A Comparison of Expert and Novice Iranian EFL Teachers' Procedural Knowledge in Iranian Language Institutes and Universities

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Abstract

This study sought to compare Iranian EFL novice and expert teachers regarding their procedural knowledge in Iranian language institutes and universities. A questionnaire was developed based on the literature, the theoretical framework, and the results of a qualitative study. This questionnaire was administered to the whole sample of the study who was 200 Iranian EFL teachers from different genders and educational contexts. The participants were selected conveniently as going through random sampling was not possible. Based on the results of the exploratory factor analysis, seven factors emerged under the main category of procedural knowledge for these teachers. The findings revealed that: (a) Iranian EFL expert teachers have higher levels of procedural knowledge than Iranian EFL novice teachers (b) expert teachers have higher levels of classroom management knowledge, topic management knowledge and students involved in learning knowledge than novice teachers (c) expert teachers have the knowledge to make rapport (good emotional relationship) with their students more easily and effectively than novice teachers (d) there is not a significant difference between Iranian EFL expert teachers and Iranian EFL novice teachers due to knowledge of talk management, knowledge of strategies while teaching and knowledge of teachers' learning strategies for learners in the classroom.

1. Introduction

Research on teacher thinking in the framework of cognitive psychology since the 1970s has led to the realization that teaching is a highly complex and cognitively demanding activity. Looking at teaching through the cognitive perspective reveals that underlying teaching practices are complex cognitive processes and that planning and interactive decision-making are central aspects of it (Chiang, 2003). Teaching expertise is one of the areas that clearly reflects the complexity of teaching.

Differences between expert and novice teachers have been researched from the perspective of teacher cognition. Comparisons of expert and novice teachers have shown that they differ in how they perceive and interpret classroom events (Calderhead, 1983), think and make decisions (Berliner, 1987; Clark & Peterson, 1986), and also of how they develop expertise in pedagogical and content knowledge (Berliner, 1986).

Researchers have also investigated the nature of professional decisions made by the teachers in planning and implementing their language programs. The findings suggest that the key factor leading to the teaching effectiveness of expert teachers may be the fact that they frequently utilize pattern matches to adjust their teaching during their interactive instruction (McMahon, 1995). According to Smith's study (1996), the experienced teachers' decisions reveal an eclectic use of theory and a skillful blend of theoretical ideas with practical needs in the ESL instructional context. Milner (2001) has outlined the planning, thinking, and teaching of experienced English teachers and indicated that experienced teachers make responsive planning after learning about students' interests and the practical nature of the environment and adapt lessons interactively. Similarly, Johnson (1992) claims that novice teachers have not developed a schema for interpreting and coping with what goes on during

instruction, nor do they possess a repertoire of instructional routines upon which they can confidently rely. Expertise is a complex phenomenon and its meaning and constituents cannot be easily defined or specified in a straightforward manner. In the field of ELT studying teacher expertise has not developed to its full potentials or as Farrell (2013) puts it "[expertise] is still a very under-researched topic" (p. 1071). Therefore, it seems that more research on this issue is needed to help us learn more about the professional development of successful teachers as this kind of research can shed more light on the performance of novice teachers who look for practical solutions to everyday problems they encounter in the classrooms. This kind of study can also help them learn how these problems can act as issues of further thought and reflection that can eventually not only help them to deal with difficulties, but also move them forward in their process of teaching development. Besides, Research shows that learning procedural (practical) knowledge along with professional knowledge would be most beneficial for prospective teachers (Crookes, 2003 &Tsui, 2003).

There are some studies (e.g., Büyükyavuz & Aydoslu, 2005; Karacaoğlu & Acar, 2010; Özpınar & Sarpkaya, 2010; Türkmen, 2009) on teachers' problems during their teaching profession in the related literature recently. On the other hand, even though there have been many studies which examine beliefs or attitudes towards teaching profession, few studies (e.g., Arslan, 2013; Battal, Yurdakul & Sahan, 1998) compared expert and novice teachers' viewpoints and knowledge regarding the teaching profession and the problems they encountered.

The purpose of the present study was to investigate and compare the expert and novice Iranian EFL teachers' knowledge of the intellectual content of their discipline and the instructional management strategies and techniques

they use to create and sustain a classroom environment in which desired learning outcomes would be possible.

The significance of the present study may be found in the remarks of Kumaravadivelu (2012) who emphasizes that

> We know very little about teachers' ways of knowing because the cognitive dimension of knowing is so complex and so difficult and there is much difficulty involved in studying them. However, the findings of such studies can help novice teachers recognize what expert teachers think and know, how they know what they know, and how they use what they know in their profession. This could help novice teachers prepare themselves better for their classes and help teacher educators make more informed decisions in training teachers. (p. 34).

2. Literature Review

A review of the previous studies in both ESL and EFL contexts shows that a large number of studies have been conducted on the topic of teachers' procedural knowledge (Kumaravadivelu, 2012). Procedural knowledge is the single factor which seems to have the greatest power to carry forward our understanding of the teachers' role (Elbaz, 1983; p. 45). Kumaravadivelu (2012) believes

> Teachers' procedural knowledge encompasses knowledge of subject matter, curriculum, instruction, classroom management, school and community, learning styles, as well as knowledge of their own attitudes, values, beliefs and goals–all shaped by their practical classroom experience. All of these kinds of knowledge, as integrated by the individual teacher in terms of personal values and beliefs and as

oriented to her practical situation, will be referred to as practical knowledge. (p. 30)

According to Bartels (2006), research shows that the lack of procedural knowledge may be a significant factor in teachers' difficulty in applying the professional knowledge gained in teacher education programs to the practice of everyday teaching.

Murshidi, Konting, Elias and Fooi (2006), and Wanzarae (2007) in their studies found that when novice teachers begin teaching, they encounter the complexity of the teaching task. Major challenges that novice teachers faced could be summarized as follows: time management, student assessment, negative relationships with teachers, principals, lack of time (to plan, prepare and carry out administrative duties), establishing positive relationships with students; the need to establish authority, and difficulties in aligning instructional techniques to the subject content and evaluation.

