to

17. There are two types of schools: government or public schools and private language schools. Khouzam and Aziz (2005) provide detailed explanations for each type as follows. Government schools are two kinds: Arabic Schools and Experimental Language Schools. Arabic Schools provide the governmental national curriculum in the Arabic language. A governmental English-language curriculum is taught starting at first Primary year, and French is added as a second foreign language in Secondary Education. Experimental Language Schools teach most of the government curriculum (Science, Mathematics, and Computer) in English and add French as a second foreign language in Preparatory Education. An Advanced English language curriculum is provided in all educational stages.

As for Private Schools, Khouzam and Aziz (2005) added that there are three kinds of private schools. First, Language schools teach most of the government curriculum in English and add French or German as a second foreign language. They are expected to be better than the other experimental schools because of the facilities available, but their fees are much higher. Second, Religious Schools are religiously oriented schools, such as Azhar or Catholic. Third, International Schools are private schools that follow another country's curriculum, like a British, American, or French system, and the degrees earned from them get official certification from the Ministry of Education to be eligible to enroll in Egyptian universities. International schools offer an elite quality of facilities and activities to a higher bench of social class but are criticized for providing a much easier education level compared to the general curriculum; hence, some Egyptian universities require higher grades than those of regular school students as a minimum for enrollment

or an extra high school certificate, like a high Scholastic Aptitude Test score (Khouzam and Aziz, 2005).

Quality of education

The poor (in public schools) to average (in national language schools) quality of education in Egypt raises many concerns by Egyptians across the board as a major barrier to both economic and political development (Khouzam & Aziz, 2005). One challenge is that schools and teachers are still not adequately prepared to raise students' learning abilities using the most up-to-date educational methods. According to Khouzam and Aziz (2005), many schools do not provide the necessary teacher training required in addressing the needs of children struggling in language learning and reading. The implementation of a more inclusive reformed system of education is possible only if schools themselves are committed to providing alternative students' needs. School culture in Egypt was established with little awareness of the principles of students' participation, collaboration, and inclusion in the educational process (Naguib, 2006). According to Khouzam and Aziz (2005), developing more inclusive practices might challenge existing values, assumptions, and practices and cause disruption, and this is exactly what I would like to investigate.

The Reform

The Egyptian MOE has been working toward creating a change in its education system. The MOE's Strategic Plan for education reform encourages critical thinking, problem solving, teamwork, and innovation rather than rote memorization (*The Telegraph*, 2009). With this as a goal, the government has made some efforts in reforming its pre-university education over the past few years by adding more privileges for teachers to

participate in staff development and training.

Ainscow (1999) stated that staff development is the most powerful tool in encouraging improvements and reforms in school systems. The most important aspect is to set staff development within the school context and to address the day-to-day concerns of teachers. In other words, school-based staff development is an internally driven process. Hence, professional development is the first step toward educational reform and toward introducing the use of MI as one tool of differentiation of instruction in Egyptian classrooms. The aim is to engage staff in thinking together about the use of MI in relation to their respective contexts in order to develop their own school improvement plans.

Egypt's National Strategic Plan

The National Strategic Plan for Pre-University Education Reform in Egypt (2007/08) was initiated a school-based reform approach. In its mission, the plan states that “the Ministry of Education fosters equal opportunities for all Egyptian students to realize quality education that empowers them to become creative, life-long learners who are tolerant critical thinkers with strong values and a wide range of skills for active citizenship and dynamic participation in an ever-changing global society” (p. 11). Hence, the policy framework of the plan is geared toward a bottom-up Education Reform Program (ERP), which is funded by USAID and implemented by the MOE in Alexandria, Cairo, Fayoum, Beni Suef, Minia, Qena, and Aswan, covering 30 schools in each governorate. This reform focuses on the concept of quality that exists in the form of teacher cadre and training programs, standard-based curriculum, integration of information and communication technology (ICT), instructional pedagogies that emphasize learning by discovery and real-

life experiences, and school-based reform and academic excellence. The following describes these in detail.

Teacher track

According to The National Strategic Plan (2007/08), a formal teacher's qualification track is in place for basic and secondary education levels. The teachers are required to complete 4 years of pre-service courses at university to enter the teaching profession (Khouzam & Aziz, 2005). Specifically with respect to a teacher's professional development to raise mathematics, science, and technology teaching standards, the Professional Academy for Teachers offers several programs; local teachers also take part in the international professional training programs (Khouzam & Aziz, 2005).

Teacher cadre and training program

Teacher training is centrally planned and executed. The Central Department for In-Service Training (CDIST) is the main body responsible for planning, organizing, and coordinating all in-service training conducted by the MOE according to the National Strategic Plan (2007/08). The strategic plan aims to build a sustainable professional development system based on the cascade training model to provide professional development for teachers at the school level in addition to building the capacity of leaders at all levels (district, governorate, and central level). Furthermore, the MOE focused its teacher reform plan on developing what is called teacher cadre. According to the National Strategic Plan (2007/08), it is the first time that a specialized educational body will be established to lay down the sought criteria for the teaching profession across all six teaching levels that make up the new teachers cadre. Teachers sit for a technical and

professional examination in prelude to moving to the second phase of the teacher cadre, according to which the service period for teachers will be determined in light of their performance in the technical exam with the aim of verifiably rehabilitating teachers and ensuring that the duration of their services reflects their true level of skills and their performance. The cadre initiation reflects the strong need for teachers' use of new teaching methods and the integration of learning styles inside the classroom to promote diversity in problem solving and creative thinking. According to the National Strategic Plan (2007/08), curriculum delivery is based on a constructivist philosophy; the adoption of such a philosophy means that teachers use strategies that encourage student engagement and provide a learning environment that empowers students to take responsibility for their own learning.

Standard-based curriculum

The plan seeks to implement a national standards curriculum guide and content syllabus. Following curriculum standards will ensure addressing students' diversity and, hence, will provide educational equity on learning opportunities for all students (Darling, 2010). The curriculum reform plan also highlights the issues to be addressed, such as developing a new curriculum framework, a scientific preparation of textbooks and teachers' guides through new publishing and delivery mechanisms, and book piloting procedures before scaled-up implementation (National Strategic Plan, 2007/08).

Integration of ICT

The integration of ICT in the curriculum is a major factor in creating a learning environment where students are active, engaged, and challenged. The national strategic

plan states:

Infrastructure and technical support are needed to implement and sustain modern pedagogy and effective education management and planning, while the objectives are summarized as follows: (1) modernize and strengthen the technology infrastructure in all schools; (2) activate the role of information system management in the educational process; (3) support the best use of technology in distance learning and training; (4) build capacity in ICT domain; and (5) merge different technology departments in one sector to achieve unity and efficiency. (2007/08, p. 22)

Instructional pedagogies

The plan focuses on developing authentic pedagogy that is based on active and real-life learning discoveries. The National Strategic Plan (2007/08) sets the instructional policy to be learner-based active learning that focuses on meeting individual educational needs; applying comprehensive authentic assessment; sustaining the discovery of students' abilities, their professional attitudes, and academic preferences; developing critical thinking together with the student's ability for discovery and creativity; developing a democratic climate and the values of dialogue inside classrooms and schools; and connecting teaching and learning with the social contexts of the community.

Schools' accreditation and quality assurance

Moreover, to ensure a full transformation of the schools each is to work on their accreditation according to the National Strategic Plan's goals. A new governmental institution—the National Authority of Education Quality Assurance and Accreditation

(NAEQAA)—was established for this purpose. This authority monitors schools' policy and planning, schools' standards' maintenance system, implementation of standards-based instruction, teachers' cadre, and school-based management (National Strategic Plan, 2007/08), together with quality assurance for all of the above.

Egyptian Schools' Cultures

In an analysis of cultures of Arab schools, especially Egyptian's, Herrera and Torres (2006) claim that empirical and interactive modes of inquiry are inhibited by political and structural constraints. They continue with their description of Egyptian schools and universities located in authoritarian systems that hinder educational freedom and creative thinking. For example, in Egypt, state security apparatuses heavily monitor universities, which invade the cultural and educational structure in these institutes (Herrera & Torres, 2006). Hence, school experiences suppress desire and kill creativity rather than allow students to blossom (Naguib, 2006). Naguib quotes one of the principals in Egypt: "At this young age, these students need fear more than love and differentiation to better raise them" (2006, p. 13).

Climate in schools

In Egyptian public and most language schools, there is no separation between state and religion; hence, the educational climate (including school culture, administration, and teachers) is geared toward conservatism and traditionalism "to raise Egyptian children in the proper religious way" (Herrera & Torres, 2006, p. 13). The impact of this traditionalism in education is the rise of cultures of memorization, recitation, and collectivism. Conservatism and traditionalism are based, in most of their teaching

methodologies, on rote memorization without thinking or doubting; there is no chance for questioning or self-exploration and experimentation (Herrera & Torres, 2006). Also, collectivism culture has an impact on education in Egypt. In other words, students should be following the rules of what the “master” says and if one of the group drifted out of the “norms,” then this person is not considered to be just critically questioning things, but rather is rejected and punished (Herrera & Torres, 2006, p. 13). This educational structure inhibits students’ creative and critical thinking.

Toward a culture of change

For change to be effective, the schools’ structure and teachers’ quality and culture must match with the needed reform (Sarason, 1996; Donahoe, 1997; Finn 2000). In other words, schools and teachers in Egypt must be acculturated to global and international teaching techniques and methods. To elaborate, the Egyptian teachers’ staff development and cadre trainings should not simply restructure the system and add new mandated teaching methods. Nonetheless, MOE in Egypt should mold the needed reform with culturally appropriate practices in Egypt. The governmental reform should re-acculturate teachers and administrators with the new reformed teaching methods in order to refine any cultural misconceptions that might lead to future rejections to the change (Hargreaves, 1997). The Egyptian culture of schools and teachers should interweave with and enrich any internationally imported theories rather than merely mandating them because cultures either frustrate or facilitate change (Schweiker-Marra, 1995). Fullan (1997) points out that “mandated” change is unlikely to be effective. He states, “Mandates alter some things, but they don’t affect what matters. When complex change is involved,

people do not and cannot change by being told to do so” (p. 38). Again, even enforced change in schools in Egypt will not be implemented if the cultures of the schools do not correlate with the requirements. To sum up the literature on failed reforms, according to Hargreaves (1997): first, that educational changes can be unsuccessful because the change is inadequately conceptualized in school systems, and second, the change that is practiced in isolation gets undermined by other unchanged structures within the whole organization.

Teacher Professional Development

Reflecting on the previous review of literature, there is a great need to increase EFL teachers’ awareness on how learning and intelligences’ preference might be culturally biased. I would like to explore more the idea of culturally oriented professional development in Egypt. To elaborate, King et al. (2009) talks about teachers’ professional development and proposes professional development principles to increase teachers’ cultural responsive practices. I agree with King’s suggestion that there is a need to advocate for teachers’ self-evaluation of their own practices and how their own beliefs, knowledge, previous experiences, and learning preferences mediate and influence their teaching lesson plans and activities’ preferences. Knowledge about teaching must be more than a deep understanding of the subject matter. It is about learning that cultural background has a great influence on teacher development (Darling & McLaughlin, 1999). Although content knowledge is an important element related to professional learning, culturally responsive practice infuses content with an understanding of the cultural nature of learning (King et al., 2009).

Moreover, the design of any professional development should include selected

strategies or models that match with teachers' background knowledge and the purpose of the training.

We know a good deal about the characteristics of successful professional development:

It focuses on concrete classroom applications of general ideas; it exposes teachers to actual practice rather than to descriptions of practice; it involves opportunities for observation, critique, and reflection; it involves opportunities for group support and collaboration; and it involves deliberate evaluation and feedback by skilled practitioners with expertise about good teaching. But, while we know a good deal about the characteristics of good professional development, we know a good deal less about how to organize successful professional development so as to influence practice in large numbers of schools and classrooms. (Elmore, 1995, p. 2)

With prior knowledge of the teachers' backgrounds and the proposed training context, informed decisions can be made about which strategies and models are applicable to the cultural context and, hence, establish the acquired teacher quality (Broekhuizen & Dougherty, 1999).

Teacher trainings

As previously explained, teachers in Egypt are following the cadre reform, where they engage in professional development and certification that is up-to-date with many new education theories and practices (see Chapter 1 details on Egyptian educational reform plan). However, there must be follow-ups between what these professional "cadre"

programs are training the teachers to do and what is being implemented in reality. The quality of teachers has a long way to go to improve. One of the reasons is the lack of practical applications in teachers' education programs in schools of education (Khouzam & Aziz, 2005). The problem should be fixed from its source—that is, by improving teacher education programs. Another essential reason is teachers' low economic and social class as a result of very poor wages (average of 200–500 Egyptian pounds, which is \$40–70, monthly) (Khouzam & Aziz, 2005). Therefore, teachers are not concentrating on doing their best in their classrooms; they are more worried about giving private lessons to students in order to raise their income (Naguib, 2006). The only way teachers can manage to give more private lessons is by not using new teaching methods in their classes (MI or any other creative or differentiating teaching tools); this way, students will feel the need for private lessons to improve their academic grades (Naguib, 2006). According to Naguib (2006), this is a matter of teachers' corruption and lack of ethics because of economic strains. Naguib (2006) continues his critique of the situation by saying, “[P]ursuing the objective of giving private lessons, a practice that allows teachers to secure livelihood...sacrifice their mission as educators” (p. 71). Not only is it important to improve schools and teachers' teaching quality and re-acculturate the Egyptian educators' mind habitus, but also it is a matter of improving teachers' way of life and their socioeconomic status; again, reform should not come in isolation (Hargreaves, 1997).

In summary, to implement MI in schools in Egypt and expect positive results, schools' administrations, teachers, and school cultures must all be in congruence with and buy in to the use of MI practices. To do so, I believe that every side of the spectrum

should change their culture of education and teaching. In other words, as discussed earlier in this chapter, instead of merely acculturating teachers with MI theory and practices as one example of creative thinking and differentiated instruction, teachers should be re-acculturated to fix many of the issues discussed earlier before creating new habits of teaching. Abu Baker (1999) emphasizes this idea, saying that acculturation leads to marginalization and separation; the process of acculturation causes disharmony of individuals' or groups' cultural capital with the new culture, whereas re-acculturation provides a fully developed mix between the old cultural capital with what is applicable from the new culture to create an understandable and believable change (Abu Baker, 1999).

Conclusion

In this chapter I introduced the impact of culture, society, and home on cognitive development and consequently on intelligence preferences in learning. Moreover, I introduced my theoretical framework, where I interconnected the previous cognitive and learning theories such as Vygotsky's with Bourdieu's cultural approach in order to provide a substance for the concept of culture of change. At the end, I made an attempt to introduce the Egyptian educational context (the system, the reform, the cadre, and the overall school culture).

In the next chapter I explain the methodology I used in conducting this qualitative research study. In the next chapter the reader should be able to understand the tools and the criteria I used in developing my fieldwork.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Research focus

This chapter addresses the research design, methods, and quality of my dissertation. My primary purpose for this qualitative research inquiry is to understand an educational reform phenomenon in Egypt and explore realities around this (Patton, 2002). To elaborate, I investigated the Egyptian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' perspective on the use and application of multiple intelligences (MI) and active learning techniques as part of the education reform plan. I explored how the Egyptian cultural constructs and layers of society foster or inhibit the educational reform that advocates integrating creative thinking tools by addressing students' multiple intelligences and thinking channels. I was interested in learning about implementation of MI practices within the Egyptian cultural context, the ways Egyptian teachers perceive the application of the theory in Egypt, and the obstacles they might face in their school setting.

I relied on a number of areas to formulate my curiosity on this specific topic, including past experiences and observable needs regarding this phenomenon. In addition, I formulated my research questions and design by exploring theories to promote additional solid arguments, along with providing a framework on which an examination can proceed (Anfara & Mertz, 2006). Anfara and Mertz (2006) explain that reading scholarship written

by others can provide information about what has already been established and what remains to be uncovered. My theoretical foundation, as explained in detail in Chapter 2, is based on the intersection of the constructivist, cultural, and cognitive approaches. In other words, my theoretical readings guided me to my conceptual framework, where I designed the intersecting theories of learning development (constructivist, Vygotskian sociocultural development, and Gardner's MI) and related them to a cultural approach (Bourdieu's cultural capital).

As a qualitative researcher, I used this theoretical or conceptual framework to guide my ideas and methodological decisions (Anfara & Mertz, 2006). In this framework I examined existing theories (Patton, 2002) such as sociocultural cognitive development and social capital in connection with individuals' learning habits and intelligence preferences within a social context. I hoped to add to the body of literature a new cultural view and tie it to Gardner's MI theory within a Middle Eastern cultural perspective.

The questions and problem in this research emerged from my interest in studying the interrelationship between multiple intelligences within a certain society's (Egypt's) cultural layers and constructs. The contributions of this research will create an international and global understanding of educational situations in this Middle Eastern country. Hence, this understanding could shed light on the cultural factors that need to be considered when designing educational reform plans, professional developments (PDs), and international conferences to advertise for new educational pedagogies and theories.

Researchers who agree with Glesne might question the fact that I conducted my field research in my own Egyptian culture; the argument according to Glesne (2006) is

that “when researchers are familiar with a culture or group or school...the angles of vision are narrowed by performed assumptions about what is going on” (p. 31). I disagree with Glesne’s statement because, although I belong to the Egyptian culture and I visit Egypt every year once or even twice (so I was never away), it does not make me an expert on all school sites’ hierarchal mechanisms and their cultural environments. When I visited these schools I did not consider myself to be studying “in my own backyard” (Glesne, 2006, p. 31), especially because I did not have a defined role in these settings except for my role as the researcher and I did not have any previous relations with the people there (Patton, 2002). In fact, being an “insider” provided me with the know-how in accessing school sites and enabled me to utilize the language (native) in discussing any logistics with the administrations or even with the Ministry of Education (MOE) offices.

Qualitative inquiry

To understand and explore this social question, I used qualitative methods of inquiry to directly address my research questions. This required me to interact with teachers in the field and listen to them with an analytical view to find answers to my questions (Glesne, 1999). By using the specific qualitative inquiry methods and tools of interviewing, observing, and listening to the participants, I achieved a deep level of understanding of their teaching situations and settings and was able to search for meanings to the research problem.

My qualitative research is based the critical constructivism approach of viewing reality as constructed by teachers interacting with their social world, which is why I explored how my participants constructed their views in relation to their social realities

(Glesne, 1999). To explore the use of MI interacting with a certain culture, I developed a cultural model, represented in my theoretical framework, through the study of Bourdieu's cultural capital. According to Frow and Morris (2000), cultural studies tend to answer questions about the existence of a social group and how they act and interact with certain simulations. Also, Frow and Morris (2000) claim that in cultural studies "globalization is contested both as a fact and as problematic" (p. 495). My topic addressed teachers' personal perspective related to their implementation of MI theory and practices. Hence, I dug even deeper and explored the application of MI theory in a completely different cultural context—the Egyptian.

In this emergent research, I did not draw all the attention to my personal preconceived assumptions, but I was flexible when interacting in the field to allow for new assumptions and interpretations to emerge (Denzin, 1970). Agreeing with Denzin (1970), I observed issues that might seem unrelated to the research topic long enough to comprehend what they mean. Therefore, during my interviews and observations, when I did not see things for myself, I asked the participating teachers for clarifications and details by following up with them after the observations to complete my pictures. These field interactions are influenced by my personal experience, in which I am able to construct, interpret, and recognize the many meanings while I am still there, then pass along an experiential account to my readers to build their reflection (Denzin, 1970). Hence, as the researcher, my experience in this research was developed as "Being-With" (Moustakas, p. 82), which involved me as present with my participants, bringing my own knowledge and experience into this relationship. Moustakas (1995) clarifies, "[T]his may

involve disagreeing with the other's ways of interpreting or judging or presenting some aspect of the world. Being-With means listening and hearing the other's feelings, thoughts, objectives, but it also means offering my own perceptions and views. There is, in Being-With, a sense of joint enterprise—two people fully involved, struggling, exploring, sharing” (p. 84).

Design

My overall research design is interrelated since the research questions, the theoretical framework, the methods, the quality strategies that maintain my research's trustworthiness, and the research goals are all interconnected with no specific linear view. Each part of the design map cannot be framed in isolation from the other; the whole model unifies to find the needed meanings of the research phenomenon. I discussed in further details most of the five designs of inquiry parts in Chapters 1 and 2.

In this chapter I discuss only the research methods and quality. I will be introducing my qualitative research questions, research procedures, sampling strategies, data collection tools, data analysis strategy, and research quality in a specific manner related directly to my research inquiry and linking them to methodology literature. The following design map is the research inquiry model I created to show my reflexive view of the different parts of my research.

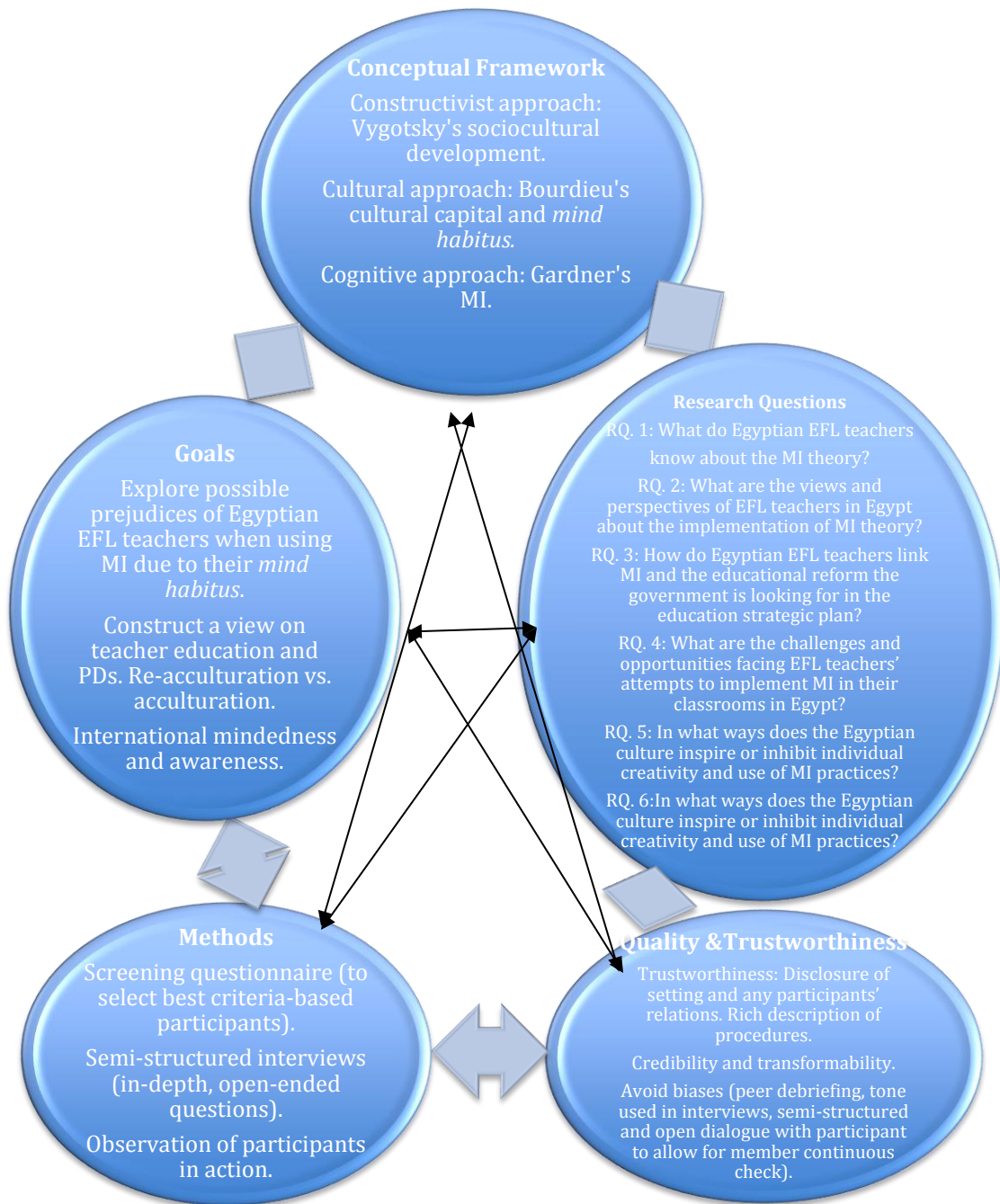


Figure 2: Research inquiry model

Research Questions

In qualitative studies, research questions typically orient to unstudied cases or phenomena, seeking patterns of unanticipated and expected relationships (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). My dissertation research explored the following questions, as introduced in previous chapters:

RQ 1: What do Egyptian EFL teachers know about the MI theory?

RQ 2: What are the views and perspectives of EFL teachers about the implementation of MI theory in Egypt?

RQ 3: How do the educational background, teaching philosophy, and schooling culture of Egyptian EFL teachers influence their perspective on the use of MI?

RQ 4: How do Egyptian EFL teachers view the link between MI and the educational reform the government is looking for in the education strategic plan?

RQ 5: What are the challenges and opportunities facing EFL teachers' attempts to implement MI in their classrooms in Egypt?

RQ 6: In what ways does Egyptian culture inspire or inhibit individual creativity and use of MI practices?

These research questions were developed throughout my research experiences and pilot studies.

Contributions of Pilot Studies to Data Collection and Analysis

My previous pilot studies helped me pave the road to my dissertation research study in the sense that I had the opportunity to test my data collection sources, my data analysis strategies, and my assumptions related to the phenomenon. I piloted two research

studies after gaining *Human Subjects Review Board* (HSRB) approval for both of them; I completed one of them in 2010 and presented it at the American Educational Research Association (AERA) conference in 2011. This first pilot research was conducted in a public school in Virginia, USA, with five English as Second Language (ESL) teachers to learn about their perspectives on the use of MI in their highly diverse classrooms. The teachers came from diverse backgrounds or had experience teaching in diverse and international settings. (More details about the findings are in Appendix A.) The second pilot was conducted in May 2011 at a private Islamic school in Virginia based on Middle Eastern culture and context, with four Arabic as Foreign Language (AFL) teachers. This study examined Middle Eastern teachers' perspectives on the use of MI in their Middle Eastern cultural context. Those teachers attended summer institute of professional development sessions on using MI theory and practices at one of the universities—school of education—in Virginia during 2009. The AFL teachers had various responses to the research questions, which helped me present this research design. (Further details on the second pilot's results are in Appendix A.)

The following is an explanation of the contributions of each pilot study in influencing and shaping my dissertation research design and methodology. The contributions are divided by data collection sources and data analysis strategies. Here, I recount the experience I gained in actually using these tools in action and how and why I am planning to avoid certain irrelevant methodologies and tools in my dissertation research.