Pilvar and Leijen (2015) explored the differences in thinking between experienced and novice teachers when solving problematic pedagogical situations. They believe that solving problematic situations is an important part of developing teaching expertise. They introduced a test to explore differences in thinking between 29 experienced and 29 pre-service novice. Participants were asked to solve a problematic situation related to teaching. The test consisted of a description of a pedagogical work-related incident and guiding questions. The situation was based on a real teaching situation. After analysis of the data, it turned out that the expected different results between the experienced and novice teachers based on the comparison of the two groups in the theoretical part did not occur in the empirical part of the paper as evidently as they did in the characteristics listed in the theoretical framework. Personal experiences related to the situation were associated with the use of some

characteristics of problem solving. The results suggested that more experienced teachers used an action plan to search for information more often, which means that more experienced teachers generally structure their action plans better than novice teachers. In fact, experienced teachers were searching for information more frequently when making action plans, drew up more action plans overall and structured plans better than novice teachers.

Kumaravadivelu (2012) found procedural knowledge constituting knowledge and ability to manage classroom language learning effectively. Appropriate classroom management strategies are necessary for properly directing the flow of learning and teaching. He (2012) stressed that developing a classroom culture that will set the tone for the rest of the academic year is possible only by using such strategies by teachers during the early days of a class. The expectable classroom climate could be shown to the learners through teachers' effective use of procedural knowledge. (p. 31)

According to Kumaravadivelu (2012), some of the necessary pedagogic procedures that teachers are required to know to be able to make easy the flow of the lesson are

(a) the suitable time for individual, pair, group or whole class activity;
(b) the optimal criteria in forming pairs and groups; (c) the amount of time they will have to wait when they pose a question to a student and before they rephrase or redirect the question to another student; and
(d) the suitable time of allowing learners to communicate in their first language in class. (p. 31)

According to Kumaravadivelu (2003b), there are several aspects to the management of classroom language learning, the most important of which are talk management and topic management. Talk management is related to managing the structure of information exchange, which in turn involves the

type of questions asked and responses expected. As it is evident, the information structure in most language classes follows what is called the IRF sequence, in other words, the teacher initiates (I), the learner responds (R), and the teacher provides appropriate feedback (F). Such a tradition often limits opportunities for meaningful interaction to take place. To get rid of this rigid formula, teachers should ask referential questions which seek new information and permit open-ended responses from students, rather than display questions which allow teachers and learners only to display a closed set of language use (Kumaravadivelu, 2012). Therefore, teachers can promote genuine conversation if they closely link their talk management with topic management. On the other hand, topic management, as Kumaravadivelu (2012) states, pertains to the content of classroom talk. Teachers should go beyond the topics included in the prescribed textbook and encourage students to initiate topics of their interest since it can promote their motivation to participate in classroom interaction and allow them to share their individual perspectives on contemporary topics with the teacher as well as other learners whose lives, and hence perspectives, may differ from theirs (Kumaravadivelu, 2012; p. 30).Moreover, as Silmani (1989) and also Ellis (1992) claim, research shows that letting learners have partial control over the topic can result in (1) tailoring of the linguistic complexity of the input to the learner's own level; (2) creation of better opportunities for negotiating meaning when a communication problem arises; and (3) stimulation of more extensive and more complex production of language on the part of the learners.

Larrivee (2006) discovered that classroom management has so much complexity, ambiguities, and dilemmas that requires a teacher to go beyond mere control tactics and engage in critical inquiry, and thoughtful reflection, the hallmarks of reflective practitioners.

Wolf, Jorodzka, Bogert and Booshuizen (2014) focused on the differences between expert and novice teachers' representations of classroom practices. They created a coding scheme using grounded theory to analyze expert and novice teachers' verbalizations describing classroom events and their relevance for classroom management. Four categories of codes emerged referred to perceptions/interpretations, thematic focus, temporality, and cognitive processing expressed. Mixed-method analysis of teachers' verbalizations yielded a number of significant effects related to participants' expertise levels. Notably, teachers' cognitive processing diverged significantly based on expertise level. Differences in focus included themes such as student learning, student discipline, and teacher interaction and influence. Experts focused on learning in the classroom and the teacher's ability to influence learning, whereas novices were more concerned with maintaining discipline and behavioral norms.

Lortie (1975) and Kumaravadivelu (2012) realized that most teachers develop their procedural knowledge (a) through "apprenticeship of observation," that is, teachers have observed classroom teaching for many, many years just by being a student, and may have absorbed certain teaching techniques and management strategies from their teachers; and (b) through trial and error during their own teaching days.

A case study of one novice EFL middle school teacher was conducted by Kang and Cheng (2014). The researchers believe that a number of interconnected factors, including teacher experience, reflection on practice, and the teaching context led to a considerable amount of change in her classroom practices. They concluded that the development of this teacher's cognition was the result of the cyclical interaction between the teacher's knowledge and belief system and her classroom practices. Huberman (1995)

explained this cyclical nature of change and argued that "changes in beliefs lead to changes in practice that bring changes in student learning that bring further changes in practice that result in additional changes in belief and so on" (as cited in Wong, 2013).

Berliner (1994) discovered in his study that expert teachers demonstrate more autonomy and flexibility in both planning and teaching. Because they have a large repertoire of routines on which to rely, they are able to improvise and respond to the needs of the students and the situation very quickly. The automaticity that is made possible by the availability of these routines allow them to direct their attention to more important information. He (1994) reported similar results to experts in other domains, these characteristics of their cognitive processes were very much related to their sophisticated knowledge schemata and knowledge base (See Berliner, 1994, for a discussion of the similarities between expert teachers and experts in other domains.).

Zarei and Afshari (2012) studied experienced and novice Iranian teachers' perceptions as to the effect of intrinsic factors (motivation, self- concept, anxiety, and autonomy) on teacher efficacy in the classroom. 53 experienced teachers with more than 10 years of experience and 46 novice teachers with 3 years of experience participated in the study. A four-part questionnaire (each part measuring the perceptions of the teachers about one of the intrinsic factors) was administered to all the participants. A Mann Whitney U procedure was used to compare the views of experienced and novice teachers for each part. Results indicated that there were significant differences between novice and expert teachers as to the effects of anxiety and autonomy on teacher efficacy. However, the views of experienced and novice teachers did not differ significantly concerning the effect of these factors on teacher efficacy.

In a study conducted by Liakopoulou (2011), it was found that teachers who were professional in pedagogical and teaching skills are also successful. The open-ended questions she utilized in her study revealed the skills which contributed to the effectiveness of their teaching were a) knowledge/teaching models such as timely preparation and planning of teaching, use of appropriate forms, methods and teaching aids, posing appropriate questions to students and encouraging discussion and experience-based approach b) curriculum and school textbooks; that is, use of extra-curricular teaching material c) understanding learners such as understanding their needs and adjusting teaching accordingly d) pedagogical content knowledge such as interdisciplinary approach to a subject e) the context where the pedagogical and teaching procedures take place such as problem solving and ensuring a happy classroom environment.

Liakopoulou (2011) acknowledged that regarding her research findings the teachers did not have the skills required to manage specific challenges of modern schools. Therefore, they selected actions which do not have theoretical rationales. Also, sometimes they tried to overcome the difficulties such as lack of homogeneity in the school population, lack of student motivation, behavioural problems, learning difficulties and problems of co-operation with students, parents and colleagues only through discussions with student. And the result for certain teachers is failure, disappointment and ultimately, resignation. Besides, a slightly smaller percentage utilized merely their intuition to deal with these situations and didn't have the necessary skills and relevant theoretical knowledge. She contended that only a small percentage of all teachers in her study used pedagogical theories and research techniques and practices.

Khalaj (2010) compared novice and experienced EFL teachers' pedagogical knowledge in Iran. He examined the categories of pedagogical knowledge related to the act of teaching of novice and experienced teachers as gleaned from their verbal reports of what they were thinking about while teaching and compared the categories of pedagogical knowledge of novice and experienced teachers. The aim was to see whether differences between them could be attributed to differences in their number of years of teaching experience. Stimulated recall methodology was used to collect the data. The results indicated that novice and experienced teachers were to a large extent similar to each other in terms of major PK categories, however, there were differences both in the number and particularly the order of the thoughts experienced and novice teachers produced. Experienced teachers produced an average of 1.7 pedagogical thought per minute, while their novice teacher counterparts produced 1.31 thoughts.

Research shows that learning procedural knowledge can easily be achieved through teaching practicum that includes field experiences, role plays and video analyses (Crookes, 2003 &Tsui, 2003).

3. Objectives and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to investigate and compare expert and novice Iranian EFL teachers' knowledge of the intellectual content of their discipline and the instructional management strategies and techniques they use to create and sustain a classroom environment in which desired learning outcomes would be possible.

Based on the objectives of the study, the researcher sought answers to the following questions:

1. How do Expert and Novice Iranian EFL Teachers compare in terms of Procedural Knowledge?
2. Is there any difference between Expert and Novice Iranian EFL Teachers due to Students Involved in Learning component and Rapport with Students component?
3. How do Expert and Novice Iranian EFL Teachers compare in terms of Classroom Management component and its subcategories including Talk Management factor and Topic Management factor?
4. Is there any difference between Expert and Novice Iranian EFL Teachers regarding Teacher Strategies while Teaching factor and Teachers' Learning Strategies for Learners factor?

4. Method

Previous studies on the topic of teachers' knowledge have shown that both quantitative and qualitative approaches have been employed through different instruments, such as questionnaires, narratives, and interviews (Bijaared et al., 2000; Hattie, 2003; Loughran, 2010; Tsui, 2003). Although there has been a great tendency toward qualitative approach in data collection and analysis, they are limited in terms of data representativeness and actual procedures (Ary et al., 2014). Thus, surveying a large number of participants through a questionnaire in a quick and cost effective way may be a viable and reasonable solution.

The current study sought to compare Iranian EFL expert and novice teachers' procedural knowledge through developing a reliable and valid questionnaire. To develop the questionnaire, previous studies and related theoretical frameworks on the topic of teachers' procedural knowledge were reviewed. Then, several participants were interviewed in the qualitative phase

of the study. Finally, based on the above mentioned steps, seven sub-categories were re-conceptualized for Iranian EFL teachers' procedural knowledge. Kumaravadivelu's (2012) three sub-categories were kept and also three other sub-categories were defined and added by the researcher for Iranian EFL teachers. Iranian EFL teachers' procedural knowledge subcategories were: Students Involved in Learning, Classroom Management, Rapport with Students, Talk Management, Topic Management, Teacher Strategies while Teaching and Teachers' Learning Strategies for the Learners. Table 1 presents a definition for each sub-category of Iranian EFL teachers' procedural knowledge.

Table 1. *The Components and Definitions of Iranian EFL Teachers' Procedural Knowledge Sub-categories*

Component	Definition
Students involved in learning	Aims at active learning and joint production of classroom discourse (Kumaravadivelu, 2012).
Classroom management	Pertains to the actions teachers take to create an environment that supports and facilitates both academic and social-emotional learning (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006).
Rapport with students	Relates to the understanding and respect of the teacher and his/her students toward each other (Hattie, 2003).
Talk management	Involves the type of questions asked and responses expected. Teachers are advised to ask referential questions which seek new information and permit open-ended responses from students, rather than display questions which allow teachers and learners only to display a closed set of language use (Kumaravadivelu, 2003b).
	Relates to the content of classroom talk.

Topic management	Teachers are advised to go beyond the topics included in the prescribed textbook and encourage students to initiate topics of their interest so that it may increase their motivation to participate in classroom interaction. That is, teachers should let learners have partial control over the topic (Kumaravadivelu, 2003b).
Teacher strategies while teaching	Relates to various approaches teachers apply in the classroom to facilitate learning of language skills and components for their students and to engage them in the activities (Richards & Schmidt, 2010)
Teachers' learning strategies for the learners	Relates to helping students by teachers and researchers learn how to use more relevant and more powerful learning strategies to increase L2 proficiency (Oxford, 2003). Learning strategies are"specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques --such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task -- used by students to enhance their own learning" (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p.63 as cited in Oxford, 2003).

4.1. Participants

In order to accomplish diversity and generalizability of the results, ten percent (200) of the target population (approximately 2000 teachers teaching in the institutes and universities in the northern, southern, eastern and western parts of Iran) were conveniently selected to complete the questionnaires. The sample included both male and female teachers from nine cities and towns including Tehran, Karaj, Rasht, Mashhad, Shiraz, Kazeroon, Yazd, Kerman, Rafsanjan and Bandare-Abbas. The teachers were categorized into expert and novice

groups based on the extent of their academic education and their teaching experience. Teaching experience includes two factors: the number of years teaching in institutes or universities, and the variety of places (institute, school, and university) having worked in.