Pilot and data collection contributions

Interviews. In both pilot studies I used semi-structured interviews with ESL and AFL teachers as my data collection sources to explore their perspectives on the use of MI teaching methods in culturally diverse and/ or Middle Eastern classrooms. The semi-structured interviews enabled me to gather data to provide “evidence” for the experience they were going through (Polkinghorne, 2005, p. 138). Moreover, the experience enabled me to add follow-up questions to allow my participants to elaborate and give me the chance to gain more data-rich information for a better understanding of the study (Maxwell, 2005). I analyzed the core description of the teachers’ experiences to produce the base of the findings (Polkinghorne, 2005). Following Polkinghorne (2005) in constructing the findings, I drew excerpts from the data to illustrate the findings derived from the data sources, which shows there is an impact of data collection structure on data analysis findings’ depth and breadth (Patton, 2002). I found this specifically helpful in my research conducted at the Middle Eastern school with a couple of my participants. For example, one of the participants was very careful in her answers to my interview questions because of her concern about her job security; thus, I had to keep asking follow-up questions to help her open up in her descriptions and thoughts. The other participant was the complete opposite; she had strong beliefs and perspectives about the use of MI in her classroom in relation to the cultural context, and sticking to the interview questions’ sequence would have hurt the flow of the interview conversation. Another interesting occurrence happened when I saw one of the participants by chance and after I had done her interview and observation. She wanted to reflect and talk with me about her observation so we sat and did what was then considered an informal interview. Our

discussion was a follow-up from our first interview and class observation, which provided me with more solid and richer data about this teacher. Therefore, I decided to use in this dissertation research two semi-structured interviews per participant: an initial one (before observation) and a follow-up one (after observations).

Screening questionnaire. Halfway through finishing my participants' interviews in the public school of Virginia, I realized that I might have made a mistake in choosing "irrelevant units of analysis" (Patton, 2002, p. 229). In other words, some of the participants, despite the fact that they fit into my sampling criteria, may have not been a relevant focus to my research design. To elaborate, although my focus was on teachers' perspective on the use of MI, I did not include in the design a sampling criterion of teachers' knowledge of the MI theory. Hence, some of the teachers I interviewed were not well versed in the theory of MI. A couple of them were practicing MI in an intuitive manner rather than building on pedagogical understanding of the theory. This factor was considered a limitation in some of the data results I found because the teachers in some cases did not understand what I was asking them. From this experience, I decided to develop a data source to work as my participants' screening tool in which I could test and evaluate teachers' knowledge on the theory and practices of MI before beginning to interview them. Developing a questionnaire as my data source allowed me to address this goal of initially screening my participants (Appendix C). This issue did not occur in my second pilot at the private Islamic school because teachers who participated in this pilot were chosen from a specific professional development.

Observations. In my first pilot research, where I depended on semi-structured interviews as my only data source, I found that these interviews were not enough to provide me with a picture about my participants' perspectives on the studied phenomenon. As mentioned earlier, those interviews were not enough because some of my participants were not data rich and thus did not fit into some sampling selection's criteria. Therefore, in my second pilot I developed another data collection source: observations. I conducted direct unstructured observation of four AFL teachers' classrooms after interviewing them to understand the ways they implement MI theory in their classroom contexts. I did not use a specific observation protocol but used field notes to record what was happening in the classroom (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The observations provided me with a clearer picture as to what some of the teachers were referencing in their interviews. In other words, observations enabled me to see these teachers in action when using MI. Some teachers talked about their perfect MI application and results in their interviews, whereas in reality I found through observing them that they were still influenced by their traditional teaching.

The previous experience of using pilot studies' data collection sources enabled me to determine my primary research focus and include it in my methodology design.

Pilot and data analysis contributions

In my first pilot at the Virginia public school I did not have a clear strategy for analyzing my data; I had only one round of data analysis. Thus, I read my transcriptions and field notes; moved on my thematic analysis, where I was looking for recurring keywords; then, I started developing my themes based on these keywords. As a beginner

researcher this was an easy way to analyze data. However, in my second pilot at the Islamic private school I used more detailed analysis strategies pertaining to open coding and constant comparative analysis (CCA) (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) (View Appendix A for complete developed themes from both pilot studies.) According to Hewitt-Taylor (2001), CCA is “one method that can be used to analyze qualitative data. The information gathered is coded into emergent themes or codes. The data is constantly revisited after initial coding, until it is clear that no new themes are emerging” (p. 1). In the second pilot the use of CCA as my analysis strategy enabled me to develop more concise and detailed themes.

Because my second pilot was conducted in a Middle Eastern cultural context-U.S. based, with Arabic AFL teachers, close to my dissertation’s targeted culture and participants, I found the findings from this research to be valuable input for my theoretical foundation. To be more specific, my dissertation’s cultural approach, discussed in the theoretical framework, was developed as a result of what some of these AFL teachers had indicated in their interviews. These teachers expressed that they still uphold many traditional ways of thinking (*mind habitus*) that go back to the way they were taught in school and even in their teacher education programs, where they never practiced diverse ways of learning or teaching (Baran & Cagiltay, 2006).

Consequently, they further explained, the culture of their school upbringing hinders their ability to think creatively or advocate for students’ creative thinking. Some of the teachers expressed that they stumble in finding new MI-based activities to use with

their students because of, according to their own definition, their traditional mind-set.

Also, this finding helped me form one of my research questions (RQ 5).

Methods

Procedures

In this section I describe the procedures that I followed in conducting my dissertation research in schools settings in Egypt. The following is an introduction of the steps that lead me to my methodology at the end.

As a beginning step, I prepared my semi-structured interview protocol I used in my second pilot at the Arabic-Islamic school. I used this structure because it allows for the open discussion between the researcher and the participant. I did not have to follow the order of the questions and I was able to add questions that were not included in the protocol to clarify what the participants may have said. To elaborate, in the pilot I had to make a few changes in the order and the way a few questions were framed to be suitable to the culture and the goals of this population. For example, I included specific questions about the Egyptian MOE cadre training to be clearer on the type of information I sought in relation to MI training sources. I designed the interview questions' protocol by paying close attention to my research questions and the goals that I want to reach in this research. After this step I started designing my initial screening questionnaire, where the main goal was to develop open-ended questions to test all EFL participants from the three selected sites and their knowledge of the MI theory and practices before beginning to interview the final selected sample (more details on this can be found in the data sources and sampling sections).

Next, I communicated with the schools that fit into my “site criteria” description by phone calls in order to gain their initial permissions for visiting and interviewing in their school settings (see Site section under Sampling Strategies). When I landed in Egypt, I made further phone calls to arrange meetings with the principals or owners of the school to gain the written permission and had them sign it. These permissions were essential for HSRB application completion. The permissions were written in English to achieve this purpose. At the end of that preparatory phase I mailed to the HSRB office my HSRB application, the interview protocol, the questionnaire, the consent forms, and the school-sites approval permission letters, all in English copies.

The next phase was communicating with the EFL teachers face-to-face. This took place in October 2011. I contacted the lead teachers first, who then introduced me to the EFL teachers to explain this research, the data collection instruments, the purpose of the research, their rights of both anonymity and withdrawal from the research, and the fact that they are complete volunteers in the research and facing no harm in their participation. (See Chapter 4 for further procedures of meeting the EFL teachers by school setting.) I did these visits on a school-by-school basis. In other words, I finished meeting with school A’s teachers, got their permissions and signed consent forms, distributed the questionnaires for all EFL teachers who wanted to volunteer in the study, took back the questionnaire from the lead teacher, evaluated and picked my participants, sent a list of the names that will participate to the lead teacher, the lead teacher informed the EFL teachers, they worked together and sent me a schedule of visits (interviews and observations), and

then I started following these schedules until I was finished with that school. Then, I did the same with schools B and C.

The phase of interviewing the EFL teachers was divided into two interviewing procedures. One was the protocol guided semi-structured interview, which was used in the previous pilot study (Appendix B). Semi-structured interviewing, according to Bernard (1988), is best used when the interviewer may only have one chance to interview participants. The flexible nature of semi-structured interviews allowed me to develop a keen understanding of the topic and unravel meaningful findings. These first interviews took place before observations (right after finding the questionnaire results and identifying the participants to be interviewed). The other interview procedure was considered to be teachers' reflections, which took place right after observations, during which they were asked to be reflective on both their first interview and their observation. I listened and took notes of their own observations and reflections. I was not an active participant in this reflective interview. Therefore, there was no specific interview protocol designed for this second one and that was to allow for a reflective flow and feedback from teachers. As for teachers' observations, which followed the first interviewing procedure, they took place according to teachers' schedules and convenience, which the teachers had provided at the very beginning of the visits procedures.

The data collection, data transcription, data analysis, and peer checking of data collection and analysis took place congruently. The culture and language checker was Dr. Hassan El-Bilawi, who is a professor of education and worked as the vice minister of education in Egypt. HSRB asked me to send his information to them. They approved him

and sent me confirmation. The benefit of having a checker was to have a culture and language liaison who was also involved in the educational reform in Egypt to confirm, reflect on, and discuss my results (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). According to Patton (2002), “[A]n external audit by a disinterested expert can render judgment about the quality of data collection and analysis” (p. 562). The only challenge is to find the appropriate reviewer for the research situation (Patton, 2002).

As a constructivist I collected data and sent my interview recordings to be transcribed as soon as I finished with each interview, which enabled me to work on my data analysis concurrently with the collected data (Morris, 2007). I analyzed my data in the language the EFL teachers preferred to use (some teachers did the whole interview in Arabic, some in English, and some in a mix of code switching). I translated the findings at the end. I chose to analyze in the language that was used by the participants so as not to lose any important Arabic concepts or information when translating Arabic data into English.

Sampling selection strategies

Site. My site selection was based on an opportunity or emergent flexible sampling design (Patton, 2002). I selected three private language schools owned by individuals or institutions to which I gained accessibility. I selected this sampling design because of the difficulties researchers face in accessing schools in Egypt to conduct fieldwork such as interviewing and observing teachers. This is magnified if it is known that I am visiting from a university abroad, even if I am Egyptian. Also, I selected three school sites because it was useful to explore the phenomenon from various perspectives and from an open

range of experiences (Patton, 2002). Rather than interviewing teachers from the same site or working place, I wanted a variation in perspectives; hence, I gained variation in results and credibility (see Quality section for further explanation).

I chose three private language schools rather than public or international schools for several other reasons. First, public schools do not match with my research inquiry and goals (Glesne, 2006) because they may provide untrustworthy results because of the school's lack of resources, low socioeconomic status (SES) of teachers who consequently might have strong traditional teaching mind habitus, low SES of students that may interfere with their interest of learning the English language, and teachers' lack of accessibility to professional development to learn about MI. Choosing a public school would have been considered an extreme case, which is a highly unusual cases of the phenomenon of interest (Patton, 2002). Second, I believed that the international schools teachers' population and setting was not necessarily an authentic representation of Egyptian culture with high SES. From my "insider" knowledge, teachers there are either expatriates or were educated in Western-based educational systems. These characteristics are sometimes job requirements for international schools. As for private language schools in Egypt, according to Martin et al. (2008) overview of general students' and schools' results in *Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study*³ (TIMSS, 2007), I found that private schools in Egypt achieved high results in comparison to the participating 60 countries in TIMSS, whereas the total average of schools in Egypt (including international

³ TIMSS 2007 provides reliable and timely data on the mathematics and science achievement of U.S. 4th- and 8th-grade students compared to that of students in 60 other countries, including Egypt. Several experts use these results to determine achievement benchmarks (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011).

and public) achieved below-average results. Thus, in my opinion, private language schools are considered the lead in educational reform in Egypt. Moreover, teachers in these language schools belong to the middle class, which allows for balanced views toward changing and creating their own mind habitus (Rinaldo, 2008). These teachers usually have more access to professional developments than those at public schools because owners try to maintain teachers' quality for schools' competition.

Initially I wanted to implement my study in a middle-school age level because I thought that this is the age where I can witness real interaction between teachers' perspectives and students' clear needs. However, after communicating with some of the educators in Egypt to identify and research the schools' cultural context, I found that the Ministry of Education was heavily concentrating on implementing MI and other active learning techniques in the early-primary (elementary) grade levels rather than with older students. It is only in 2013 that they will try implementing MI in some middle-school classes to experiment with the theory for this age. Therefore, I primarily looked at elementary-level schools (K–5). Hence, this research study targeted certain research sites with a specific cultural environment to better serve the study's questions and goals (Patton, 2002).

People. According to Patton (2002), qualitative research focuses on in-depth studying of samples that are selected purposefully. He further explains that the logic behind purposeful sampling is always judged in relation to the purpose and rationale of the study. According to Patton (2002), sampling selection should be based on criteria such as age, place of residence, gender, class, profession, marital status, and so on. I picked my

EFL Egyptian teachers with Patton's characteristics in mind. The following are my sampling selection criteria: participating teachers well versed and knowledgeable about the MI theory and its practices (the questionnaire screening addressed this criterion); teachers received the MOE's professional development on implementing creative thinking and the use of MI practices; and teachers of Egyptian descent, meaning born to Egyptian parents and lived and were educated in Egypt. Other factors, such as years of teaching experience and age, were left open to increase the pool of participants.

Because the focus of my research was to study teachers' perspective on the use of MI taking a cultural approach, I needed to interact with an open-range field and experiences; hence, I did not want to determine the number of participants before finishing the interviewing phase. In other words, I interviewed EFL teachers chosen from the three school sites until I reached data saturation (Patton, 2002). According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), sample selection should be determined according to "point of redundancy...and informational considerations" (p. 246). Therefore, I continued interviewing teachers until I reached the point where there was no new information provided; that is when I "terminate[d] sampling" (Patton, 2002, p. 246). This wide range interviewing process enabled me to obtain an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon rather than putting a quota of number of participants to myself to stop interviewing before fully comprehending the situation.

Being an "insider" who belongs to a certain Egyptian cultural background does not make me an expert on all of the entangled cultural constructs that each Egyptian individual brings from the cultural background to which they belong. (See Chapter 5

conclusion for deeper analysis of my insider–outsider being as a researcher.) Therefore, I needed strong data collection sources to be my tools of discovery of this cultural context under the examined topic.

Data Collection Sources

In describing the process of data collection, Denzin and Lincoln (2000) note that choices of appropriate interpretive practices are not necessarily set in advance because “the choice of research practices depends upon the questions that are asked, and the questions depend on their context” (Nelson et al., 1992, p. 2). Teachers’ surveys, interviews, and observations are the primary source of data collection. Any professional development artifacts found were considered additional data sources. I took notes during class observation and interviews and kept analytical memos after each (Miles & Huberman, 1984).

Screening questionnaire

As explained earlier, I used questionnaires at the beginning of my data collection procedures to achieve the goal of screening participants’ level of knowledge regarding Gardner’s MI theory. According to Creswell (2003), questionnaires have several other benefits because they help in eliciting the feelings, beliefs, experiences, perceptions, or attitudes of participants. My questionnaire was concise, was open-ended, and included preplanned set of questions designed to yield the specific information needed to meet this particular required research information (Creswell, 2003).

The research information obtained from the sample participants enabled me to determine my next round of interviewees (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002). Hence, I used the questionnaire (Appendix C) to narrow down my interview population.

Interviews

Interviews are one of the most widely used methods in qualitative research. One of my reasons for choosing interviewing as a data source tool for this specific study is my agreement with Fontana and Frey (2000) that we cannot observe people's thoughts and feelings. The flexibility of the semi-structured interview allows researchers to ask the interviewees questions related to their answers without being compelled to a certain questioning sequence. Interviewing teachers enabled me to understand and learn about the teaching pedagogies that Egyptian teachers practice and believe in and revealed how these beliefs create a mind habitus that could either inhibit change to creative thinking or foster their longing for this change. (For specific narration of the process of establishing the interviews, please see Chapter 4.)

In this study I used a semi-structured interview protocol to explore Egyptian EFL teachers' perspectives. I developed and used an interview guide protocol that contains a list of questions and topics that needed to be covered during the conversation. I tried to follow the guide, but the flow of questions and topics discussed, in some cases, disrupted the order because I needed specific elaborations that were important to the research objectives. Questions that were not included in the guide were asked as they picked up on things said by interviewees (Glesne, 2006); this allowed respondents the time and scope to elaborate on their opinions on a particular subject (Patton, 2002).

I tested the utility of my interview questions by using them in the previously discussed pilot studies. This helped me in making modifications, deletions, replacements, and additions. This piloting of interview questions was essential to maintaining their quality and congruency with the research's questions, goals, and purposes. The practice of interviewing enabled me to consider building certain rapport strategies: showing empathy with participants without judgments, wording my questions or inquiries in a way that conveys my position as a seeker of knowledge rather than an investigator, breaking the ice with the interviewee before interviewing, finding a comfortable and quiet setting for interviews, and probing participants to deepen responses to questions (Patton, 2002).

Moreover, from that previous piloting experience I decided to conduct two interview meetings per participant; the duration of each was around an hour to cover all interview questions or "to point of redundancy" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 202). The first meeting was the one where I followed the interview guide. The second meeting was a reflective follow-up interview; this was after the classes' observations, which allowed teachers to reflect on and to add to events or certain feelings based on the observations (Patton, 2002).

Observations

Denzin and Lincoln (2000) note that the use of multiple methods reflects an attempt to secure an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon in question, but the "objective reality can never be captured. We can know a thing only through its representations" (p. 5), and that is why I sought after visiting the school sites and classrooms to exhibit situations I am seeking to understand. Also, Patton (2002) describes

participants' observation as a qualitative method, and its objective is to help researchers learn the perspectives held by study populations. As a qualitative researcher, I was interested in both knowing the diverse perspectives of the Egyptian teachers and in understanding the interplay among them. This was achieved through the conducted epistemological observations of this community. Participant observation took place in Egyptian school settings and EFL classrooms, which provided me with real-life and on-site perspective along with the interviews' data to make the picture clearer.

The main reason I used observations in this study was to provide a detailed description to the reader of the setting and participants in the field (Patton, 2002). Also, observations here confirmed any interviewees' presumptions about what they believe to be the truth. Participant observation was also useful for gaining an understanding of the physical, social, cultural, and economic contexts of participants' lives (Stake, 1995).

To understand data and gain "firsthand experience" (Patton, 2002, p. 262) from my observations, I took notes during my field visits whenever possible and I used an observation rubric (Appendix E). These notes helped me record and remember what I had seen, which provided me at the end with rich descriptions of events happened on site and I was able to narrate them in Chapter 4.

Data Analysis

Data analysis should follow a specific design that relates to the overall research framework (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). Every qualitative study requires decisions about how the analysis will be done, and these decisions should influence, and be influenced by, what the researcher wants to study. Looking back at my research questions, I wanted

to explore the EFL teachers' perspectives on the use of MI theory in their cultural context. And, as Maxwell (2005) states, the first step in data analysis is to carefully read through all data. Hence, I decided to follow a systematic qualitative research data analysis to stay close to my raw data.

The approach I used in my analysis was the general procedure of analyzing qualitative data that is guided by specific research objectives in an inductive analysis approach (Bryman & Burgess, 1994; Dey, 1993). My approach provided me with a convenient and efficient way of analyzing my data because it facilitated the developing of categories from the raw "data reduction" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 9) to help me understand meaning in complex data. This approach to data analysis also established clear links between the research objectives and the summary findings derived from the raw data, which enabled me to develop my "paradigm shift" model, mentioned at the end of Chapter 5, which proposes to solve many problems that were evident in the raw data (Bryman & Burgess, 1994; Dey, 1993). The primary mode of my analysis, following this approach, was through the development of these raw data categories into a framework that captured key themes and processes that I thought important and directly related to my research questions. Inevitably, the findings might be shaped by my assumptions and experiences in conducting the research and carrying out the data analyses (See insider-outsider analysis in Chapter 5's conclusion.) I would like to provide an illustration of my data analysis procedure:

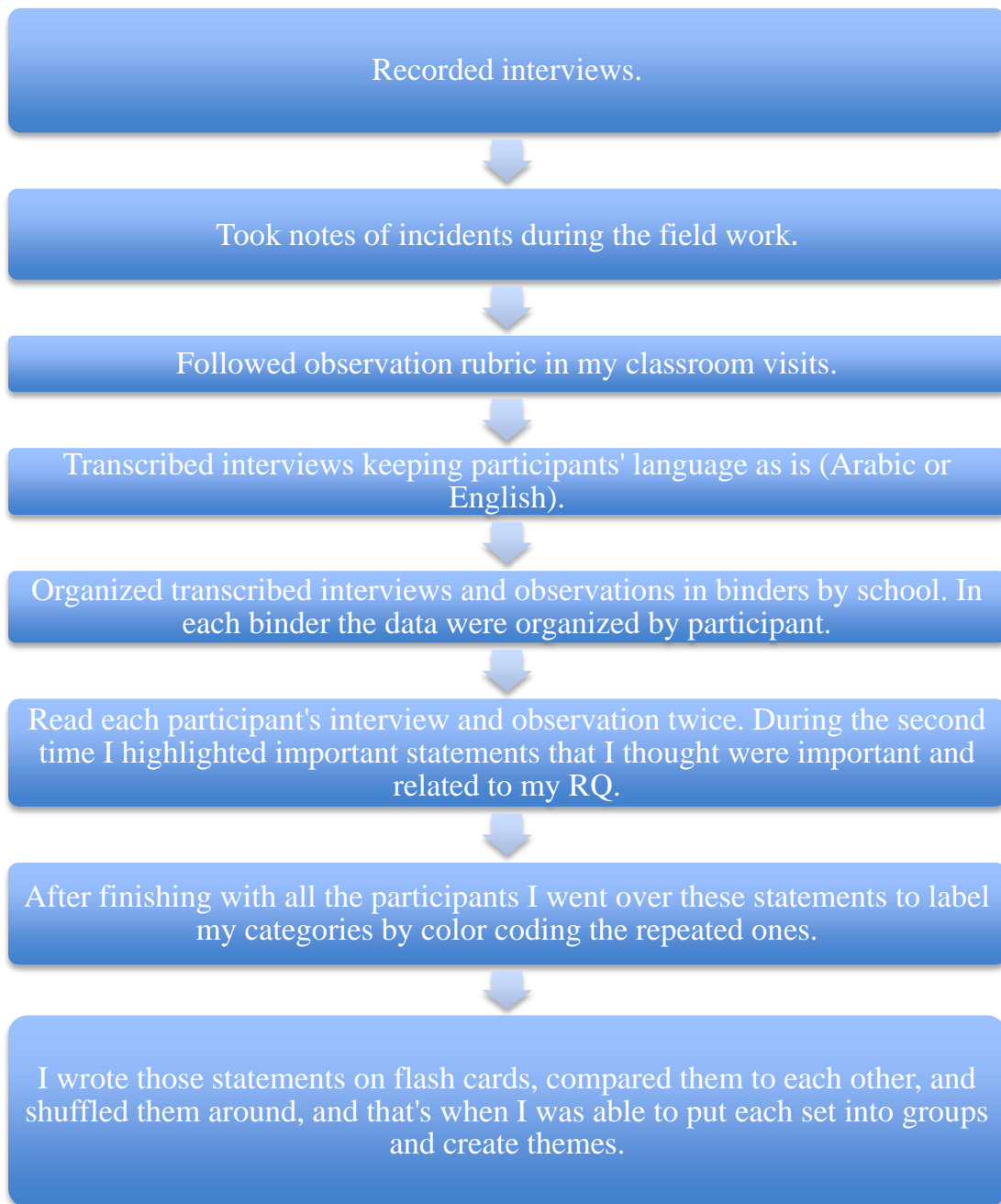


Figure 3: Inductive data analysis process

To elaborate, the outcome was the development of categories into a model or framework that summarized the raw data and conveyed key themes and processes (Morse

& Mitcham, 2002). That illustration was exactly what I found myself doing when analyzing my data. Within this process I also put in mind what Maxwell (2005) discusses about the interactions from the perspective of the participant that provides an emic interpretation of the data while also taking on the etic perspective to address the role of the researcher's interpretations of the interactions; the use of both together with my previous systematic qualitative inductive approach allowed for a more holistic view of the data in the study.

I followed certain steps that I considered open coding of my data considering the data in minute detail while developing some initial categories (Maxwell, 2005), which was emic coding. According to Maxwell (2005), the emic analysis is “primarily descriptive categories and codes given to data drawn from participants’ perspectives and beliefs” (p. 97). My research categories here were inductively developed through a close open coding of the data (Corbin & Strauss, 2007). According to Strauss and Corbin (1990), written data from field notes or transcripts are conceptualized line by line in open codes to find out the problem and how it is being resolved. Maxwell (2005) posits that it is essential to reread the transcribed documents and memo logs in order to make a deeper connection with the written material. I wrote my codes that caught my attention because it related to the research questions, in the margin of the field notes and memos to make it easy for me to make reference to each participant.

I broke down the data and looked at chunks drawn from participants’ direct quotes (emic), created codes of similarities, and rewrote some of their perspectives to allow more data and themes to emerge (Glesne, 2006). Then, I was able to develop my own

interpretation of a general theory of what is going on through the use of field notes, which conceptualized and developed my general themes (etic). All of these procedures took the linear inductive steps that I illustrated in the previous graphic organizer. The following paragraphs provide more details on the process.

As a beginning step, after each interview I sent the recordings to be transcribed in the language the participant used (Arabic, mostly, or English) with a professional and fluent Arabic (Egyptian)–English transcriber. Once I received the transcripts I began with reading and re-reading in order to fully comprehend my participants' perspectives. In this phase, I also worked on writing dated memos after each interview using my field notes and jotted-down descriptions so as to maintain a close and iterative relationship with the data as it is collected on an ongoing basis. According to Elbow (1981), memo writing is more like free writing to help the researcher think and link the data in relation to the researched phenomenon.

One way to maintain this involvement with data and to allow for ongoing analysis was for me to manage data and analyze as much of the informants' conversation as possible in memos. During each interview or observation I wrote abbreviated notes in hardbound notebooks. These were raw field notes gathered from key informant interviews and direct observations I used as key sources for those memo writing. Memos were important tools for me because they helped me achieve both refining and keeping track of ideas that developed when I was comparing incidents to incidents and then concepts to concepts in a summary log. In memos, I developed ideas about naming concepts and relating them to each other.

I took all of the transcribed interviews and the classroom observation notes and put them in binders. I organized each binder by school (the three private language schools). Inside each binder I divided interviews and observations by the EFL participants from each of these schools.

Once texts were prepared, I re-read for understanding and to familiarize myself with the content. In my second time reading I highlighted important statements that I felt related to my research questions (emic) in the process of creating possible codes and categories. Then, I put color-coded stickers to show the possible labels and codes I found for these statements. Some of the emerged codes included “teacher control,” “professional development,” and “parents’ demands” (see Chapter 4).

That previous step prepared me for the step of creating categories. The more general categories were derived from the research aims. The specific categories were derived from multiple readings of the raw data. After putting labels of the repeated important codes I wrote down participants’ statements or quotes on flash cards; I used this strategy to speed up the categorization process because there were large amounts of text data.

The previous step was in some cases difficult because data segments or statements could overlap to be coded into more than one category. In these cases I had to re-read my statements and made decisions according to my experience in the field and with the participants. This could be a reason for my occasional repeated narration of situations when reporting the findings under the different themes and subthemes in Chapter 4. Moreover, another obstacle in this phase was the decision that I had to make to not to

include some text under any category because much of those texts were not relevant to the research objectives from my own perspective.