The criteria for the inclusion of the participants into the study were: The participants who had a B.A degree or a higher degree in one of the English language majors such as Teaching English or English Literature, had a 6 year or more experience of teaching English and had the experience of teaching English in more than one educational organization (i.e., university and institute) were assigned as expert and were placed in the expert teachers group. The participants who either were undergraduate (did not have a B.A degree), or/and had only 1-5 year(s) experience of teaching English, or/and had taught English in only one type of educational organizations were classified into novice teachers group.

In the case of years of teaching experience, often 5 or 7 years have been treated as the cut-off point, or in other words, the minimum requirement of teaching expertise in the body of literature. According to Palmer et al., (2005), the most agreed-upon requirement for an expert teaching of English is 5 to 10 years of practice. In Berliner's (2004) study, experts were identified to have had at least 5 to 7 years of teaching experience. Hence, as aforementioned, in the current study also the requirement for an expert teaching of English is 6 and over 6 years of practice.

4.2. Instrument

As mentioned earlier a questionnaire was developed which had two types of data: "factual and attitudinal questions" (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010, p. 5). Factual questions covered the personal information or demographic

characteristics of the respondents (e.g., gender, teaching experience, major of study, etc.) whereas attitudinal questions considered teachers' beliefs, attitudes, assumptions, and knowledge. To construct a valid and reliable questionnaire a few necessary steps were taken:

Firstly, the data gathered from the qualitative phase of the study, insights from the theoretical framework and previous studies on the topic of teachers' identity construction both in ESL and EFL contexts constituted the item pool for the current study. Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) state "designing a new questionnaire involves conducting a small-scale exploratory qualitative study first" (p. 110) along with the literature which provides "a valuable source of ideas for preparing the item pool for the purpose of questionnaire scale construction" (p. 110). To write the questionnaire's items, several rules were considered, including designing short and simple items, using natural language, avoiding negative constructions, ambiguous, and loaded words. The questionnaire was designed in 4 pages and the designated time for completing the questionnaire was 30 minutes. This is in line with what Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) suggest, that is "a questionnaire of three to four pages does not tend to exceed the 30-minute completion limit" (p. 12).

Secondly, the researchers put demographic information such as gender, work experience, major of study, degree, geographical districts, and educational contexts at the end of the questionnaire. The reason is that putting personal background information at the beginning part of the questionnaires could impact on the responses of respondents as a sensitive topic and can function as a kind of off-putting entity (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010).

Thirdly, the decision about the type of the rating scale was made. Likert's five response options scale was adopted as a multi-item scales. The reason to use Likert scale is to avoid "the unpredictable impact of any idiosyncratic item

wording and ensuring comprehensive content coverage-questionnaires should contain multi-item scales, rather than single items, to focus on any particular content domain" (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010, p. 57). Hence, five options were assigned, i.e. 'strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree, and strongly agree'. To calculate items' score, the researchers allocated 5 points for strongly agree, 4 points for agree, 3 points for undecided, 2 points for disagree, and 1 point for strongly disagree.

Fourthly, to check the content validity of the questionnaire, three external experts and three faculty colleagues were consulted. At first, the experts advised that at least four items be designated for each sub-scale of teachers' procedural knowledge. This is in line with the study of Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) that emphasizes to allocate 3-4 items for each sub-scale content. Thus, the questionnaire was designed with 30 items. But, due to these experts' views about the extent to which the questionnaire's items were representative of teachers' procedural knowledge, 4 items were discarded, two other more relevant items were added to the questionnaire and three items were also reworded due to ambiguity, length, redundancy and overlapping. Finally, the questionnaires' items for piloting phase of the study were reduced to 28 items. Also, one of the other reasons to reduce the number of questions was to increase the face validity of questionnaire since the time a questionnaire needs to be answered is one of the main factors which influences its face validity.

Fifthly, the study was piloted. To conduct the pilot phase of the study, the researchers observed several matters, such as providing a clear instruction for each part of the questionnaire, keeping the confidentiality of the respondents, and considering the length of time. Then, the questionnaire was administered by hand to 40 Iranian EFL teachers' who were working at three educational contexts (universities, schools, and English language institutes). The

respondents to the questionnaire were a part of the target population that the questionnaire was designed.

Sixthly, Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was employed to measure the internal consistency of the questionnaire. The current study adopted above 0.70 as an acceptable measure to estimate the reliability (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). The questionnaire included 28 items and it was administered to 40 Iranian EFL teachers. Results of the piloting phase of the study revealed that the reliability of the questionnaire was 0.77. Therefore, the questionnaire was reliable enough.

Seventhly, three types of validity, i.e., face validity, content validity, and construct validity were taken into account in the current study. The researcher ensured face validity of the questionnaire via using a good and orderly lay out (bold, italic, and normal type-faces), employing appropriate font size, reducing the margins, and sequence marking (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). It was attempted that the questionnaire be eye-catching and look short for the respondents. The second type of validity was content validity. To examine its content validity, three external experts and three faculty colleagues at the research site checked the language and comprehensibility of the questionnaire's content. It should be mentioned that both the content validity and the face validity of the questionnaire were made before piloting the questionnaire and estimating the reliability. To meet the last type of validity, namely construct validity, the congruency of the questionnaire's items was checked through doing exploratory factor analysis.

For the estimation of construct validity of the questionnaire, an exploratory factor analysis was employed through running factor analysis to check construct validity of the questionnaire. Pertaining to the suitability of the data, it should be assessed through the size of the sample and the factorability

of the data. Although there is a little agreement among scholars and researchers regarding the size of the sample and they suggest the larger, the better (Pallant, 2013), a minimum of 100 (but preferably more) subjects" is proposed (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010, p. 63). Hence, as the number of participants in the pilot study was not enough to conduct the exploratory factor analysis for the questionnaire, it was done on the whole sample of the study which was 200 teachers of all around the country. Also, the reliability of the questionnaire was again examined after doing the main study on theses 200 participants of the study and removing 4 items based on the exploratory factor analysis results. It was .81 which amply reasonable.

4.2.1. Exploratory Factor Analysis

Running factor analysis involves three steps, including assessment of the suitability of the data, factor extraction, and factor rotation and interpretation (Pallant, 2013).

The suitability of the data must be assessed through the size of the sample and the factorability of the data. As mentioned earlier a minimum of 100 (but preferably more) subjects is proposed for running factor analysis (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010, p. 63). In order to meet the first step, factor analysis was done on the whole participants of the study (200 teachers). Regarding the factorability of the data, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity must be considered. The KMO index which ranges from 0 to 1 should not be below 0.60 and the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity should be $p<0.05$ (Pallant, 2013). In the current study, the KMO was 0.77 and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant at $p=0.00$ (see Table 2). Therefore, the data were appropriate and acceptable for

factor analysis and it could be expected that there were some significant factors to be extracted in the next step.

Table 2. *KMO and Bartlett's Test*

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.772
Bartlett's Test of Spherici Approx. Chi-Square	1435.012
Sphericitydf	351
Sig.	.000

The second step of the factor analysis was to decide about how many factors could be extracted from the data. To obtain this, two criteria were adopted: Kaiser's criterion and scree plot test. Maximum likelihood was run as the method to decide about the number of extracted factors. Those factors that have the eigenvalues of 1.0 or more should be retained based on Kaiser's criterion and the total variance should be over 60% (Pallant, 2013). In the current study, the eigenvalue of ten factors in the questionnaire was above 1.0 and the total variance was estimated to69.34%. The ten factors accounted for18.926%, 9.605%, 8.195%, 6.532 %, 6.544 %, 5.644 %, 4.746%, 4.210, 3.971, 3.827, and 3.688% of the total variance (see Table 1 in Appendix A). Yet, as only one item loaded on each of the factors 6, 8 and 9, these three factors and the items loading on them which were item 8 (Set a specific situation and time for individual, pair, group or whole class activity), item 4 (Set teaching goals and methods as factors which influence talk and topic management) and item 9 (Let the students find their own mistakes instead of correcting them) were excluded from the research statistical analyses. So, 7 factors were retained for this part of the study. Also, item 1 of this scale (Act as an authority in class so that students check everything with him) didn't load on any of the study factors and was removed from the study. Hence, the number of procedural knowledge questionnaire's items was reduced to 24. Variable communalities were also

taken into account and they were greater than 0.30 (acceptable) for all these 24 items.

The second criterion in this step was scree plot which involves "plotting each of the eigenvalues of the factors and inspecting the plot to find a point at which the shape of the curve changes direction and become horizontal" (Pallant, 2013, p. 191). In the current study, the scree plot (Figure 1 below) indicated that 7 factors could be retained in this part of the research.
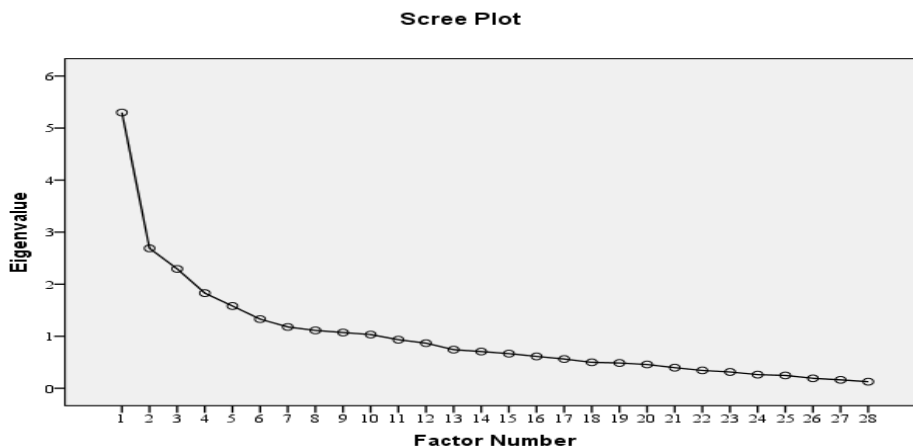

Figure1. *Scree Plot for the Extracted Factors*

The last step was factor rotation which was obtained through pattern matrix based on maximum likelihood method. Table 1 (Appendix) indicates how seven factors were rotated. Some items were rotated on more than one factor. For example, item 12 rotated on both factor 2 and factor 3. This occurred because of the large number of factors. Considering the content of the item, we understood that it should be allocated for factor 2.

By conducting these rigorous steps on the questionnaire at the phase of exploratory factor analysis and ensuring about validity and reliability of the

questionnaire, the researchers recognized that the questionnaire has acceptable quality.

5. Results and Discussion

5.1. Descriptive Statistics

The minimum, the maximum, the mean, the standard deviation, the skewness and the kurtosis for the study variables and sub-categories were calculated by the means of SPSS software.

Table 5.1. *Descriptive Statistics for the Main Variable of Professional Knowledge and Its Latent Variables*

Variable	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Students Involved in Learning	200	2	5	4.11	0.55	-0.92	1.16
Classroom Management	200	1.80	5	3.91	0.51	-0.79	1.92
Rapport with Students	200	1.33	5	3.89	0.68	-0.58	0.56
Talk Management	200	1.25	5	3.73	0.60	-0.65	0.92
Topic Management	200	2.33	5	3.73	0.53	-0.31	-0.14
Teacher Strategies while Teaching	200	2	5	3.82	0.66	-0.19	0.05
Teachers' Learning Strategies for Learners	200	1	5	3.65	0.89	-0.49	-0.13
Procedural Knowledge	200	2.46	4.88	3.87	0.38	-0.58	0.81

The main variable in this study (procedural knowledge) includes seven sub-categories called Students Involved in Learning, Classroom Management, Rapport with Students, Talk Management, Topic Management, Teacher Strategies while Teaching, and Teachers' Learning Strategies for Learners. Among these sub-categories, students involved in learning had the highest mean (M=4.11) and teachers' learning strategies for learners had the lowest

mean (M=3.65) although the difference between the highest and the lowest mean was small. The mean and standard deviation for Procedural Knowledge were 3.87 and 3.38 respectively.

The two groups of participants (expert and novice teachers) are compared based on these defined variables in the present study to discover if there is any difference between them.