As a visual person I organized all of these shuffled flash cards in rows under categories. I re-read the flash cards to settle on their placements under the matching categories. After that I grouped my categories to link the ones that talk around the same topic, which was a great deal of my personal interpretation of the data (etic). In this phase, I created (with these flash cards) what Miles and Huberman (1994) refer to as a data summary chart, in which I shuffled the cards around under the different categories until I reached my final thematic chart. Connecting codes and categories is the process of discovering themes in the data (Crabtree & Miller, 1999). In this process I ended up with themes that included two to four categories written on flash cards that belonged to that one theme. Within each category, there were subtopics and new insights, which I labeled to be my subthemes. While writing my findings I combined the categories or linked them under a subordinate category when the meanings were similar. Then, I selected the appropriate quotes that conveyed the core theme or essence of a category by relating them back to my research questions and goals to use these in my analysis discussion.

Research Quality (Validity and Reliability)

In the field of scholarly research there is an ongoing question of what defines the “rigor” criteria of research quality. Through my qualitative literature readings, I learned more about the dichotomy between qualitative and quantitative research in their different definitions of establishing quality, giving them names like trustworthiness in qualitative research or validity and reliability in quantitative research (Schwandt, 2007).

Rather than explicating how “rigor” was attained in qualitative inquiry, a number of leading qualitative researchers argued that reliability and validity were terms pertaining to the quantitative paradigm and were not pertinent to qualitative inquiry and that is why they replaced these terms with trustworthiness (Altheide & Johnson, 1994). Sandelowski (1993) argued that issues of validity and reliability in qualitative studies should be linked not to “truth” or “value” as they are for the quantitative researchers and positivists, but rather to “trustworthiness,” which becomes a matter of persuasion whereby “the scientist is viewed as having made those practices visible and, therefore, auditable” (p. 2). Some suggested adopting new criteria for determining trustworthiness, hence, enhancing rigor in qualitative inquiry (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

The steps I took to maintain my research’s quality and trustworthiness were, first, describing the congruence of my theoretical framework and the methods used in my study and, second, creating a criterion-based participants’ selection, which showed the reader that, although there might be subjectivity in the analysis and findings, participants’ perspective in the matter of inquiry was essential and authentic because they were carefully selected. Finally, I had to follow several data analysis categories and techniques for results verification. To elaborate, I used a constant comparative way of data analysis, peer checking, and memos to avoid biases in my interpretation.

In the 1980s Guba and Lincoln agreed with substituting validity and reliability with the parallel concept of “trustworthiness.” Furthermore, they developed its four criteria: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. According to Patton (2002), these trustworthiness criteria are considered a constructivist “analog” to validity.

Trustworthiness criteria

As I have noted before, trustworthiness is the quality of investigation where Guba and Lincoln created a set of criteria to meet some argument about judging the goodness of qualitative research (1989). They developed four criteria that served as the naturalistic inquirer's equivalents to conventional criteria (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). I will be discussing these four criteria that correspond with what I practiced in my dissertation research to test "validity threats" in relation to trustworthiness.

Credibility and dependability. In general, credibility works as the "internal validity" in qualitative research (Schwandt, 2007); this criterion addresses the issue of consistency between the researcher's interpretation of reality and the participants' views or perspectives. In addressing this quality question I included peer checking. This entails involving an Egyptian professor in education (Dr. El-Bilawi), who is an expert in Egyptian teachers' cadre programs and is well experienced in the field, to monitor any bias in data analysis. Guba and Lincoln (1989) regarded peer checks as "the single most critical technique for establishing credibility" (p. 239). Moreover, I agree with Patton (2002) that there must be "rigor techniques for increasing the quality of data collected during field work" (p. 584), which in my case was interviewing and observing. There must be some type of "systematic analysis strategies" of data collected. Both techniques and strategies were technical standards to enhance the research findings from credibility. As for dependability, this criterion is an assessment of the quality of the integrated processes of data collection, data analysis, and thematic connections (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Lincoln and Guba (1989) stress the close relationship between credibility and dependability,

arguing that addressing the former supports the latter. This may be achieved through the use of “overlapping methods,” such as individual interviewing that consisted, in this research, of two types of interviewing. One of them allows for participants’ reflective input, and the other method—classroom observation—provides a clearer understanding and a context for the discussions in the interviews.

Transferability. In general, transferability is considered to be the “external validity” in qualitative research (Schwandt, 2007). This criterion addresses the issue of case generalization in a sense that it prevents the researcher from taking all participants as a whole or generalizing their cases to include people outside of the study. To test this threat in Chapter 4 I provided thick and rich descriptions of the data collected, participating teachers, the school sites, and classrooms.

Confirmability. This criterion looks at “objectivity” in qualitative research (Schwandt, 2007). This criterion addresses the question of assertion that the data collected actually mean what the inquirer or the researcher is interpreting and that the data collected are enough to come up with thematic findings (Schwandt, 2007). In addressing this criterion, I expanded on the durability of my research in the field to achieve data saturation, which in place worked as a way of assertion that what I am collecting, understanding, and interpreting was close to reality. I did not want to be trapped by rushing through my thematic conclusions or in coding any incomplete perspectives that end up as “partial reality.”

Boundaries

Site choice

This study has a site limitation that reflects on the design. In other words, the limitation was in the great difficulty that I have encountered in finding a school in Egypt that would open its doors for researchers both for political reasons (a researcher affiliated with an American university or institution) and administrative reasons (slow and complicated bureaucracy). Therefore, I had to design my site selection strategy, which is emergent and opportunistic, with consideration of this limitation.

Culture of hierarchy

In the Egyptian workforce's culture there is a concept of undemocratic hierarchal relationships. Teachers fear administration and losing their jobs if they disagree with what they are told to do. Hence, the teachers' reluctance to give their opinion or perspective about the practice of MI was an obstacle in obtaining rich data in some schools (See the situation of school B in Chapter 4.)

Timing

The timing of data collection might play a reverse role. Interviews and observations were conducted early, at the beginning of the school year (in October). Teachers in some cases did not have issues ready or fresh in their minds to discuss so I had to give them examples of what others said about some questions just to help them brainstorm their experiences.

Conclusion

This qualitative research is a representation of my worldviews of an educational phenomenon. My view of the use of MI practices and its entanglement with cultural beliefs, especially when the theory is implemented in global contexts interacting with

teachers' backgrounds and social capitals helped me realize that I had to interact with the field in a qualitative inquiry to interview teachers regarding their perspective about the phenomenon. My approach to the research became interactive as I focused on the phenomenon; hence, the questions, the objectives, the methodology, and the theoretical framework all interacted congruently to understand this educational inquiry and allowed for a respectable research quality. In Chapter 4 I introduce my research findings after conducting the fieldwork and analyzing the data.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH FINDINGS

Introduction

The use of multiple intelligences (MI) in schools around the world as a method to promote active learning strategies (refer to Chapter 2) must be examined and evaluated. Each country has its own educational system and culture⁴; hence, educational strategies should not be implemented in isolation from the educational scheme of the country. Although MI teaching strategies are viewed in Egypt as a valuable theory, teachers had a lot to say, directly or indirectly, about the obstacles they encounter when integrating those strategies into their daily lessons. However, before I describe the schools I have visited and provide my analysis and findings, I will revisit the research purpose, the problem, the research questions, and the data analysis methodology to establish a common ground for sharing the results.

Review of Problem and Purpose of the Research

The problem of many educational practitioners, administrators, teachers, and staff development trainers lies in their views of the MI theory. Their effort in implementing the theory in schools and classrooms is based on their own isolated perspectives. The implementation of MI loses its essence if it is not integrated with the schooling culture and

⁴ A school's culture can be defined as the traditions, beliefs, policies, and norms shared in varying degrees by members of a school community that can be shaped, enhanced, and maintained through the school's principal and teacher-leaders (Short & Greer, 1997).

the educational system of the country of interest; this is one of the problems I have encountered even in schools in the United States.

Moreover, when introducing the theory of MI in different cultural settings, the methods and strategies of teaching should be developed in a way that molds with the hosting culture to avoid any clashes between the theory practices and the cultural context (Chen, Moran, & Gardner, 2009).

Educational reforms, professional developments (PD), and/or teacher training programs that do not address the issue of the applicability of MI teaching strategies with the cultural context and schools' settings trap teachers into practicing the theory by talking the talk but not being able to walk the walk. This may happen as a result of the disconnection between the theory and the context in which it is implemented.

Chen et al. (2009) addressed the questions: Why does it fail in some countries? Is there a problem in the process of implementing it? What can we do as educators to solve this problem? Gardner speculates some reasons of the success of MI implementation in some countries and its failure in others. (Refer to Chapter 2 for further details on Gardner's discussion of this issue.)

The purpose of this study is to explore MI and its practices from a cross-cultural perspective and in the Middle Eastern context, specifically in Egypt. I sought to find the connection between schools' and teachers' cultural backgrounds and the actual use and understanding of MI. I aimed at listening to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' perspectives to understand if their Egyptian culture was an opportunity or an obstacle for them when implementing MI and why.

Another purpose of this research is to investigate whether the Egyptian language schools and the EFL teachers are ready for the change toward the use of MI practices and active learning strategies. The findings from this research could serve my final purpose in creating an international and cross-cultural understanding of the importance of the role of cultures in shaping school systems and teachers' educational abilities to change.

Revisiting research questions

Because of the previous detected problems and the core purposes of my research, I designed my questions to discover more about the use of MI in the Egyptian cultural context. The questions are as follows:

RQ 1: What do Egyptian EFL teachers know about the MI theory?

RQ 2: What are the views and perspectives of EFL teachers about the implementation of MI theory in Egypt?

RQ 3: How do the educational background, teaching philosophy, and schooling culture of Egyptian EFL teachers influence their perspective on the use of MI?

RQ 4: How do Egyptian EFL teachers view the link between MI and the educational reform the government is looking for in the education strategic plan?

RQ 5: What are the challenges and opportunities facing EFL teachers' attempts to implement MI in their classrooms in Egypt?

RQ 6: In what ways does Egyptian culture inspire or inhibit individual creativity and use of MI practices?

To address these questions I chose my data collection to be interactive tools with the participants in the field; this would allow me to observe the schooling cultural context of these EFL teachers.

Tools Used in Data Collection

The design of this study is based on the qualitative interviewing research frame. For my data collection I used four interactive tools to better understand my participants and school settings. The initial tool used was a screening questionnaire for EFL teachers. The questionnaire was used to determine participants for my next interviewing step. Through this questionnaire I picked my participants according to specific criteria such as level of knowledge regarding Gardner's MI theory and a teacher's examples of implementing the MI theory. After choosing participants, I started with the second tool—individually interviewing the selected EFL teacher—participants. The interviews were an hour long for each teacher, audio recorded using a SmartPen, and then transcribed simultaneously.

The third tool was classroom observations of interviewed EFL teachers once in their classrooms to allow for a better connection and understanding of their real teaching settings. I used an observation rubric for all teachers to organize my notes following specific guidelines and subcategories in this rubric.

The final data collection tool was one feedback interview. In these interviews I wanted teachers to reflect freely on the whole process and add any specific details they might have missed from the first interview, which related to what happened in the classroom observations.

Data Analysis Methodology

In Chapter 3 I explain in detail my *analytical process* in finding results. I used modified constant comparative analysis in this research, which refers to the concept of the data collection influence on changing the participants' selection and/or interview protocol (refer to Chapter 3 for further details). As for this section in Chapter 4, I will provide a description of my data analysis *technical process*.

For this technical process, first I had binders for each school with their EFL teachers' interview transcripts in each. I read each participant's interview by school. Then, I re-read the interviews of all of the EFL teachers. I coded the interviews by highlighting the statements that most related to my research question. Afterward, I wrote down on flash cards all of the most repeated and common important statements found across the participants from all three schools. I translated those important quotes to be used in my findings narratives. I sifted, sorted, and organized them in rows according to their similarities. After I had rows of flash cards of common or similar ideas, I gave subcategorical or subthematic names to these rows. The final step was stacking the subcategories that belonged to the same theme or idea next to each other and creating a broader common theme for them. I ended up having four broader themes, and each theme had three or four subcategories or subthemes (total subcategories was 16).

As a qualitative researcher, I visited the field (the three language schools) and interacted with the teacher-participants. As a result, I could not base my analysis on my interviews only without noting down my personal observations on what was happening in the field. I wanted to report what the participants had provided verbally in their

interviews with me and organize them under related themes together with notes about what was happening in the classrooms and the interactions among teachers and administrations to help me in my observational analysis. Consequently, my findings will incorporate the interview quotes and my personal observations to provide a larger and a complete picture of the situation in the three schools.

Building Background

To provide a better understanding of the context in this section I will provide background knowledge about the three examined language schools in Egypt and discuss the schools' settings and participants. This does not mean I am dividing my findings according to the schools, but I find it helpful to create a picture of the setting for the readers before learning about the thematic findings of my research.

Schools' settings

These schools, as described in Chapter 1, are language schools that represent 10% of the total schools in Egypt. The population of these schools belongs to the middle-class families in Egypt. I will call these schools A, B, and C. Throughout my field visits, I noted areas of similarities and differences among the schools' cultures, settings, and internal school system dynamics.

Two of the most common cultures among these three schools were gender segregation and MI-age misconception. Gender segregation was obvious in the sex separation layout of the classrooms. For example, two of the schools included both boys and girls (A and B), but the students were seated either on different sides of the classroom or in different rows according to their gender. The third language school (C)

completely separated girls and boys, from upper elementary up to high school, in two different buildings (across the street from each other); hence, I will give the girls' school (upper elementary and high school) the name (C1) and the boys' (upper elementary and high school) the name C2; the lower elementary had the only mixed classrooms in a third separated building (C3). As a consequence of this sex separation a type of gender segregation and a culture of being shy to mingle had escalated. Moreover, a constant "threat" from a couple of EFL teachers in school B indicated a gender segregation attitude. Quoting them, "If you misbehave or don't participate, you will sit with the girls." The boys in turn would say, "No, no! We don't want to sit there." The gender segregation bias appears in the "punishment." As another example, in school A one EFL teacher related the success of working with MI to gender: "Girls are better in using and working with MI activities." The mind-set and cultural heritage of that teacher created an MI misconception. So gender separation and/or preferences are common features among these schools.

The second similarity among the three schools is the misconception of age in relation to the use of MI activities. In other words, some schools had the culture of viewing the application of MI activities to be most appropriate with younger groups (kindergarten through third grade). Some teachers also expressed their concern about parents' complaints that MI is impractical to use with middle and high school students; a couple of teachers expressed that the teaching in upper grades should be more focused on preparations for the exams. In fact, the culture of competition and the domination of

traditional paper and pencil exams led teachers to use more controlling strategies in the classroom rather than advocating for MI’s active learning activities.

As for the differences in these schools’ settings and internal dynamics, I will be including these in detail in my narration of my experiences in each school in the next section. The following are presentations of schools’ profiles. I will divide the narration of my field visits by school. The examined schools were three language schools: A, B, and C (C1, C2, and C3). As discussed in Chapter 3, I chose my three language schools according to accessibility. First, I sent an email to the principals of these schools. Second, I gained their permission to visit the schools. Third, they determined with whom I was going to meet with and when I should start my first visits from the administration. The following is a description of each school’s environment.

Before I break down my description and background of the three teachers, I will provide the following table to organize the information better to the reader:

Table 1: Field description

School A	School B	School C
1. Oldest language school of the three. The campuses include kindergarten, elementary, and middle and high school (separated from elementary by a wall).	1. Not a new one nor an old facility. Wide campus that includes elementary, middle, and high school.	1. Middle-aged school and well known. The campuses are wide. The pre-kindergarten is in one building (C1), boys (C2) (upper elementary, middle, & high) are in a different building, and girls (C3) (upper elementary,

		middle, and high) are in another building.
2. The least resourceful of the three. Small spaces.	2. Wide spaces. No sign of technology resources for teachers and students.	2. Wide spaces, but full and busy classrooms. Resources like SMART boards and libraries are visible.
3. Teachers' sustainability and retention in this school averages between 7 and 26 years of teaching in this building.	3. Teachers move from this school more frequently. The level of teacher retention is low.	3. There is a noticeable, but not high, level of teacher retention in this school.
4. There is a position of a "quality control supervisor" in addition to EFL lead teachers per each group level (lower elementary and upper elementary lead teachers).	4. The lead teacher there is for all elementary EFL teachers together with supervising for quality and standards' assurance.	4. There is a general EFL coordinator who is responsible for quality, training, and standards. In addition, there is a lead teacher per each group level in each school (boys and girls).
5. The school environment has an assertive discipline and controlling	5. The school environment is assertive and based on controlling teaching methods. Also, there is a noticeable tension	5. C1: This school building is the smallest. You can feel the environment is more laid back and

<p>method at all times.</p>	<p>between teachers and administration.</p>	<p>organized.</p> <p>C2: The largest building in size. I find it the least controlled in the sense of executing rules. Parents are allowed to enter the classrooms at anytime. I sense more tension between teachers and administration.</p> <p>C3: Middle sized, almost clustered. Organized. Less tension between teachers and admin.</p>
<p>6. In this school I interviewed six teachers; four females and two males. They are included in the analysis and results. One older teaching generation, three middle generation in teaching, and two young-graduate teaching generation. Two of the teachers graduated with an English major, and four are from the school of education.</p>	<p>6. I interviewed four teachers from this school; all are females. One will not be included because of data saturation. Two are young teaching generation graduates, and the other two are middle-aged teaching generation. Three of the participants are with English major and one is from the school of education.</p>	<p>6. C1: Interviewed two teachers who belong to the older teaching generation. Both are included in the results. Both are females with English major background.</p> <p>C2: Interviewed 3 teachers who belong to the middle teaching generation. All are included in the results. All are females. Two of them graduated with an English major and one from the school of education.</p> <p>C3: Interviewed 3 teachers. One of them is a young or fresh teaching generation and the other two are middle teaching generation. All are females. Only two are</p>

		fully included and one is partially included (did full interview without observation due to family matters). Two had graduated from the school of education and one with an English major.
--	--	--

School A. This school is the oldest language school of the three. Consequently, the facilities in this school are very old and the classroom spaces are compact. There is a great lack of teacher resources; for example, classrooms do not have computers or laptops, labs, library time, special needs or reading specialists, class activity materials, or overhead projectors. Most of the teachers there have been teaching in this same school for a long time (7–26 years). Surprisingly, this school is the only school that has the position of “quality control supervisor.” This person’s job is to monitor the quality and standards of education in the school. He is responsible for arranging staff developments and trainings for teachers and monitoring teachers’ quality and achievements in applying new methods of teaching.

This quality control supervisor was my contact person for my fieldwork visits in this school. He was the one I met and talked with to explain the topic and the process of the research. That was one of the reasons why this school was the easiest for me to get in and conduct the interviews in the most organized manner. First, I met with him individually to explain to him the topic, and he had many questions for me to ensure that I would not cause any disturbance to the participating teachers. Then, he arranged for a meeting with the head/lead teachers to discuss the logistics of allowing me to interact

with the EFL teachers. This enabled me to set up a data collection procedural system with them as far as surveying, scheduling for interviews, and arranging for class observations. The head of the EFL departments (three lead teachers—kindergarten, lower elementary, and upper elementary) were my initial means of communication to facilitate any of my inquiries with the rest of the EFL teachers. The lead teachers explained the research to the teachers, asked the teachers—privately and without my intrusion—if they wanted to participate, had them sign the consent forms, and got them to fill out the surveys. Once they were done with the surveys, I picked them up and did my screening. From the questionnaire survey I chose six teachers who fit my criteria most closely. Then I reported the results and names of participants to the lead teachers, who worked hard to plan the interviewing and observation schedules. Once this was set up, my communication became directly with the teachers.

The general environment in this school is based on assertive discipline and controlling methods. There are many hierarchal positions of content supervisors and even hallway control officers who sit in hallways to ensure order. There was not a certain system to do so other than shouting at students to stay in line or to go to their classrooms. Although the main goal or method of the school is strict control, there was no “agreed-upon” behavioral system with rewards or punishments to back up teachers in case of any student misbehavior. I believe that the administration does not want to confront or be in dispute with parents. This discussion about “assertive discipline” reassures the existence of the school’s culture of control; teachers and administrations should be “in control” at

all times. Consequently, it creates a teacher-centered classroom and an administration-centered school.

During my classroom observations, there were several interruptions of instruction from the administration office; they would send hallway officers with a note or substitution sheets or any administrative duties' requests to have the teachers sign during teaching.

I interviewed and observed six participants from this school; I included all of them in the research. Toward the end of my field visits there, I found consistency among participants on any of the issues they discussed or raised. I also noticed commonality on the situations I observed in their classes.

School B. For this school, the owner requested to meet with me first. He did not want me to meet the elementary school principal nor communicate with the English head of department until I explained to him specifically my research topic. After this introductory visit with the school owner, he forwarded me to the elementary school principal. The process was unorganized and confusing to both the participants and me. The principal's approach to introduce me to the EFL teachers was through a general announcement about a "researcher" waiting for them in the conference room and that they needed to attend immediately. That was it. She gave the staff no further explanation nor did she accompany me to the conference room to introduce me to them.

I was there in the school's conference room with many teachers who did not have any knowledge why they were there. I asked them if they were all EFL teachers. I found that there were Arabic and math teachers in the group, which showed me how random the

announcement was. When I finally got the chance to begin talking with the EFL teachers, I had only 10 minutes to explain my research, answer their questions, and distribute surveys for volunteer teachers. Teachers' attitude toward what I had to say gave me the impression that they were stressed and overwhelmed. Once they heard that the administration is not requiring them to participate, they were hesitant and asked me to give them a chance to think about it. They all left without promising to participate. No one volunteered to fill out the survey with a promise of "I will think about it." I had to rethink how I could re-approach those teachers and reach out to them. To me, their apparent rejection was not personal because they did not have the sufficient chance to listen to what I was explaining, but rather they seemed unhappy for some—researchable—reason. This messy situation was a challenge, but I was not going to give up.

The next day I went to the principal and asked to meet with the EFL lead teacher because I did not have the chance to meet with her and probably she did not know anything about my research. I decided to organize the visit myself. In school A, the process was easier and more organized because there was a system and certain protocol for a researcher's visit. I decided to follow school A's lead and set that same visit protocol for school B. I was finally able to meet with the EFL lead teacher at her office, which is also the EFL teachers' room. The lead teacher had her own personal desk in the corner of the EFL teachers' room. I was astonished to find that there were more EFL teachers in that room than those who attended the meeting in the conference room the first time. Visiting the EFL teachers' room helped me realize some of the reasons behind the

teachers' reaction that day at the conference room. Their setting was in U-shaped long tables, and each teacher faced the other in a crowded manner. Stacks of notebooks and workbooks were on the tables. The teachers were sitting and grading quietly. A couple of teachers came to the lead teacher's desk to ask her about parts of their lesson plans to ensure that they are doing the "right" activities.

Once the lead teacher was ready to discuss my research I explained to her my research goals and how the data collection will take place. I asked her to discuss the research with the EFL teachers and get back to me. I thought that she would talk to them after I left so that no one would feel pressured to reply immediately, especially because I emphasized that this is a completely voluntary participation. The lead, however, casually asked the teachers in the room to help me and to participate in the research. She said, "Does anyone use those visuals or audios or anything like this in the classroom?" I jotted down her words because they showed her perception of the application of MI; to her, MI activities are a bunch of audios and visuals. I had to take over the discussion and started to explain my research in a more detailed manner. I also made sure to explain to the teachers that there was no benefit or harm if they participated, their identity and data would remain anonymous, and it was voluntary to take part in the research. Only four teachers volunteered to participate right then and in front of the lead teacher.

When I came the next day, one of the teachers who had volunteered the day before came and asked me if she could talk to me in private. We talked outside of the room and she asked, "Isn't this a voluntary participation?" I reassured her that she did not

have to participate if she did not feel comfortable and that she had the right at any time to withdraw from participating, hence; that teacher chose to withdraw at that moment.

Throughout that first day I made an effort to sit in the EFL teachers' room to obtain a better understanding or build background knowledge about the participants from their real situation before I interviewed them. I tried to build discussions with some EFL teachers in that room in a personal level. After a while, the teacher who had withdrawn earlier approached me again, but this time it was inside the room in front of the rest of her EFL team (but not the lead teacher). She asked me if she could rejoin the research. I was curious to know the reason behind changing her mind. She explained that they were all worried that I was going to report to the administration anything that happened during the interviews or class visits. I reminded her and showed her the consent form indicating complete confidentiality. The mood in the whole room changed. The teachers started to speak freely about their situation. They had too many responsibilities and tasks in the school and the administration had no level of communication with them unless the teachers were involved in a problem with a student or his or her parents.

I believe that the value of this story is that it shows the amount of tension in school B. The teachers only opened up to me after I communicated with them in a personal level and away from the administration. However, most still did not participate because of the limited time they had.

To conclude, I interviewed and observed four teachers from this school, yet I will use only three of them because of lack of valuable data from one of the participants.

School C. This school was another organized school; the researchers' visits protocol system was like in school A. To elaborate, the owner of the school referred me directly, via email, to the EFL coordinator of his schools (C1 and C2). I contacted this coordinator by phone first to explain to her my research and how I wanted to implement it. She had many precise questions for me, which showed that she is a well-versed coordinator and has a good educational background. She was the only administrative person, across the three schools, which had concrete knowledge about the language of research and knew key concepts about active learning, brain learning, and MI. When we met we organized the steps and logistics of getting the research started (surveying, interviewing, and observing). Also, she was able to give me examples of activities they use in the school that integrate MI strategies. However, I found out that these activities are used heavily mostly in the lower elementary levels rather than in the upper elementary grades.

As noted earlier, the school is divided into three separate buildings; one is for lower elementary (kindergarten through 2nd grade) mixed boys and girls (C1). The other is the boys' school building (C2), which is upper elementary to high school grades (from 3rd grade to 12th grade). Finally, the girls' school is in a third separate building (C3) with the same grade range as the boys.

The administration in school C (including the three separate buildings) seemed to have no rules for parents' access to and presence in school territories. This was most obvious in the boys' school (C2). Parents could enter the school and even knock at their children's classrooms at any time for trivial matters, such as checking if their child had

his or her lunch. There was no strict behavioral system in this school. The girls' school was less problematic in this area and teachers attributed it to gender.

School C's administration and teachers seemed to be able to name some MI activities and strategies. Teachers took many training sessions that allowed them to know important teaching key words and methods. However, when observing them I found that they did not know how to apply them. Also, the administration was proud to be one of the few schools that integrated technology in the classrooms. They have SMART Boards in each classroom, yet the SMART Boards were not connected to the Internet. Teachers used the SMART Boards as whiteboards, used the touch screen to flip a story page from an inserted CD that comes with the textbook, and used it for PowerPoint presentations. Moreover, there were no computers inside the classrooms or teachers' office-rooms; computers were only used in the library.

One last observation was the relationship between teacher and administration, especially in C2. Tension escalated because of parents' persistent interruptions and interference in school and teachers' matters.

I interviewed eight teachers from this school. One of the participants did not finish the process (no observation or feedback interview).

Participants

The total number of participants was 18 (6 from school A, 4 from school B, and 8 from school C); however, the actual number of participants that will be analyzed is 16 (6 from school A, 3 from school B, and 7 from school C). In school B, I eliminated one teacher because of the poor data I collected from this participant; the data were not rich

due to the fact that the teacher was not well versed with using MI in the classroom. In school C, one teacher opted out for personal reasons after the first interview. The teachers' ages varied from the forties (three participants) to the fresh graduates in their twenties (two of them). Female EFL teacher-participants were the majority in comparison to the cumulative number of participants.