5.2. Comparison of Expert and Novice Iranian EFL Teachers

The primary purpose of this study was to compare expert and novice Iranian EFL teachers' procedural knowledge. To do this comparison and also compare them in terms of subcategories of procedural knowledge, independent samples T-tests were done by the researchers. The results of comparison of these various variables are presented clearly in the Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2.*Independent Samples T-tests for Expert and Novice Teachers' Variables*

	Group	n	Mean	SD	P-Value of Leven	T-Test	df	P-Value of T-Test
Procedural Knowledge	Expert	75	3.96	.33	0.19	2.89	198	0.004
	Novice	125	3.81	.40				
Students Involved in Learning	Expert	75	4.24	.50	0.2	2.66	198	0.008
	Novice	125	4.03	.57				
Classroom Management	Expert	75	4.06	.50	0.96	3.29	198	0.001
	Novice	125	3.82	.50				
Rapport with Students	Expert	75	4.12	.66	0.91	3.77	198	0.000
	Novice	125	3.75	.65				
Talk Management	Expert	75	3.77	.58	0.51	.67	198	0.5
	Novice	125	3.71	.62				
Topic Management	Expert	75	3.86	.47	0.18	2.80	198	0.006
	Novice	125	3.65	.56				
Teacher Strategies while Teaching	Expert	75	3.83	.62	0.4	.19	198	0.8
	Novice	125	3.81	.68				
Teachers' Learning Strategies for Learners	Expert	75	3.50	.94	0.3	-1.83	198	0.07
	Novice	125	3.74	.85				

Regarding the significance level of T-test for teachers' procedural knowledge (P-Value of T=0.004< α=0.01), there was a significant difference in this main variable between expert participants and novice participants of this study. Considering the mean values of procedural knowledge among expert and novice participants of the study, it was found that expert teachers had higher levels of procedural knowledge than novice teachers (t (198)=2.89, p<0.01; M1=3.96, SD1=0.33> M2= 3.81, SD2=0.40).

This fundamental finding of the current study is in line with few research findings in this realm; Lortie (1975) and Kumaravadivelu (2012) both came to conclusion that procedural knowledge is obtained through long time practice, observation and reflection. Thus, they agreed that expert teachers have developed much more procedural knowledge than novice teachers.

Kang and Cheng (2014) and Huberman (1995) also discovered that expertise and practical knowledge have an interplay as the typical characteristics of an expert teacher such as teacher experience and reflection on practice led to a considerable amount of change in his/her classroom practices.

In a study by Liakopoulou (2011), the teachers who did not have the experience and skills were required to manage specific challenges of modern schools, selected techniques and activities which did not have theoretical rationales and so did not work well. Besides, sometimes they tried to overcome the difficulties such as lack of homogeneity in the school population, lack of student motivation, behavioral problems, learning difficulties and problems of co-operation with students, parents and colleagues only through discussions with students which were not useful at all.

The findings indicate that there was a significant difference in the amount of EFL expert and novice teachers' students involvement in learning in this

research with regard to the significance level of T-test (P-Value of T=0.008< α=0.01). Also, regarding the mean values of the subcategory of students involved in learning in expert and novice teachers' classes, it was found that expert teachers made their students more highly involved in their own learning procedure ($t_{(198)}$= 2.66, p<0.01; $M_{1=}$4.24, $SD_{1=}$0.50> $M_{2=}$4.03, $SD_{2=}$0.57).

This finding of the present study corresponds to the post method proponents' belief and also the communicative approaches to teaching English as a foreign language that teachers should try to involve the learners in their own learning as much as possible and utilize the activities and practices which demand an active compliance on the part of the learners.

Also, before post method area, some studies including Allwright's (1981) study found expert teachers try to join their students in managing their own learning since they believe learning outcome should be the joint endeavor of both the teacher and the learner. He (1981) claimed expert teachers and their learners attempt at maintaining the conditions necessary for maximizing learning opportunities jointly in the classroom whereas novice teachers play the role of authority in their classes and also some of them even don't encourage their students to take a small role in their learning process.

Again, corresponding to present study results, Allwright (2005) realized that in an EFL classroom with an expert teacher, all are agent, in other words, EFL expert teachers may usefully consider learner behavior as contributing to lessons by materially affecting the agenda in the classroom. (p. 16).

Classroom management was significantly different between expert and novice Iranian EFL teachers as the significance level of T-test shows (P-Value of T=0.001< α=0.01). This difference was such that expert teachers managed their classes better than novice teachers as the mean values in expert group was

higher than the mean value in novice group ($t_{(198)}=3.29$, $p<0.01$; $M_1=4.06$, $SD_1=0.50> M_2= 3.82$, $SD_2=0.50$).

Kumaravadivelu (2012) realized that the most fundamental constituent of expert teachers' procedural knowledge was the ability to manage classroom effectively. So, the finding of this part of current study is in line with his discovery. Besides, he (2012) stated that comparing expert and novice EFL teachers, experts use more appropriate classroom management strategies; that is, they use classroom management strategies which are necessary for properly directing the flow of learning and teaching.

This finding of the current study is in line with some other researchers' findings about classroom management strategies. For example, Evertson and Weinstein (2006) realized in their studies that the two main and distinct purposes of classroom management (establishing and sustaining an orderly environment in order to enable students to engage in meaningful academic learning, and enhancing students' social and moral growth) are only achievable by skillful and expert teachers who are able to provide the requirements for them. And as another example, Larrivee (2006) came to the conclusion that because of classroom management complexities, ambiguities and dilemmas only expert teachers who can engage in both critical inquiry and thoughtful reflection can manage a classroom well.

It is obvious that expert and novice groups' rapport with their students was significantly different (P-Value of $T=0.000< \alpha=0.01$); that is, the quantity and quality of emotional relationship these two different groups could make with their students was shown to be significantly different in the present study. The findings indicate that expert teachers had significantly better rapport with their students than novice teachers. This means that the relationship that expert participants made with their students had better quantity and quality than the

novice participants' relationship with their students as the mean value in the expert group was significantly higher than the novice group's mean value ($t_{(198)}= 3.77$, $p<0.01$; $M_1=4.12$, $SD_1=0.66 > M_2= 3.75$, $SD_2=0.65$).

This result of the present study corresponds to findings of some other studies. One of these studies was Krauthammer (1999). The participants were supposed to comment on using Krauthammer (1999)'s essay by teachers in EFL classes of public schools. The intermediate and the expert teacher expressed concern over its controversial content (creationism and the teaching of religious values in public schools) and how it would affect class dynamics and teacher's relationship with his/her students while the novice teacher made no mention of similar issues.

Also, in a study conducted by Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), skilful and experienced teachers developed better relationship with learners than novice teachers and so expert teachers' students were more motivated and willing to communicate during the program.