Findings

The following are the common themes I found throughout my visits to the three schools and from listening to the 18 teachers' perspectives. For the sake of maintaining participants' anonymity I will call schools, as mentioned earlier, school A, B, and C. As for teachers, they will be given pseudonyms when referenced. After the analysis I ended up with five themes with each having subthemes. The first theme is *schooling culture* (included teachers' philosophies, teaching and learning expectations, parental involvement, and students' characteristics). The second theme is *teaching English in the Egyptian context* (including instructional strategies, EFL teachers' professional image, and private tutoring). The third theme is *teacher perception of MI Professional Development (PD) training and outcomes* (included MI training and outcomes). The fourth theme is *school structure, setting and resources, environment, and process* (with subthemes of administrators' lack of structure and engagement, lack of school resources/classroom settings, schools' environment, and top-down curriculum). Finally, the fifth theme is *teachers as educators* (including teachers' qualifications and teachers' motivations). In the next section I will introduce each theme and subtheme through

narrations of participants' perspectives and quotes; note that some of the quotes provided were translated from Arabic to English.

Schooling culture

Teachers' philosophies. Most of the EFL teachers' educational backgrounds in this research are based on the traditional ⁵(teacher-centered) way of learning. The majority of the teachers noted that they are enthusiastic about integrating newer ways of teaching, but their schooling backgrounds hinder their acquaintance with the vast development of new teaching methods, especially with the absence of sustained teaching trainings. Esam (a male who belongs to the new teaching generation and graduated from faculty of education) from school A said, "I always find myself geared toward teaching in the traditional way when I'm in a hurry and want to finish things up." This shows that traditional teaching is the first to be pulled out of their teaching toolkit.

Moreover, most of the teachers talked about their willingness to change but they believe that the whole system has to enter this same interval of change in order for this change to be applicable. Camellia (a female who belongs to the middle teaching generation and graduated from faculty of education) from school C said:

"We are only one part of the body. How can you expect this one part to move alone? Unless the whole body joins in, the body will stand still.

⁵ Reformers believe traditional teacher-centered methods focused on rote learning and memorization must be abandoned in favor of student-centered and task-based approaches to learning. However, many parents are concerned with the maintenance of standards-based testing, which favors a more traditional approach. The opposite of *traditional education* may be progressive education, modern education (based on developmental psychology), or alternative education (Dewey, 1897).

They (administration and government) ask us (teachers) to change our teaching methods, strategies, and activities all the time. But when we try to change we find many barriers that stop us.”

This participant continued by identifying the barriers to be the administration, parents, students, government policies, curriculum, and teacher training programs.

Teaching and learning expectations. According to Maysoon (a female who belongs to the middle teaching generation and graduated from English major college) from school B, “Learning here is a race to the top.” Students have to earn high cumulative grades because this is what determines their college and their whole future. Many teachers described the concept across the three schools when they discussed that the parents’ and students’ main concerns are tests and grades. Hence, parents worry about the quantity of what their children memorize of English vocabulary, grammar rules, key words, and even sample composition texts. To parents, the quality of English teaching and learning is not essential anymore as long as their children are passing the exams. This may encourage passive learning and rote memorization, which consequently leads to teacher-centered rather than student-centered instruction. According to Mahi (a female who belongs to the middle teaching generation and graduated from English literature) from school C:

“It doesn’t matter if I taught a lesson through a role-play or by using a visual. All that matters to the parents is to see the workbook exercises are all done and give them key answers to tests.... This means that I will have

to cover more of the workbook exercises and read and copy methods in class than work on an active learning environment.”

I found noticeable examples of the classrooms I visited at the three schools where teachers were the center of classroom learning and the students were seated as recipients of instruction. As a result, the relationship between the teacher and the student is hierarchal because the teacher is at the center—the only source of knowledge—and the students are receivers—followers of the teacher. The higher the grade level, the more intense this phenomenon. Reem (a female who belongs to the new teaching generation, only in her second year teaching and graduated from an English major college) from school C said, “MI is not suitable for higher grade levels. They are too busy to have fun learning.... They can’t waste their time.... MI is more for lower grades, KG through 3rd.”

According to all of the teachers from the three schools, “class control” is a persistent teaching tool expected in classrooms. They cannot give up on this tool because it empowers central position inside their classroom. The idea of surplus control became part of the teachers’ belief system in Egyptian schooling culture. The teachers knew that they could not expect administrative support in behavioral issues; on the contrary, teachers’ fear communicating behavioral problems because the administration views this “lack of behavioral control” as a weakness from the teacher’s part. Moreover, teachers did not expect the students to demonstrate schooling skills such as social/self-monitoring and respect. Consistently, most of the teachers noted that the most difficult activities are the kinesthetic ones because the students fail to contain themselves during class tasks.

According to the EFL teachers, group work leads to “chaos,” and visual and auditory intelligences are considered the best types of activities for this matter. Nesreen (a female who belongs to the older teaching generation and age group and graduated from an English major college) from school A said, “Without my strict class control students cannot listen to appropriate English pronunciations.” Maram (a female who belongs to the new teaching generation, only in her second year of teaching and graduated from English literature) from school B emphasized:

“Students have to learn how to respect me. I don’t do activities unless I tell them the condition of being super quiet and respectful. I had tough students who would laugh at everything I said, so I had them write 30 times ‘I respect my teacher and classmates.’ Punishments are the only way to gain back class control...”

Another schooling-culture expectation is the frame of teacher–parent communication. Reem from school C mentioned that she had learned from one of her trainings at the British Council (not related to any governmental trainings) that she should send a letter to the parents to introduce herself, her vision, and what she is planning as her goals for the year. She said, “Some of my colleagues think that this would not be appreciated by the parents and it is not appropriate,” so she decided, “Why should I be different than the norms?” That teacher never communicated with the parents on a personal level and always maintained this communication through the administration office when parents had any type of request or complaint.

Parental involvement. As mentioned earlier, parents of these language schools belong to the working middle class (because they can afford these schools' reasonable tuitions). The biggest concern of these parents is to provide their children with the best future to ensure better lives for them. Therefore, parents are strongly involved in their children's schooling and strive to make every possible decision for them to protect them from failure and to enhance their chances for success.

Listening to EFL teachers' perspectives, they indicated that parental involvement in certain occasions becomes an obstacle. Parents' schooling backgrounds and cultures conflict with the current need for change toward using MI activities in classroom instruction. Neither the government nor the school administration had educated and involved parents in these new "active" ways of teaching, such as using MI. The parents do not know the goal behind the change in the methods of teaching EFL and they do not understand the features of the change or how the teachers are going to apply these activities in the classrooms. Some teachers voiced that concern; for example, Salma (a female who belongs to the older teaching generation and age group and graduated from school of education) from school A said:

“Parents might know about role-playing, but to them it's considered a fun activity only.... They want us to do this maybe once or twice a week maximum, but they still want serious instruction, which is more writing and exercises. To them this shows that we work hard for school.”

According to the teachers, parents ask from them to send home all class work, even composition texts, in order to get their children to memorize them at home.

Teachers inferred that parents are more satisfied when they send more homework and demand from teachers to check this homework carefully (word-by-word) to ensure that their children can memorize the correct answers in this homework. Esam from school A said:

“Parents want to see their children learning the same way they have learned themselves. They were taught by rote memorization, answering worksheets, following model answers, and lots of homework.... They do not like it when I use PowerPoint. [They] say it’s useless.”

In agreement with the other teacher participants, Mustafa (a male who belongs to the older teaching generation and age group and graduated from school of education) from school A said, “This is how parents evaluate us as teachers.... More homework equals a good teacher.” Maysoon from school B affirms most of what others said about how parents perceive how teaching of EFL should be and she adds, “In spite of parents’ demands to teach English through more paper-pencil exercises and practice...they complain that students are not able to converse well in English. How can we balance this?” Moreover, Maha (a female from the older teaching generation and age group and graduated with an English major) from school B stated:

“Parents don’t care about how we teach. All that they care about is to see the list of grammatical rules and key words to enable their kids to go to the exam. The education system now has active learning, group work, paperwork—all of this without changing our social, cultural, or educational backgrounds—so, don’t call this reform, but call it addition.”

Students' characteristics. Several teachers complained about students and their schooling culture. During my analysis I tried to connect the teachers' quotes about students' schooling skills and attitudes, which included statements like “receptive and not creators,” and relate that to what I have observed in my classrooms' visits while students are in action. From this connection I came to find four challenges related to students' schooling culture and self-perception. They include the absence of the culture of cooperation, self-efficacy, self-discipline, and self-motivation.

The previous themes indicate that the focus of teaching and learning in these schools and for these parents is based on test achievements. The students are racing to reach the top grades in order to ensure enrollment in the best colleges. Thus, the culture of cooperation among a group of students to produce a final collaborated project does not exist. All that matters to each student is how much he or she is memorizing to fit into the highest stakes in the system. I noticed that during cooperative group work students competed to win and to show that they were the best because they wanted to earn higher grades. Teachers did not train students to work together as a team with each having a specific role. In these schools, teachers talked most of the time and only a few of the brightest learners had the opportunity to participate, usually by responding to the teacher. In this field setting, teachers did not provide guidance to the students as to how to form a group and what the dynamics of this group should be during an activity.

As discussed earlier in this section and according to what I have observed in the classrooms, students depended heavily on the teachers at the observed schools as the number one source of knowledge. At home, parents want to move their children forward.

Parents ask teachers to provide sample answers for children to memorize rather than encourage their children to search for information. This leads, from my analysis, to students' minimum observational learning resulting from their inner belief of their low individual ability to accomplish or execute tasks without an outsider help. Students constantly are protected from initiating assignments independently. As a result, their individual differences are not celebrated in classrooms. In other words, things are taught in one way and students are expected to learn lessons and memorize them to earn better grades. According to MI core knowledge, students have to be treated as different individuals who pose different and unique capabilities. Teachers should address this uniqueness through appreciating and celebrating students' needs. Rana (a female who belongs to the older teaching generation and age group and graduated with an English major) from school C noted, "Parents plan for their children what they should be in the future and it's always either a doctor or an engineer." In Egyptian culture these professions are the highest socioeconomic statuses; hence, parents consider learning English as an important tool to reach this goal, which increases the pressure on students and teachers.

Teachers across the three schools have stressed the fact that implementing group work and cooperative learning activities is difficult and not realistic to implement in their EFL classrooms. One of the reasons they mentioned was students' behavior. To quote one of the most common comments about this: "I [the teacher] have to control them [the students] all the time during group work.... They can't focus on task."

Sally (a female who belongs to the middle teaching generation and age group and graduated with English literature major) from school C added, “One of the most important obstacles is students’ behavior.... A lot of us think we can’t do group work, sing, or any active learning because the students have no self-control. So, I insert activities that maintain order while students are at their seats.”

My own analysis of this situation is that students are used to an outsider power or “control” to direct them and once this outsider power (strict teacher’s structure) is absent the students feel lost. This was clear during my class observations with a couple of teachers who could not set rules for group work nor were they able to gain strict control over the students; hence, the students took advantage of the situation and were very playful and lost the target of the activity. When students feel that the power of structure and guidance are absent, they practice a haphazard and undisciplined behavior. Another reason, I believe, is that the teachers are not well trained in how to use group work, how to make group activities successful, and how to delegate roles in teams. To elaborate on this point, from my class observations, I found teachers are either unstructured when implementing group work and did not know how to guide the activity, or they were stringent to the extent that the activities were not interactive in reality because students had to be quiet.

Another participant–teachers’ constant comment was that students had low self-motivation and needed outsider support. This means that students’ motivation is extrinsic motivation that prompts an individual’s action with external factors such as reward or punishment and not an intrinsic motivation, which inspires action with internal factors

such as the feelings associated with exploration, achievement, and personal interest activity. Salma from school A said, “Students need to be pushed at all times to do what they are supposed to do. It is usually 90 percent outside push and only 10 percent of their inside push.”

Teaching English in the Egyptian context

Instructional strategies. Teachers talked about how the English language is divided into the core branches of grammar, comprehension, vocabulary, and story. This is the traditional way of dividing the different components of a language, rather than integrating all branches and teaching them as complementary to each other. The Arabic language content is divided in this same manner. It is essential that the English language is not taught in isolation from the practical usage of it. Nadia (a female from the middle teaching generation and graduated from school of education) from school C said, “We teach English now in a very systematic way—grammar, vocabulary, and story. Then, the students don’t apply one of these when they are learning the other. We are not teaching English in a fun way...very systematic.” These branch divisions and rigorous ways of teaching allowed for more “toward the test” type of teaching and prevented the teachers from getting excited about teaching English. “It became boring,” Sally from school C highlighted the issue. Many teachers stated that they like teaching stories more than the other English divisions (vocabulary and grammar) because they can apply fun activities like role-playing, visual videos, or theatrical voices. According to them, teaching reading comprehension stories is less dry than the other sections.

English is still taught through the grammar translation method, which is based on

rote memorization and with heavy stress on grammar, vocabulary, and writing. Reading is not encouraged or facilitated because grammar is seen as the most important branch. Role-playing activities were evidently used in classrooms when teaching story more than with any other activities. Rehab (a female who belongs to older teaching generation and age group and graduated with an English major) from school C stated, “I would like to use all of the multiple intelligences activities to have an active class, but all that we can really do, and we do it a lot, is visual activities and also auditory.” Teacher Maha from school B said, “Of course, I think group work is workable and effective, but the problem is I can’t control it so I try to avoid it.” Both of these statements indicate that these EFL teachers are trying their best to implement MI-based activities to transition from the traditional ways of teaching into what the teachers called “active learning.”

From what I have observed, the EFL teacher-participants have limited oral abilities, so what they say about students—that they can write and read but can not speak the language fluently—may be applicable to them as being part and a product of this same educational culture and system. The teachers had high grammatical and vocabulary abilities but could not hold fluent oral conversations. According to Mariam (a female new to teaching and young age group and graduate of a school of education) from school A, “Our way of teaching English focuses more on writing, grammar, and vocabulary for the sake of the test.... We do not practice with the students how they can converse in English. That is why students can answer tests but can’t speak, and they memorize grammar rules but can’t apply them when they are speaking.” The English-language teaching in Egypt had been and continues to be taught in a traditional or “teacher-

centered” method rather than in “student-centered and active” learning settings.

This teaching of English through the traditional method that focuses on memorization and grammar increased the isolation of the English language as a context to become more of just a language. Moreover, Mustafa from school A rejected the fact that in the English curriculum they are using examples in the comprehension stories or exercises from the English culture. He wanted to “Egyptian-ize” the content or the English curriculum and textbooks to make it “more appropriate” to the Egyptian culture. For example, Mustafa said, “Why do we teach students the titles and how you address married women as it is in the English culture? We don’t do this in Egypt.... No one calls a married woman here in Egypt with her husband’s last name.” From my own perspective, there is another marginalization of the communicative competence of learning English. Not only are students are learning English in isolated division rather than learning the language in a whole integrated context, but also some teachers do not want to introduce the students with some actual English cultural context. There is no doubt that teaching has to be meaningful and reflect the hosting culture; however, teaching English should still introduce the students with some English cultural contexts to enable the students to interact in their futures in any English context situations.

Teacher professional images. Many teachers across the three schools have talked about the “appeal” of English as a language and the English teacher as a representative of this language to the English learners. I was not sure about what they meant until two different teachers elaborated on their two different angles of viewing this same concept; Mahi, from school C, said, “The English language is envisioned as something foreign in

our students' heads. In Egyptian culture anything foreign is usually glamorous.... English teachers should look and act according to this picture.” Also, Salma from school A stressed, “English teachers should smile and not punish and should have completely different methods and strategies of teaching other than the traditional ones that the students see in other subjects.” Being an insider here helped me to understand the concept. The image of English speakers in Egypt indicates elite position. Egyptians strive to learn English to be labeled or considered elite. Hence, the image of an English teacher (capable of speaking English) is perceived with this same high regard, which is what the teacher meant and wanted teachers of English to look like. The first teacher inferred that the image and characteristics of English teachers should represent this mental and cultural image rather than being a regular and typical teacher. The teacher talks about the psychology of students and how English teachers, through their personal characteristics, should reach out to their students to increase the appeal of learning English. I also believe that the second teacher was implying, through the context of our conversation, that English teachers should look and act in a more welcoming way in order to provide an inviting environment for learning a foreign language; she also inquired English to be taught in an untraditional way but was doubtful whether EFL teachers were equipped with the appropriate tools for this.

Private tutoring. Through my field observations and teachers interviews one can conclude that the culture of taking private lessons prevails in Egypt. The EFL participant-teachers explained this phenomenon by giving it two reasons: teachers' salary and parents' protection.

For the first one, teachers talked about their low salary in comparison to the quality of life and prices in Egypt, and especially that the schools do not medically insure them. Camellia from school C affirmed, “Our salary here is around 500 to 800 (Egyptian pounds). We have no medical or life insurances, no absence leave. We know nothing about our work rights.... Sometimes we work after school until late at night to improve our earning...” Many teachers are left with no choice but to improve their living by exhausting themselves in tutoring after school, which may explain my observation of some teachers’ fatigue at school in the morning. Furthermore, I heard stories from the participant–teachers that there are corrupt teachers who push their classroom students to take private lessons with them. According to Salma from school A, “The way the administration fights private tutoring is to hide from us the grade level we will teach next year. They do not tell us until the second week of school.” She continued, “They even ask all of the EFL team to teach the same way in all of our classes to avoid any extra publicity of one teacher over the other.” Donia (a female who belongs to middle teaching generation, has taught EFL for six years, and graduated from a school of education) from school C mentioned, “Private tutors screen the students who want to take lessons with them first by asking them about their grades in previous years before they accept teaching them. It once happened to a friend of mine whose child had 90 percent in his biology final but the private tutor refused to accept him in his private group because his grade is not high enough and this may influence the teacher’s reputation in the private tutoring field..., This private tutor’s high school group had 100 students in a session given at a center. How are these kids learning in this big number? This shows that parents send their

kids there just to psychologically feel that they went the extra mile with their children.”

I should not affirm that tutoring corruption is the rule, especially in these private language schools. The teachers cannot risk their reputation in these types of schools. An example about this point is what Rehab from school C narrated, “One of my son’s teachers entered the classroom once and asked the students who was not taking a private lesson in history. One of the students raised her hand, so the teacher took her out of the classroom to teach her the lesson.” Rana continues, “This teacher knew that the rest of the students in the classroom won’t allow this student, who is not taking a private lesson, to focus in a quiet environment.”

The second reason, according to several participants, is that parents want to support their children and provide them with the opportunity to earn excellent grades and attend a high-stakes college. Hence, they give their children private lessons in many content areas, especially English. In an environment where the grades you earn shape your future, parents are left with no other option but to abide to the rules and secure their children by providing more opportunities for private lessons. Specifically, in the case of learning English, parents provide private tutors to their children as a necessity because English is a foreign language and they might not have high language proficiency to help their children themselves. Rana further narrated:

“I used to teach KG and I had some parents come and beg me to tutor their kids. I’ve never seen private tutoring from that early age. One parent said to me that she doesn’t know English and she can’t control her kid to sit and do his homework. I used to tell the parents we are only taking the letters and the

sounds and we practice this in school. I tell them there is no need for private lessons at this age. But, do you think that parent was convinced with what I said? Of course not. The parent will go and try to find another teacher who will give private lesson to her KG child.”

Rehab added,

“[T]he concept of private tutoring used to be for students who are weak in a subject and they take this extra tutoring to increase his or her grade. But, now the situation is different. Parents give private lessons to their children, even if they have high grades, just to make sure that they will earn even higher grades. Also, because all of their children’s colleagues are taking private lessons...the social pressure is strong.”

Another point I noticed is a lack of teachers’ teamwork across the three schools. I did not go with this phenomenon in mind, but it was worth referring to, especially that it was noted by one of the participants in relation to the culture of private tutoring. Samya (a female who belongs to the school veteran teachers, with an English major) from school A noted, “Each teacher desires to gain individual success rather than a whole group’s achievement.” If I may interpret what Samya said, when the teacher—individually—excels this means a high status and stand at the administration office and a better reputation among parents, which translates into greater chances for private tutoring. Parents and the administration evaluate teachers (highly) according to the amount and quantity of work written in students’ notebooks and the number of pages covered and

answered in workbooks; consequently, teachers will have to focus on their individual planning in the classroom in order to gain this high position and evaluation.

Teachers' perception of Professional Development (PD)

MI trainings and outcomes. Most of the teachers' knowledge about MI was limited to the theory itself or some important key words. Moreover, the staff developments and trainings in Egypt were expensive for teachers and were not sustained enough to enable teachers to have a more sufficient and deep understanding of using MI in their classroom setting. I would like to provide long quotations from my participants' interviews in order to make the case clearer. One participant, Samya from school A, stated, "I use MI activities like audio CD, video CD, flash cards, and projector." Other teachers referred to using MI-based teaching strategies as "active learning strategies." Another participant, Nesreen from school A, admitted, "To tell you the truth, I forgot many things I learned at the government PD. It was too short. I had to refresh everything with my lead teacher because I wasn't sure about many things I heard there." Maha from school B, further explained,

"When I had the faculty of education PD they showed us a good comparison between a physics teacher who is teaching in a traditional way and another teacher who is teaching in an active classroom and we can see the difference. This was very good. But we were not fully trained. This PD was only for a week and the number of teachers was huge. We need time to practically train us and it has to be in a workshop type of PD. We need to learn by doing. Also, we had to pay for these mandatory courses. Some of them are 500

(Egyptian pound) and the school cuts a 100 EP from our paycheck monthly for any training we take. We have to attend them. We have no options. I think if we would have taken the course as a real course for one year, it would have been all that, but ours was different. Our course was only one week. It was according to the university. It was running the course for only one week, and I was talking to someone in English all the time and he told me, ‘Actually I don’t understand anything you are saying,’ so I had to repeat everything slowly.”

Furthermore, many teachers said that some of the trainings or PD were superficial, were impractical, and did not provide them with reference materials. Samya from school A argued,

“To speak honestly, no. They talk about things that have no relation with what we do in class, and when we ask questions, they don’t know how to tell you the answer because they don’t have answers. They have to say ABCDEFG, but when you interrupt them and ask them about how we can apply these things, they don’t have the answers, and they don’t know how to make me able to apply what they say. They don’t help me. For example, you say how can I do this with forty pupils? [They respond,] I will tell you after the lecture. That’s all. But the trainings they do for us at school, somehow they know the situations in classes, so they know they can help us more, but the one that comes from outside, they know nothing and they come to just talk like this, without any help.”

From my observations, these comments were long-established. I found they were not exposed to any practical modeling on how to apply the MI theory in their lesson planning because they were making up their own ways of applying MI-based activities according to their own perceived knowledge (funds knowledge), backgrounds, and their teaching setting and time allowed. For example, most of the teachers tailored group work and cooperative learning to merely answer workbook questions. On this similar point Esam from school A added,

“The course we took on how to use group work was theoretical and close to a mere lecture. They give us these courses just to say they introduced us to MI and active learning and that’s all. We did not understand how to apply it. As a teacher I don’t know how to apply group work in my class. I implemented it the way I understood it and the students like it. In group work, students learn how to respect each other’s opinions.”

The use of group work, as part of active learning and MI-based instructional tools, was one of the challenges the teachers talked about. Many teachers expressed difficulties in implementing these types of cooperative work because they do not really understand how to implement it due to lack of training, time constraints, or students’ behavior.

Maram, school B, explained the strategy she uses in group work: “I have students work in groups when we need to answer questions in our English workbook. I have the students divide into groups. Then they sit and write down their answers to the questions together. After they finish, the group picks a leader to report the groups’ answers to the questions.” From my observations I found that mostly all teachers applied group work in this same

way. Salma from school A said, “The theory of practice is idealistic. When it comes to practical life we don’t have the time for it, especially if we follow our class routine of checking homework.... These theories are made for other kids, not our Egyptian kids.”

Another example of customizing MI strategies to fit into Egyptian EFL teachers’ needs and teaching context is their use of “flash cards.” Throughout my class observation I found most of the EFL teachers in the three schools used flash cards in only one way—to write on them the grammatical rule of a certain tense (for example, present perfect), glue them together, and post them on the blackboard. Mustafa from school A said, “The whole school uses the same exact material.... We’re all doing the same over and over.” Esam from school A said, “The trainings were very theoretical just so they say we gave that to the teachers.” Maha, school B added,

“We will implement many activities like group work superficially because we were not well-trained. The PD were given just to say they gave us a training and we are eligible for school accreditation. That’s all. Even if they give us the materials we need to use like charts or flash cards, they never trained us on HOW to use them. We need modeling. I need to see an English teacher teaching using these things. Maybe I am doing something wrong in teaching grammar, for example. I need to see people teaching it right. I don’t have time to be creative and invent things that might not be right anyway.”

Many teachers in the three schools expressed their concern about the fact that schools are adopting these new ways of teaching and trying to push them into the classrooms just for the National Accreditation and Quality Assurance Authority

(NAQAA) of the schools (a governmental association that monitors what the government had enforced in their reform about integrating MI and active learning in classroom teaching). Mahi from school C commented,

“The administration sent us to the trainings without being fully aware of what these trainings included. They even made us pay a portion of the expenses of these trainings,”

Salma from school A said added:

“They want us to go to these trainings until the school gets the accreditation...as if they are getting the ISO. After that no one cares if the teachers really understand or not.... They don't even give us the materials we need to apply such activities.”

Consequently, the outcome is that the teachers did not fully understand MI and its benefits in teaching EFL. From my classroom observations I found that teachers were not well-versed with some teaching strategies and how to implement them in their special classroom situations in Egypt. Professional Developments were provided over a short time to introduce teachers to the MI theory and the key words related to its teaching strategies. Maysoon, school B, noted, “We took training because of accreditation. We went to Faculty of Education, we took course...the same, they all have the same topics, class management, how to deal with students, what are the differences...nothing new.”

Moreover, most of the trainings were not mainly geared toward teaching English. To further explain, teachers talked about the trainings and PDs' program, saying that the content of the training was mostly applied on different contents like math or science with

minimal reference to how to use MI-based and active learning activities when teaching English. Maysoon, school B, stated,

“The school sent us sometimes to trainings for science teaching just because the title was active learning. So we went and attended a lecture on how to use experiments in science lessons.... Are you wasting our time? We need something on English. Other trainings were on math and Arabic.”

Maha, school B, confirmed,

“In English, we did not have that much trainings on activities, but we took some on math and I use them when I teach math (I teach extra math classes). For example, when they have addition and subtraction, they love doing things with their hands. We used to count things with our hands and stick it to the paper. These kinds of activities. They love to draw, of course. Sometimes we use it in the English when we need specific information about a letter or a vowel or something. But I really don't have many things on teaching English grammar, for example.”

I found out through my interviews with the Egyptian EFL teachers that some teachers who had extra nongovernmental trainings were able to recognize and name a few MI strategies of teaching (e.g., role-playing, visual pictures, and flash cards) and they were able to name some activities that they use. For example, Maram, school B, who worked as a TA in an international school revealed,

“I worked as a TA in a British school. I took trainings there too. By the way, every year they were giving us a booklet on how to be effective co-teacher.

They will tell you what to do with children, how to discuss cases, how the activities need to be interactive, each year even before the beginning of school, so it was a very nice environment and networking. Actually this affected me when I joined here more than any government PD. I joined here to be a middle teacher, but my supervisor told me that they are willing to have a conversation department, and she told me how it would be nice if I would handle it. So I told her my background and how I'm dealing with classes and how we're dealing in the British school."

Schools' structure, settings and resources, environment, and process

Administrators' lack of engagement structure. As I have mentioned earlier, the administrations of the three schools did not seem to buy into or get involved in the change of using MI-based teaching strategies. Through my interviews and observation of the three schools I learned that the administration burdened the teachers with too many school duties. EFL teachers were asked to substitute for teachers who were absent in any grade level and for any subject. The teachers talked about how this was time consuming; many of them indicated that "they would rather be planning for their classes rather than subbing for any grade in any subject." In this section I would like to introduce some long extracts from my participants' conversations to clarify this point. Maha, school B, indicated,

"We teach the whole day and the administration gives us duties for any planning or lunch time blocks left in our schedule. That's why I can't lie and say that my energy and teaching power at the end of the day are the same as

in the morning.”

Maha, further complained about the fact that the whole burden of change is on the teacher only with no support from the administration.

“The administration is sometimes available when you ASK them to help. I’m saying the administration acts like the success of the whole educational system depends on the teacher only. The teacher is to be blamed or the teacher to be trained and if you know how, then that’s a bad thing because you’ll be fighting against the system of administration. You tell them we have to do this because it should be done like this and they are not involved in what’s new so they will fight back to maintain what they are used to...and with the parents too if they object. You tell them we have to do this because this is how it should be done..”

While I was observing some teachers randomly across the three schools, they were often interrupted during class instruction by the hallway monitors to ask the teacher to sign up for a new duty. It became clear that the administration was not providing the appropriate atmosphere or time to enable teachers to implement MI. Maysoon, school B, substantiated,

“Every teacher is implementing activities in the ways she or he understands. There is no system we all agree on. Why can’t the administration talk to us the beginning of the year and tell us, ‘Everyone, we will be implementing, for example, MI, and we will do it in this manner’? And we include the parents in this. This way the whole school will be successful because everyone is

following a system.”

Sally complained,

“The administration is not supporting us to apply the change because they were not educated or involved in the active learning trainings. They don’t even worry about knowing what’s new in teaching. If they knew what we had to apply in the classroom and how much preparation and planning this needs, they wouldn’t have pressured us with the amount of extra duties and extra detailed homework checking. We check for spelling, capitalization, even the date the students write in their homework notebooks.”

The administration, according to the EFL teachers, measure and evaluate the teachers based on what the parents want. Camellia, school C, affirmed,

“The administration evaluates me not with how the students have learned but by the amount of work I finished before the exam. I have to finish answering all the English workbook pages and have answered them all and corrected them all before the exam. It doesn’t matter if I have actually taught them these pages or not. All what matters is that I have documented that I’ve finished. You may play with the kids and not teach any of these lessons. Maybe you taught it fast and the kids didn’t learn it. Maybe you put the answers for them on the board and they copied them...but as long as I open the workbook and I found the answers are all there and checked, then [I am] a good teacher and [I’ve] finished [my] work. I may teach this lesson with a very nice and active activity but didn’t answer the questions in the workbook.

A parent may come and complain that I didn't teach this lesson since there is nothing written in the workbook practice questions. The administration may support the parent over me because I have not documented that I have taught this lesson."

The parents find it more reassuring when they see that their children were learning in the way they were used to. Esam, school A, commented,

"Parents are not used to teachers having their USB and using laptops in their lessons.... This is a waste of time to them. The most important thing for them is that their child writes a lot, memorizes, and then answers in the tests correctly.... They want to see their kids are working for long hours at home on English homework, which means that the teacher is teaching them [well]."

So, the administration enforced some traditional classroom teaching strategies in order to please the parents; this is what Maha, school B, exposed,

"The administrations want to maintain control of what is going on in the classroom to stay safe from any parental complaints. They monitor what the teachers are teaching and how they are implementing their lessons' activities. The administrations even want to know what we are writing in students' notebooks and what activities we do in each lesson."

The teachers in schools A and C complained about the lack of enforcing a school-wide behavioral system in order to support them in situations of students' misbehavior. Nadia from school C said, "The administration is afraid to enforce any rules or behavioral expectation system because they don't want to upset the parents. That is why we

implement our own behavioral rules in the classroom, which causes a lot of stress on us.” This could explain the shouting and yelling that I had encountered when I was walking around the schools’ hallways; they needed to maintain “control” over the classroom.

Moreover, the teachers talked about how the administrators had no appreciation or teacher recognition system. Camellia from school C noted, “No matter what I do...I use MI activities and my students are involved, yet there is no appreciation from the school administration.... I hear from them only when there is a parental complaint or question.” Maha and Mahi from schools B and C, consecutively, agreed and generally said that there is no reason to work hard if it’s all the same at the end—no appreciation from the school administrators.

Classroom settings and lack of resources. Overall, EFL teachers from the three schools showed great enthusiasm toward using MI. They expressed their interest in using MI in each of their lessons; however, they complained about the classroom settings and the lack of resources together with the other obstacles.

I found through my observations that the classroom settings in the three schools hindered the actual MI application because MI’s core principles depend on certain physical settings and students and teachers’ state of mind. The obstacles were, first, I found that the classrooms were small in size versus a large body of students, which was enough to make it difficult to apply many MI-based activities. Mahi, school C, requested, “If we can just have larger classrooms to be able to move around in [and for] activities and group works. And if we can have different type of desks.... Those ones we have are very difficult to move around or to have students sit in groups” (the desks are pair seats).

Maha, school B, agreed:

“Yes, I have a good number of students, 18, but I can’t divide them into more than three groups. My classroom is small so if I separate them in groups they should have at least some space among each other so they won’t be talking loud and covering each other’s voices. They must be really concentrating and behaved in order to be able to divide them in this small room.”

Schools A and C’s average number of students per classroom is 35 to 40 and school B’s average is 25 to 30. The teachers said that it is usually difficult to conduct lessons, especially group work, because it becomes very noisy due to the number of students relative to the size of the classes. Maram, school B, commented on classrooms that have larger number of students, like in school A:

“To go beyond 25 is not acceptable. It will be frustrating for the teacher. Some teachers got bored and they go. They put the material on the board, explain and not even bother to ask the children, what did they understand? I think you saw after I finished the class, the singing and after everything, I asked, “what did you understand from the story?” When they are forty, I don’t think that they will have the option even to understand, not even sing a song. They will not understand. I will give them the time because, for example, if I let somebody stand up, I have to give him a half minute to think. They’re children, especially primary. Primary needs time to deal with...even for the other stuff like grammar, comprehension, all of those things. If you have more than 20 [students], you will never reach your goal. Be fair with

everybody.”

As for resources, Sally school C said, “We don’t have a library, English lab, computer labs for websites’ activities, or wide spaces for group work.” Camellia school C added, “We need library and reading times.... I can’t use the library in the school because it’s always busy with computer lab classes.” Mariam, school A, confirmed, “We are not provided with any charts, extra leveled books, colors, or even teacher computers in the classrooms.”

Throughout my site visits, I noticed what the teachers had referred to as the lack of classroom materials or people resources. For example, in schools A and B computers were not available inside classrooms or even in teachers’ workrooms, and the overhead projectors were portable ones that were only available when signed up for. In school C, there were SMART Boards but they were used with the function of an overhead projector and/or a whiteboard rather than as a “smart” board. Furthermore, throughout my visits none of the teachers used, in their classroom activities, any materials, such as construction paper, posters, chart papers, and/or manipulatives (block, puzzles, colors, scissors, glue, etc.). Therefore, applying MI activities in these classrooms—using visual, kinesthetic, or mathematical logical organizers—was inapplicable because they did not have the resources or the materials available or accessible to them. Maysoon said,

“If we decide to do any of these [MI] activities, we have to buy the materials with our own money. That is why it became easier for us to use traditional ways of teaching, possibly including visual PowerPoint slides every now and then, rather than doing this alone to try to create things that we do not

understand, have accessible materials and resources for or time to apply.”

Maha, school B, added,

“I think we can improve, but the resources have to be available, meaning if I have different resources available for me to use, I will not have a problem, or better to say that the resources don’t have to be available for me, yet they have to make sources available for me, in order for me to get the resources I need. They can inform me of certain sites. I’m not very professional to search on the Internet for the sites I need, so I stay for a very long time on the Internet till I reach a certain thing that I need.”

Most of the teachers spoke about the absence of school computer labs and a library to enrich what is taught in classrooms by coordinating and integrating these tools into their classroom activities. There is also a lack of workforce resources. Camellia from school C remarked,

“I have a student who has autism and I have no support for him. There is no special education teacher to help me out with better serving this student’s needs.”

Moreover, according to Camellia from school C,

“There are no reading recovery specialists nor librarians to support us here with more integrated reading activities for the students to increase their critical reading abilities.”

Because of this lack of resources, the classrooms looked in some cases uncolorful with no posters, no students’ work, no decorations, no classroom library, and no

carpeting. Maram, school B, explained, “It’s so different when I see our classrooms here and when I go to the British Council or other international schools. [There’s a] big difference in how nice their classrooms look like.... [It is] more appealing to the kids and teachers to learn with fun.”

School environment. The absence of free planning time for teachers during the day had influenced the school environment to be overwrought. When I asked them about their planning, most of the teachers replied, “We’ll be lucky if we have lunch time.” Teachers, overall, confirmed that they do not have time to plan at school or at home as a result of difficult school logistics. Esam, school A, criticized, “How can I focus on planning when I have no time in school or home? At school, I have all of these duties that stop me from planning. And I have to finish notebooks and workbook corrections, which are word by word. At home...there is no time for planning something creative.” The teacher further explained and showed me samples of how they are required, by parents and administrators, to check students’ work. Maha from school B said, “We are in the middle between the administrative and the government’s requirements and the parents requirements. We try to please everyone so we insert things here and there.”

Curriculum process. Teachers find it unrealistic to “sustainably” consider implementing MI activities in classroom instructions in view of the fact that the government’s (level 1 English textbooks) and the national school’s English content are not based on the quality but rather on the loaded quantity of lessons. Maysoon from school B said,

“I would love to use more active learning activities because I believe that MI

theory is a great one, but I can't use these activities all the time when I have the administrators and the parents behind me watching the quantity rather than the quality of lessons and how much the students have memorized to be ready for the test. Plus, the amount of content we have to teach is too much, since we have to teach both the national school content curriculum and the government's or public school English curriculum."

Moreover, teachers talked about the detachment between what was being enforced (active learning activities and the use of MI strategies) and the English curriculum and textbooks those EFL teachers were following. Donia from school C stated,

"The curriculum we are teaching is not helping us to use MI. We have something to teach and we are required to strictly follow, which does not match with active learning. For example, the textbook and the workbook we use are designed in the old way with questions and multiple choices...no creative thinking."

Nesreen from school A assured, "Change the curriculum—better quality and less quantity—and add MI-based activities. This way applying MI will be more realistic."

Maha from school B said, "Even the books are not interesting or colorful. It is only one book throughout the year and it doesn't change." Mariam, school A, suggested,

"I think if MI was integrated in the whole educational system especially in the curriculum syllabus and textbook design it will make a great difference. We need less content to cover.... We are in hurry all the time to finish regardless if the students understand or not. The test is not going to wait for me."

Teachers as Educators

Teachers' qualifications. After observing and interviewing my participants I found that they are not applying MI in their classrooms due to several reasons. First it is not part of their educational backgrounds (English major with no educational background or Education major with no strong English background). I found that the teachers who came with higher teaching credentials and educational background were not fluent themselves in English, whereas teachers with English degrees were not grounded in educational studies. Some of the teachers actually consistently stated that they implement some MI strategies without intentionally knowing that they belong to MI. In conversing with teachers I found that they may not know a lot about methods of teaching and the different types of teaching strategies. However, they have stronger language abilities. Other EFL teachers had graduated from colleges of education; however, they have a great difficulty in aural language fluency because their college of education relied heavily on the methods of teaching rather than English as a language. Mariam, school A, indicated, "Professors at the college of education did not use English at all in their lectures." On this issue Camellia from school C clarified,

"I'm lucky that I graduated from school of education. This school graduates qualified teachers who understand all about teaching methods and strategies. I have other colleagues who were graduated from school of engineering, commerce, et cetera. Their only qualification is that they can speak good English...so they enter the class...and this is by itself an educational disaster."

Second, as I have discussed earlier, because of the short and quick nature of PD teachers became unaware of the methods and strategies they use. Therefore, most of the teachers teach intuitively more than intentionally. Mustafa, school A, speaks for many of the teachers, stating, “We already apply all of these MI teaching strategies, but we didn’t know what they were called or to what it’s related.” Teachers’ intuition is a useful tool, especially if there are limited teacher development or training programs; yet the best intuition is what is built on a strong positive educational background. Teachers for the longest time have been depending on drawing from either their teaching intuition or from their past experiences. Because many of these EFL teachers did not receive sufficient trainings nor have strong EFL teaching credentials, their background storage they draw from might be based on more traditional learning.

Third and finally, some teachers do not possess the technological credentials that teachers currently need to hold in order to mold into the change and the MI requirements. Salma, school A, disclosed,

“I can’t search on the net. All of these additional things like sitting on the computer to find things or make a PowerPoint are useless and are a waste of time for me because I don’t know how to do them. These requirements made me feel that I am a needy teacher who waits for people to give her things because I can’t do these new things. Why are they making us feel like we are incapable when we are good teachers? Why wouldn’t the school provide us with ready-made technology materials like CDs and

videos to save us time? Plus they don't provide us with computers anyways."

Teachers' motivations. As a result of all the aforementioned issues, teachers voiced their unhappiness and lack of satisfaction with many aspects of their schools and with the educational system in general; therefore, they were not motivated. Camellia, school C, articulated,

"It is very disappointing, the whole situation, with the call for change. When you want to apply MI, for example, you think there will be many obstacles. First, you'll find a curriculum that needs to be covered and you'll be behind your other colleagues who are teaching fast to keep up with the pacing guide. Second, [you face] lack of new and creative ideas due to less experience in the new methods. Third, the system and the school are not ready or supportive for us to apply MI."

Sally from school C said, "I am eager to apply many MI activities in my classroom only if you take away some obstacles and provide me with resources." Many of these teachers felt disadvantaged because they had no accessibility to knowledge. They do not have sufficient support or resources to enable them to apply MI in its correct form. They face more obstacles that make them unhappy in their teaching environment than opportunities to encourage them to channel their energy in what is really needed for educational reform.

Summary

In this chapter I summarized the purpose of this research and named the research questions. I also described the tools used in data collection and data analysis.

As described in my findings introduction, the data analysis yielded five major themes with two to four subthemes in each. The five main themes are as follows: schooling culture; teaching English in the Egyptian context; teachers' perception of professional developments; schools' structure, environment, and process; and teachers as educators.

The results of this study address the uniqueness of the implementation of MI in the Egyptian context, which is considered to be a pioneer attempt in designing a reform plan and planting the seeds of implementing MI and active learning in the Egyptian school system. However, some schooling culture's obstacles and needs must be addressed for this implementation to reach the shore of success. In Chapter 5 I will provide my discussion of the findings and address research implications.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

“It is simply unrealistic to expect that introducing reforms one by one in a situation which is basically not organized to engage in change will do anything but give reform a bad name.” (Fullan, 1993, p.3)

Introduction

Without doubt, the implementation of multiple intelligences (MI) in Egyptian language schools remains not in its full scale; you can only witness the seeds of this change. The process of change is transitional, and for this process to be successful all of the educational stakeholders should interact collaboratively to achieve these goals. There must be a change in the Egyptian political agenda that focuses on improving the quality of education as a whole, especially now under the holistic political change in Egypt after the revolution; there must be economical change to finance more professional development (PD) courses and educational resources; and there must be change of context, parents, administrators, and students. The transition to change needs to be acquired and not required, and until all of these stakeholders come together the change will remain enforced without complete social acceptance.

In this chapter I will discuss the research study as a whole. First, I provide an overview of the research problem, research questions, sample participants, and the research findings. Second, I introduce the discussion section, where I provide my interpretations of the findings. Third, I present the research implications and suggestions

for better use and ideas for implementation of MI in the Egyptian schools through a model I created, which is a “paradigm shift of school reform in Egypt.” Fourth, I introduce a section on future research and ideas for further study of MI in the Egyptian cultural context. I conclude with a summary of the core findings of my research and my journey in this study as a researcher. I hope that this chapter will provide educators and researchers with theoretical and practical ideas to use as tools for further exploration in this field.

Summary of the Study

The problem

Throughout my field interviews and observations I found that most of the Egyptian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers believe in new concepts of intelligence; however, they still find themselves in a transitional phase inside the classroom. They are in a quandary between the traditional ways of teaching and the change of using MI techniques or active learning activities that were mandated by the government in 2007.

During this transitional phase teachers’ evolving beliefs, values, and backgrounds are in power and these are reflected in their practice. As Rosenthal and Jacobsen’s (1968) studies conclude, teachers’ beliefs significantly affect student performance. They state, “The evidence suggests rather strongly that children who are expected by their teachers to be successful in fact do show greater intellectual gains after one year than do children of whom such gains are not expected” (p.121). Nevertheless, advocates of MI theory have proposed many approaches for introducing MI practices in schools without paying closer

attention primarily to teachers' beliefs and level of readiness. In other words, parallel to implementing MI in the classrooms, as a means to change, there must be a greater focus on teachers' values and attitudes, qualifications and aptitude, motivation, amount of continued trainings and PD, and support and buy-in of the partners in the educational system (e.g., administrators and parents). According to a study by Campbell and Campbell (1999), a "whole-school approach" (p.6) to implement MI in six surveyed schools was one of the main factors for success of the new theory. The study further notes that one of the criteria for MI programs' success was in the integration of the theory in the schools' mission, culture, and curriculum.

Moreover, Armstrong (2000) demonstrates "how an MI approach can take place only when individual teachers intentionally incorporate MI theory into their regular classes" (p. 40). For example, Maha, one of the EFL participant teachers, voiced the wish of many of the EFL teacher-participants in this study to incorporate MI theory into their instruction sustainably. However, they stated that because of the many obstacles they face, teaching intuitively became faster and time saving because it required less planning time.

The research questions

The purpose of this research is to explore Egyptian EFL teachers' perspectives on the use of MI as a tool for change in the Egyptian educational system, especially in private language schools. Keeping in mind Maxwell's (1996) interactive model, the research questions addressed the purpose of the study. The questions were as follows: (1) What do Egyptian EFL teachers know about the MI theory? (2) What are the views and

perspectives of EFL teachers about the implementation of MI theory in Egypt? (3) How do the educational background, teaching philosophy, and schooling culture of Egyptian EFL teachers influence their perspective on the use of MI? (4) How do Egyptian EFL teachers view the link between MI and the educational reform the government is looking for in the education strategic plan? (5) What are the challenges and opportunities facing EFL teachers' attempts to implement MI in their classrooms in Egypt? (6) In what ways does Egyptian culture inspire or inhibit individual creativity and use of MI practices?

Based on these research questions, in Chapter 2 I reviewed specific literature that I believed connected with the topic I wanted to investigate. Moreover, these research questions led me to my samples' selections.

Samples' description

My sample is divided into the multiple sites I have visited and the EFL teacher-participants I have interviewed and observed. For the sites, I selected three private language schools rather than public or international schools to avoid any extreme case results that may jeopardize the research results. The public or governmental schools are poor quality and the international schools are very expensive and have mostly non-Egyptian teachers. Also, the chosen sample school sites are owned by individuals or entities that were able to guarantee me easier access to visit their schools. I chose the schools with these criteria in mind because of the difficulties researchers face in accessing schools to conduct fieldwork, such as interviewing and observing teachers; this is magnified if it were known that I am visiting from a university abroad, even though I am Egyptian. Another reason for my sample sites' selection of three schools is that it was

useful to explore the phenomenon from various perspectives and from an open range of experiences (Patton, 2002). Rather than interviewing teachers from the same site or workplace, I wanted a variation in perspectives from three reputable language schools in Egypt. For further school sites' descriptions, please see Chapter 4.

My teacher-participants' samples were purposefully selected. The following are my sampling selection criteria: Participating teachers should be well-versed and knowledgeable about the MI theory and its practices (the questionnaire screening addressed this criterion); teachers should have received the Ministry of Education's (MOE) professional training on implementing creative thinking and the use of MI practices; and teachers should be of Egyptian descent, meaning born to Egyptian parents and having lived and been educated in Egypt. Other factors, such as years of teaching experience and age, were left open to increase the pool of participants. Further detailed descriptions of EFL sample teachers can be found in Chapter 4.

Findings

After interviewing and observing my EFL teacher-participants and analyzing the data, I organized the findings in Chapter 4 into five main themes with subthemes. The first theme is *schooling culture*, which included teachers' philosophies, teaching and learning expectations, parental involvement, and students' characteristics. The second theme is *teaching English in the Egyptian context*, including instructional strategies, EFL teachers' professional image, and private tutoring. The third theme is *teacher perception of MI professional development training and outcomes*. The fourth theme is *school structure, setting and resources, environment, and process*, with subthemes of

administrators' lack of structure and engagement, lack of school resources/classroom settings, schools' environment, and top-down curriculum. Finally, the fifth theme is *teachers as educators*, including teachers' qualifications and teachers' motivations. I introduced each theme and subtheme through narrations of participants' perspectives and quotes in Chapter 4. The following graphic elaborates and summarizes the research themes and subthemes:

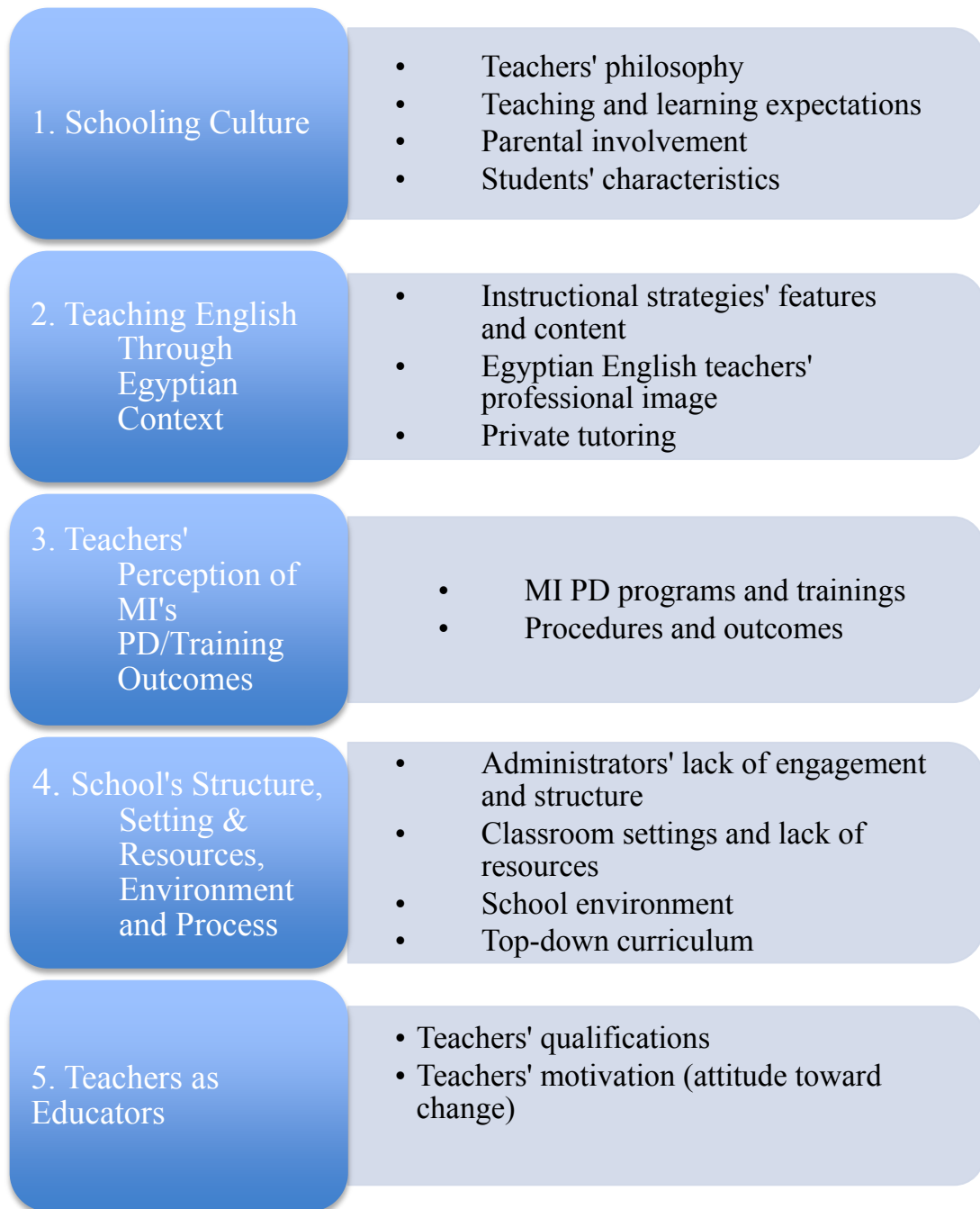


Figure 4: Data results

Discussion

My initial wording of my core research question was exploring the Egyptian culture in relation to the use of MI. While I was proposing the study and designing my research questions and before even conducting the field study, I was thinking of Egyptian culture in general. I believed that I should look at the Egyptian culture in relation to integrating MI practices and activities. However, after exploring the field and interviewing and observing my participants I discovered that implementing MI was faced specifically by the “schooling” culture in Egypt rather than the Egyptian culture in general.

For example, one of the very influential and renowned schooling cultures in Egypt is private tutoring. Research participants mentioned the problem of private tutoring and had specific stories about them and their impact on the transition to educational reform. When I talk about “private tutoring” in this study, I refer to classes that take place outside of the school premises and are additional to formal schooling. These private lessons usually take place in the afternoons, evenings, or weekends, and even during the holidays. Private lessons in a particular subject usually take place once or twice a week. They are provided for a fee and follow the school syllabus with the goal of improving students’ grades on exams.

In her overview of “Education in Modern Egypt,” Hyde (2012) asserts that the phenomenon of private lessons in Egypt can be described as an “informal market of education” where students act as “consumers” and teachers as “suppliers”—making education a commodity. Also, it becomes a characteristic of almost every household with a student in any of the stages from kindergarten to the university (Hyde 2012).

Another factor of the culture and the environment of schools in Egypt is that they can be a positive influence on learning, or they can seriously inhibit the functioning of the school toward reform. Schools with a negative culture are places where teachers are unwilling to change and the tone is oppositional.