The significance level of the test for teachers' Talk Management (P-Value of T $=0.5 > \alpha=0.05$) indicates that expert and novice teachers of the present study managed talk with not much difference in their classes. That is, talk management sub-category of procedural knowledge did not have a significant difference between expert group and novice group ($t_{(198)}= 0.67$, $p>0.05$).

Talk management is one of the most important aspects in the management of classroom language learning (Kumaravadivelu, 2003b, as cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2012). Kumaravadivelu (2012) discusses that "talk management mainly involves managing the structure of information exchange, which in turn involves the type of questions asked and responses expected. The information structure in most language classes follows what is called the IRF sequence, that is, the teacher initiates (I), the learner responds (R), and the

teacher provides appropriate feedback (F). In most traditional classes where the teacher controls the talk management, the IRF sequence predominates".

Kumaravadivelu (2012) and Hattie (2009) discovered that this tradition often limits opportunities for meaningful interaction to take place. They also found that most teachers try to follow this rigid formula; in other words, they don't try to ask referential questions which seek new information and permit open-ended responses from students, rather than display questions which allow teachers and learners only to display a closed set of language use.

Hence, the finding of this part of the current study which suggests expert and novice teachers are almost similar in terms of talk management in the classrooms corresponds their research results in respect of similarity of talk management between expert and novice teachers.

However, unlike this study's finding, Tsui (2003) concluded from his study that expert teachers' representations, analysis and management of classroom talk and events are more principled than those of novice teachers.

Noticing the significance level of T-test for participants' Topic Management (P-Value of T=0.006< α=0.01), it would be clear that this sub-scale of study was significantly different between expert and novice Iranian EFL teachers. This difference was such that expert teachers managed the class topics better than novice teachers as the mean value in expert group was higher than the mean value in novice group (t(198)=2.80, p<0.01; M_1=3.86, SD_1=0.47> M_2= 3.65, SD_2=0.56).

Some studies have shown that letting learners have partial control over the topic can have several advantages such as tailoring of the linguistic complexity of the input to the learner's own level, creating better opportunities for negotiating meaning when a communication problem arises and stimulating

more extensive and more complex production of language on the part of the learners (Silmani, 1989; Ellis, 1992).

According to Kumaravadivelu (2012), although it is clear that going beyond the topics included in the prescribed textbook and encouraging students to initiate topics of their interest is likely to increase their motivation to participate in classroom interaction, most of teachers usually confine themselves to discussing the topics included in the prescribed textbook. Therefore, the finding of present study contrast with Kumaravadivelu (2012) in this regard. Also, he (2012) himself believes, going beyond the textbook topics allows the learners to share their individual perspectives on contemporary topics with the teacher as well as other learners whose lives, and hence perspectives, may differ from theirs.

The researchers of the current study had expected what they found in comparison of topic management between expert and novice participants of the research since it is clear that a teacher has to be expert enough to suppose he/she is able to skillfully manage any hot button issues that learners might raise.

It can be said with more than 95 percent assurance that there was not much difference in utilizing strategies while teaching between expert group and novice group (P-Value of T=0.8>α=0.05). In other words, there were no significant differences between expert and novice teachers in terms of teacher strategies while teaching ($t_{(198)} = 0.19$, p>0.05).

Kumaravadivelu (2012) believes that as opposed to novice teachers, expert teachers have an extensive domain of strategies which are so helpful. He (2012) furtherly justifies and explains this status: "the classroom strategies are defined and achieved within a specific learning and teaching context, each of which may make differential demands on the teacher, so they are very challenging for the

teachers". Thus the current study finding contrasts his belief because he means a class with learners from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds may require management strategies that are sensitive to learners' expectations which can be recognized and utilized only by skillful and experienced teachers.

This finding of the present study also contrasts with Hattie's (2003) finding since he had found expert teachers are more adept at developing and testing hypotheses about learning difficulties or instructional strategies. Besides, he discovered that expert teachers can anticipate, plan and improvise strategies as required by the situation and they perform teaching strategies much more automatically than novice teachers.

Shulman (1986, 1987) also found teaching strategies differ across disciplines and expert teachers know which strategies could work with regard to the kinds of difficulties that students are likely to face; they know how to tap into students' existing knowledge in order to make new information meaningful; and they know how to assess their students' progress. He (1987) stated "expert teachers have acquired pedagogical content knowledge as well as content knowledge. In the absence of pedagogical content knowledge, teachers often rely on textbook publishers for decisions about how to best organize subjects for students". They are therefore forced to rely on the "prescriptions of absentee curriculum developers" (Brophy, 1983), who know nothing about the particular students in each teacher's classroom.

Each method of language instruction offers its own special instructional strategies for teachers to use. Nicholls (2012) compared many studies which had been done to test the special teaching strategies of different methods. He recognized that more traditional instructional methods or strategies which are usually used by inexperienced and unskillful English teachers are ineffective, but, the strategies of newer teaching methods based on newer and more

comprehensive learning theories work more effectively for English learners. According to him, Horn (1966) who had examined the strategies of audiolingual method of instruction on two groups (experimental group and control group) found these teaching strategies ineffective in supporting English Learners' development of grammatically sound English that led to high levels of English literacy. Moreover, and perhaps critically, he realized that it did not take into account the social and cultural aspects of language or literacy development or did not consider the way in which human beings construct their own understanding of a new language (Richard-Amato & Snow, 2005).

On the other hand, there are studies based on the newer learning theories such as those on cognitive psychology tradition. To give some examples, White (1991) and Swain and Lapkin (1998) conducted such studies. White (1991) considered how students learned the grammatical features of English through teacher-student interaction and Swain and Lapkin (1998) examined the role of interaction and negotiation in second language production among adolescent native English speaking students in a French Immersion program classroom. The first study found that students who had the opportunity to interact with the teacher and receive feedback on their responses were able to negotiate the meaning of their utterances. The second research found that in their interaction, "the students used language to co-construct the language they needed to express the meaning they wanted and to co-construct knowledge about the language" (Swain &Lapkin, 1998, p. 333).

Regarding the significance level of the test done for teachers' learning strategies for learners(P-Value of T=0.07> α=0.05),it may be said with more than 95 percent assurance that there did not exist significant differences between expert teachers' learning strategies for their learners and novice teachers' learning strategies for their learners($t_{(198)}$=-1.83, p>0.05). That is,

the strategies expert teachers taught their students to use for studying and learning did not have much difference with the strategies that novice teachers taught their students to utilize.