Meyer and colleagues (1997) described this idea of a specific schooling culture as a “culture approach.” They further explained that theorists argue that the concept of a single global model of schooling has spread around the world as part of the international transmission of a more general cultural model of schools, a model that includes templates for school organization, health systems, policies, and teaching terminologies (Meyer et al., 1997) Culture, according to Peterson and Deal (1998), is the combination of “norms, values, beliefs, traditions, and rituals built up over time” (p. 28). Contrary to the “culture approach” used by Meyer et al., schools around the world may share the same school structure model, teaching terms, and educational policies, but the power of people is what creates a real implemented educational environment in a certain nation. Gaps inevitably occur between model and practice, but differences in lived experiences matter more than the common structure.

In my research, I wanted to learn more about EFL teachers’ perceptions on the use of MI as a means toward change within their school cultural context. I explored this quest while keeping in mind my research questions. As a result of my thematic analysis in the findings section (Chapter 4), I was able to link those questions with what I found to be the situation in Egypt. During my field visits I found several opportunities to witness teachers’ eagerness to change and the existence of a holistic framework for change provided by the

MOE. However, there were more challenges in the Egyptian national language schools such as limited time to integrate MI activities, overly crammed curriculums with no MI merged content, unmotivated teachers, nonprofessional or dilettante administrators, and insufficient or exiguous PD trainings.

As a result of these challenges and the absence of addressing them, the reform and the use of MI seemed mandated rather than a naturally needed reform. Fullan (1997) points out that mandated change is unlikely to be effective. He states, “Mandates alter some things, but they don’t affect what matters. When complex change is involved, people do not and cannot change by being told to do so” (p.38). Again, even mandated change will not be implemented if the culture of the schools does not correlate with the mandates and if there is no comprehensive approach among those partners toward change. For a wide-ranging change to succeed there must be a school-wide commitment.

In this discussion section I plan to connect these findings with the research questions to vindicate a proposal for a paradigm shift in education reform in Egypt. I refer to this model as “the culture of centralized and linear schooling,” which shows the schooling structure in Egypt according to EFL teachers’ perspectives and my personal observation. Everything happens at the top of the model where the Ministry of Education takes place nationwide; in other words, the reform is mandated from the center, then it is loaded onto the school administrators who push the teachers to apply the reform while facing alone the obstacles of the school and classroom setting, the parents and community, the traditional pedagogy, and the curriculum design. Hence, I believe that the reform in Egypt was hierarchal, which means that it did not include the stakeholders nor the

apparatus to support schooling change. To further explain, many EFL Egyptian participant teachers emphasized the pressure the MOE and the school administrators place on them when calling for school reform. From these teachers' perspectives, they longed to integrate new teaching methods, such as the use of MI; however, they feel they are standing alone against the old and traditional teaching methods without the support and understanding of what they called the partners in the cycle of change.

The following is the model's diagram that synthesizes my previous discussion of the linear schooling structure and model in Egypt:

Culture of Centralization – Based Reform

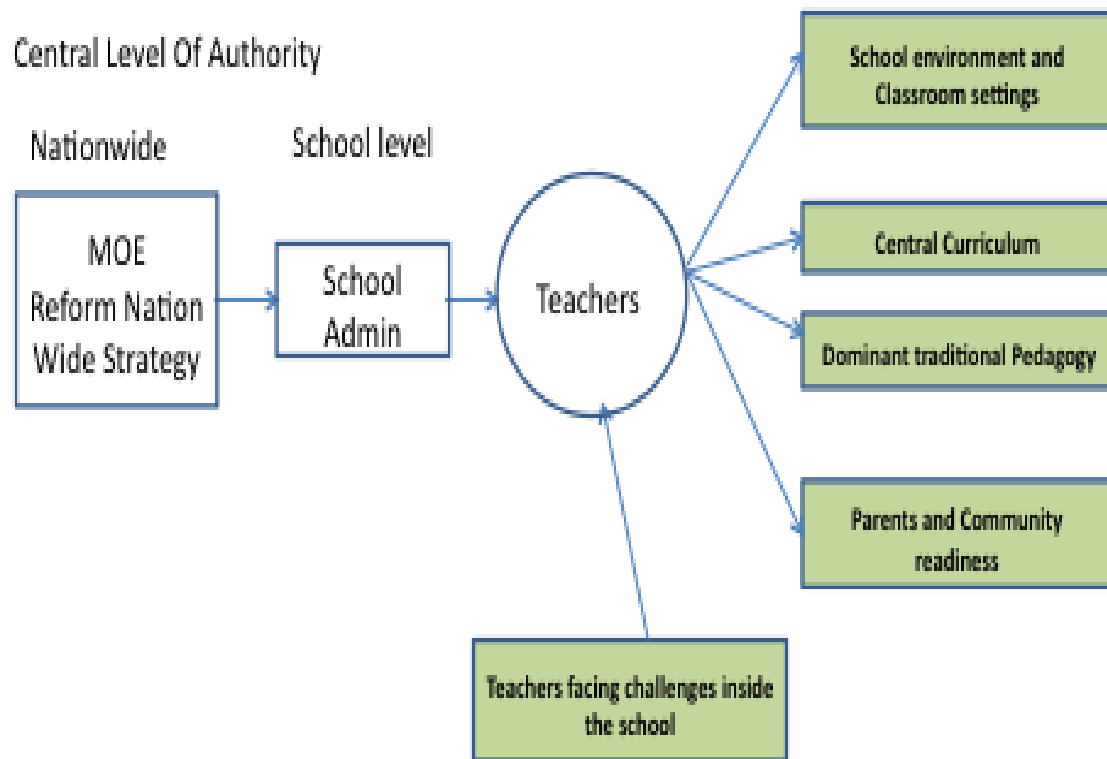


Figure 5: Egyptian linear schooling culture of centralization

Ministry of Education and professional developments

The Ministry of Education is at the center or the top of the whole education system in Egypt; it represents the highest level of authority. The MOE introduced a nationwide reform plan and created a centralized mandated reform features for schools and teachers to follow (for example, the quality control standards for schools and the cadre evaluations for teachers). The ministry, in many cases, did not involve school administrations in shaping the plan nor did it put in mind the wide range and variety of schooling facilities in Egypt throughout the governorates of Egypt and among the public, private, and international schools' settings.

The MOE, in its process to apply the new reform, had provided teachers with trainings and professional developments in an attempt to make the transition to change easier on teachers. According to Egyptian EFL teachers, the professional trainings the MOE provided them were inadequate for many reasons: unsustainability, lecturing all information at once, and the lack of modeling and valuable resources. According to Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall, and William (2003), the process of professional development delivery should be step by step to scaffold teachers' understanding and model their practices. A focus modeling teaching methods and pedagogy is vital in order to improve the quality of teaching once teachers return to the classroom (Lingard et al., 2001; Newmann, Bryk & Nagaoka, 2001). Also, the Ministry of Education's PD did not provide teachers with the sufficient resources and teaching tools to enable them to use MI-based activities. Resources in professional development are essential to support teachers in their classrooms to enhance the quality of learning. However, it is important that resources are

available over an **extended period** to provide ongoing teacher support (Darling-Hammond, 1999; Guskey, 1995; Hawley & Valli, 2000; Richardson, 1998).

From my observations and interviews I found that there is a significant gap between what the teachers have learned in their PD and what is happening in reality. Moreover, teachers talked about the inefficiency of PD from several perspectives, such as short and unsustained trainings, lack of modeling, and absence of resources provided. For example, Egyptian EFL teachers could not differentiate between active learning and MI (and the former was referred to as a synonym to the latter), there was no appropriate practice and application of MI strategies and activities, the teachers were incapable of applying these new “active” strategies, and they could not involve the students in the process and help them to be part of the overall goal.

I believe that because of the lack of appropriate and sustained PD training, the change appeared to be enforced. Egyptian EFL teachers were out of their comfort zone because of their lack of training and their constant struggle to make things work without the appropriate support or resources. Teachers, for example, had no idea how to implement group work or use flash cards in their classrooms because they did not have these modeled for them through their learning background nor through educated practice. Because they also did not have the time to research it themselves, according to what they mentioned in their interviews about their workload, there was no time for the individual teacher’s creativity to emerge from activities that match with the essence of the MI strategies. Moreover, the classroom sizes were very small in relation to the number of students; hence, teachers are unable to have student-centered types of instruction. Even

flash cards can become a challenge to prevent working in groups. Therefore, the end results of learning English always were unsatisfying and the use of these activities became “a waste of time” rather than an integral part of learning English as a foreign language. Teachers found it easier to go back to their comfort zone, which is the traditional teaching inventory, to finish their content according to schools’ pacing guides.

Nonetheless, when the Egyptian government provided trainings and staff developments, schools wanted to send their teachers to fully equip them with these changes. None of the main partners of the education cycle—the administration, the parents, the students, or the teachers themselves—adopted this change. Hence, the application became more of an inserted and imposed procedure into the older “traditional and used-to” ways of teaching. In my opinion, this made the change superficial and a “means to an end” just to be an accredited school.

School administration

The superintendents and school administrators were eager to apply the reform into their schools because the National Accreditation and Quality Assurance Agency (NAQAA) audits them. Therefore, they enforce many mandates, rules, and procedures that have an impact on teachers to ensure they implement active learning and MI activities. However, the school administrators are not well-versed on the reform toward active learning and how it should be implemented in classrooms. According to the Egyptian EFL teachers’ perspectives, which was supported by my classroom observations, the school administrators were not fully aware of the new mandated reform requiring the use of MI. They might know the terms, but they do not know how to

implement them or what the teachers would need to implement MI and active learning in the classroom. The administrators appeared to be torn between what the MOE asks from them and what the parents expect from the educational environment. Hence, the school leaders' role in the reform was weak.

For example, in my description of the three schools I visited (see Chapter 4) I illustrated the lack of professionalism on the part of the administrators in relation to the use of MI and their knowledge of PD trainings. In school A and B the administrator seemed undemocratic and did not involve teachers in the change. The culture of most schools in Egypt is hierarchal (Naguib, 2006). Schools in which the governance structure is such that the principal makes most decisions and the staff and parents are not involved are less likely to embrace change.

In addition, teachers need to be acknowledged and appreciated by their leaders, particularly when undertaking such complex reform tasks (Margolis & Nagel, 2006). The EFL teachers hoped for a better leader–teacher relationship (Margolis & Nagel, 2006). The role of the school administrator is crucial in developing a collegial school reform climate (Day, Harris, Hadfield, Tolley & Beresford, 2000; Hargreaves & Fink, 2003; Newmann, King & Youngs, 2001). A model of dispersed leadership that encourages consensual decision-making within learning communities has been identified as a significant factor when building collegiality (Caldwell, 2003).

These deficiencies in schools' administrator and leaderships are likely to contribute to reform failure (Spillane et al., 2002). Thus, leadership training is an essential component for successful educational change (Margolis & Nagel, 2006).

Teachers

Because of this linear pressure from the top (the MOE and the school administration) on the teachers, Egyptian EFL teachers were unmotivated and unhappy for many reasons. First, there was less collaboration among teachers and administrators to facilitate the use of MI and other new teaching methods. Second, teachers' low income in comparison to the socioeconomic life in Egypt leads many teachers to work extra hours in private tutoring. Third, the administrators and parents did not make the teachers feel appreciated.

For all of these reasons, teachers lacked motivation, a sense of collegial experiences, and collaboration among the different educational partners, which likely were obstacles to reform (Guskey, 1995). "If a critical mass of teachers adopts negative dispositions, [then] collective, negative teacher morale emerges" (Margolis & Nagel, 2006, p. 155). Furthermore, as Carless (2005) stated, teachers' enthusiasm is a key component to create change and initiate reforms:

"Existing teachers' relationships can be a drawback because of teachers varying levels of enthusiasm for the reform or covert dissent about the nature and the process of the reform. Yet, a lack of any collegial experience during times of reform also presents problems. Working in isolation compounds teachers concerns and when individual teachers undertake progressive reforms, they can become more isolated from peers and vulnerable to criticism" (Carless, 2005, p. 47).

This linear schooling structure also influenced Egyptian EFL teachers to lose their sense of belonging to the educational system and decision making. Adams and Kirst

(1999) discussed teachers' belongingness or accountability: "[A]gents are motivated to change when their personal goals are aligned with change, when they are confident in their ability to change, and when they feel supported in attempting the change" (1999, p. 484). Thus, teachers need to relate to the change and the new educational practices need to conform with teachers' beliefs and values; otherwise this change will not be sustained and teachers will find themselves going back to their teaching comfort zone, which is the use of traditional teaching methods.

This lack of belonging was because teachers' participation in the reform was mandated to change, and when teachers are not committed to reforms, those reforms remain theoretical and inapplicable (Fullan, 1991; Elmore, 1995; Cohen, 1995). EFL teachers not only have to be individually part of the change, but they also need to work collaboratively among themselves to ensure continuity and community support. Smylie and Hart (1999) discuss the importance of building strong social relations among teachers: "Principals in schools with high collaboration and strong professional cultures work actively to create structures, places, and occasions for social relations among teachers to develop and function" (p. 430).

Moreover, policymakers often act as though they believe that teachers "do as they are told" (Cohen & Hill, p. 11) and make the assumption that the policy will be implemented when information is transmitted to teachers. In fact, teachers need to have the opportunity to learn about different aspects of the reform and appreciate what the policy looks like in practice (Cohen & Hill, 2001). Also, teachers need to be involved in designing these policies by putting forth their opinions during the stage of designing.

Teachers' ownership and understanding of the reform are significant factors in executing a successful change (Carless, 2005; Leithwood, Jantzi & Mascal, 2002). Teacher consultation about initiatives is an essential component of successful reform implementation (Darling-Hammond, 1994).

When the Egyptian EFL teachers talked about their vulnerability when using MI activities, and, in some cases, their longing to use traditional teaching, which seems to be due to their comfort zone, I believe they were referring to Lasky's (2005) definition of vulnerability: "the multidimensional, multi-faceted emotional experience, a fluid state of being that interacts with teachers' identity, beliefs, values and sense of competence. It is about taking risks without losing face" (p. 901). A sense of threat or loss is added to the definition by Kelchtermans (2005), who explains that teachers experience vulnerability when professional identity is questioned. Some sources of vulnerability are linked to external factors such as school and systemic policies and to relationships with peers (Kelchtermans, 2005). In the Egyptian EFL teachers' case their identity was questioned due to the systemic or top-down reform policies that were mandated without any sufficient trainings that would provide them with practical resources and consequently a sense of security.

Moreover, Egyptian EFL teachers are paid very low salaries. According to teachers interviewed they were unappreciated or unrewarded by their administrations or parents, and they feel unsuccessful every day because they are expected to please and apply the different requirements they are asked to conform to with minimal educational administrative support. From what I saw during my classroom visits, most of the EFL

teachers' energies were wasted in controlling their classrooms and their students' behavior.

School environment and classroom setting

Looking at my linear schooling culture model it is evident that the teacher is absorbing all of the pressure from the aforementioned leaderships and is left alone to face several obstacles, which are represented by the classroom settings and school environment.

The school environment needs to be considered because schools are systems in which the environment is just one of many interacting pedagogical, sociocultural, curricular, motivational, and socio-economic factors, with all influencing the learning outcomes. The specific Egyptian school environment is small classroom size, large numbers of students in each classroom, whole-class lecture recitation, traditional student seatwork, lack of school resources such as library and computer labs, and unmotivated teachers. According to Higgins, Hall, Wall, Woolner, and McCaughey (2005), the variables of the school environment that affect learning outcome include the temperature and air quality, noise, lights, paint color, and other school building features, all existed in the three language schools I visited.

Furthermore, the Egyptian EFL teachers were not comfortable in their current schooling environment; this was very clear in school C and the tension I talked about at the beginning of my visit. Freiberg (1999) explains that the quality of an interactive working environment of teachers, administrators, parents, and policymakers is a measure of school characteristics and outcomes. Outcomes refer to the output effects of inputs. In

other words, educational outcomes can be assumed as a function of teacher input together with school input into the educational process in order to achieve certain goals, which usually are the outcomes (Adeyemi, 2010).

Parents, students, and community's readiness

Parents in Egypt were not involved in the reform or the meaning behind using MI and active learning in their children's classroom. Thus, this made the teachers' jobs more difficult in facing parents in the process of applying the reform. In some schools parents were active barriers to change because they feared what they consider to be "experimentation" on their children and wanted to maintain the status quo of traditional teaching and learning English. If they listen to their children, who were involved and can talk to them about their experience of schooling, they may become far more open to considering alternative practices. Coleman (1998) suggests that student-parent discussions about schooling can also be fostered directly through schools that encourage parental involvement, which will pave the way toward positive consequences for everyone's understanding.

Students and the whole community needed to be involved in the change and reform process. Because I did not interview students nor did I observe them for a long time, I will not attempt to postulate any significant opinions. This is certainly a topic to be considered in future research.

Traditional teaching pedagogy

Teacher-centered education. Egyptian EFL teachers repeatedly stressed the importance of having a well-controlled classroom. Throughout classroom observations

teachers appeared to be just standing at the front of the classroom lecturing their students. Even classroom activities seemed to be heavily under the teachers' control. The traditional teacher-centered approach of itemizing various points to be taught in order to learn English or any other subject by explaining rules and procedures is not the methodology used in an active learning-driven classroom. The assumptions are that active learning approaches increase the student's learning of a given subject or, in the case of learning English as a second language, active learning will allow the student to more easily gain language comprehension skills necessary for communication. But in this case of Egyptian EFL teachers I have to say that they will have to teach the way they have been taught (Sarason, 1996). This includes not only their elementary and secondary schooling experiences, but also college/university experiences. The culture of a teacher's classroom reflects to some extent the aspects of the educational cultures to which this teacher has been exposed; the classroom's controlled culture is part of the whole society's culture of centralization in a larger scale.

Memorization and lecture recitation. Teacher-centered classrooms and teachers' tendency to teach using traditional methods leads directly to the old Egyptian ways of teaching based on memorization and recitation. Teachers prefer this way of teaching because of the testing-oriented schooling culture in Egypt. I heard a few students talking to their teachers about, for example, memorizing this or that text and passing tests as being the essential elements of schooling. This made me realize that the school and teachers had failed to communicate the educational reform goals and aspirations for a change in schooling.

Test orientation. Academics from a number of countries have challenged the philosophy of a test-oriented schooling culture (Assessment Reform Group, United Kingdom, 2002; Stiggins, 2002; Warman, 2002). Not everyone agrees that test results should play such a prominent role and be the major driver of reform. Egypt still has a culture of high-stakes assessment, and these assessments are the only determiner of what students are going to study in college and choose as their major. Vocational education in Egypt is regarded as different from and inferior to an academic education (Broadfoot, 1999; Lambert & Lines, 2001).

Private tutoring. The private tutoring culture in Egypt is another problem that causes students' dependency on an outsider feeder of knowledge, which leads to low self-efficacy and low self-motivation. Private tutoring hinders critical thinking because students are not struggling to find information any longer; they are recipients of knowledge. This dependency on tutoring at home also leads to lack of students' self-discipline.

Curriculum

As I have explained earlier, the education system in Egypt is centralized, meaning that the majority of private institutions are under contract with the state; the Ministry draws up in detail the curriculum for each subject and level of education; and recruitment, evaluation and training of the staff is administered by the Ministry of Education through different national and regional levels (Fiszbein, 2001). Thus, all the government (public) schools and the nongovernment (private-language) schools across the nation follow the same curriculum and examinations. For private language schools, the case is even worse.

In language schools, EFL teachers have to teach the government's English language curriculum/content in addition to the high-level English that usually follows the British curriculum (if it is an English-based school, as in this case). This means that the teaching load is twice as much for EFL teachers. Therefore, EFL teachers complained about the lack of appropriate given time to teach this very long curriculum in addition to integrating MI activities, which, according to the teachers, needs time especially when trying to include this large number of students in these active learning activities.

Moreover, EFL teachers talked about the nonexistence of MI-related content in the English curriculum, which delineates the change to use MI from the reality of the English content. This fact requires teachers to put forth the extra effort to be creative and design MI activities to be integrated with the content, but again, because of the lack of time and teachers' resources, this remains unrealistic from the EFL teachers' perspective.

Toward a Paradigm Shift in Egyptian Educational Reform/ Practical Implications

Many MI-based teaching practices relate to what the Egyptian government's strategic plan introduced in their reform teacher trainings as active learning techniques. The notion that the classroom is no longer a teacher-centered classroom but a student-centered classroom to address students' diversities and abilities to learn is a significant change in the way knowledge is transferred to the student. For example, teachers should initiate MI activities such as think-pair-share, scaffolding, and kinesthetic hands-on techniques. The think-pair-share technique is where two students try to solve a problem together or complete the assignment together by sitting across from one another and

asking each other questions. The teachers, during or after that technique, then can apply the collaborative learning technique where students are arranged into groups of three or more and collectively produce the required answers together. Incorporated into these two active learning techniques is scaffolding. “Scaffolding refers to providing contextual supports for meaning through the use of simplified language, teacher modeling, visuals and graphics, cooperative learning and hands-on learning” (Ovando, Collier, & Combs, 2003, p. 345). Pedagogically speaking, the teacher in an active learning classroom should have pre-designed steps prepared for the exercises a student will participate in, which in turn will challenge the student to increase his or her own learning skills that are related to his or her preferred learning intelligences. Taking into account that a learner may not always find the exercise easy to perform necessitates the teacher to vary the active learning techniques to optimize the cognitive development of the student, and that is when the various multiple intelligences activities should be taken into consideration. In other words, not all students have the same learning intelligence (refer to Chapter 1 for the eight intelligences) even though each student must learn the same exercise. Some students are reflective and prefer to work alone; others are active in their learning, asking questions and working in pairs or groups; and others are kinesthetic and prefer hands-on activities. All these are factors the teacher must consider when helping their students learn a lesson.

When the students participate in an active learning exercise for the acquisition of English as a second language it becomes more difficult because the students are left to experience the language without the teacher explaining grammar points, composition, or

conversation. Learning a second language with active learning techniques and MI-based practices and activities requires several steps that need to be incorporated into the learning exercise before the student learns a particular grammar point.

Therefore, I believe that in order to achieve this in the classroom the whole system first needs to be changed. For the reform to take place in the Egyptian educational system and for MI practices to be applicable in school settings in Egypt there must be a complete paradigm shift in the way the educational reform is implemented. The whole educational cycle and partners need to be involved in the change for the previously explained activities to take place in real-life classrooms.

I took my previous discussion of the model of linear schooling structure and tried to design a new “paradigm shift” in an attempt to propose a model that prepares schools, teachers, and parents and provides the needed tools for the change to occur. This is the paradigm model:

Toward a Paradigm Shift in Educational Reform in Egypt Systemic and Integrated Model

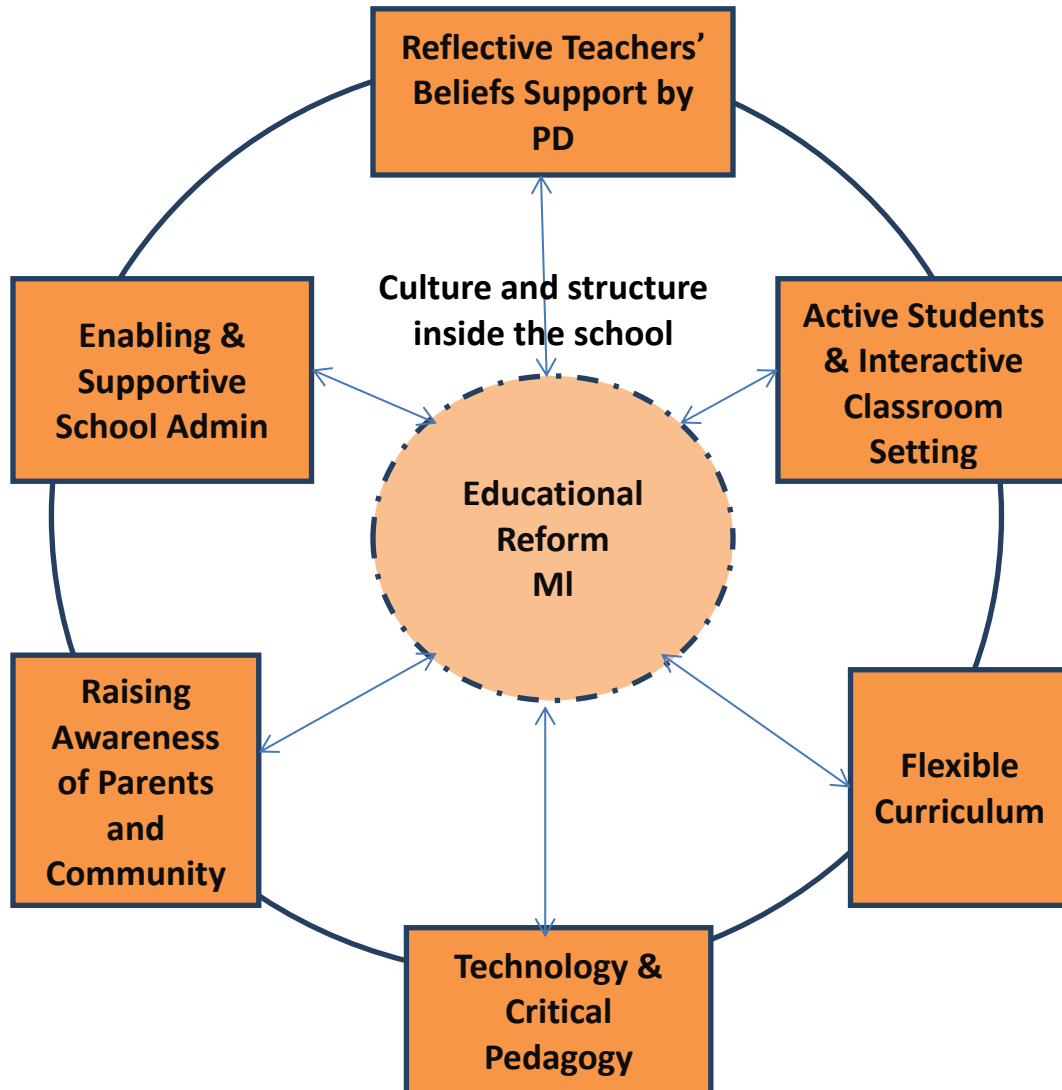


Figure 6: Paradigm shift in educational reform in Egypt

First, *teachers'* beliefs and values are essential in the teaching and learning process; therefore, they must be included in the educational process and the reform

design. These values were viewed as an essential part of a teacher's being (Kelchtermans, 2005). Teachers' beliefs influence practice (Fang, 1996) and are shaped by personal experience (Fang, 1996; Spillane et al., 2002; Vartuli, 2005) and by levels of education (Vartuli, 2005). Their beliefs have a sustaining power when undertaking change (Prosser, 2006) and affect their ability to interpret reform (Carless, 2005; Spillane et al., 2002).

Also, teachers should devote some time in class to discuss the school's expectation with the students and integrate this school-wide agreement in all classes at all times in order to develop the teacher–student relationship. The rules have to be clear, and the students have to buy-in and become enthusiastic about them. Teachers can even get the students to create their own class rules in a wonderful yet educational activity. For example, in a writing class each student can make a list of his or her own rules in English and in complete sentences; then students vote for the best, which is a form of oral conversation and a proper practice of democracy. At the end students can hang their poster with their combined ideas, which emphasizes their commitment to the rules. The use of too many teacher corrections in students' notebooks and workbooks diminishes the sense of students' responsibilities of correcting and learning from his or her own mistakes. Schools will need to develop a system to minimize teachers' corrections of students' work and increase students taking on the responsibilities to teach themselves—with teachers' guidance, of course.

Second, *schools' leadership* must create and maintain a comfortable and harmonious environment so that teachers, students, and even parents generate a sense of belonging. Higgins, Hall, Wall, Woolner, and McCaughey (2005) indicate that the

connection between people in one school and the surrounding environment is complex; therefore the harmony and understanding of these interactive environments will bring a good structure and will eliminate anxiety and low morale.

The interaction of various factors of school and classroom environment can create a fabric of support that enables all members of the school community to teach and learn at optimum levels, which seemed missing in the schools I visited. A positive school climate may provide positive educational and psychological outcomes for students, teachers, and school personnel (Freiberg, 1998; Johnson & Johnson, 1993, 1997; Kuperminc et al., 1997; Kuperminc, Leadbeater & Blatt, 2001; Manning & Saddlemyre, 1996). One of the clearest definitions of school culture is Phillips's (1993, n.d.) description of school culture as the "beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors that characterize a school in terms of: how people treat and feel about each other, the extent to which people feel included and appreciated, and rituals and traditions reflecting collaboration and collegiality." Most schools do not focus on these characteristics or give teachers the chance to address issues to improve the work environment.

Many teachers feel that their voices are never heard and that school-wide communication is lacking. School culture is rarely discussed because of the many demands and challenges that exist on a daily basis. This may lead to teacher anxiety, which is the psychological and physiological state characterized by cognitive, emotional, and behavioral struggles (Seligman, Walker & Rosenhan, 2001). These components combine to create an unpleasant feeling that is typically associated with uneasiness, fear, or worry, which consequently influences the educational environment.

Furthermore, schools' administrations need to develop students' character by developing their sense of responsibility, self-discipline, self-motivation, and task-orientation; creating a school-wide reward system where students are encouraged to earn a "ticket" with their name on it and post it (e.g., on a school's board of honor); and relating each action a student makes back to the student's character to highlight achievements.

Moreover, the school should provide students with reading lists (Arabic literature, English literature, even science books) to increase students' knowledge and Arabic and English abilities and consequently their test scores. These reading lists should be created in cooperation with the available public libraries (and should provide the names of and directions to these libraries). To elaborate, these reading lists could be provided to students monthly, per semester, or for the whole year. School teachers should ask the students to read a certain number of books and provide their teachers (or librarians) with "reading logs" that include the author, the main vocabulary used, and how much they liked the book. At the end, they may have their names placed on the "student character" wall of honors or something similar at the school or their names may be called in front of the whole school for recognition.

School administrators can make sure that teachers can have substitute teachers (as an outsider resource) instead of having to sub for each other. This takes a lot of their planning and lunch time. The benefit of having a planning time for teachers is to allow them to be more creative when developing new lessons and activities at school and to encourage more collaborative work among teachers.

Also, if it is possible, schools should arrange for teachers to have a half-day field observation at other school sites with certain recognized success in any educational area. This will enable teachers to view activities, practical examples, lessons, and teaching methods in action, and this will cover much of the missing modeling issues in the provided PDs and allow them to come back to their classrooms with authentic tools and a better understanding of the new methods of teaching.

Third, *professional development* is an integral part in the reform process. Research has shown that one-time professional development workshops are not enough, especially if they are outside of the school setting, they do not target ongoing practice, and they do not heavily lead to changes in classroom teaching (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1999). Therefore, teaching needs to occur in “particulars”: particular students interacting with particular teachers over particular ideas in particular circumstances and with particular practices (Ball & Cohen, 1999). More sustainable time is needed to provide teachers with the opportunity to collaborate with their colleagues. Also, this allows for ongoing learning because it will become part of the work rather than an “additional” piece of work. Preparing teacher trainings in continuous practice is a necessary component in developing teachers’ expertise (Putnam & Borko, 2000).

Yoon et al. (2007) examined nine studies of professional development efforts to determine how much time is necessary for a better impact. Yoon and colleagues found that when efforts were less than 30 hours, they showed no significant effects on student learning. Efforts that ranged between 30 and 100 hours, with an average of 49 hours, showed positive and significant effects on student achievement. Yoon’s work also found

that PD efforts that directly related to a teacher's practice, that were integrated with other school reform efforts, and that engaged teachers in collaborative communities were the most effective.

According to Penuel and colleagues (2007), because the reform affects everyone in the school, professional development should bring teachers, administrators, staff members, and even parents in a co-development process to create a culture with dispositions for continuous professional learning. This collaborative support is essential for adoption of new teaching practices that ensure their continuum. Also, teachers need to be involved in shaping the PD agenda with practices to align these trainings with what teachers actually need. In addition, as part of this long-term, ongoing process, teachers need to continually and formatively assess both their own learning and that of their students.

In general, research has shown that the professional development approach needs to integrate different facets of instruction and include the time necessary to have a lasting impact and result in changes (Wei et al., 2009).

Fourth, *parents* should be involved. In parent meetings school administrators should discuss how the school is transitioning to implement the new methods of teaching versus traditional ways of teaching and inform the parents about what these different ways of teachings are and how the difference between both has different impacts on their children's learning. To achieve this new system the schools have to have high-caliber teachers; hence, they must provide teachers with the appropriate PD programs, and the administrators need to be involved in them also. They should inform the parents about the

different types of PDs for teachers and what these trainings entail. Then, to complete the process, schools must go back to the first point of enforcing “student character”; students have to show a level of responsibility toward shaping their future and parents need to commit to this character-building system. However, schools will need to create a strict conduct agenda for behavioral redirection (punishment). Administrators can ask the parents to be involved in designing this system and to come up with some rules on which to vote.

Fifth, some schools *use technology*, such as SMART Boards, which are very useful teaching tools. However, for these boards to be effectively used I highly recommend they be connected to the Internet. Plenty of educational websites are interactive, and they can benefit both students and teachers. Also, students can utilize many MI-based activities using these SMART Boards or even regular computers. In brief, regardless of the educational field the pedagogical expertise requires more and more understanding and control of the modern electronic means that provide a new world of audiovisual elements with an immense range of interpretations. The developments in information and communication technology (ICT) create the basis for new learning approaches including such concepts as the Virtual Learning Environments (VLE) that could be important factors for effective learning.

Sixth, *the curriculum* design and policies need to address MI and integrate active learning. The curriculum should promote critical themes and thinking. There should be a wide variety of activities and exercises that are MI-based in the English textbooks. Specifically in the Egyptian case, it is highly recommended that textbooks are colorful,

are scaffolded, and include age-appropriate content. Also, curriculum design should include students with special needs via the structure or by identifying issues that relate to them. A teachers' guided practice should be part of the curriculum design. Furthermore, the government should provide a teachers' textbook along with the students' textbook. This teachers' textbook should include steps of how the teachers can best present the lesson through various suggested activities and to inform teachers on ways to best utilize the information presented in the textbook.

Future Research

The following are a few suggested ideas for future research that will continue to expand and build upon this particular body of work.

One future study is to examine the cultural domination in Egyptian schools and its relationship with the dominant larger society and schooling community. In other words, further studies are needed to explore how the schooling culture in Egypt is influenced by the outside or larger Egyptian social context. This is critical in order to understand the core cultural values in the Egyptian society and to work on acculturating the needed instructional changes in schools to match with the hosting schooling culture. Another topic that is slightly related to the previous broader question is the study of Egyptian students' behavior within the process of educational reform and change in classroom pedagogy in Egypt. Students in Egypt act upon the inherited cultural reproduction; therefore, researchers need to explore students' behavior to include a reforming plan in the process of the educational change.

Vigilantly listening to students' opinions about educational reform could be a key

requirement to understand what impact current reforms have to improve learning. However, consistently there is a gap in discussing this topic in the school reform literature. Even programs that are based extensively on the collection of data to guide improvement tend to treat students as passive providers of information rather than active co-constructors of meaning (e.g., Joyce, Calhoun & Hopkins, 1999). As Fullan (1991, p. 182) puts it, “[W]e hardly know anything about what students think about educational change because no one ever asks them.” I believe that research on exploring students’ perspective on the reform and the use of MI in Egypt would be a new opportunity for a better understanding of the change spectrum.

Furthermore, a call for a change in the way we think about professional development is necessary. This is an open topic that I would like to research more: professional development in Egypt, what is missing, and how PD programs can be tailored to Egyptian schooling culture. Instead of thinking about professional development as a mandated swift mission, it has to be considered as a learning process that requires time to develop (Wei et al., 2009). Creating and integrating all of the pieces that produce a successful PD, including sustainability, may be a challenge, but the outcome of knowledgeable teachers and students will be well worth the effort.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the descriptive data in this study represent the perspectives and impressions of 18 Egyptian EFL teachers from three different private language schools. It is not the intent of this study to apply these data to other non-Egyptian EFL teachers’ populations, nor is it the intent of this study to suggest sweeping the Egyptian MOE’s

transition to reform. My intent is to attempt to add value to the EFL/ESL research field together with the field of educational reform and teacher preparations within the educational reform strategic plan. In this concluding section I narrow down my research findings, synthesize my created “paradigm shift” model, and explain my position as a researcher in this study in order to provide a larger picture of the importance of this research in the educational field.

To summarize my findings, the theory of multiple intelligences and the classroom activities related to the theory including active learning techniques were not fully applicable in the three private schools I visited in Egypt. The reasons I found were the linear educational system in Egypt (see the culture of centralization diagram in this chapter) where the centralized reform took place without acculturating the application of the plan to the hosting schooling environment or without the schools putting the larger culture of the society and school community as mediums for change. To clarify, school culture is influenced by the society’s culture and in order to apply the educational change this linear system together with the teachers’ and the community’s mind habitus needed to change. All of the education’s stakeholders needed to be included in the reform together with putting in mind the hosting culture’s dispositions and values. For example, there were many features, during my field study, of culture of silence (memorization and no creation) culture of centralization (control and teacher-centered), and gender sensitivity and separation that hindered the application of any features of MI practices.

Therefore, in order to apply multiple intelligences and active learning teaching techniques there must be some conditions to promote for this change in a cultural context

like Egypt. Toward proposing my views of some solutions I created the model of “paradigm shift of Egyptian educational reform,” and this is after analyzing the data of the Egyptian EFL teachers’ perspectives. This model is an integrated and systematic reform plan. Because we cannot create reform of using MI and active learning in a vacuum, I proposed this model in an attempt to call for changing the schooling culture in Egypt.

From this research and through my visits of the three schools I found that all members of the school system arena needed to commit to common goals such as improving practices, focusing upon learning, and being prepared to share leadership roles (Hord, 2009; Morrissey, 2000) (see further literature on school culture in Chapter 2). What was lacking to make multiple intelligences and active learning more effective was a deeper understanding of what was involved when teaching and training Egyptian EFL teachers who in turn had to teach their own students.

For example, I found two types of EFL teachers’ perspectives on this issue of change and the use of MI practices; the first group is the veteran teachers who are a bit resistant to try anything that threatens their comfort zone. These teachers were not verbally resistant to change or to the use of MI, but they were resistant in their attitude and level of motivation when implementing the change; veteran EFL teachers maintained their tight grip on their comfort zone of traditional teaching. Some younger teachers talked to me about how they helped these teachers create technology-related materials; this also shows another method of veteran EFL teachers’ resistance with their unwillingness to try raising their professional qualifications. The second group is what I

call the disadvantaged—the younger, enthusiastic EFL teachers. I found many younger EFL teachers who show much interest in applying MI in their classrooms. It also may be important to note that going to interview the Egyptian EFL teachers through the schools' administrations may have had some impact at the beginning on participants' candor, but clear steps were taken to reduce any impact by reassuring the participants of anonymity and by providing them with my dissertation committee's contacts in case they need to report any breach in the consent form agreement from my side. Full disclosure meant that my participants understood my professional role and how I intended to use the data.

In my journey of interviewing, observing, analyzing, and creating the paradigm shift model as my research implication, I found myself between two equal forces an outsider and an insider researcher. Whether the researcher is an insider, sharing the characteristic, role, or experience under study with the participants, or an outsider to the commonality shared by participants, “the personhood of the researcher, including her or his membership status in relation to those participating in the research, is an essential and ever-present aspect of the investigation” (Dwyer & Buckle, 2009, p. 55). The insider researcher may make assumptions as to what a participant said rather than seeking clarifications, as an outsider would. Accordingly, a dichotomy accompanied me throughout conducting the study as to whether I am an insider or an outsider. Therefore, in this research I maintained a dialectical approach with my participants and throughout my research data analysis to allow for a certain level of complexity between participant–researcher similarities (insider) and participant–researcher differences (outsider) (Fay, 1996). “In a dialectical approach, differences are not conceived as absolute, and

consequently the relation between them is not one of utter antagonism” (Fay, 1996, p. 224). According to O’Connor (2004), the advantages of being an insider are as follows: “[T]he ease in establishing rapport with the study group and the reliability in data interpretation due to the shared background knowledge. However, this familiarity of the insiderness necessitates particular caution because it can diminish the researcher’s interpretative ability” (p. 169).

It might be said that I brought a variety of features of me to my research and to the field. According to Reinharz (1997), researchers should “bring their self to the field and create the self in the field” (p. 3). I brought my “self” to the field as an “outsider” researcher who comes to Egypt to explore the new educational transition and how MI’s implementation in the classrooms, as part of the active and creative learning change, is perceived by Egyptian EFL elementary teachers. Yet, while molding and interacting with the Egyptian language schools field, I realized that I am also bringing my “insider-self”—an Egyptian who studied in Egypt from middle-high school and then college and is familiar with the school settings and the schooling culture.

Asselin (2003) has suggested that “it is best for the insider researcher to gather data with her or his eyes open” (p. 99). Asselin states that although the researcher might be part of the culture studied, this researcher might not understand the subculture, which means that the researcher should control his or her assumptions. This is what happened with me; the insider researcher in me came with my old assumption as the Egyptian student who had some difficulties with teachers’ lack of knowledge and lack of incentive to change toward using new and interactive methods of teaching. My assumptions were

focused on teachers and on the fact that their background knowledge and education might be the core factors hindering the change toward using MI and that they might be resistant to the MOE's reform. However, when I entered the field I found myself immersing as an outsider researcher, through interviews and observations and trying to learn more about the problem and explore the perceptions of my participants with my eyes open to the different layers and subcultures of my participants and the schools' settings. I realized that there were other obstacles in integrating MI in classrooms—it was not merely the teachers, as I assumed. Entangled multilayered problems also hindered the teachers from being able to fully buy-in to the use of MI; these obstacles were mentioned previously in minute details in Chapter 4 and earlier in this chapter.

Although my knowledge might have been based on my “positionality” (Mullings, 1999), as a qualitative researcher I had an appreciation for this conflicting complexity of my multilayered experience. This multilayered positionality means that holding membership in a group does not refer to complete uniformity within that group; likewise, not being a member of a group does not refer to complete difference (Mullings, 1999). Moreover, in some cases, while analyzing the data, I found myself always writing “they” and “them” in reference to “the administrators,” “the parents,” and “the students,” but this was to highlight my position at that point as an outsider in comparison to the participants' personal perspective and to avoid giving the impression that I was speaking for my participant teachers. Having said this, my membership in the group as an Egyptian and educator provided a level of safety and comfort for the participants I have interviewed, which enabled them to open up and speak freely in many cases.

Clarifying my research position encourages me to state that the information and insight gathered in this study are best used to learn more about the EFL teachers' perspectives in the use and implementation of MI in Egyptian schools. The study data will be used to guide trainings and PDs, suggest classroom support that would perhaps be beneficial to classroom teachers, and offer some insight into why classroom teachers act and react in certain ways. The small number of participants may affect external generalizability; hence, the views of my participant set are not necessarily representative of a different or larger group. Although I purposefully selected my participants and have every reason to believe that data are valid, there is no guarantee that the data could be extended to a greater whole outside of EFL Egyptian teachers in private language schools.

I made every effort to analyze data objectively and mitigate insider or outsider researcher bias; however, it is important to remember that I am working through my personal lens at each step of the investigation. I selected the participants and the line of questioning, determined how data was to be coded, and synthesized meaning from the data.

This work provides new insights into the perceptions of Egyptian EFL teachers and in the conditions needed to apply an MI and active learning based reform. These insights will support English language teachers and learners as they navigate language and culture in their Egyptian classrooms and throughout the transitional educational reform.

APPENDIX A

Pilot Studies' Data Analysis Themes. The following are the previously conducted pilot studies' themes that had influences on shaping my research assumptions, theoretical framework, and methodology design.

Pilot One: ESOL Teachers at on of PWC schools in Virginia

Findings and results. Four important themes related to the research questions emerged from the data analysis:

- Theme #1: Teachers' diversity versus their perspective on MI and culture.
- Theme #2: A call for a change in the current American educational system.
- Theme #3: MI applications, an intentional practice?
- Theme #4: MI versus brain-based instruction.

The following are the themes in detail:

Theme #1: Teachers' diversity versus teachers' perspective on MI and culture. This theme addresses the relationship between teachers' diversity and their perspective on students' cultural influence on their multiple intelligences (MI) and learning preferences. We found this to be an underlying theme, especially when we noticed teachers' reactions when asked about whether there is a connection between students' cultures and their own multiple intelligences. The teachers who came from diverse backgrounds or had been exposed to diversity in general believed that culture is a

great factor in influencing students' intelligences and that some cultural norms may actually control students' learning preferences, whereas teachers who were not culturally diverse and/or had never been exposed to other cultures believed that culture has only a minimal role in students' intelligences or learning preferences. They believed that students' learning is only related to their abilities or to their household's appreciation of education, or lack thereof.

Theme #2: A call for a change in the current American educational system.

Most of the participants blamed the educational system for not being able to implement MI and other learning differentiation theories in their daily instruction resulting from several factors. The teachers referred to the school and class schedules in relation to the amount of content material to be covered. Also, they blamed the state's mandatory testing and Standards of Learning (SOLs), which Christensen et al. (2008) referred to as a system of flawed measures of students' performances. These standardized assessments are seen as obstacles in the way of creative learning or any critical thinking learning based on students' preferences or abilities to search for knowledge (Christensen et al., 2008). These researchers called for a drastic change in the implacably traditional curriculum designs and school structure that are applicable to students' real lives.

Theme #3: MI applications, is it an intentional practice? Most teachers said that they knew about the MI theory. However, they felt that they had been implementing some of the theory's strategies and applications already, which were "intuitive practices" in their classrooms. Certainly, there is nothing wrong with teachers who tie their planning and teaching to their previous teaching experiences or intuitive feelings of what is

thought to be best practices. However, the problem is when intentional teaching is replaced by intuitive teaching. This may allow for a great leeway for subjectivity, biases, or stereotyping in some of the teaching methods or strategies (Morrow, 2004).

Theme #4: MI versus brain-based instruction. It was interesting that a couple of participants drew a distinction between MI and brain-based instruction. One participant in particular was very articulate and specific in describing this variance. She related the MI theory to school practices and brain-based or brain-compatibility learning to home values. In other words, she talked about how multiple intelligences are not necessarily inherited from a student's culture. According to this individual, it's quite the contrary and may be connected to what a student is exposed to or expected to know. Further, this group felt that brain-based learning is mainly based on a child's nurture and cultural acquisition system, surrounding environment, and genes.

Pilot Two: AFL Teachers at the Islamic School Findings and results. This pilot's thematic analysis is not fully completed yet. However, I was able to finish coding and find the most reoccurring themes among all AFL teachers participated in this study. The most discussed and repeated themes are as follows:

1. School and administration culture versus new educational teachings and thinking; the clash between the sustained traditional thinking and change.
2. Teachers' inability to advocate for creative thinking because they were not trained to do so, they do not have the experience, or they were not educated in this manner before.
3. Teachers' cultural and teaching comfort zone. As a result of teachers' inexperience with creative thinking practices, they find it more comfortable to seek the traditional

teaching they are most familiar with. This gives them the security and sense of control in front of class rather than being hesitant in what they are teaching.

4. Child-rearing culture (parental and hierarchal culture of the Middle East). The clash between the idea of allowing for students' freedom in learning and exploring and between the Middle Eastern teachers' concept of continuous guidance and control of their students and the classroom.

5. Students' level of acculturation to the Western style of learning. The more the students are acculturated to the Western culture and educational pedagogies, the easier it is for teachers to implement the theory.

6. Curriculum integration of MI theory. The school curriculum is not ready yet because it does not integrate MI in the textbook. Moreover, the continuous changes of textbooks make it very difficult for teachers to plan using MI activities.

7. Congruency of MI practices with reality. The practices of the theory are not applicable in some cases where the classroom size and structure are not designed to fit MI activities easily. I will add more details to each theme once I am done with my final steps of data constant comparative analysis.

APPENDIX B

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

This research is being conducted to examine the perspective of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers on the use of Gardner's (1999) multiple intelligences (MI) in the Egyptian schools and cultural context. Interviews and observations of EFL teachers will take place in three different Language Schools in an attempt to explore whether culture has an influence on the teaching and learning process. You will be answering an initial screening survey questions (30–40 minutes) to identify the EFL teachers that best fit the research criteria. If you are chosen to continue you will be interviewed for 1 hour (optional audio-recording), observed for 40–45 minutes, and then re-interviewed for a reflective discussion for 40 minutes (not recorded). In the interviews you will be asked several question to learn more about your opinion regarding the use of MI practices in your classroom, the activities you use, and whether you had to make changes to the original theory's practices due to cultural challenges or not. In the observations, I will be looking for features of the inclusion of MI in your classroom settings and activities.

BENEFITS

There are no direct benefits to participants for taking part in the research.

RISKS

There will be no risks or discomforts to participants.

CONFIDENTIALITY

The data in this study will be confidential. Data will be collected through semi-structured interviews, observations, and reflective interviews with each of the selected teachers.

Teachers' identities will remain confidential throughout the analysis (giving participants coded names) and audio-recordings. The recording will be achieved by using a SmartPen where all recorded data are downloaded to my personal laptop; this way the material can be secured and maintain its confidentiality. The final disposition of these recordings will be completely deleted from my computer after defending my dissertation.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw from the study at any time and for any reason. There will be no penalties or loss of benefits if you decide to withdraw. There are no costs to you or any other party.

CONTACT

This research is being conducted by Nora El-Bilawi and under the supervision of Dr. Marjorie Haley (advisor) at George Mason University. I can be reached at 0111/744-5533 and my mailing address is 32 Abdel-Rahman El-Rafei, ElHegaz Square, Heliopolis, Egypt for questions or to report a research-related problem. If you have questions or comments regarding your rights as a participant in the research, you may contact the George Mason University Office of Research Subject Protections at 703-993-4121 or via the mailing address for the Office of Research Subject Protections (ORSP) at 4400

University Drive, MS 6D5, Fairfax, VA USA 22030. This research has been reviewed according to George Mason University procedures governing your participation in this research.

Agree to be audio-taped

Yes **No**

Please provide your email and contacts to maintain communication about further details about the interviews and observations.

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

1. How would you describe your childhood, high school, and college educational experience?
2. What do you know about the theory of multiple intelligences? What did you learn from the staff development or cadre training that you have participated in?
3. Do you use MI in your classroom as a tool to advocate creative thinking? If yes, how? If no, why?
4. What do you think are the implications of such theories to your classrooms?
5. Do you find your students more involved in the learning process when you implement multiple intelligences? If yes, give examples. If no (or it depends), why?
6. How do you identify your students' intelligences? Do you follow a certain pattern of identification or do you usually use learning centers as your way of integrating MI?
7. What types of intelligences do you find yourself using more than the others? And what intelligences do you prefer not to use excessively in your classroom? Why? Give examples.
8. Does the school administration interfere in what intelligences you should use or how you use them? If yes, how and why?

9. Does your culture or the traditions you belong to have a role in your MI choices and in the way you implement the theory?
10. If you evaluated the staff development or the cadre training where you learned MI, what would you say?
11. If you were asked to make a change or a tweak to the MI theory and practices that you have learned from your teacher training, would there be any?

APPENDIX D

QUESTIONNAIRE

I. General Information:

1. What is your name?

2. How old are you?

3. How long have you been teaching in your position as an EFL teacher?

4. What is your nationality?

5. Where did you receive your previous schooling (K-12 and college)?

7. Did you learn about the multiple intelligences theory (MI)? If yes, move to the next question.

III. Multiple Intelligences Information:

8. What did you learn about the MI theory and practices? Can you talk about the eight intelligences?

9. Do you use MI in your classroom to teach English? How?

10. What types of activities do you use when you implement MI? Give examples.

APPENDIX E

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION RUBRIC

(Open-Ended Questions)

1. Classroom setting. (Comment)
2. Teacher-centered vs. student-centered instruction. (Comment)
3. How does planning around the eight intelligences enrich life in this classroom?
4. Traditional vs. MI-based instructional methods. (Comment)

5. How does this teacher's classroom organization and teaching strategies meet different student needs? (Differentiation of instruction/types of intelligences used)

6. Are there any additional activities for each of these intelligences?

7. Are there any specific (Egyptian) culturally related practices that accompany teachers' implementation of MI in the classroom?

APPENDIX F

FIELD RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Students' Character:
 - a. The goal is to develop students' sense of responsibility, self-discipline, self-motivation, and task-orientation.
 - b. This should be the school-wide reward system where students are encouraged to take a "ticket" with their name on it and post it somewhere in the school.
 - c. Each action a student makes should be related back to these key words either by his/her achievement of these "St. Fatima Characters" or by the lack of thereof.
2. Parental involvement:
 - a. In the parents' meeting you should discuss
 - i. How the school is trying to implement the new methods of teaching vs. traditional ways of teaching. (What are these? What is the difference? And why is this important?)
 - ii. In order to achieve this new system we have to have high-caliber teachers. (Tell the parents what you did for the teachers to raise

them up to this level and how and what the teachers are equipped with.)

- iii. Then, to complete the process you will need the students to be up to this level of making the future by creating their “St. Fatima Character.” (Tell them about it.)
- iv. You’ll need their support by creating a redirection (punishment) system. Ask the parents to come up with these and then vote for the most wanted or accepted by all, and have them sign an agreement.

3. Teacher–student relationship:

- a. Teachers should take a one-class session from their time, after all of the above is agreed upon, and discuss it with his or her class. The rules have to be clear and the students have to buy-in and be enthusiastic about it. Teachers can even get the students to create their own class rules in a wonderful yet educational activity. (For example, each student could put his own rules in bullets; this means that students are writing English in complete sentences. Then students vote for their favorite; this means that students are practicing democracy. At the end they will post the poster they combined together; this shows their commitment to the rules!)
- b. The use of too many teacher corrections in their notebooks and workbooks diminishes the sense of students’ responsibilities of correcting and learning from his or her own mistakes. You will need to develop a system

to minimize teachers' corrections of students' work and increase students taking own responsibilities to teach themselves, with teachers' guidance, of course.

4. Reading system:

- a. The school should provide students with reading lists (Arabic literature, English literature, even scientific books); this will increase students' knowledge and Arabic and English abilities and, hence, their test scores.
- b. These reading lists should be created in cooperation with the available public libraries. Provide the names and the directions of these libraries.
 - i. These reading lists could be provided to students by month, per semester, or for a year.
 - ii. The students are asked to read a certain number of books and provide their teachers (or the librarians) with "reading logs" (the author, the main vocabulary used, how they liked the book).
 - iii. At the end, they may either have their names on the "wall of fame" at the school or their names may be called in front of the whole school as a sort of recognition.

*Your schools were one of the very rare schools that used the technology of Smart boards, which was great! However, I highly recommend, in order for these boards to be effectively used, to connect them to the Internet. There are plenty of websites that are interactive, and students and teachers can use them for their best benefits. If you are

interested in applying this recommendation, please contact me and I can provide you with a list of great educational websites.

*Teachers can benefit from having substitute teachers (as an outsider facility) instead of having to sub themselves for each other. This takes a lot of their planning and lunch time. The benefit of having a planning time for teachers is to get them more creative in developing new lessons and activities at school.

*One last suggestion and I am not sure if it is possible for the school to arrange for teachers to have a half-day field observation to go visit other schools (these schools must be international or with a certain recognized success in some areas). This will enable your teachers to see practical examples of the activities and lessons used in other schools and come back with authentic tools and a better understanding of the new methods of teaching.

REFERENCES

REFERENCES

- Abu Baker, K. (1999). Acculturation and reacculturation influence: Multiplayer contexts in therapy. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 19(8), 951–967. doi: 10.1016/S0272-7358(99)00005-7
- Adams, J. E., & Kirst, M. (1999). New demands and concepts for educational accountability: Striving for results in an era of excellence. In J. Murphy & K. Louis (Eds.), *Handbook of research on educational administration*. 2nd ed. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Adeyemi, S. (2010). *Effects of active review and panel discussion on students' learning outcomes in Senior Secondary School Economics in Ibadan*. A Research Proposal at Institute of Education. Nigeria: University of Ibadan.
- Ainscow, M. (1999). *Understanding the development of inclusive schools*. London: Routledge Falmer.
- Alghazo, K., Obeidat, H. H., Al-trawneh, M., & Alshraideh, M. (2009). Types of multiple intelligences in social studies, Arabic and English language textbooks for the first three grades. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 12(1), 14. Retrieved February, 2011 from http://www.eurojournals.com/ejss_12_1_14.pdf
- Altheide, D. L., & Johnson, J. M. (1994). Criteria for assessing interpretive validity in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 485–499). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Anfara, V.A, Jr., & Mertz, N.T. (Eds.). (2006). *Theoretical frameworks in qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Armstrong, T. (2009). *Multiple intelligences in the classroom* (3rd ed.). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Armstrong, T. (2000). *Multiple intelligences in the classroom*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Asselin, M. (2003). Insider research: Issues to consider when doing qualitative research

in your own setting. *Journal for Nurses in Staff Development*, 19(2), 99–103.
doi:10.1097/00124645-200303000-00008

- Assessment Reform Group (2002) *Assessment for Learning: 10 Principles*. Cambridge, England: University of Cambridge School of Education.
- Ball, D. L., & Cohen, D. K. (1999). Developing practice, developing practitioners: Toward a practice-based theory of professional education. In G. Sykes and L. Darling-Hammond (Eds.), *Teaching as the learning profession: Handbook of policy and practice* (pp. 3–32). San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Baran, B., & Cagiltay, K. (2006). Knowledge management and online communities of practice in teacher education. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 5(3), Article 3. Retrieved January 22, 2011, from <http://www.tojet.net/articles/533.htm>
- Barnard, A., & Spencer, J. (Eds.). (2009). *Encyclopedia of Social and Cultural Anthropology*. New York: Routledge.
- Baruth, L., & Manning, M. (1992). *Multicultural education of children and adolescence*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Berk, L. (2000). Cognitive development: Piagetian and Vygotskian perspective. In L. Berk. *Child development* (pp. 221–269). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bernard, H. R. (1988). *Research methods in cultural anthropology*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Black, P., Harrison, C., Lee, C., Marshall, B., & William, D. (2003). *Assessment for learning: Putting it into practice*. Berkshire, England: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Bourdieu, P. (1984). *Distinction: A social critique of the judgement of taste*. (R. Nice, Trans.). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Bourdieu, P., & Passeron, J. C. (1979). *The inheritors: French students and their relation to culture*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Broadfoot, P. (1999). Assessment and the emergence of modern society. In B. Moon and P. Murphy (Eds.), *Curriculum in context*. London: Sage.
- Broekhuizen, D., & Dougherty, B. (1999). *Teacher diversity: Implications for professional development*. Honolulu: Pacific Resources for Education and Learning.

- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development: Experiments by nature and design*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Bryman, A., & Burgess, R. (1994). *Analyzing qualitative data*. London: Routledge.
- Caldwell, B. (2003). A blueprint for successful leadership in an era of globalization in learning. In P. Hallinger (Ed.), *Reshaping the landscape of school leadership development: A global perspective* (pp. 23–40). Lisse, The Netherlands: Swets & Zeitlinger.
- Campbell, L., & Campbell, B. (1999) *Multiple intelligences and student achievement success stories from six schools*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Carless, D. (2005). Prospects for implementation of assessment for learning. *Assessment in Education*, 12(1), 39–54. doi:10.1080/0969594042000333904
- Chan, D. W., & Chan, L. (1999). Implicit theories of creativity: Teachers' perception of student characteristics in Hong Kong. *Creativity Research Journal*, 12, 185–195. doi: 10.1177/001698620404800305
- Chen, J. Q., Moran, S., & Gardner, H. (Eds.). (2009). *Multiple intelligences theory around the world*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Coffey, A., & Atkinson, P. (1996). *Making sense of qualitative data analysis: Complementary strategies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Cohen, D. K. (1995). What is the system in systemic reform? *Educational Researcher*, 24(9), 11–17, 31. doi:10.3102/0013189X024009011
- Cohen, D., & Hill, H. (2001). *Learning policy: When state education reform works*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Coleman, P. (1998). *Parent, student and teacher collaboration*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Congar, Y. (2004). *The meaning of tradition*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2007). *Basics of qualitative research* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Courchene, R. (1996). Teaching Canadian culture: Teacher preparation. *TESL Canada Journal*, 13, 1–16.
- Crabtree B. F., & Miller, W. L.(1999). *Doing qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Crawford, K. (1996). Vygotskian approaches to human development in the information era. *Educational Studies in Mathematics*, (31), 43–62. doi:10.1007/BF00143926
- Creswell, J.W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2010). *Powerful teacher education: Lessons from exemplary programs*. New York: Wiley.
- Darling-Hammond, L., & McLaughlin, M. (1999). Investing in teaching as a learning profession: Policy problems and prospects. In Darling-Hammond, L., & Sykes, G. (Eds.), *Teaching as the learning profession: Handbook of policy and practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (1994). Teacher leadership for creating innovative schools. In Meyers and McIsaac (eds.) *How teachers are changing schools*. New York: IMPACT II.
- Day, C., Harris, A., Hadfield, M., Tolley, H., & Beresford, J. (2000). *Leading schools in times of change*. Buckingham, England: Open University Press.
- Denzin, N.K. (1970). *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods*. Chicago: Aldine.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2000). *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Dewey, J. (1956). *The child and the curriculum and the school and society*. Chicago: Phoenix.
- Dewey, J. (1897). My pedagogic creed. *School Journal*, 54, 77–80. Retrieved May, 2010 from <http://dewey.pragmatism.org/creed.htm>
- Dey, I. (1993). *Qualitative data analysis: A user-friendly guide for social scientists*. London: Routledge.
- Dodge, B. (1996). *Active learning on the web (K–12 version)*. Retrieved February 2,

2012, from <http://edweb.sdsu.edu/people/bdodge/active/ActiveLearningk-12.html>

- Donahoe, T. (1997). Finding the way: Structure, time, and culture in school improvement. In M. Fullan (Ed.), *The challenge of school change*. Arlington Heights, IL: Skylight Training and Publishing.
- Duchesne, R. (2011). *The uniqueness of Western civilization: Studies in critical social sciences* (Vol. 28). Leiden and Boston: Brill.
- Dwyer, S. C., & Buckle J. L. (2009). The space between: On being an insider-outsider in qualitative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 8(1), 54–63.
- Egypt—Follow-Up to the President’s Speech: Part I—Way Forward in Reaching Education Goals. (2001, February 15). *The Telegraph*. Retrieved December 2010, from <http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/wikileaks-files/egypt-wikileaks-cables/8326970/EGYPT-FOLLOW-UP-TO-THE-PRESIDENTS-SPEECH-PART-I-WAY-FORWARD-IN-REACHING-EDUCATION-GOALS.html>
- Elbow, P. (1981). *Writing with power*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Elmore, R. (1995). Getting to scale with good education practices. *Harvard Educational Review*, 66(1), 1–26. doi:10.3102/0013189X024009023
- Fang, Z. (1996). A review of research on teacher beliefs and practices. *Educational Research*, 38(1), 47–65. doi:10.1080/0013188960380104
- Fay, B. (1996). *Contemporary philosophy of social science: A multicultural approach*. Cambridge, UK: Blackwell.
- Fern, V., Anstrom, K., & Silcox, B. (1993). Active learning and the limited English proficient student. *Directions in Language & Education*, 1(2). Washington DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.
- Finnan, C. (April 2000). *Implementing school reform models: Why is it so hard for some schools and easy for others?* Paper presented at the meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans.
- Fiszbein, A. (2001). *Decentralizing education in transition societies: Case studies from Central and Eastern Europe*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Fontana, A., & Frey, J. (2000). The interview: From structured questions to negotiated text. In *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 645–672). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Freiberg, H. J. (1999). *School climate: Measuring, improving and sustaining healthy learning environments*. Philadelphia: Falmer Press.
- Freiberg, H. J. (1998). Measuring school climate: Let me count the ways. *Educational Leadership*, 56(1), 22–26. Retrieved January, 2011 from <http://www.ascd.org/publications/educational-leadership/sept98/vol56/num01/Measuring-School-Climate@-Let-Me-Count-the-Ways.aspx>
- Frow, J., & Morris, M. (2000). Cultural studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed., pp. 315–346). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Fullan, M.G. (1997). The complexity of the change process. In M. Fullan (Ed.), *The challenge of school change*. Arlington Heights, IL: Skylight Training and Publishing.
- Fullan, M.G. (1993). *Changes forces*. London: Falmer Press.
- Fullan, M.G. (1991). *The new meaning of educational change*. London: Cassell Educational Limited.
- Gardner, H. (2004). *Changing minds: The art and science of changing our own and other people's minds*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Gardner, H. (1991). *Intelligence in seven phases*. Paper presented at the Centennial of Education at Harvard. Precis published in the *Harvard Graduate School Alumni Bulletin*, 36,(1), 18–19.
- Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of mind*. New York: Basic Books Inc.
- Gardner, H., & Hatch, T. (1989). Multiple intelligences go to school: Educational implications of the theory of multiple intelligences. *Educational Researcher*, 18(8), 4–9. Retrieved December, 2010 from <http://www.uvm.edu/~thudspet/Readings%20for%20ENVS%20294%20Part%202.pdf>
- Giddens, A. (1994). Living in a post-traditional society. In U. Beck, A. Giddens, & S. Lash (Eds.), *Reflexive modernization: Politics, tradition and aesthetics in the modern social order*. Cambridge, England: Polity Press.
- Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory*. Chicago: Aldine de

Gruyter.

- Glesne, C. (2006). *Becoming qualitative researchers: An introduction* (3rd ed.). New York: Allyn & Bacon/Longman.
- Glesne, C. (1999). *Becoming qualitative researchers: An introduction* (2nd ed.). Don Mills, Ontario, Canada: Longman.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1989). *Fourth generation evaluation*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Guskey, T.R. (1995). Professional development in education: In search of the optimal mix. In Guskey, T., & Huberman, M. (Eds.), *Professional development in education: New paradigms and practices* (pp. 114–131) New York: Teachers College Press.
- Hall, E.T. (1976). *Beyond culture*. New York: Doubleday
- Hammond, J. (1999). Literacy crises and ESL education. *The Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, 22(2), 120–134. doi:10.2307/3587678
- Hargreaves, A. (1997). Cultures of teaching and educational change. In M. Fullan (Ed.), *The challenge of school change*. Arlington Heights, IL: Skylight Training and Publishing.
- Hargreaves, A., & Fink. D. (2003). Sustaining leadership. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 84(9): 693–700.
- Hatch, T., & Gardner, H. (1993). Finding cognition in the classroom: an expanded view of human intelligence. In Salomon, G. (Ed.) *Distributed cognitions. Psychological and educational considerations*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Hawley, W. D., & Valli, L. (2000). Learner-centered professional development. *Phi Delta Kappa Center for Evaluation, Development, and Research*. Retrieved February 2012, from http://www.paadulredresources.org/uploads/8/6/3/4/8634493/learner_centered_pr_o.pdf
- Herrera, L., & Torres, C. A. (Eds.). (2006). *Cultures of Arab schooling: Critical ethnographies from Egypt*. New York: State University of New York Press.
- Hewitt-Taylor, J. (2001). Use of constant comparative analysis in qualitative research.

Nursing Standard (Royal College of Nursing (Great Britain): 1987), 15(42), 39–42. doi: 10.1177/107780040100700103

Higgins, S., Hall, E., Wall, K., Woolner, P., & McCaughey, C. (2005). *The impact of school environments: A literature review*. London: Design Council.

Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*. London: McGraw-Hill.

Honigsfeld, A., & Schiering, M. (2004). Diverse approaches to the diversity of learning styles in teacher education. *Educational Psychology, 24(4)*, 487–507. doi:10.1080/0144341042000228861

Hord, S. M., & Hirsh, S. A. (2009). The principal's role in supporting learning communities. In *Educational Leadership, 66(5)*, pp.

Hyde, G. (1978). *Education in modern Egypt*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1993). Implementing cooperative learning. *Education Digest, 58(8)*, 62–66. doi: 10.3102/0013189X09339057

Joyce, B., Calhoun, E., & Hopkins, D. (1999). *The new structure of school improvement*. Buckingham, England: Open University Press.

Kelchtermans, G. (2005). Teachers' emotions in educational reforms: Self-understanding, vulnerable commitment and micropolitical literacy. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 21*, 995–1006.

Khouzam, N., & Aziz, S. (2005). Developing welcoming primary schools in Egypt: One step forward. *Inclusive and Supportive Education Congress*. Retrieved December 2010 from http://www.isec2005.org.uk/isec/abstracts/papers_k/khouzam_n.shtml

King, K. A., Artiles, A. J., Kozleski, E. B. (2009). *Professional learning for culturally responsive teaching*. Retrieved May 2011, from <http://www.nccrest.org/publications/briefs.html>.

Kuperminc, G., Wilkins, N., Roche, C., & Alvarez, A. (2008). Risk, resilience and positive development among Latino youth. In F. A. Villarruel, G. Carlo, J. M. Grau, M. Azmitia, N. Cabrera, & T. J. Chahin (Eds.). *Handbook of US Latino Psychology: Developmental and Community Based Perspectives*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Kuperminc, G.P., Leadbeater, B.J. and Blatt, S.J. (2001). School social climate and

individual differences in vulnerability to psychopathology among middle school students. *Journal of School Psychology*, 39(2): 141–159. doi: 10.1016/S0022-4405(01)00059-0

- Lambert, D., & Lines, D. (2001). *Understanding assessment, teaching about learning*. New York: Routledge Falmer.
- Lareau, A., & Weininger, E. B. (2003). Cultural capital in educational research: A critical assessment. *Theory and Society*, 32, 567–606. doi:10.1023/B:RYSO.0000004951.04408.b0
- Lareau, A., & Horvat, E. M. (1999). Moments of social inclusion and exclusion: Race, class and cultural capital in family-school relationships. *Sociology of Education*, 72, 37–53. doi: 10.2307/2673185
- Lasky, S. (2005). A sociocultural approach to understanding teacher identity, agency and professional vulnerability in a context of secondary school reform. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21(8), 899–916. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2005.06.003
- Leithwood, K., Jantzi, D., & Mascall, B. (2002). Large-scale reform: What works. *Journal of Educational Change*, 3(1), 7–33. doi: 10.1080/09243450600565829
- Lincoln, Y., & Guba, E. (1985). *Naturalist inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Lindlof, T., & Taylor, B. (2002). *Qualitative communication research methods* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Lingard, B., Ladwig, J., Mills, M., Bahr, M., Chant, D., Warry, M., et al. (2001). *The Queensland School Reform Longitudinal Study*. Brisbane: Education Queensland.
- Loucks-Horsley, S., & Matsumoto, C. (1999). Research on professional development for teachers of mathematics and science: The state of the scene. *School Science and Mathematics*, 99(5), pp.
- Manning, M. L., & Saddlemire, R. (1996). Developing a sense of community in secondary schools. *National Association of Secondary School Principals. NASSP Bulletin*, 80(584), 41–48. doi:10.1787/767526546174
- Margolis, J., & Nagel, L. (2006). Education reform and the role of administrators in mediating teacher stress: A case study of the lived experience of school development. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 33(4), 143–159. doi: 10.1080/15700760802416115
- Martin, M. O., Mullis, I. V. S., and Foy, P. (2008). *TIMSS 2007 International Science*

Report: Findings from IEA's Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study at the Fourth and Eighth Grades. Chestnut Hill, MA: TIMSS & PIRLS International Study Center, Boston College.

Maxwell, J.A. (2005). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Maxwell, J. A. (1996). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Meyer, J. W., Boli J., Thomas G. M., & Ramirez F. O. (1997). World society and the nation- state. *American Journal of Sociology*, 103(1): 144–181. doi : 10.1177/00027640121958069

Miles, M., & Huberman, M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook.* London: Sage.

Miles, M., & Huberman, A. M. (1984). *Qualitative data analysis.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Ministry of Education (MOE). (2007). *National Strategic Education Plan, 2007/08–2011/12* (English Version). Cairo: Author.

Mitrovic, A. (2005). The effect of explaining on learning: A case study with a data normalization tutor. In: C. Looi, G. McCalla, B. Bredeweg, & J. Breuker (Eds.), *Proc. Artificial Intelligence in Education*, IOS Press, 499–506

Morris, E. W. (2007). Researching race: Identifying a social construction through qualitative methods and an interactionist perspective. *Symbolic Interaction*, 30(3), 409–425. doi:10.1525/si.2007.30.3.409

Morrissey, M. S. (2000). Comprehensive school improvement: Addressing the challenges. *Issues about change*, 9(1), pp.

Morrison, K. (2007). *Free school teaching: A journey into radical progressive education.* Albany, NY: SUNY Press.

Morse, J. M., & Mitcham, C. (2002). Exploring qualitatively derived concepts: Inductive-deductive methods. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 1(4). Article 3. Retrieved November 2010, from <http://ejournals.library.ualberta.ca/index.php/IJQM/index>.

Moustakas, C. (1995). *Being in, being for, being with.* Northvale, NJ: Jason Aronson.

- Mullings, B. (1999), Insider or outsider, both or neither: Some dilemmas of interviewing in a cross-cultural setting. *Geoforum*, 30(4), 337–350. doi:10.1016/S0016-7185(99)00025-1
- Naguib, K. (2006). The production and reproduction of culture in Egyptian schools. In L. Herrera, & C. A. Torres (Eds.), *Cultures of Arab schooling: Critical ethnographies from Egypt* (53–81). Albany: SUNY Press.
- Nelson, C., Treichler, P. A., & Grossberg, L. (1992). Cultural studies. In L. Grossberg, C. Nelson, & Treichler P. A. (Eds.), *Cultural studies* (pp. 1–16). New York: Routledge.
- Newmann, F., Bryk, A., & Nagaoka, J. (2001). *Authentic intellectual work and standardized tests: Conflict or coexistence?* Chicago: Consortium on Chicago School Research.
- Newmann, F. M., King, M. B., & Youngs, P. (2001). *Professional development that addresses school capacity: Lessons from urban elementary schools*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA.
- Ng, A. K. (2001.). *Why Asians are less creative than Westerners*. Singapore: Prentice-Hall, Pearson Education Asia.
- Nisbett, R. E. (2003). *The geography of thought: How Asian and westerners think differently and why*. New York: Free Press.
- O'Connor, P. (2004). The conditionality of status: Experience based reflections on the insider/outsider issue. *Australian Geographer*, 35(2), 169–176. doi:10.1080/0004918042000249476
- Ovando, C. J., Collier, V. P., & Combs, M. C. (2003). *Bilingual and ESL classrooms: Teaching in multicultural contexts* (3rd ed.). Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (3rd. ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Penuel, W., Fishman, B., Yamaguchi, R., & Gallagher, L. (2007). What makes professional development effective? Strategies that foster curriculum implementation. *American Educational Research Journal*, 44(4), 921–958. doi: 10.3102/0002831207308221

- Peterson, K., & Deal T. (1998). How leaders influence the culture of schools. *Educational Leadership*, 56(1), 28–30.
- Phillips, G. (1993). *The school-classroom culture audit*. Vancouver, B.C.: Eduserv, British Columbia School Trustees Publishing.
- Piaget, J. (1950). Explanation in sociology. In J. Piaget (1995), *Sociological studies*. New York: Routledge.
- Polkinghorne, D. E. (2005). Language and meaning: Data collection in qualitative research. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 52, 137–145. doi:10.1037/0022-0167.52.2.137
- Pratt, D., & Collins, J. (2000). *The Teaching Perspectives Inventory*. Proceedings of the 41st Adult Education Research Conference, Vancouver, B.C.
- Prosser, B. (2006). *Reinvigorating the middle years: A review of middle schooling*. Paper presented at the Australian Association for Research in Education Conference, Adelaide, 29 November 2006.
- Puccio, G. J., & González, D. W. (2004). Nurturing creative thinking: Western approaches and Eastern issues. In S. Lau, A. N. N. Hui, & G. Y. C. Ng (Eds.), *Creativity: When East meets West* (pp. 393–428). Hong Kong: World Scientific.
- Purpel, D. (1989). *The moral and spiritual crisis in education*. New York: Bergin and Garvey.
- Putnam, R. H., & Borko, H. (2000). What do new views of knowledge and thinking have to say about research on teacher learning? *Educational Researcher*, 29(1), 4–15
- Reinharz, S. (1997). *Who am I? The need for a variety of selves in the field*. Reflexivity and voice. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Richardson, V. (1998). How teachers change. *Focus on Basics*, 2(C), 7–11. doi:10.1002/jhet.5570350610
- Rinaldo, R. (2008). Muslim women, middle class habitus, and modernity in Indonesia. *Contemporary Islam*, 2, 23–39. doi:10.1007/s11562-007-0035-6
- Rogoff, B. (1991). Social interaction as apprenticeship in thinking: Guidance and participation in spatial planning. In L. B. Resnick, J. M. Levine, & S. D. Teasley (Eds.), *Perspectives on socially shared cognition*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

- Rosenthal, R., & Jacobson, L. (1968). *Pygmalion in the classroom*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Sandelowski M. (1993) Rigor or rigor mortis: The problem of rigor in qualitative research revisited. *Journal of Advances in Nursing Science*, 16(2), 1–8.
- Sarason, S. (1996). *Revisiting the culture of the school and the problem of change*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Schwandt, T. A. (2007). *The Sage dictionary of qualitative inquiry*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Schweiker-Marra, K. (1995). *Examining the relationship between school culture and teacher change*. Paper presented at the meeting of the Eastern Educational Research Association, Hilton Head, SC. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 412182).
- Schwitzgebel, E. (2011). Belief. In E. N. Zalta. *The Stanford encyclopedia of philosophy (Winter 2010 edition)*. Retrieved January 2011, from <http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/belief/>
- Seligman, M. E., Walker, E. F., & Rosenhan, D.L. (2001). *Abnormal psychology*, (4th ed.) New York: W.W. Norton & Company, Inc.
- Shearer, B. (2009). *MI at 25: Assessing the impact and future of multiple intelligences for teaching and learning*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Short, P. M., & Greer, J. T. (1997). *Leadership in empowered schools: Themes from innovative efforts*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Smith, L. G., & Smith, J. K. (1994). *Lives in education. A narrative of people and ideas* (2nd ed.). New York: St. Martin's Press.
- Smylie, M., & Hart, A. (1999). School leadership for teacher learning and change: A human and social capital development perspective. In J. Murphy & K. S. Louis (Eds.), *Handbook of research on educational administration. A project of the American Educational Research Association* (2nd ed., pp. 421–441). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Soh, K. C. (2000). Indexing creativity fostering teacher behavior: A preliminary validation study. *Journal of Creative Behavior*, 34(2), 118–134.
doi:10.1002/j.2162-6057.2000.tb01205.x

- Spillane, J. P., Diamond, J. B., Burch, P., Hallett, T., Jita, L., & Zoltners, J. (2002). Managing in the middle: School leaders and the enactment of accountability policy. *Educational Policy, 16*, 731–762.
- Stake, R. (1995). *The art of case research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Stiggins, R. J. (2002). Assessment crisis: The absence of assessment for learning. *Phi Delta Kappan, 83*(10), 758–765. Retrieved December, 2012 from <http://electronicportfolios.org/afl/Stiggins-AssessmentCrisis.pdf>
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. London: Sage.
- Tan, A. G. (2001). Singaporean teachers' perception of activities useful for fostering creativity. *Journal of Creative Behavior, 35*(2), 131–148. doi:10.1002/j.2162-6057.2001.tb01226.x
- Traub, J. (1998). Multiple intelligence disorder: Howard Gardner's revolutionary theories of multiple intelligences. [Electronic version]. *The New Republic, 20*.
- Vartuli, S. (2005). Beliefs: The heart of teaching. *Young Children, 60*(5), 76–86.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Wald, P., & Castleberry, M. (2000). *Educators as learners: Creating a professional learning community in your school*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Warman, J. (2002). *Authentic assessment: A systematic review of the research*. Master's thesis, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto.
- Wei, R. C., Darling-Hammond, L., Andree, A., Richardson, N., Orphanos, S. (2009). *Professional learning in the learning profession: A status report on teacher development in the United States and abroad* (pp. 915–945). Dallas, TX: National Staff Development Council.
- Wertsch, J. (1997). *Vygotsky and the formation of the mind*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Willingham, D. (2004). Reframing the mind: Howard Gardner became a hero among educators simply by redefining talents as “intelligences.” *Education Next, 4*(3), 18-24.

Wu, S., & Alrabah, S. (2009). A cross-cultural study of Taiwanese and Kuwaiti EFL students' learning styles and multiple intelligences. *Innovations in Education & Teaching International*, 46(4), 393–403. doi:10.1080/14703290903301826

Yoon, K. S., Duncan, T., Lee, S. W., Scarloss, B., & Shapley, K. L. (2007). *Reviewing the evidence on how teacher professional development affects student achievement*. (Issues & Answers Report, REL 2007- No. 033). Washington, DC: US Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Regional Educational Laboratory Southwest.

CURRICULUM VITAE

Nora H. El-Bilawi graduated from Heliopolis high school, Cairo, Egypt in 1996. She received her Bachelor of Arts, English literature from Ain-Shams University in 2001. She was employed as an ESOL teacher in Prince William County for six years and received her Master of Education in multilingual/multicultural education with a minor on international education from George Mason University in 2005. She was enrolled at George Mason/College of Education's PhD program in 2008 and earned her degree on 2013 worked during her enrolment in the PhD program as a graduate lecturer from 2008-2013.