Brown (2014) believes that experienced and crafted teachers try to recognize different styles of their various students and teach help them to learn appropriate learning strategies based on their special learning styles. However, he didn't find such knowledge in inexperienced teachers. Therefore, the finding of this part of current study is opposed to Brown (2014) research finding.

This finding of the present study also contrasts to some extent with Hattie (2003) who realized that expert teachers are more adept at monitoring student problems and assessing their level of understanding and progress, and they provide much more relevant, useful feedback. Also, his finding that indicated expert teachers can influence student outcomes more than novice teachers through engaging students in learning and developing in them self-regulation, involvement in mastery learning, enhanced self-efficacy, and self-esteem as learners is opposed to the finding of this part of current research which demonstrated not much difference between these two groups of teachers in this respect.

Students are not always aware of the power of consciously using L2 learning strategies for making learning quicker and more effective (Nyikos & Oxford, 1993). Oxford (2003) also discovered that only skilled teachers help their students develop an awareness of learning strategies and enable them to use a wider range of appropriate strategies.

Learning strategies can also enable students to become more independent, autonomous, lifelong learners (Allwright, 1990; Little, 1991).According to Schober (2007), when teachers shift their instructional focus more towards how students learn with self-regulated strategies, life-long learning is promoted (as

cited in Minutella, 2012). Students who can experience self-regulated learning strategies in their classes can see the positive results of their actions, and then can create a connection, become academically motivated and show better learning (Pintrich, 2002; Schober, 2007 as cited in Minutella, 2012). Cooperative Learning and Reciprocal Teaching are examples of how self-regulated learning strategies can be embedded into instruction (Minutella, 2012). Therefore, it is obviously so useful for English learners to be taught learning strategies that can help them compensate their weaknesses and so overcome challenges they are confronted with during the process of learning English.

Teachers instruct learning strategies less explicitly assuming that self-regulated learning will be acquired by the student (Kistner, 2010). Kistner's (2010) conclusions suggest that learning strategies need to be explicitly taught, giving students clear information about the strategy, how to use it, and why it is an important tool for their learning. Students have a clearer understanding of the learning processes when the processes are explicitly taught, and typically learn better as a result of this explicit teaching (Kistner, 2010). Teachers are the critical factors determining if learning strategies are taught and implemented into instruction (Vermunt & Verschaffel, 2000). If teachers teach learning strategies, then students learn how to monitor and evaluate their own learning (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001 as cited in Nicholls, 2012). Research-based instructional strategies are available to engage students in activities which will develop their thinking process. For example, dialogue and reflection work effectively as strategies to develop students' awareness of thinking, and therefore, promoting self-regulated learning habits (Buckheit, 2010).

6. Conclusion

Procedural knowledge constitutes knowledge and ability to manage classroom language learning effectively. Appropriate classroom management strategies are necessary for properly directing the flow of learning and teaching. By using such strategies during the early days of a class, teachers can formulate a classroom culture that will set the tone for the rest of the academic year. It is mostly through the effective use of procedural knowledge that teachers send a strong message to their learners as to what kind of classroom climate that they can expect (Kumaravadivelu, 2012). Classroom management with all its complexities, ambiguities, and dilemmas, requires a teacher to go beyond mere control tactics and engage in both critical inquiry, and thoughtful reflection, the hallmarks of reflective practitioners (Larrivee, 2006).

Research also shows that the lack of procedural knowledge may be a significant factor in teachers' difficulty in applying the professional knowledge gained in teacher education programs to the practice of everyday teaching (Bartels, 2006).

In this study, the procedural knowledge was compared between expert and novice Iranian EFL teachers. Also, different components and various factors of this knowledge type was investigated and seven factors including students involved in learning, classroom management, rapport with students, talk management, topic management, teacher strategies while teaching and teachers' learning strategies for the learners were obtained. With regard to the results of the study, Iranian EFL expert teachers had higher levels of procedural knowledge than Iranian EFL novice teachers. They had higher levels of classroom management knowledge, topic management knowledge, and students involved in learning knowledge than novice teachers. Also, expert teachers had the knowledge to make rapport (good emotional relationship)

with their students more easily and effectively than novice teachers. So, it could be concluded that Iranian EFL expert teachers were ahead of the novice ones in many respects in this research.

Unfortunately, few studies have investigated the components that develop in teachers from a level of being novice to the expertise level; as a result, there has not been much effort to assist the student teachers in need. As Kumaravadivelu (2012) states, without developing procedural knowledge, a teacher is not conveniently able to manage classroom learning and teaching since teacher's procedural knowledge is about creating and sustaining a classroom environment in which desired learning outcomes are made possible, about facilitating the flow of the lesson and channelizing it in the right direction although he acclaims we know very little about teachers' ways of knowing because the cognitive dimension of knowing is so complex and so difficult to investigate and it has remained partial and puzzling. Teacher education programs by taking the comprehensive initiatives to incorporate different domains and steps of expertise development of teachers can try to provide services that facilitate and eventually promote procedural knowledge of teachers both theoretically and practically. Moreover, novice teachers themselves can have a profound look at what expert teachers think and know, how they know what they know, and how they use what they know in their profession. This could help them prepare themselves better for their classes.

We tried to clarify the main components and factors that Iranian EFL teachers need to promote in themselves using novice and expert teachers' knowledge, experiences, problems and solutions for these problems. Although the study was conducted on the EFL teachers of around the country, there were some limitations in the sampling procedure of this research. However, regarding great research findings agreement to previous similar studies, the

results may be generalized to the Iranian EFL university and institute teachers conservatively. We hope that the findings could have the potential to provide a drive for further investigation in the area of language teacher education and diminishing the problems that EFL novice teachers are confronted with.

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Appendix

<div align="center">

Table 1. *Pattern Matrix Basedon Maximum Likelihood*

</div>

	Factor									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
27	.705									
22	.632	.306								
26	.565									
25	.527			.373						.340
19	.375									
10		.680								
12		.654	.356							
11		.469								
2		.414					.302			
5		.410								
9		.358								
16			.951							
17			.606							
6			.304							
1				.694						
13				.610						
15				.512						
14	.308			.361						
3					.644					
18			.442		-.568					
28					.461					
20										
8						.938				
7							.927			
4								.975		
21									.897	
23	.526									.571
24				.314	.322					.543

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization