



Teaching and Learning of English in Libyan Universities. A case study investigating the English language teaching knowledge of Libyan pre-service teachers of English in the University of Benghazi, Agdabia Faculty of Arts and Sciences in Libya

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Teaching and Learning of English in Libyan Universities

A case study investigating the English language teaching knowledge
of Libyan pre-service teachers of English in the University of
Benghazi, Agdabia Faculty of Arts and Sciences in Libya

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A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the
degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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I am also indebted to my family for their patience, understanding and support for the entire duration of my PhD study.

Dedication

To my wife and two beloved sons Abubkr and Ali.

List of acronyms and abbreviations

ELT	English Language Teaching
ELLS	English Language Lecturers
PELTs	Pre-service teachers of English (students at the Agdabia faculty)
TKT	Teaching Knowledge Test
GTM	Grammar Translation Method
CLA	Communicative Language Method
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
DM	The Direct Method
CIT	Critical Incident Technique
IGSE	International Graduate School of English
PPP	Presentation, Practice, Production

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Abstract

This single case study explores the teaching knowledge of Libyan pre-service teachers of English (PELTs) at the Agdabia Faculty of Arts and Sciences, the University of Benghazi, Agdabia, Libya. The study further investigates the ways to improve this knowledge and develop better teaching skills through introducing the PELTs to the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) method as an alternative to the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) which is a common teaching method in the Libyan ELT context. A mixed method research approach was adopted which involved methods of data collection such as conducting a 7 week English language and English teaching methodology course. I worked with the PELTs in this course both as a teacher and as a researcher to investigate ways to assist the participants to develop better attitudes and knowledge about English language and English teaching through action research whereby I adopted an “adopt, adapt, reject” teaching and research procedure to adopt methodological aspects that suited the participants, adapt those that required modification for the Libyan context and reject those that were not suitable. Other methods of data collection I used were observation, artefact review, pre and post intervention surveys and a Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT) to determine the PELTs’ attitudes and knowledge about the English language and English teaching before and after the course. English Language lecturers (ELTs), stakeholders and PELTs were interviewed individually and in focus groups. A thematic data analysis procedure was conducted to reduce the data, highlight its relevance, significance, and then interpret it in relation to the overarching research aim “how can Libyan pre service English language teachers (PELTs) become better teachers of English”?

The existing literature about English education in Libya mainly highlights the tradition of using the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) in teaching English and on some other relevant “traditional” teaching practices in Libyan English classrooms. These practices are discussed as problems preventing the Libyan ELT context from achieving any successful learning goals. The literature also sheds light on the Libyan learners’ attitudes toward learning English and the poor English language and English teaching capacities of learners and teachers of English in Libya. However, there is no available literature at the time of

conducting this study that provides any information about the existing knowledge of English teaching, nor is there any research into evidence based practice into improving the teaching capacities of Libyan PELTs. This research, therefore, provides for the first time, a detailed report on the current English teaching knowledge levels of Libyan PELTs using the TKT which is an internationally recognised test for measuring teachers' knowledge about English teaching developed by the University of Cambridge. It also presents research-based evidence to support the possibility of shifting from teaching English through GTM to teaching within the CLT method in a Libyan ELT context. The findings that arose from the intervention course, which include, but are not limited to the PELTs' attitudes and knowledge about the CLT, and teaching English in general before and after the intervention course are reported for the first time in a research study in the Libyan ELT context.

Statement of original authorship

I hereby declare that this thesis is an original piece of work of mine. No part of this thesis has been previously submitted for another award or qualification in another institution or university.

Abed B. Abed Ibrahim

Statement of editorial assistance

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Chapter One: Introduction

1.1. Research context and problem

Despite all the time, effort, and money spent in Libya in the last decade to develop better English education in the country (Libya Country Report, 2008), English education at present is by all accounts poor (Jha, 2014; Orafi & Borg, 2009). The Libyan Government has developed English language teaching materials for primary and secondary schools; however, the intention for the graduates from Libyan universities to use these materials to teach primary and high school students did not lead to achievement of the desired objectives of the curricula and the designers. This is because there is usually a gap between what the teachers of English have previously studied at their Libyan university and what they are eventually required to teach in schools (Jha, 2014; Orafi & Borg, 2009). I also observed this gap in the pre service teachers' knowledge in my role as a lecturer in the department of English in the Agdabia Faculty. This experience as a lecturer within this Faculty is declared here as the primary motivation for conducting this research.

The new curricula were introduced in Libya in 2000 and are mainly based on Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) principles to be used in Libyan primary and high schools in place of the previous curricula which aimed to teach grammar and reading. However, Libyan English teachers have not been able to help their students of English to achieve the objectives of the new curricula because the teachers are influenced by their own background and understanding of teaching English (Doukas, 1996; Ibrahim & Carey, 2014¹; Orafi & Borg, 2009). Their use of the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) and maintaining a teacher-centred style of teaching is at odds with the communicative principles of the new curricula and the ways its objectives can be achieved. Therefore, the teachers tend to filter these curricula and only teach the reading and grammar components and ignore speaking and listening activities (Doukas, 1996; Ibrahim & Carey, 2014; Orafi & Borg, 2009).

¹This is a book chapter by the author that has been accepted for publication and is included as Appendix L.

The introduction of the new English curricula was not accompanied by professional development programs for elementary and high school teachers, nor was professional development in the new curriculum or CLT introduced into university teacher training courses (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014). English education at Libyan universities is mainly taught by sessional staff, and lecturers are at liberty to choose the materials that are convenient for them to deliver to their students. They tend to focus on grammar and reading and use traditional teacher-centred approaches. Therefore, the lack of quality teachers of English is investigated in this study as one of the main reasons that the process of teaching and learning of English remains ineffective (Omar, 2012; Orafi & Borg, 2009).

Mohamed (2006), Alrahwy (2008) and Jha (2014) argue that the wide use of the GTM is among the main reasons for the poor English problem in Libya. The ban on any foreign language use in the country for over six years is also believed to be a significant contributor to the poor English proficiency (Orafi & Borg, 2009). Use of any foreign language was not allowed in Libya, not even in schools, universities, hospitals or conferences, due to a decision made by the former government of Libya during the rule of Colonel Muammar Algaddafi. The decision was made when the former regime led Libya into a state of political tension with the USA and the UK in the late 1980s (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014). This created another barrier for Libyan learners of English because it became almost impossible for them to find opportunities to speak English anywhere in Libya.

When English education was pursued in the country, a traditional style of teaching was maintained in Libya using poor-quality textbooks. These textbooks involved reading stories and then asking the learners to answer a set of questions on the story that the teacher had just read to them. Other important skills such as speaking, listening or writing were not included as part of the curriculum. The GTM was and is still the only method of teaching. Translation, therefore, became a common habit among Libyan learners of English (Alrahwy, 2008). The quality of English language teaching is an existing problem in Libya that needs to be investigated as it has a negative impact on teachers' teaching performance and therefore on the students' learning of English (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014; Jha, 2014).

1.2. Aims of the thesis

This thesis is driven by an overarching goal, which is to provide a solution to the problem of teaching English in Libya; in short, how can Libyan pre service English language teachers (PELTs) become better teachers of English? This goal is addressed via a single case study investigating the English language teaching capability of Libyan pre service teachers of English in the Agdabia Faculty of Arts and Sciences at the University of Benghazi, in Libya.

This study is guided by the following research focuses: the relevance of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach to the Libyan context and the barriers to using this approach in Libya (i.e. historical approaches such as the GTM, socio-cultural attitudes). Through these focus areas, this thesis will seek to establish the needs of pre service teachers in Libya and provide a set of recommendations to enable optimum conditions for the teaching and learning of English in Libya.

1.3. Research questions

The overarching research question:

- How can the future Libyan teachers of English become better teachers?

This overarching question is examined through research in this thesis which seeks to address the following questions:

- What is the current English language teaching knowledge of the future Libyan teachers of English in the Agdabia campus at the University of Benghazi?
- Does Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) work in Libya?
- What are the barriers to using CLT in Libya?

1.4. Rationale

For many Libyans, English is the preferred foreign language to learn and use (Black, 2007). It is rare to see or hear about schools or language centres where French, Italian, Spanish or Chinese programs are offered in this country. As of 2008, it is estimated that more than 80% of the Libyan Government's revenue comes from the oil industry and natural gas (Blanchard & Zanotti, 2011). This industry relies to a great extent on international companies (Bayoud, 2013). Those who work in this field know how important it is to learn

English to work in the oil sector. Parents pay large amounts of money to language centres so that their children learn how to use English communicatively. However, Orafi and Borg (2009) and Taghavi (2013) argue that the lack of quality teachers of English is the main reason that the whole process (teaching and learning of English) remains ineffective.

Some other English language teaching (ELT) specialists in Libya argue that the undergraduate students (future teachers of English in Libya) in most of the Libyan universities have weak mastery over English. Rajendran (2010), for example, says that “the [Libyan] university students fail to understand even the meanings of the commonly used English words like ‘post office’, ‘money’, ‘street’” (p. 64). In some other cases, students are unable to form English sentences correctly. In terms of writing, students can hardly write a single paragraph without making major mistakes.

There is little research which attempts to intervene and seek solutions to this problem. At the time of writing this thesis, there were 13 journal articles available about education and English education in Libya, 4 unpublished doctoral dissertations, 2 unpublished Masters dissertations, 2 reports and 1 chapter in an edited book. The available research reviewed in the literature review does not adopt a pragmatic design that seeks to improve the quality of English learning and teaching in Libya. Therefore, the point of difference in this study is that the design includes an intervention within an action research framework.

This study investigates the knowledge of English teaching of the future teachers of English in the Agdabia campus at the University of Benghazi, and how this can be affected by the cultural and social backgrounds of English language teachers and pre service teachers of English. This research will also improve their knowledge of teaching and introduce teachers to alternative teaching methods to the GTM (Doukas, 1996). In addition, the research is intended to help future secondary and high school teachers (current pre service teachers of English) and, by extension, their future students to create healthy learning environments for quality learning of English. It hopes to achieve these goals by developing the teaching knowledge of the current pre service teachers of English as research (Zakeri & Alavi, 2011) suggests that the quality of English teaching and learning outputs are affected by the teachers’ knowledge about English and English teaching.

Finally, this research will inform the development of professional and well-prepared teachers of English who are capable of using various methods of teaching in alignment with the objectives of the mandated curriculum and the needs of their students.

1.5. Design

This study utilises mainly qualitative methods and one quantitative method of data collection. Pre service teachers of English and ELT lecturers from the Agdabia Faculty of Arts and Sciences at the University of Benghazi, as well as stakeholders from both the faculty and the Department of School Administration at Agdabia Council, were invited to participate in the study.

The pre service teachers of English were surveyed to determine their attitudes towards English and learning of English. Other important matters such as whether they received their previous English education in or outside of Libya were determined through the survey to ensure that the sample was typical of learners of English in Libya. They also took the Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT) (Spratt, Pulverness, & Williams, 2005), which measures the teachers' knowledge of current English teaching methodology and techniques.

The 20 student participants were then divided into two groups: an intervention group and a comparison group. Students of both groups were attending their regular university classes while the intervention was in progress. The intervention group students then took an English and English teaching methodology course for 7 weeks. This methodology course was framed within an action research design, involving the trial and iterative development of alternative English language teaching methods within the pre service English teacher classroom. Within this action research design, I was both the teacher delivering the course and the researcher. After this intervention course the students of both groups were surveyed and took the TKT test again.

Differences in pre service teachers' attitudes pre and post intervention were compared and their pre- and post-intervention knowledge about teaching English was measured and tested for significance with a paired t-test. The research then discusses the findings and results through a thematic analysis and recommends some ways to address the identified problems and to make Libyan pre service teachers better teachers of English.

1.6. Significance and innovation of the research

For the first time in Libya, this study will investigate the impact of the cultural and social backgrounds of the Libyan pre service teachers of English and their English language teachers on the teaching–learning process. This is particularly important because this perspective is not discussed in depth in any of the previous studies conducted about English education in Libya. Therefore, the research contributes to filling this existing gap in the available literature about English education in the country.

The research also provides, for the first time in Libya, a detailed report about the knowledge of English teaching of Libyan pre service teachers of English. This research also investigates the use of textbooks and resources, the teaching methods and methodologies, the facilities, and the teaching and learning aids at the university (e.g. language laboratories, internet and audiovisual materials).

The research seeks to determine the barriers that prevent Libyan learners of English from developing better communicative skills in English, and ways to overcome these barriers. In addition, this study provides, for the first time, a comprehensive examination of the factors that prevent Libyan teachers of English from becoming better teachers of English.

1.7. Structure of the thesis

This introductory chapter details the main problem that I am interested in investigating in the Libyan ELT context. The chapter also presents the aims that are hoped to be achieved through conducting the research. The main question that guides this study and the sub-questions are presented. The chapter then discusses the rationale for investigating this particular problem, as well as the significance and innovation of the research and why it is important to investigate the problem. It finally presents the design of the study and how the thesis is structured and organised.

In Chapter Two, the literature review, the GTM and the CLT methods are discussed with reference to their applicability in the Libyan ELT context. This chapter also discusses the ELT situations in three non-Arabic countries to ascertain how their

achievements in developing better ELT systems could be applied in Libya. This latter point will be discussed in greater depth in Chapter 6 (Discussion) of this thesis.

Chapter Three discusses constructivism and the Critical Incident Technique (CIT), which respectively inform the research paradigm and the intervention. It also outlines the research design and methods used, the data sources and the participants recruited for the study.

Chapters Four and Five describe the qualitative data gathered through the techniques defined in Chapter Three. Chapter Four provides demographic and socio-cultural data about the PELT participants from surveys and a comparison of the data from pre and post intervention surveys. It also triangulates the survey data with interview responses and analyses secondary school and university English curricula through a discussion of artefacts. It further discusses the assessment, evaluation and grading systems used in the Libyan ELT context. Chapter Five describes the qualitative data gathered through the methods course intervention. It also presents the results for the quantitative pre and posttests of teacher knowledge (TKT).

Chapter Six firstly provides an interpretation of the data and presents the findings identified from a comparison of the themes that arose from the data. The findings are then discussed with reference to the research questions, some possible solutions to the problems identified in the Libyan ELT context are suggested, and these solutions are justified with reference to the literature. Finally, the chapter presents opportunities for further research and draws the conclusions of this research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses English language teaching methods and methodologies that have been used most recently in Libya. The Grammar Translation Method (GTM) is discussed as the most common teaching method in Libya, but the major focus for discussion is the Communicative Language Approach (CLA), which is being introduced to Libyan students in the Agdabia Faculty of Arts and Sciences at the University of Benghazi for the first time. The discussion of the two teaching methods with regard to how they are used in the Libyan English Language Teaching (ELT) context foregrounds a further major discussion in the final chapter of this thesis. Further, the ELT systems of three non-Arabic countries will be reviewed: Finland, South Korea and Japan. Some of the major steps which these countries took to develop better English education systems are discussed. This foregrounds the discussion of the applicability of these initiatives in Libya in the final chapter, bearing in mind the cultural, social and economic differences between these countries and Libya. The discussion does not mean that this discussion is intended to be a comparison between the ELT systems of the non-Arabic countries and that of Libya. The discussion is hoped to provide lessons to learn from when discussing the possible solutions to fix the Libyan ELT system.

2.2. Teaching methods and methodologies

The decision of choosing a specific method for teaching English as a foreign language can be a confusing and a challenging one for any ELT teacher. There is no one ideal method of teaching English as a foreign language that can be effective in teaching all learners of English alike, as noted by Robertson and Acklam (2000) who point out that “there is no single correct way to teach English. There are different theories as to how students learn, so there are different ideas as to what can and should be done in the classroom” (p. 14). Adopting a particular method is also dependent on whether the language being learnt is a foreign or a second language in the context of where it is being learnt. If a second language is used by the individuals in a particular society through their daily interactions, this incidental exposure can greatly assist in learning the second language. A foreign language,

however, can only be learnt in a classroom because the learners have no chance to learn it from their social context because it is not a language that is used in the public domain (Michieka, 2011).

English is regarded as a foreign language in Libya and is not used in the public domain (Othman, Pislaru, Kenan, & Impes, 2013; Rajendran, 2010; Youssef, 2012). The Libyan Ministry of Education introduced new English curricula in 2000 for primary and high schools called the *English for Libya* series (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014). The curricula were introduced in Libya to replace the former English curricula that focused on the teaching of grammar and reading. These new curricula aimed to reform the Libyan ELT context by introducing communicative principles to the Libyan ELT context (Orafi & Borg, 2009). It is beyond the pragmatic scope of this study to assume that any particular approaches or teaching methods are preferred or effective in the Libyan ELT context. This study does not aim to find alternative approaches and methods to teaching in Libya nor does it aim to find or develop alternative curricula to those required by the Libyan Ministry of Education.

In Libyan classrooms, there is currently a discrepancy between the intentions of these curricula and what the Libyan school teachers actually do in classrooms (Emhamed & Krishnan, 2011; Jha, 2014). Orafi and Borg (2009) observed a secondary English classroom in Libya and interviewed the teachers to document their insights and understanding of the implementation of this curriculum. They found evidence that the teachers tend to filter the curricula and teach according to their own beliefs and understandings about and backgrounds in teaching of English rather than teach to achieve the goals and objectives set out by the designers of these curricula.

Thus, regardless of the authenticity and the legitimacy of principles on which an English curriculum is based, the objectives and desired goals of that curriculum will not be achieved if the teachers are not qualified to use it. The Libyan teachers did not understand the goals and objectives of the new curriculum and therefore their personal beliefs about and backgrounds in teaching interfered with and hindered the learners' attempts to develop communicative skills (Omar, 2012).

The Libyan Government made a decision in the 1980s to ban English education and use in the country for over six years (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014). This decision was made due

to the political tensions between the former regime and the West. This ban on English is believed to have contributed significantly to the modest capabilities of the Libyan pre-service teachers of English when they graduate from Libyan universities (Najeeb & Eldokali, 2012; Youssef, 2012). Youssef (2012) also argues that the Libyan students display negative attitudes towards English and learning of English because of the practices of the colonising governments of the countries that occupied Libya at different stages in the past, such as those of the Ottoman and Italian forces that successively took control of Libya before 1969. These governments attempted to replace the Arabic language and destroy the identity of the Libyan population by imposing various rules which included a ban on Arabic education and communication in the Libyan society, sending Libyan families to exile in and outside of Libya, and the killing of Libyans who refused to abide by these rules. The current American strikes and military operations against Arab and Muslim countries in various regions have also escalated this negative attitude towards use of English on the part of the younger Libyan generations. Moreover, other social, cultural and financial issues have fuelled a negative attitude toward teaching English in Libya. Teaching as a profession is one of the lowest paying jobs in Libya. Teachers in general perceive this as a sign of disrespect from the government and also from other people who show no interest in teaching or in being teachers in Libya (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014).

2.2.1. Communicative and traditional styles of education

Generally speaking, a language classroom can be classified as either communicative or traditional (Nunan & Lamb, 2000). But this does not mean that classroom practice is either purely traditional or communicative. Classroom practice can shift between the two styles. To draw a clear-cut distinction between communicative language teaching and traditional teaching, Nunan and Lamb (2000) identified the main differences between communicative language methods and traditional styles of teaching with regard to the theory of how language is perceived in each style of teaching, theories of learning, objectives, syllabuses and activities. They also identified differences between the roles of teachers, learners and study materials in the teaching and learning process. These aspects are summarised in Table 1.

Table 1

Comparison of traditionalism and the Communicative Language Approach

Teaching	Traditionalism	Communicative language
Theory of language	Language is a system of rule-governed structures hierarchically arranged	Language is a system for expression of meaning; primary function: interaction
Theory of learning	Habit formation; skills are learnt more effectively if oral precedes written; analogy not analysis	Activities involving real communication; carrying out meaningful tasks and using language that is meaningful to the learner and promotes learning
Objectives	Control of the structures of sound, form and order, mastery over symbols of the language; goal: native speaker mastery	Objectives will reflect the needs of the learner; they will include functional skills as well as linguistics objectives
Syllabus	Graded syllabus of phonology, morphology and syntax. Contrastive analysis	Will include some or all of the following: structures, functions, notions, themes and tasks. Ordering will be guided by learner needs
Activities	Dialogues and drills; repetition and memorisation; pattern practice	Engage learners in communication; involve processes such as information sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction

Role of learner	Organisms that can be directed by skilled training techniques to produce correct responses	Learner as negotiator, “interactor”; giving as well as taking
Role of teacher	Central and active; teacher-dominated method. Provides model; controls direction and pace	Facilitator of the communication process. Needs analyst, counsellor, process manager
Role of materials	Primarily teacher oriented. Tapes and visuals; language lab often used	Primary role of promoting communicative language use; task-based, authentic materials

Note. Adapted from Nunan and Lamb (2000, p. 31).

Teaching and learning of English in Libya is traditional by the above classification (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014; Omar, 2012). The teacher does most of the “work” whereas the students only listen and receive knowledge. There are several factors that are contributing to this orientation of English education, including the low income of teachers, the large class sizes, the poor administrative practices and the lack of research that shows which style of English education better suits Libyan learners. Moreover, the Libyan learners’ negative attitude towards learning English communicatively and the teachers’ limited capacities to teach according to the communicative approach suggest the implementation of traditional English education in Libya has focused on the teaching of grammar and reading (Emhamed & Krishnan, 2011; Taghavi, 2013), which are characteristics of the GTM.

2.2.2. The Grammar Translation Method

The GTM was recognised in Europe as the “classical method” for teaching the two dominant languages at that time, Greek and Latin, in the middle of the eighteenth century. This method was based on the translation of target language texts for memorisation by the learners and was used to teach the syntactic structures as well as the vocabulary of the target language to the learners (Brown, 2000). The GTM “dominated European and foreign

language teaching from the 1840s to the 1940s, and in modified form it continues to be widely used in some parts of the world today” (p. 6).

At that time, the classical method was the only means by which Latin and Greek were taught. Vocabulary memorisation and teaching the grammatical rules of the target language were the basis of this method. It also depended on translating the target language materials which the learners were required to memorise through their first language. Translation was considered an essential part of this method and an effective contributor to increasing the learner’s ability to use the target language and, above all, to understand its literature. Translation has also continued to be important in teaching other European languages in the mid nineteenth century.

The GTM was first created and used to teach French by its founder, Johann Valentin Meidinger. The first course to teach English through GTM was then developed by Johann Christian Flick in 1793. It was published in Erlangen in Germany. GTM was also referred to as “the grammar school method” in Germany when it first appeared there in the eighteenth century, as well as being known as the “Prussian Method” (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). It was adopted by the Germans as the main method of teaching in the German high schools. This method was the dominant one for teaching foreign languages in Europe, particularly in Germany, until the industrial revolution. The European scholars then had to develop new and more sophisticated methods that met the needs of the modern class of language learners. The classical language method of teaching gained the new name “Grammar Translation Method” in the nineteenth century and is usually referred to as “GTM”. Most of these scholars were relatively highly educated. They tried their best to learn and master their desired foreign languages but the matter of how well and accurately they managed to grasp these languages remained a controversial question (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004).

In the Libyan ELT context, the GTM was first used in the 1980s (Emhamed & Krishnan, 2011). The English teachers in Libya adapted the GTM method according to their own beliefs about and background in teaching (Elabbar, 2011). The Libyan English teachers, in this sense, did not adopt the GTM method as per its universal features but focused only on teaching of grammar and reading as the two main features of the method.

They then adapted all other characteristics according to their own teaching capabilities. These characteristics are now discussed.

2.2.2.1. Characteristics and criticisms of the Grammar Translation Method

In a GTM classroom, the main reason for learning a foreign language is to read its literature and, at the same time, to have academic exercises that help learners to develop cognitive skills for better learning. GTM relies on thoroughly studying the grammatical rules of the target language using the first language of the learners, and then translating into their own native language and vice versa. The main focus is on reading and writing and, hence, listening and speaking are not as important. Bilingual dictionaries and word lists are used to teach vocabulary. Grammar is taught explicitly and the students are expected to memorise grammatical rules from the sentences and texts studied and practised. They are also required to be as accurate as possible in their translations by maintaining word-for-word or literal translations rather than incorporating more common expressions from the target language (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

In presenting his view of the GTM, Brown (2000) adopted the same characteristics as those adopted by Richards and Rodgers (2001). However, Brown's perspective differs in that he emphasises that reading of difficult classical texts should begin early in a GTM class and that the content of the texts should be perceived as less important than form. These texts should be treated as exercises in grammatical analysis.

The development of this method in the nineteenth century did not mean changing the whole foundation of the method. Studying grammatical rules and dependence on translation continued to be its basic characteristics. However, viewing the GTM as an "ideal" and "efficient" way to master any foreign language at that time was only true from the point of view of the academics who undertook individual learning. It was almost impossible to implement this method in teaching a group of young students in the classroom. Memorisation of grammar and translation would normally require extended periods of time; therefore this method did not prove practical for use in secondary and high schools where classrooms are typically overcrowded. However, some people still insist that the method was seen as effective and it was not criticised for this purpose. Howatt and Widdowson (2004), for example, argued that "It was the special status accorded to the

sentence, at the expense of the text, that attracted the most outspoken criticism of the reformers later in the century, not the use of grammar as such” (p. 152).

GTM is one of the oldest, if not the oldest, methods of teaching foreign languages and is still a preferred method of teaching by some foreign language teachers (Brown, 2000). Despite the wide use of the GTM, however, some language specialists criticise it for various reasons. Brown (2001), for instance, argues that the method requires the learner to start reading difficult classical texts as soon as they start the learning process. It does not motivate the learners to focus on the content of the texts, which are to be studied only for the sake of translation. In this sense, it can cause the learners to get used to memorisation of information as a sole way of learning, which may affect their learning. This may also prevent them from developing other creative skills such as judging and thinking critically about what they are being asked to learn. He also highlights as a main practical failing that the method neglects pronunciation and listening.

Lightbown (2000) argues that the GTM fails to develop fluency and accuracy. Therefore, some other approaches which focus on communicative competence (Hymes, 1972; see the discussion in Section 2.3.2), such as the CLA, have been adopted for teaching worldwide. She also argues that there is scarce research supporting the GTM and therefore she questions the authenticity and reliability of the method for language teaching. She points out that it is evident that correction of isolated explicit errors of learners, a central component of the GTM, is ineffective in changing language behaviour (Lightbown, 1991). She argues that error feedback is legitimate but has to be sustained over a period of time. It must also focus on something that is not beyond the learner’s ability to learn. Moreover, she argues that insisting on grammatical correctness can hinder the motivation of the learners. Thus, ELT teachers should focus on fluency first and then accuracy. She justifies this claim, saying that learners of foreign languages are expected to make errors which are similar to the errors that young children make when they start learning their first language.

Having discussed the characteristics and criticism of the GTM, the GTM is discussed in the Libyan context.

2.2.2.2. Use of the Grammar Translation Method in Libya

The GTM has always been the only method for teaching English in secondary and high schools in Libya (Alrahy, 2008; Emhamed & Krishnan, 2011). It is also still common in

Libyan universities (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014). However, the method does not seem to be adopted in the Libyan ELT context as per its universal characteristics presented in the preceding section. Traditional grammar is usually the main focus in teaching English in these Libyan schools and universities (Jha, 2014). Traditional grammar instruction focuses on the correct form of grammar and not on how grammar functions. Omar (2012) points out that learning of English in Libya has failed to help learners to use English in real-life situations. He traces this failure back to a focus on teaching grammar and reading at the expense of speaking and listening. Libyan learners of English are not required to use the grammatical rules to construct different sentences from what is being taught in the classrooms.

The medium of instruction in Libyan English classrooms is mainly Arabic (Shihiba, 2011). English is not generally used for the sake of “pleasure” or communication, either in or outside classrooms. Arabic is the only language used in the Libyan society and therefore learners of English do not have any opportunities to practise it for communicative purposes. The presence of the target language is particularly important in any foreign or second language learning context. The presence of the target language assists the learner in developing better skills in that language through exposure to the language in or outside of the classroom (Michieka, 2011). Omar (2012) also says that for Libyan students and teachers, English is considered only a subject to be passed and not a language to be learnt. The students are required to get specific scores in order to pass to the next year. The more grammatical forms and vocabulary the students memorise, the higher scores they get at the exit points. This might reveal that the teachers’ background and beliefs about teaching English contribute to the students’ tendency to focus on passing their courses and neglect achieving any communicative purposes in their learning.

Another reason for adopting the GTM in Libyan schools and universities is that the teachers of English in Libya usually receive their education through this method and so they become acquainted with it. Elabbar (2011), for instance, argues that the acquisition of foreign languages in Libya is perceived as better done through a behaviourist paradigm. He also argues that there is no rule that governs the choice of teaching methods or curricula at the university and that therefore Libyan teachers tend to maintain the “Libyan version of GTM” (p. 38). This version, according to Elabbar (2011), may be slightly different from

standard GTM as it usually has a mix of features of other methods which are randomly selected by teachers depending on the personal beliefs and background of the teacher and the type of learners, as well as the level of and reason for learning.

Libyan ELT teachers believe that Libyan students are generally so weak in terms of using English communicatively that it might be inconvenient for them to use some other methods in teaching that require the students to show an outstanding command of widely unpractised activities such as listening and speaking (Elabbar, 2011). They are accustomed to memorisation and therefore the GTM suits their learning background. Brown (2000) explains that the GTM remains popular worldwide as “It requires few specialised skills on the part of teachers. Test of grammar rules and of translations are easy to construct and can be objectively scored” (p. 19). In contrast to the GTM is the CLA, which is now discussed.

2.3. The Communicative Language Approach

Different opinions exist with regard to the origins of the CLA². Nunan and Lamb (2000), for example, state that it was invented as a synthesis of several disparate sources. As the perspectives changed about the nature of language and learning in the 1970s and 1980s, applied linguists and language educators tried to reform the whole pedagogical process in accordance with a new perspective on learning languages. This reformation was mainly concerned with the roles of both teachers and learners in this process.

Another common belief for the origin of the CLA is explained by Savignon (1991), who suggests it arose to meet the needs of the immigrants in Europe. In the 1970s, the Council of Europe adopted this method to help the new immigrants with different languages to interact and live normally in each particular European society. This method was meant to focus on functional–notional language use. In a functional–notional approach teachers analyse what students need and design the kind of language instruction accordingly.

Hedge (2000) dates the “invention” of the CLA back to the 1960s when Chomsky raised the two concepts of “competence” and “performance” in response to the principles of the audio-lingual method which was common in language teaching at that time. Later on,

² The term CLA is used interchangeably in this research with Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) as they both refer to teaching that is aligned with the communicative purposes of the CLA.

Hymes (1971) developed his “communicative competence” theory inspired by Chomsky’s competence and performance concepts.

The CLA arrived as a response to the dominant traditional style of teaching before the 1970s (Lightbown, 2000). Therefore, it challenged the concept of teaching and learning of languages through a focus on structural “form”. Language is a set of structures and functions, but it is also a method of communication between people. So, greater emphasis needs to be placed on how the language should be used for communication, instead of just studying its form. Learners should learn how to develop their own linguistic skills in realistic communicative tasks. The fulfilment of the goals of the tasks being carried out by the learners is as important for the learners as the acquisition of the language itself.

While the teacher should not participate in these activities, the teacher should supervise the activities and be remote from the interaction to allow the learners to practise various types of verbal communication to build up their linguistic knowledge. The more the learners practise these activities, the more they are likely to develop their linguistic skills as quickly and accurately as possible. The teacher is just a facilitator who manages the communications, and the learners are encouraged to use various kinds of dialogues and not to adhere to one kind of language structure. Their prime concern should be the potential meaning that they intend to convey, not only the form of the language they learn. It is a crucial requirement of this method that the learner maintains a communicative discussion with other learners and has a specific message in mind that is to be delivered to peers (Harmer, 2007).

Harmer (2007) differentiates between two kinds of communicative activities in the classroom. He says that communicative activities vary from very communicative to very non-communicative depending on the style of communication used by the learners. If a student, for example, keeps asking his classmates different questions but using the same structures (e.g. What is your favourite colour? What is your favourite beverage? What is your favourite music?), then he is most likely approaching a non-communicative kind of activity. Alternatively, an activity in which two students are interviewing each other about a play they have watched can be classified as a very communicative activity.

Despite these widely differing views of the communicative approaches to teaching as opposed to the traditional approaches, research (Kirkpatrick & Jianrattanapong, 2010)

shows that using a mix of the techniques of the two approaches can be helpful to teachers in achieving learning objectives. The research reveals that the use of the mother tongue in the classroom can help learners in understanding the communicative techniques of the CLA and in maintaining long-lasting comprehension of the target language.

The Libyan Government had intentions to introduce English communicative curricula and learner-centred orientation in Libyan schools in the mid-1990s, but these attempts were hindered by the teachers' limited capacities and other logistic reasons related to the lack of educational equipment and an environment which encourages the implementation of any communicative activities (Shihiba, 2011; Tamtam, Gallagher, Olabi, & Naher, 2011). The Libyan Ministry of Education did not accompany the introduction of the new communicative curriculum with any professional development courses for teachers to enable them to deliver this curriculum to their students through communicative instruction (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014).

Thus, the English teachers in Libya do not teach according to any communicative principles, nor do they purposely mix the techniques of the two opposing approaches (the GTM and the CLA) to achieve any particular objectives. Jha (2014) argues that the English teachers in Libya are not acquainted with the features and techniques of both approaches. They claim that they use the CLA but the reality is that they use more traditional approaches to teaching. He further says that the teachers either choose the wrong teaching methods or use the teaching methods wrongly. In the former case, the teachers choose the wrong method for the wrong learners with regard to their English levels and background. In the latter case, teachers adopt the method without knowing its features, techniques or the objectives that can be achieved through it. Therefore, they randomly select teaching techniques without any consideration of why they are using them or how they should be used. The techniques in this case are mainly traditional and aim at teaching and memorisation rather than learning and understanding, even though the teachers still insist that they use communicative techniques.

The first challenge for using the CLA in Libyan universities is the excessive use of the GTM and adaptation of traditional techniques in teaching (Youssef, 2012). Students, for example, rely on translation into Arabic in or outside of their classroom to understand English. Elabbar (2011) and Omar (2012) state that there is a common belief in Libya that

translation is an efficient way to learn a foreign language, including English. Generally, the use of the mother tongue in English classrooms in other Arabic ELT contexts is further perceived as mandatory. In Saudi Arabia, for instance, which has a similar ELT system to that of Libya, Alshammari (2011) argues that even though the teachers in Saudi Arabia emphasise the use of English with their students, they tend usually to speak in Arabic as a last resort to convey what they have in mind to their students quickly and accurately.

The use of Arabic to help in explaining instructions is not what Libyan teachers of English do in classrooms to convey the important messages to the learners. The teachers talk in Arabic for most of the class time and students only write information in their notebooks for memorisation, even in spoken English classes (Orafi & Borg, 2009). In other words, Arabic is not only a part of the English classrooms in the Libyan ELT context but is also the only language used for delivering spoken English lessons.

The overall attitude towards English and the learning of English is also a point of ongoing debate among Libyan and non-Libyan English language teachers. It is believed to be another major barrier to adapting the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in this ELT context. There is wide agreement that Libyan teachers and learners of English display negative attitudes towards learning it (e.g. Youssef, 2012; Zainol Abidin, Mohammadi, & Alzwari, 2012). However, some (e.g. Soliman, 2013) argue that the Libyans in general have a positive attitude towards learning English but that logistic problems and poor administrative practices in the education sector negatively contribute to attitude formation among the Libyan learners and teachers.

ELLs who are non-native speakers of Arabic (e.g. Rajendran, 2010) complain that students do not appreciate communicating in English in the classroom and that the students often demand translation, which reflects the lack of interest in communicating in English among the Libyan students. Moreover, the Libyan ELLs are not acquainted with the pronunciation of English, the grammar and the culture, and these issues remain obstacles to their adapting CLT for their classrooms. Libyan teachers typically receive their English education in Libya, where Arabic language and culture are the only dominant and available mediums of communication.

The lack of communication skills of English teachers is overcome in other countries such as Thailand (Kirkpatrick & Jianrattanapong, 2010) and South Korea (Chung & Choi,

2014) by employing English teachers from English-speaking countries. Kirkpatrick and Jianrattanapong (2010) point out that English teachers in six leading high schools in Thailand teach the learners strategies for learning and help them to develop motivation to learn English before they start the learning process. The teachers motivate their students in these schools in Thailand by explaining the importance of English in today's world. Teachers use the first language (L1) to explain and give instructions but they carry out all the learning activities in English. The teachers also refrain from direct teaching and focus on inductive learning through group learning activities to encourage discovery and critical thinking. They motivate the learners to comprehend the rules and grammatical structures from the overall context. The teachers in these schools also use scaffolding (Ohta, 2000), which refers to helping the learners in learning activities so that they can eventually perform these activities themselves without any help from their teachers. All these teaching techniques, according to Kirkpatrick and Jianrattanapong (2010), contributed to helping the learners develop better communicative skills.

In Libyan government schools, the classes are usually overcrowded (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014). Overcrowded classrooms do not provide students with a suitable environment in which to take turns and practise the target language communicatively; also the allotted class time may be insufficient for all students to practise (Emhamed & Krishnan, 2011; Soliman, 2013). Moreover, students with the same low English level are grouped in the same class (i.e. streamed) so they are unable to benefit from each other as suggested by Vygotsky's (1978) Zone of Proximal Development theory on learning. This is different from other countries, where students with different English levels are mixed together so that the students with low English levels can benefit from their more capable peers. For example, Kirkpatrick and Jianrattanapong (2010) report that in Thailand learners of English whose English capacities vary from poor to advanced are grouped in the same class so that those with poor English skills can improve by collaborative engagement in classroom activities with their mixed-ability peers.

All of the barriers discussed above seem to contribute to the current traditional status of English teaching in Libya. Up to the time when this research was conducted, no research was found that examined the applicability of these techniques used in other ELT contexts in Libya. Therefore, it is among the goals of this research to fill this gap in the

literature and provide research-based evidence on whether these techniques are adaptable to the Libyan ELT context.

2.3.1. Competence and performance

Competence and performance are discussed here as two important concepts that are central to the creation of the CLA. The concepts were first discussed by Chomsky (1965) when he distinguished between *competence*, which comprises knowledge of grammar, syntax, lexicology and phonology of the first language, whereas *performance* comprises the ability to use this knowledge for actual communication. He argues that mastery of these aspects of a particular language does not necessarily mean the ability to use that language. However, unlike the non-native speaker–hearer of a second or foreign language, the speaker–hearer of a particular first language who knows the language well would be fluent in performance as there will be no interference from such problems as “memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest and errors” (Chomsky, 1965, p. 3).

From what has been presented in earlier sections of this chapter, it can be anticipated that the Libyan ELT context centres on competence and not on performance. The English study materials used by ELT lecturers at Libyan universities are not usually made interesting for the learners by maintaining any interesting learning activities for the learners to engage in and benefit from. Even when the materials suggest any learning activities, the ELT lecturers do not usually encourage the learners to participate in them (Jha, 2014; Zainol Abidin, Mohammadi & Alzwari, 2012). Jha (2014) also states that despite the presence of language laboratories and other learning equipment in Libyan universities, the ELT lecturers still prefer using the “talk and chalk” style of teaching. Thus, the teachers’ role is to give instructions and convey knowledge, while the learners develop only competence and are not required to show any performance. In other words, the ELT lecturers in Libya cannot help their students to use the content they study at the university in real-life situations and to translate it into actual performance.

Performance does not directly reflect competence. For example, it could be difficult, for both a learner and a linguist, to determine the amount of rules that the learner has internalised just by observing performance. In normal speech, a speaker may make mistakes, hesitate, be confused about what to say and make irrelevant or logically unacceptable statements. Chomsky considers linguistic ability as meta-linguistic because

“it is concerned with discovering a mental reality underlying actual behavior” (Chomsky, 1965, p. 4). Thus, an indication of what this mental reality is can be obtained by observing the learner’s actual performance and habits. However, this data, according to Chomsky, cannot be considered the subject matter of the serious academic field of linguistics (Chomsky, 1965).

The language testing system in Libyan ELT does not evaluate students’ performance, nor does it provide any formative evaluation to inform possible solutions to overcome learning difficulties that the students may be encountering. The current testing system in Libya is solely paper based and no oral or listening exams are conducted. This has created both English and examination phobias amongst Libyan students. Therefore, the students tend to rely on cheating, guessing the parts of curriculum that may be included in the exams, and memorisation. Their performance in written examinations does not reflect their competence either, because they take these examinations under heavy stress and fear of failing. Libyan ELT lecturers also prefer multiple choice exams as they are less time consuming for marking (Jha, 2014).

Villacanas de Castro (2013) points out that the reliance on such a testing system is among the negative consequences that may occur as a result of adapting textbook-based instruction in classrooms. When the teachers adopt textbook-based instruction, their job becomes less demanding as they will not have to spend time and effort preparing for their lessons by planning lessons and learning activities or by organising the class. They will not have to attend to their learners’ needs nor their preferred strategies for learning, their existing knowledge and their experiences, as they would if using social constructivist pedagogy. This refers in particular to Vygotsky’s social interactionist approach to learning (Vygotsky, 1978). The approach emphasises the role of the environment and the social interaction of individuals with other peers in order for learning to take place more effectively. Villacanas de Castro (2013) as well as Hashemi (2011) and Wedell (2003) also recommend that throughout teaching of a foreign or second language the teachers should consider drawing all possible links between the students’ culture and English culture. Teaching English through social constructivism makes learning more authentic and more effective.

2.3.2. Varying views on competence and performance

Hymes (1971) argues that in order for the learners of a particular language to use it, they need to develop a communicative competence in it. In other words, they must have the ability to use that language in its own social context. Canale and Swain (1980), however, view this relationship between competence and performance differently. They say that competence involves an interaction with grammatical knowledge that we have in our minds about our first languages. Performance, however, has to do with a set of psychological factors that influence our natural speech, which can make it acceptable or unacceptable, organised or disorganised, consistent or inconsistent. Therefore, they believe in the importance of the psychological factors which may interrupt or speed up our performance and govern our speech. They view performance as closer to our psychological states than to our grammatical knowledge.

In addition to Hymes, Chomsky's two concepts were criticised by other major scholars in the field. Halliday (1970) as well as Campbell and Wales (1970), for example, interpreted Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance as a perspective that has a strong side and a weaker one. They considered Chomsky's distinction between the knowledge of a language and the ability to use it mainly as the weaker side. However, the stronger part of Chomsky's distinction, according to them, is that a competent person is someone who has a linguistic knowledge of his own language. They consider, however, that performance *is* dealing with psychological factors that affect human speech, such as organising a dialogue and initiating or supporting a claim. In other words, people differ in their abilities to express themselves but that does not mean that they do not have the same knowledge about their first language.

Savignon (1991) rejects what she considered a misleading dichotomy in CLA, which is the distinction between the two terms: *fluency* and *accuracy*. She gave two reasons for rejecting this distinction. First, this distinction suggests that the form of a message, in some way, is irrelevant to its meaning and, therefore, separates grammatical learning from the overall learning environment. Thus, accuracy, according to Savignon, is concerned with the study of morphology, phonology and syntax and therefore cannot make room for the context role in enhancing the learner's self-expression, while fluency is concerned with the speed or ease of self-expression, "which may or may not enhance communicative

effectiveness” (Savignon, 1991, p. 269). Lightbown (2000), however, argues that doing well on a foreign language test does not necessarily mean the ability to carry out a spontaneous conversation: understanding the rules of a language does not lead to the ability to use it for communicative interaction.

In this regard, Lightbown (2000) recommends a compromise. She points out that explaining rules explicitly in a CLA classroom can help learners to maintain more effective learning of the target language. Her argument is very clear as she says that advanced knowledge and use of grammar can only be achieved through advanced communication in the context of the target language. She argues that this is the best way to maintain an effective teaching and learning process and obtain the desired results.

The process of teaching and learning of a particular language is not just concerned with studying its grammar alone or with the psychological factors that may influence our use of it. The issue of how a language functions in a particular socio-cultural context of a given society is of equal importance to the grammatical and the psychological issues. Therefore, it is an essential part of the CLA to allow the learners to use the language in realistic socio-cultural situations and get “involved in meaning-focused communicative tasks, then language learning will take care of itself” (Harmer, 2007, p. 69).

The spread of the CLA in the 1980s was not based on research into acquisition of second languages but rather on the British school of thought in the 1980s and the functional–notional syllabus movement in the UK at that time (Lightbown, 2000; Mitchell, 2000). The British school of thought was developed as a result of prolonged discussions between British linguists such as Breen, Brumfit, Candlin, Widdowson and Wilkins. They argued that structure-based instruction is not the best kind of instruction to help learners acquire the language they desire. They believed in acquiring language in a real context so the learners can have an interest in what they are to communicate. They can then also have goals to achieve out of this communication, rather than studying the form of the language for its own sake. This approach was believed to help in increasing the motivation of the learners because of the communicative interaction they have throughout their learning (Lightbown, 2000).

The supporters of the functional–notional syllabus movement in the UK have also proposed that the syllabus for language learning can be arranged according to a specific

order that can better serve the learners and meet their needs. Instead of starting from basic grammatical rules and structures, the learners can start learning through language functions: how to ask for peoples' names and how to thank and invite them. They can then gradually learn more challenging tasks such as writing reports and expressing intentions. They can also start with learning vocabulary that is more relevant to their own purposes for learning the language. This argument, however, was criticised by some linguists (e.g. Widdowson, 1978) for breaking down language into disconnected units. These linguists considered that language should be learnt in the reality of its complex discourse in context (Lightbown, 2000).

The applicability of a functional–notional syllabus in Libya is problematic. The Libyan Government has adopted this orientation but Libyan learners of English do not have the basic knowledge of how English functions and are not familiar with the meanings of the simplest English vocabulary such as “money” or “bank”, for instance (Rajnedran, 2010). Another challenge is the teacher's background and beliefs about English and teaching of English, which hinders any attempts to introduce this syllabus in Libyan schools (Orafi & Borg, 2009; Youssef, 2012).

The focus on grammatical correctness and the role of the teachers and textbooks in English education in Libya in the last few decades was deemed unsuccessful in helping the students to develop any communicative skills in English (Jha, 2014; Omar, 2012) or even descriptive knowledge of English grammar (Rajnedran, 2010). Libyan learners also start learning English after the age of 12 years, which makes developing both competence and performance hard to achieve. Libyan students also study English for less than three hours a week, which is insufficient for developing English skills. This is especially true in that they have no other opportunities for exposure to English anywhere in their society (Jha, 2014).

The Libyan ELT context has been criticised for focusing on competence and neglecting performance (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014). This was the main reason for this study to investigate whether competence or performance should be the priority for developing better English skills. The Libyan pre service teachers of English will be provided with a performance-based English course through this study to determine if they can develop better English-teaching knowledge and skills through taking this course than through what they learn in their regular university education.

2.3.3. The communicative curriculum's design and purpose

There is common agreement among educators that the main goal of the communicative curriculum should be the use of language in real communicative activities. Learners must be able to use the language in real-life situations outside the classroom. However, Nunan and Lamb (2000), Savignon (1991), Breen and Candlin (1980), and McCarthy and Carter (2000), for instance, have different perspectives in terms of what a communicative curriculum is or how it should be constructed on the basis of the theoretical framework of the *communicative competence* set out by Hymes (1971). Nevertheless, they all maintain that meaningful communicative experiences which approximate real-life activities that occur in the daily life of the people of any society are central to any effective learning in the classroom. They also believe that learners should be more involved in their own learning to develop their learning skills, self-confidence and the ability to self-assess their progress.

One opposing view is that of McCarthy and Carter (2000), who do agree that a typical communicative syllabus should determine a range of communicative abilities that the learners should master at the end of their course (e.g. making phone calls, making short notes on a given topic, inviting others to attend a party or a conference). However, they claim that there is evidence to suggest that focusing exclusively on communicative abilities might not necessarily lead to achieving the communicative goals set out by the syllabus designers. They argue that, in Malaysia, for example, when the communicative syllabus was adopted to teach English to Malaysian learners, the method was criticised by Malaysian linguists such as Mohideen (1991) for failing to realise its communicative goals in the Malaysian context.

The main focus of the Malaysian syllabus was to develop the communicative abilities of the Malaysian learners without focusing on correctness of grammar and vocabulary. This syllabus was criticised both for putting much of the focus on communicative competence on the one hand and for neglecting formal correctness on the other. What is important in the communicative teaching–learning process is that the learners develop fluency in the target language and that the lexical and grammatical components that constitute the communication are de-emphasised. That is why it is also known as the ‘fluency first’ method (Mohideen, 1991).

Despite this adoption of the CLA in the Malaysian educational context, Mustapha and Yahaya (2013) argue that the students in Malaysia could not develop communicative skills in English because of the teachers' poor knowledge about the approach, which is reflected in their practices in classrooms. Other challenges to the implementation of the CLA in Malaysia included the different L1 and cultural backgrounds of the students in the same classes, which should be considered by the Malaysian Government when revising the curricula (Raissi & Nor, 2013).

Similarly, the communicative curriculum introduced in Libyan schools is close-ended (Shihiba, 2011). It was designed in the early 2000s and introduced without any major changes and no allowance for flexibility for teachers to use supplementary resources in order to meet the specific learner needs of Libyan students. The only time this curriculum was revised was after the 2011 revolution in Libya, to remove the content that included the former political regime's social and economic perspectives, photos and the former flag of the country (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014). The teacher's book that accompanies each learning level mandates how to deliver the curriculum in a particular sequence. The teachers are also monitored by educational inspectors from the Ministry of Education and therefore must cover all the given content within the given timeframe without the possibility of using any extra supplementary materials (Shihiba, 2011; Emhamed & Krishnan, 2011).

However, most teachers do not use the teacher's book and find it unrealistic to teach through the CLA or to adopt any functional strategies of language teaching (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014; Orafi & Borg, 2009). The Libyan Government realised the importance of adopting a communicative curriculum to help Libyan learners develop better communicative skills in English. However, it neglected other important aspects to implement this plan, such as providing the teachers with professional development courses so that they can deliver this curriculum as intended by the government (Emhamed & Krishnan, 2011; Ibrahim & Carey, 2014). The focus is still mainly on teaching of grammatical correctness in Libyan English classrooms rather than on developing communicative skills. The teachers' role is to describe grammar and present the correct forms to the students rather than on how grammar functions in its natural context (Abukhattala, 2013; Jha, 2014).

The choice of English study materials at the university level in Libya is typically dependent on the ELT lecturers. The selected materials are typically handouts, usually taken from textbooks which may or may not be relevant to the students' background and the objectives of their course (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014). The ELT lecturers do not select authentic materials which can be linked to students' real-life, daily communications and introduce them to the English language and culture as well. The Libyan students' sole reliance on these resources has led to developing a culture of using them as the only resources for learning English (Jha, 2014). Guariento and Morley (2001) argue that the use of authentic English curriculum materials helps in bridging the gap between classroom learning and real-life situations in the outside world. Authentic materials can be spoken or written, as long as they are used in the real world. In this sense, train station or airport announcements, tourist guides and shopping brochures are examples of these materials. The authors also say that authentic texts can provide an environment conducive to interactive learning in the classroom.

Although the use of authentic materials is not considered important in the Libyan ELT context, some Libyan ELT lecturers have positive attitudes towards the use of authentic materials in classrooms (Soliman, 2013). Authentic videos can help the learners develop better communicative competence. Authentic reading, writing and listening materials can also be a great aid to the learners for developing better English skills. Nevertheless, barriers such as the strong presence of Arabic language and culture as well as the use of traditional teaching styles represent a challenge for these ELT lecturers to adopt these materials.

The earlier learners of English start learning with authentic English materials, the better learning they can achieve and the faster they can learn in later levels (Soliman, 2013). This is particularly true of learners with poor English. Learning English through authentic materials also provides the learners with the necessary motivation for more effective and ongoing learning, but this requires similar motivation on the part of the teacher (Soliman, 2013).

The CLA is an approach that comprises several teaching methods which are unified by the principle of helping the learners to develop communicative skills in the target language. Due to the complexity of this approach, there have been several misconceptions

about it (Thompson, 1996). Savignon (1991) suggests that the communicative curriculum should include simulated role plays to emphasise fluency and spoken language drills in the target language to achieve formal accuracy. She believes that role plays are of primary importance as the learner will use them to perform in the target language. They can be a great aid for students to negotiate meaning and to express themselves.

Hall (2000) considers the need to communicate a crucial issue in learning any language. He also finds it necessary for the learners to be involved in situations where they can communicate using the target language in order for them to effectively learn it. He points out that learners cannot really be given the chance to carry out any real communication unless they have something to communicate, a communication partner(s) and some interest in the outcome of the communication. He also argues that these three requirements cannot be provided in all classrooms. For example, it might be challenging to have 30 or 40 learners in a classroom with the teacher needing to communicate what is required using the target language at all times.

Breen and Candlin (1980), discussed this issue at a more fundamental pedagogical level. They say that, before a communicative curriculum can be designed, designers need to consider three questions which must be clearly addressed:

- What is to be learned?
- How is the learning to be undertaken and achieved?
- To what extent is the latter effective in achieving the goals of the former?

They suggest thinking about possible answers to these questions before any communicative curriculum can be established. They state:

A communicative curriculum will place language teaching within the framework of this relationship between some specific purposes, the methodology will be the means towards the achievement of those purposes, and the evaluation procedures will assess the appropriateness of the methodology (p. 89).

They, therefore, emphasise the importance of the content and how to teach it to learners. They also highlight the significant role that evaluation and assessment processes play in providing learners with reflective feedback. These factors should be considered as important parts of the language learning processes and curricula. However, as

communication is interpersonal, these conventions may vary from one learner to another. Personal attitudes, judgment and feelings are thought to be highly affected and actually created by the conventions which dictate the ideas, concepts and interpersonal behaviour (Breen & Candlin, 1980). In other words, it might be hard for a learner to learn how to communicate using a foreign language without being influenced by his own psychological, emotional and ideological experiences. This issue has been referred to as “mother tongue influence” or “mother tongue interference” (Muriungi & Mbui, 2013). Therefore, all these factors should be taken into account when designing and developing a communicative curriculum. The learners are expected to communicate using the target language in an authentic cultural and social context. Thus, learning to communicate requires acquiring knowledge of these conventions that dictate the communicative performance of the target language.

None of these requirements for maintaining a CLA English classroom seem to exist in the Libyan context. The English language and culture are not present in Libya (Othman, Pislaru, Kenan, & Impes, 2013; Rajendran, 2010; Youssef, 2012), and the main goal of education in Libya is to pass exams and obtain high scores (Alhmali, 2007; Zainol Abidin, Mohammadi, & Alzwari, 2012). Thus, students and teachers have no knowledge about the English culture nor have they any interest in achieving any communicative purposes in their English classes. Many Libyan students think that they can live happily with speaking Arabic only and therefore they do not exert much effort in learning a different language (Youssef, 2012).

In addition, classes in Libya are typically overcrowded, which does not facilitate communicative activities such as role plays, group work or dialogues (Jha, 2014; Shihiba, 2011). Large portions of the communication in English classrooms are made in Arabic, even in spoken English classes (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014). This shows that the students do not have much content to communicate nor have they any assistance from their teachers to maintain communicative learning of English.

Another barrier for student–student communication in Libyan mixed classes is the presence of students of both genders in the same class. The Libyan culture is sensitive to male–female communication (Abubaker, 2008). Young Libyan students do not maintain direct eye contact or negotiations with older people such as parents or grandparents as a

sign of respect. The same is true for superiors, which creates another barrier for students to communicate with their teachers (Wei & Mayouf, 2009).

Deciding about the direction of negotiation of the communicative tasks and activities carried out by the learners should also be one of the factors that a communicative curriculum has to consider as part of its content. It should suggest the direction of negotiation between the learners, learners and teachers, and finally learners and the texts. When designing a communicative curriculum, deciding what the responsibilities of the learners are in this process is also among the most important things to consider. The nature, implementation and evaluation of the things the learners will be required to do might sabotage the process as a whole. If they are overwhelmed with work and unrealistic tasks that are not carried out for the sake of actual communication, they may not get the benefits expected by using this method, nor will they develop their own learning skills. The same is true if they are not given sufficient techniques that help them learn how to self-assess, evaluate themselves and provide the teachers with true and reflective details about their progress (Breen & Candlin, 1980).

The direction of negotiation in Libyan English classrooms is entirely governed by the teacher (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014). The students are only to receive the knowledge that is transferred to them from the textbooks through their teachers. They are usually required to abide by the teachers' instructions and carry out all learning activities as required by the teachers. The students are also required to memorise knowledge and prepare for the exams from close-ended study materials. The exams are mainly paper based and all assessment is carried out by the teachers. The teachers do not allow peer assessment sessions, for example. The students do not have to reflect on how they feel about their own learning or what they have learnt throughout their courses (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014; Shihiba, 2011).

In Libyan teacher-centred classrooms the students are typically encouraged to maintain individual, teacher–student, unidirectional reception of knowledge. Students do not negotiate knowledge or interact, especially in mixed classes, and their knowledge about English and English culture is poor (Emhamed & Krishnan, 2011; Jha, 2014). The Libyan culture is also sensitive to male–female interaction or communication, unless with siblings or family members. This cultural norm probably represents another challenge for teachers

in mixed classes in determining both the existing knowledge of the Libyan learners and their existing skills in acquiring English.

The teachers, in this sense, might not be able to decide whether to use any particular supplementary resources, for instance, or to help the students develop any particular skills in learning English, simply because they do not know what skills and knowledge about English students already have. When this happens, the teachers tend to withdraw from the role of learning facilitator and their role becomes only to transmit knowledge because the teachers do not know how to deal with the students' individual needs (Villacanas de Castro, 2013).

2.3.4. How can the communicative curriculum purposes be achieved?

The process of language learning using a communicative curriculum is a natural result of interaction and the active involvement of all those and everything involved in this process (i.e. teachers, learners, books, teaching aids and facilities) (Nunan & Lamb, 2000; Savignon, 1991). Therefore, the productive relationship between using the language and learning it is a key issue. This relationship may be used to enhance the participation quality and effectiveness in communication between the teachers and learners using texts, activities and meta-communication about the texts. In other words, target repertoire is different from the communicative knowledge which underlies it (Breen & Candlin, 1980). This distinction is helpful to create an effective communicative methodology as it classifies the difference between learning, activities, the kinds of texts that the learners prefer using in their own learning, and the way they use their abilities and skills to master the knowledge.

Moreover, the communicative curriculum should make use of the potential of the teaching-learning context of the classroom as a good source of providing the learners with the realistic communicative activities that help them learn to communicate better in real-life situations. In this case, and as Breen and Candlin (1980) put it, learning can be achieved in two ways: it can be achieved through the “informal” language learning contexts outside of the classroom on the one hand, or through the “formal” learning in the classroom on the other. Villacanas de Castro (2013) further argues that when the teachers encounter difficulties in achieving the learning objectives because of the limited linguistic abilities of their students, the teachers should make use of the other psychological and social aspects of the students to make learning happen.

There are several challenges if any communicative curriculum is to be implemented in Libyan English classrooms. Apart from the lack of knowledge about English language and culture by students and teachers, the classrooms are not equipped with any educational facilities or devices, nor are they acoustically treated to allow communication to be maintained between students and teachers. Typically, classrooms are not equipped with carpets and are acoustically live. Therefore they are designed for only one person to speak at a time (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014). Thus, the classroom environment only encourages teacher-centred instruction that is based on textbooks and use of whiteboards and markers.

2.3.5. How to teach grammar in the Communicative Language Approach?

One of the major controversial issues about the CLA is the way grammar should be taught. Some (e.g. Canale & Swain, 1980; Savignon, 1991) argue that grammatical knowledge should be obtained through exposure to language. Others (e.g. McCarthy & Carter, 2000) say that it should be taught separately first and then drills and activities can be carried out to practice using the rules and grammatical information that have been studied in actual communication. Grammar may also be taught at the end of a lesson after the Presentation, Practice, Production (PPP) is finished. The teacher's first presentation of the lesson only involves the teacher's modelling of the language and does not involve any explanation of grammar. A third way to teach grammar in communicative methodology is to focus on interaction in the classroom where students speak and listen to each other and then they study grammar and reading after the class to improve their vocabulary and grammar capacities (Kirkpatrick & Ghaemi, 2011). Kirkpatrick and Ghaemi (2011) maintain that, as long as students are motivated to learn English and they can learn grammar through speaking and listening in classrooms and then reinforce this learning with study of grammar after class, the learning process will be more effective and rewarding.

Direct grammar teaching has been gradually replaced in many ELT classrooms worldwide by a focus on language in use, with the emergence of the notion of communicative competence (Hunter, 2009). The current thinking is that language learners acquire their knowledge of the language incidentally through the communicative activities they perform in the classroom (e.g. booking a hotel room or making a phone call). It is generally held that grammar learning can successfully occur through these meaningful learning activities. Grammar, according to Thompson (1996), should occupy a substantial

amount of the class time. However, this does not mean a return to a traditional view of teaching, as many people think. Rather, it is a shift “from the teacher covering grammar to the learners discovering grammar” (p. 11). Grammar is too complex to be taught to learners in this simplified process. The learners are exposed to the new language first and then they discuss the grammar under the guidance of their teachers. It then becomes easier to discuss the details of the components of that knowledge (or the grammar) because the knowledge lies inside them.

Nassaji and Fotos (2011) also point out that using the CLA does not mean neglecting grammar instruction in the classroom. Therefore, the CLA emphasises the use of grammar as well as meaningful communication in the classroom, and does not privilege meaning at the expense of grammatical accuracy. Grammar instruction should be made within a meaningful communicative context. The teachers according to Nassaji and Fotos (2011) also need to be good decision makers with regard to how to use a mix of classroom instruction techniques depending on the needs of their learners and the way the learners process classrooms instruction. This latter point refers to understanding the way the learners process input so that the teachers can decide on how to effectively compose classroom instructional activities.

McCarthy and Carter (2000) further argue that the communicative abilities that linguists claim to be the focus of any communicative curriculum methodology cannot be achieved or developed unless the learners develop explicit knowledge of the grammatical system which enabled actual realisation of the communicative acts. This contention also led to going back to more traditional techniques such as vocabulary building and explicit teaching of grammar. However, this strategy of acquiring knowledge is considered by linguists (Nunan, 2000) as old-fashioned, especially by those who believe in focusing solely on developing communicative abilities. They argue that this knowledge will be automatically and gradually acquired and sustained as the communicative course progresses.

All in all, the process of language teaching–learning requires the cooperation of all those concerned. Teachers, textbook editors, and pedagogical policy makers, linguists and methodologists should all shoulder the responsibility together in order to decide what works for their learners (Nunan & Lamb, 2000; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). They should apply

learners' needs analysis techniques for this purpose to better choose the language focus, type of instruction and the given materials for their learners. This may help to construct and develop the communicative competence of their learners. They should work as a team and unite their efforts because an "elaboration of appropriate methods and materials for a particular language teaching program will result only from the cooperation from all concerned" (Savignon, 1991, p. 274).

In the Libyan ELT context, teaching of grammar is a major part of English education. Teachers mainly rely on the explicit teaching of grammar and test their students mainly with regard to how much they know about the correct form of grammar, rather than how English grammar functions in its natural contexts. There is no clear plan in Libya that shows or suggests collaborative work between teachers, educational inspectors, syllabus designers and stakeholders. There is a lack of alignment within the English education system which represents a challenge to monitoring how English education operates (Emhamed & Krishnan, 2011; Taghavi, 2013). No discussion of fluency and accuracy takes place in Libya with regard to which should be prioritised in English education. The available literature only highlights issues like the cultural appropriateness of any adopted English materials to the Libyan society as a Muslim, Arab and conservative nation. The Libyan Ministry of Education recently focused on helping students to develop communicative skills in English rather than just grammatical knowledge. However, there are no clear, transparent and detailed plans or discussions to show how this communicative orientation is adopted in Libya and, most importantly, how it is implemented (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014).

2.3.6. The role of the teacher and the learner in a communicative methodology

Teachers play various roles in communicative classrooms and manage them to make the learners the centre of the learning. The teacher should have the skills to be flexible and work as "lecturer, cultural informant, facilitator, co-communicator, diagnostician, supervisor, action researcher, participant, observer, and most of all, learner, to create a learner-centred environment" (Nakamura, 2005, p. 14). Thus, according to Nakamura, in a communicative methodology the teacher should facilitate the communicative activities between the learners on the one hand and between both these learners and the activities and the learners and the texts involved on the other. They should know when to work as

teachers to achieve a particular learning goal and when to distance themselves and allow the learners to unlock their potential without being interrupted. The teachers need to assess the situation and modify their actions in the class on the basis of decisions about how and where to head next with teaching. Moreover, they should work as facilitators and be an independent part of the communicative activities, while simultaneously providing guidance, organising the various activities, and acting as a valuable resource for their learners.

The main role for any learner in any language learning context is to find out how to learn the language. Learners according to Richards (2006) need to be positive and enhance the learning process through their direct involvement in this learning process. In other words, they need to give as much as they take out of the learning process so that all learners can benefit from the CLA. Learners should cooperate to construct meaningful communication. Therefore, learning happens through group work and not individually.

Learners should also be keen on listening to their peers to make learning happen and avoid as much as possible relying solely on their teachers to achieve this goal. The learners should understand their responsibility toward their own learning and collaborate for this purpose (Richards, 2006).

Libyan learners in general display negative attitudes towards learning English (Emhamed & Krishnan, 2011; Soliman, 2013; Youssef, 2012; Zainol Abidin, Mohammadi & Alzwari, 2012). They are not motivated to learn English, only to study it to pass their exams. Teachers also lack motivation and ability to perform as facilitators and manage communicative activities (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014). The negative attitude and lack of motivation towards learning English are the result of the strong presence of the Arabic language and culture in the Libyan society and, therefore, in the Libyan classrooms. The major differences between Arabic and English make it challenging for Libyan learners to learn English (Jha, 2014; Youssef, 2012).

Another factor impacting Libyan students' motivation is the lack of suitable infrastructure for using English, such as high-speed internet in schools and universities to access databases and websites to learn English. Technology and handheld electronic devices support Arabic; therefore knowledge of English is no longer required for them to engage with technology (Tamtam, Gallagher, Olabi, & Naher, 2011). This probably explains why distance English education is not adopted in Libya. Due to the lack of the

necessary infrastructure to support this kind of education, and the lack of English language and culture in Libya, Libyan learners prefer not to learn online or to maintain any kind of social networking in languages other than Arabic (Othman et al., 2013).

Richards (2006) views the teacher's role as less engaging, even with regard to giving feedback. He argues that the teachers in a communicative classroom should work as facilitators and monitors rather than as the main sources of correct information and knowledge. The learners, however, should cooperate and learn by talking to each other and helping each other with developing better linguistic skills, rather than just relying on the teachers and expecting them to do everything, such as explaining the lessons, talking and answering questions.

In the Libyan ELT context, the teachers are the main source of knowledge whose job is to transfer knowledge from textbooks to the students. The students are only knowledge recipients. They do not typically negotiate, ask questions or compare the new knowledge to their existing knowledge and experiences (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014; Shihiba, 2011). The teachers translate texts for students as part of their role in facilitating knowledge for students. The students do not communicate with each other in classrooms. They maintain individual studying and do not work in groups or in pairs to do any kinds of learning activities (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014; Jha, 2014).

2.3.7. Assessment and feedback in Libya

Evaluation and assessment in Libya is mainly summative and centred on end-of-year examinations and grading (Shihiba, 2011). Generally speaking, most of the Arab states implement summative styles of assessment in their English education systems (Omar, 2012). Assessment of students in classrooms can be related to non-constructivist learning and in other cases can be irrelevant to education or learning. In Kuwait, for instance, teachers tend to give their students extra marks and privileges on the basis of their sitting still in the class and not making any noise (Tryzna & Shuroufi, 2014). In Kuwait, as in many other Arab states, this is taken as a sign of good behaviour, for which the student deserves extra marks. In Libya, examinations only include grammar and reading while listening, speaking and writing are not included in the exams (Jha, 2014; Orafi & Borg, 2009). For this reason, students and also teachers do not take the latter skills into consideration and focus only on grammar and reading.

Jha (2014) argues that, due to the short time frame given for learning English in the Libyan ELT context and the excessive use of multiple choice exams, the teachers typically focus on “covering” as much as possible. The students, therefore, focus on passing the exams rather than on learning. As long as students are not tested with regard to their speaking, listening and writing skills, these skills are not considered important and thus there is no need to focus on them. Jha (2014) further highlights the importance of the formative assessment of students’ writing, listening and speaking skills as they are more reflective of the students’ actual learning capacities. The current style of testing in the Libyan ELT context does not measure the students’ actual knowledge improvement nor does it provide information about the students’ weaknesses and how they should progress in their learning in the next stages.

2.4. English language teaching in other English as a foreign language contexts

Having discussed the literature on the CLA and teaching methodology, this review will now turn to ELT in three countries: Finland, Japan, and South Korea. The reason for choosing these ELT contexts for discussion here is that both Japan and South Korea had similar ELT quality and use of English to those of Libya a few decades ago. This was established after a careful review of the ELT histories of these countries, which are culturally different from Libya. Both Japan and South Korea depended mainly on the GTM and also had traditional approaches to English teaching (Jeong, 2004; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008; Kubota, 1998). As per the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) figures cited earlier, which were reported in the *IELTS Test Takers Performance 2011*, these countries have now made a dramatic improvement with regard to using English. The quality of ELT in both countries is currently significantly different from that of Libya.

The IELTS figures also show that Libya scored an overall 5.4 on academic English, in comparison to some other Arab countries such as Saudi Arabia with an overall score of 5.1, Kuwait with 5.2, and Qatar with 4.9. These three Arab countries had similar low scores as well as similar socio-political contexts. The cultural backgrounds and attitudes toward learning and use of foreign languages are also similar in these countries. In Saudi Arabia, some ELT specialists argue that the government has tried to develop the Saudi ELT situation but there is a lack of qualified ELT teachers to undertake the reformation process. Al-Hazmy (2003), for instance, reports that the reliance on Saudi graduates of English who

graduated from Saudi universities and institutes to teach English in the country hinders the government's attempts to reform the ELT situation in the country. In some cases, the graduates study translation studies and literature, for example, and are then appointed to teach English at Saudi high and secondary schools. Their training, according to Al-Hazmy (2003), barely comprises any kind of training in teaching English. In some cases, they only study one general course in ELT methods and methodology. The government also hires Arab ELT teachers to work in these universities. They are non-native speakers of English and they mainly maintain traditional styles of teaching English which do not produce quality output.

However, the government has made many attempts in the last few decades to reform the English curricula (Al-Hazmy, 2003; Syed, 2003). Al-Hazmy (2003) says that many Saudi Arabian ELT trainers were sent to countries such as the USA and the UK to attend courses in English for training and teaching. They have realised that attempting to fix the curriculum without preparing qualified ELT teachers will ruin the entire reformation process. This seems similar to the attempts of the Libyan Ministry of Education to develop sophisticated ELT curricula but neglect the professional development of the teachers who handle them (Orafi & Borg, 2009). The Libyan Ministry of Education also provides scholarships for Libyan graduates to obtain higher degrees from around the world but domestic professional development courses for English teachers still need to be improved (Jha, 2014).

Japan achieved a higher overall IELTS score of 5.8, while South Korea's score was 5.9. The average score for the entire Arabic-speaking states was 5.2 on academic English. This difference might reflect the difference in motivation and attitudes toward learning English in these Asian countries, and also the kind of reforms in the ELT systems implemented by both government and private sectors in these countries. Finland is not included on the IELTS list because it does not participate actively enough in IELTS testing to be among the 40 most frequently tested countries. English in Finland is now so proficient that it is considered, as will be explained in the next section, as a second language rather than a foreign language.

How could a country like Finland, for example, with a history of Finnish and Swedish dominance, shift to using a totally different language? Finland will be discussed as

a European nation which is culturally different from Libya. This discussion is not meant to be a direct comparison between the ELT systems of any of these countries. Instead, the aim of investigating these ELT systems is to learn how ELT systems can be improved. Moreover, I will examine if what has been done in South Korea and Japan to improve their ELT systems can be applied in Libya. This latter point, however, will be thoroughly addressed later in the Discussion chapter of the thesis.

2.4.1. English language teaching in Finland

As is the case with many other non-English-speaking countries, people in Finland have realised that it is essential for them to develop their English education system so that they can enrich their nation in many different ways. The Finnish Government tried to do so without sacrificing the national languages and identity. They focused on teaching English in schools and universities; however, the government insisted on the Finnish language (the mother tongue of the majority of the Finnish people) as the language of scientific research, especially in medicine studies (Taavitsinen & Patha, 2003).

There are many other reasons for English to be widely used in Finland, especially among the younger generations. The wide use of English as a medium of communication in the international mass media and internet made it necessary for Finnish people to use English fluently. The impact of globalisation and the importance of English in education and science and also for maintaining successful businesses and enhancing the economy of the country as a whole have also motivated the people to learn English and to seek quality English education (Ammon, 2001; Hyrksedt & Kalaja, 1998). This involves adopting modern and authentic textbooks for teaching and learning English, as well as ELT methods and methodologies such as the CLA, and encouraging researchers to work hard to develop this field of education.

Historically, Finland has used only Finnish and Swedish as native languages. Of the five million people living in Finland, only six thousand or less could speak English in the year 2000. However, the mass media and cultural, economic and social interactions with native speakers of English have helped many people to develop near-native English skills (Taavitsinen & Patha, 2003). Therefore, English has become widely used in Finland in the media, in marketing and also in the daily life of the Finnish youth (Hyrksedt & Kalaja,

1998). Although some elderly people tend to avoid using different languages for communication, young people commonly use English vocabulary while talking in their first language.

Hyrksedt and Kalaja (1998) as well as Taavitsinen and Patha (2003) believe that Finnish people are known to be self-motivated to learn English, which could be a major reason for the dramatic development of English speaking in that country. They say that most students choose English as an optional subject along with their compulsory courses. In addition, some schools offer additional tuition so that their students can learn foreign languages; English is the main language chosen. It is estimated that primary, secondary and above secondary students have received no less than 50% of their education in English. All these factors seem to have contributed to helping Finnish people develop better English skills.

When Finland became a member of the EU in 1995 and began close interaction within Europe, many Finnish people, especially the elderly, started to feel concerned about their own national languages and identity. However, many Finnish people also believed in English as a secure way to develop their nation. Finnish people have had extended arguments about this topic, especially between the elderly and the younger generations. Supporters of English in Finland consider themselves as part of Europe. Therefore, they believe there should not be any danger in allowing the wide use of what came to be known as Euro-English throughout Europe. This form of English has become a language of communication between the different European nations (Taavitsinen & Patha, 2003).

2.4.2. English language teaching in South Korea

English education has existed in South Korea for more than 120 years. It started when the German advisor George Von Mollendrof advised the Korean Royal Court to establish the Tongmunhak School to train interpreters (Shim, 1999; Jeong, 2004). American missionaries had also established many schools in the country to teach English. The direct method was the main method for teaching at these schools and was to some extent successful. However, after 1920, most Korean schools tended to use traditional methods of teaching which relied on teaching explicit grammar and grammar-based evaluation and examination (Jeong, 2004).

Due to the use of traditional methods of teaching and the rare opportunities for Korean learners of English to practice English (because Koreans tend not use any language for communication other than their own), the levels of English in Korea remained unsatisfactory to many Korean ELT experts (Chang, 2004; Cho, 2004). Similar to what happened in Libya, the use of English was banned in Korea for 40 years when it was ruled by Japan in 1905. The Japanese Government at that time imposed the use of Japanese instead of the Korean language. The Japanese Government also implemented various strict rules to replace Korean and any other languages with Japanese. They aimed at training large groups of Korean youths to work for the rich Japanese at that time. English was only practised in some private schools and the Japanese tried to keep these activities to minimum levels. They closed all missionary schools that were run by Americans and considered English as the language of the enemy (Kim-Rivera, 2002).

This situation continued for 40 years until the Japanese lost the war in 1945. Since then, English has been brought into service again in Korea and the Koreans proceeded with English education and use in the country. However, English education was based on grammar teaching and also a grammar-based type of examination until the 1990s (Jeong, 2004). The Korean Government had several attempts at some reforms in their national ELT system as part of their industrial reforms to improve the national economy. Outstanding English was needed for them to achieve that goal. The Korean Government started to teach English in schools, starting from the third grade in primary schools (Li, 1998). In the year 2000, due to agreements with some other countries, the Korean Government had to make serious reforms in its educational system and in its ELT system in particular. Many native speakers of English came to Korea, which helped in creating an atmosphere of confidence for the Koreans to use English in their society (Jeong, 2004). The Korean Ministry of Education has also shifted focus from GTM-based ELT to Communicative Competence and Communicative Language Teaching (Jeong, 2004; Li, 1998; Park, 2009; Shim, 1999; Yoon, 2004).

There are many points of similarity between the ELT contexts of Libya and Korea. However, Korea has a longer history of English education. It is evident that the Korean reliance on GTM for over 70 years kept the fluency of Korean learners of English to a minimum (Chang, 2004). For a long time, Korean ELT teachers did not feel confident in

using teaching methods other than the GTM; they thought they were not competent enough in English to use other methods that require focus on the four macro skills of English (reading, writing, listening and speaking). Then the government introduced educational reforms to train ELT Korean teachers, develop teaching materials, and apply more effective teaching methods such as the CLA to enhance the skill levels of the Korean teachers of English (Jeong, 2004).

As far as the Korean learners of English are concerned, they do not master learning strategies to learn English. They fear making mistakes if they practise English with their native-speaker teachers of English. Therefore, their teachers encourage them to carry out learning activities in groups (Chang, 2004). Chang (2004) also says that these teachers should learn the Korean culture so that they can help their Korean students more efficiently.

Among the Korean government's attempts to help the Korean learners develop better oral English skills, a recent policy was put in place in Korean schools called Teaching English Through English (TETE) McKay (2009). Teachers and learners are required according to this policy to communicate solely in English without using the Korean language in the classroom. However, the Korean teachers of English say that the suitability and applicability of this teaching method are still controversial issues in the Korean ELT context (Kang, 2008; McKay, 2009). Use of English in Korean English classrooms is seen as an effective way to help the Korean learners develop better fluency in English; however, Korean learners tend to prefer using their first language in classes especially to plan for presentations, explanations and class organisation purposes (Kang, 2008; MacKay, 2009). Another barrier to using this method is the Korean teachers' weak proficiency in using English orally and the lack of knowledge about the English culture (Kang, 2008). Kang (2008) also maintains that insisting on the strict use of the TETE despite the weak background of the Korean learners in understanding spoken English may lead to losing their interest in learning the language. The teachers therefore need to consider their learners' abilities when using this method. Unless the TETE is accompanied by some use of L1 in classroom, says Kang (2008), it will hinder the learning process. Contrary to the main principle of the TETE, MacKay (2009) further says that the Korean learners of English can make use of their first language to develop better fluency in English. They can use it to think about what they need to say in Korean and then say it in English. The TETE

can be used by teachers and learners who have good backgrounds about the English language and culture but those with weaker backgrounds should gradually start using easy English in classrooms.

In Libya, however, there is still a major organisational problem. All aspects of the ELT system in Libya (materials, textbooks, methods and methodology, teaching aids) within all educational grades in schools or universities are not aligned with one another (Alrahwy, 2008; Elabbar, 2011). There is a widely held belief that the Libyan Government lacks a long-term plan to overcome these issues, which destabilises the entire ELT situation in the country (Jha, 2014; Taghavi, 2013). Alrahwy (2008) assumed that there are two main problems for the poor state of English in Libya. The first is the major use of Arabic and GTM for teaching English nationwide. The second is the frequent changing of the curricula in Libya during the last three decades, which reflects the lack of any long-term goals and plans to develop the ELT context.

2.4.3. English language teaching in Japan

Japanese people have had disagreements on whether it is better for them as a society to maintain quality English education or to keep its use as low as possible in Japan. This debate has been going on since the mid-1800s (Kubota, 1998). A large portion of the Japanese people fears the loss of their national identity and language since the spread of English as a *lingua franca* for the whole world. Moreover, they fear the influence of the wide use of English in Japan on their Japanese traditions, which they have valued and maintained for centuries. Moreover, some Japanese critics believe that the use of English in Japan will also influence the way the Japanese view the world around them: they will see the world as Westerners see it rather than as Japanese and other Asians do (Erikawa, 1995; Kubota, 1998). Thus, wide use of English will not just affect the written discourse in Japan but also the cultural framework of the country. Some Japanese critics went further to blame other Japanese for representing themselves and their nation as Westerners and a Western country when they are Asians and part of the Asian continent (Kubota, 1998; Oishi, 1990; Tsuda, 1990).

As is the case with any other people in the world, the Japanese have always wanted to be known for who they are rather than to be known in relation to any other nation

(Kubota, 1998). Japan prides itself on being among the main industrial nations in the world and as one of the main economically and politically influential nations in the world. Probably, what added dramatically to the Japanese sensitivity to using English was the attempt of some educators to adopt English as the language of Japan. The most influential attempt was that of the Minister of Education, Arinori Mori, during the late nineteenth century, when he advocated English should be the official language of Japan. English was also advocated to be adopted as the national language of Japan by the Japanese politician Gakudo Ozaki in the middle of the twentieth century (Kubota, 1998).

However, the insistence of the large majority of the Japanese people, including politicians, critics and educators, on maintaining their Japanese language sovereignty defeated all of these attempts. After World War II, the Japanese “military” government put rules in place to resist the existence of English in Japan. All American and English academics were suspended and lost their jobs. The insistence of Japanese universities on using only Japanese and the dismissal of English was viewed as part of their patriotism. The government decided to translate all kinds of sciences into Japanese so there would be no need to use English inside Japan anymore. Therefore, the sole medium of instruction in the Japanese universities became Japanese.

Eventually, Japan started to lean towards maintaining economic relations with the Western world again. Japan signed peace agreements with the United States of America and other Western countries. Japanese authorities allowed English educators into the country again in their attempts to develop their military, political, economic and educational systems. New pedagogical approaches to teaching and learning English and were adopted. One major approach at that time, “the oral approach”, was introduced by an American educator. Many other famous specialists and educators from around the world were brought into the country to develop the ELT system (Fujimoto-Adamson, 2006).

The influence of large corporations and the businesspeople on the government has contributed significantly to accepting English in the country again. English was viewed in these spheres as essential to sustaining businesses and also the country’s economy in different ways. Government English education, however, remained unsatisfactory to ELT experts (Igawa, 2013; Nishino & Watanaba, 2008; Seargeant, 2005) because it relied mainly on GTM and GTM-based examinations (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008).

Japanese English teachers today typically have modest English skills, especially with regard to speaking and listening. This decreases their motivation and self-confidence to talk to their students in English (Igawa, 2013; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008). Many of them graduate from English literature departments at various Japanese universities to become English teachers and therefore they have little knowledge about teaching methods and pedagogy. They maintain teacher-centred styles of classroom instruction, focusing only on teaching reading and grammar. Japanese students also lack motivation to communicate in English. Classrooms are typically overcrowded, further decreasing the chances of carrying out any communicative activities (Igawa, 2013). All these factors contribute to maintaining traditional teaching rather than communicative learning of English in Japan.

Among the suggested plans in Japan for a compromise (maintaining a leading position in the international community while preserving the national language and identity) was to teach English in Japan through the Japanese culture (Kubota, 1998). This involves importing English as a language but keeping the associated English culture and traditions out of Japan. However, the Japanese private sector has been criticised for focusing on “commercialising ELT education” rather than applying legitimate pedagogical approaches and methodology to develop the ELT system in the Japanese context. Seargeant (2005), for example, points out that most private ELT institutions in Japan are selling ELT to the public in Japan using misleading advertisements rather than authentic pedagogical approaches and methodology for English education.

This implies the use of mass media in Japanese private ELT institutions to advertise their business, advocating that all of their programs are run by native speakers of English. Therefore, they attract the learners or “customers” on the premise that they will have the chance to practise real English with native speakers if they join these private schools. They use images of people of European origin in their advertisements and brochures to attract the learners. Thus, the focus is on speaking to natives rather than on what qualifications and experience those native speakers of English have. The same issue applies to Japanese universities, as most of them are administered by private owners and, therefore, the same “unauthentic approaches” are being applied at these universities to make profits and meet the needs of the growing market in Japan (Seargeant, 1995).

In 1979 the Japanese Government adopted a five-year English fluency course throughout high schools in Japan to help people develop better proficiency and communicative skills in English. Students are required to pass listening tests and communication tests such as the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) (McCrostie, 2010). The government sponsors these programs financially and provides those who excel in them with their desired jobs.

In summary, much can be learnt from the ELT contexts of the abovementioned countries in relation to Libya's need for English education reform. The status of ELT in Finland surpasses that of other nations such as Japan, South Korea and Libya. Although the Swedish and Finnish languages were historically dominant in Finland, English is now prevalent in this country. It is now viewed as a second language while it was considered a foreign language a few decades ago. It is the medium of communication for vital industries and mass media in the country (Taavitsinen & Patha, 2003). As a European state, and with the migrations and wide interconnections with the rest of Europe and also the industrial development that has been undertaken, it was mandatory for the Finnish people to unconditionally accept English into their society. The wide use of English in the Finnish mass media has helped in enhancing the ELT education quality in the country. The adoption of authentic materials and teaching methods which focus on communicative competence rather than on English education that emphasises traditional grammar has also contributed to enhancing the ELT situation.

The Finnish people have accepted English as a medium of communication in the country and set aside their fear of loss of national identity (Taavitsinen & Patha, 2003). The enthusiasm of the Finnish people to learn English has also contributed to maintaining a healthy English education context in Finland. Moreover, the government reforms such as starting English education from primary school and offering extensive English courses to students until they graduate from university have helped to develop a better ELT situation in Finland.

South Korea has also managed to dramatically develop its English education after English was banned in the country for over forty years during the Japanese rule of South Korea. Koreans are highly motivated to learn English. They perceive learning English as a competition, which some ELT educators view as an English fever throughout South Korea.

In 1991, the government revised the ELT system in Korea and replaced grammar-based curricula and examinations with other curricula (such as the CLA) that focus more on communication and developing other important skills such as listening and speaking (Cho, 2004; Park, 2009). They also began English education in primary school.

However, the government thought these changes were not enough to better develop the ELT situation in the country. Therefore, they have shifted from using traditional teaching and examination styles of English education to other modern and more effective methods of teaching, such as the CLA. The government also recruited qualified native speakers of English to teach English in the Korean schools. The private sector has also contributed substantially and offered extensive and quality English education, such as the International Graduate School of English (IGSE). The IGSE is based on developing communicative skills and learning through the CLA. It provides the learners with an atmosphere of English communication where they have access to authentic learning facilities such as language laboratories, audiovisual materials and textbooks. This enables them to work effectively on developing the four skills of English (Jeong, 2004).

Japan, however, has had a history of resisting English education and use. As stated earlier, for political and cultural reasons the Japanese Government neglected English education in the country. However, after World War II and the attempts to fix their economy and maintain normal economic relations with the rest of the world, Japan showed more flexibility towards the use of English in the country. They proposed teaching English through Japanese culture to sustain English and at the same time not sacrifice their national language and identity. However, this approach did not make any remarkable progress in the country's English education. They then relied on the oral approach and hiring native speakers of English to teach English at schools and universities. They also began English education in primary school to allow the learners more exposure to English. The government has also adopted new English curricula in the country which focus on communication and developing communicative competence and abilities on the part of the Japanese learners of English.

These actions have contributed to developing a better ELT situation in Japan. However, some Japanese ELT specialists such as Gorsuch (2000) assume that the cultural background of the Japanese ELT teachers negatively influences their performance in the

classroom. In spite of the government's attempts to bring authentic materials into service, some ELT teachers still believe in maintaining strict and serious relationships with the students to have full control over the classroom. The learners, in this sense, only have to maintain accurate competence in English.

Similarly, in Libya the focus of the reformation attempts was mainly on developing the English curricula without training ELT teachers to understand the objectives of these curricula and how to achieve them (Alrahwy, 2008; Orafi & Borg, 2009). As a result, the GTM is still widely used in Libya for teaching English, regardless of the kind of curriculum and its objectives. The lack of exposure to English outside of schools and universities in Libya and the lack of motivation to learn English hinder ELT development in this country. Students in Libya do not study English until secondary school. They only take one general class of English each year, usually as a subject that is not regarded as being as important as other subjects such as history, geography, physics, chemistry and mathematics. The Libyan general public does not usually appreciate other Libyans or native speakers of Arabic who communicate in any foreign language, including English, when they can do so in Arabic (Rajendran, 2010; Youssef, 2012).

2.5. Conclusion

From this review of the literature about the teaching and learning of English in Libya, it is apparent that a large part of the discussion in the previous studies focuses on the traditional teaching of English, which is teacher-centred and heavily uses the GTM. The studies also discussed to some extent the history of introducing the new curricula and how English has been taught in Libya from the 1980s. The absence of communication in English in the Libyan society, the overall attitude to English, and the motivation to communicate in English were also discussed. Further, the learning environment in English classrooms and styles of evaluation and assessment were also discussed. Moreover, the teachers' tendency to filter the communicative curricula and eliminate speaking and listening skills was highlighted, although the only reason proffered for this poor teaching practice was the Libyan teachers' beliefs and background in teaching.

As discussed earlier in this chapter, all of the extant studies examined each of these aspects of the Libyan ELT context separately. In other words, each aspect is discussed independently in each study. None of these studies proposed reasons for adopting the GTM

and teacher-centred English education in Libya. Finally, none of the studies discussed the barriers preventing Libyan teachers from teaching through CLT.

This current research, therefore, is an attempt to fill this gap in the available literature on the Libyan ELT context. It investigates the barriers to teaching through the CLT in Libya and presents them within a single case study. It further investigates which aspects of CLT may be suitable for Libyan teachers to adopt or adapt for use in Libya. This is particularly important because, and as will be discussed later in the Discussion chapter of this thesis, attending only to one of these barriers is not likely to reform the Libyan ELT system. The research also contributes to the available literature about Libyan ELT by providing information, for the first time, about the current teaching knowledge of Libyan pre service teachers of English through the Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT), which is an internationally recognised tool for assessment of teachers' knowledge about teaching English.

Through discussing the ELT systems of Finland, Japan and South Korea, it can be concluded here that the three countries varied in their success in adopting the CLA. In Finland for instance, the frequent use of English in the society and the inter-migrations between Finland and other English-speaking countries has substantially helped in developing near-native English-speaking skills among Finnish people. The education system, which encourages learning two or three languages beginning in high school, has probably encouraged a culture of communication in English within the Finnish society. English education in both Japan and Korea was focused on the GTM for decades, without any remarkable improvement in their ELT systems (Igawa, 2013; Jeong, 2004; Nishino & Watanaba, 2008; Seargeant, 2005; Shim, 2009).

Japan and Korea have similar histories with regard to the adoption of CLT in their schools. The barriers to adopting CLT included the students' and teachers' attitudes towards and motivation for communicating in English in societies that are not receptive to communication in foreign languages among their people. The teachers did not have much confidence to talk to their students in English. The English education in both countries could only be developed after they witnessed a major increase in the use of modern technology and audiovisual devices. They have both also employed teachers from English-speaking countries. Korea has been more successful in adapting the CLA to its culture,

especially in some of their major English centres such as the IGSE after the education system was revised. The students received more exposure time to English and in many places were taught by teachers from English-speaking countries. Teaching in Korea now uses the CLA and authentic learning materials and modern equipment and technology. Japan was also successful to some extent in adapting the CLA to their culture, but the cultural sensitivity to communicating in English in Japan seems to have been a major barrier to success. The Japanese education system was focused on a more spoken conversation approach and employing teachers from English-speaking countries. The teachers maintained conversation classes but did not use authentic learning materials, which probably decreased the chances for Japanese learners to develop better communicative skills in English.

It was noted throughout the review of the ELT systems of the three countries that all of them started adapting the CLA at different stages in the past when they wanted their teachers of English to become better teachers. This seems to have been a condition for the success of English education and the transition from traditional teaching of reading and grammar to more communicative learning. This is essentially why the CLA was chosen for adaptation in this research as a means of making the Libyan teachers of English better teachers of English. It was also noted that the success of adapting the CLA in the three non-Arabic states depended on a number of factors. Some of these factors included revising the education systems of the states and providing all necessary learning equipment, as well as society-wide use of technology such as smart phones in English. The use of English in the society reflects a positive attitude toward the use of the language in these non-English-speaking countries. Other factors are the use of authentic learning materials and the employment of teachers from English-speaking countries. The lack of applicability and availability of these factors were identified in the Libyan ELT context as barriers to adopting and adapting the CLA and, therefore, to making the Libyan teachers better teachers of English.

The Libyan ELT system is focused to great extent on the teachers' role and the focus is still on teaching through the GTM, despite the government's efforts to adopt a more communicative ELT system. The textbooks and handouts are the resources, the teachers are the transmitters and the students are the receivers. Arabic is the dominant

medium of communication in English classrooms. The students have no opportunity for exposure to English outside of the classroom as Arabic is the only language used in the Libyan public domain. Both students and teachers generally hold a negative attitude towards teaching and learning of English. The students typically desire to graduate and start their careers, which could be in fields other than teaching and education. Thus, they only tend to acquire a university degree that gives them social privilege. The teachers of English in Libya maintain traditional teaching and adopt the GTM as the only method of teaching. The teaching of reading and grammar and the focus on translation into Arabic are common techniques in teaching. Listening and speaking are not on the teachers' daily agenda. Despite the attempts of the government in Libya to adapt the CLA to teach English in schools, the following factors are major barriers to the application of this approach in Libyan schools:

- the excessive use of the GTM, which has been used in Libya since the 1980s
- the lack of any professional development courses that help the teachers understand the philosophy of the CLA and how it should be adapted
- the teacher's traditional focus on developing competence, which is perceived as more important and related to performance
- the teachers' limited knowledge about the English language and culture
- the short time given to learning English in schools and universities
- the testing system which focuses on short, paper-based exams and neglects assessment of speaking and listening skills
- the overall environment that does not support the adaptation of the CLA: the poor infrastructure and acoustic treatment in classrooms, the lack of equipment and authentic learning materials, the overcrowded classes, the absence of English both in classrooms and in the society, and the lack of motivation to communicate in English in the Libyan society.

Many of these barriers existed in Finland, South Korea and Japan at some stages in the past but were then overcome (with varying degrees of success) to develop the ELT systems in the three countries. The adaptation of the CLA in Finland was accompanied by a tremendous rise in the use of English in the public domain, in the media and in the daily communication of the Finnish people. The industrial movement in Finland mandated the

use of English as the language of technology and provided all necessary equipment in classrooms. The Finns also revised the education system and gave more recognition to the teachers' role in the society. The government started English education in primary schools and supplied more than 50% of the whole education curriculum in English. The government also provided tuition fee support for students who chose English as an optional class and encouraged multi-language learning. Authentic textbooks and learning materials were also used in English classrooms. These factors seem to have encouraged the public to have a positive attitude to speaking English and motivation to learn and communicate in English.

In Korea, similar steps were taken to develop a better ELT system in the country but it took the government and the private sector some time before bringing the English language and culture into the Korean society. The technological boom in Korea helped many Koreans to easily access authentic English resources on the internet. In many places in the country classrooms were provided with state-of-the-art learning equipment. Teachers from English-speaking countries were invited to teach in Korean schools. The private sector also contributed significantly to the application of the CLA through esteemed institutions such as the IGSE. These institutions provided the Korean learners with extended exposure time to English, teachers from English-speaking countries, authentic learning materials and learning equipment.

Japan's attempts to teach English through Japanese language and culture did not help the Japanese learners to develop any communicative skills in English. The Japanese Government then employed teachers from English-speaking countries but did not adopt authentic learning materials and textbooks. The oral approach that focuses on maintaining conversations with teachers from English-speaking countries did not help the Japanese learners to develop better skills in speaking English compared to learners in Finland and South Korea.

The steps taken by the governments in these three countries were, to a great extent, imitated in this intervention and examined to determine whether they can help the Libyan pre service teachers of English to develop better teaching skills. The barriers to applying the CLA in Libya are explored in this research through asking the following question:

- How can the future Libyan teachers of English become better teachers?

This overarching question is examined through the methods outlined in the next chapter, which seek to address the following questions:

- What is the current English language teaching knowledge of the future Libyan teachers of English in the Agdabia campus at the University of Benghazi?
- Does Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) work in Libya?
- What are the barriers to using the CLT in Libya?

Chapter 3: Research paradigm, methodology and methods

3.1. Introduction

Chapter 2 discussed the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) and the Communicative Language Approach (CLA), especially with regard to how they are applied in the Libyan English language teaching (ELT) context. It also included a discussion of the ELT systems of three non-Arabic countries: Finland, South Korea and Japan. The discussion of the reforms and the development of the ELT systems of these countries aimed to highlight the lessons that could be learned from these endeavours and their applicability in the Libyan ELT context. This chapter outlines the research paradigm, methodology and methods applied in this study to answer the research questions developed from the review of the literature. The participant groups are also introduced in this chapter and their contributions to the study are discussed in the research design section at the end of this chapter.

3.2. Research paradigm

This study comprises a mix of mainly qualitative but also one quantitative method of research; this is commonly known as a mixed methods approach. Mixed methods sit within the research paradigm of pragmatism. A pragmatist, according to Leech, Dellinger, Brannagan and Tanaka (2010), is “the researcher who is flexible in his or her research techniques, and collaborates with other researchers with multiple epistemological stances” (p. 18). Pragmatic researchers are also “more likely to view research as a holistic endeavor that requires prolonged engagement, persistent observation and triangulation” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

The use of a mixed method approach to the research is hoped to expand the knowledge and understanding of the Libyan ELT context and provide answers to the research questions, rather than restricting or constraining choices by committing to one particular method of enquiry (Thurmond, 2001). For particular types of research and research questions, the mixed method approach is a suitable method of inquiry (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Leech et al., 2010). Questions within the same research study may vary in the way they are to be answered, and therefore the best way to answer them is to choose a mix of methods to find the required answers. Some of the questions may require

qualitative answers while others may require quantitative ones. This is particularly true when the research is mainly driven by its questions (Riazi & Candlin, 2014). There are other benefits from the choice of a mixed methods approach, such as triangulation (to converge and corroborate the results obtained via the qualitative and quantitative approaches), elaboration, enhancement, illustration and development (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Riazi and Candlin (2014) further say that mixed method research provide

The aim and questions of the research and the types of data to be collected from the fieldwork necessitated adopting a mix of quantitative and qualitative techniques. The overall aim of the research was to answer the following question:

- How can the future Libyan teachers of English become better teachers?

This overarching question is addressed through research in this thesis which seeks to answer the following questions:

- What is the current English language teaching knowledge of the future Libyan teachers of English in the Agdabia campus at the University of Benghazi?

(Quantitative)

- Does Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) work in Libya? **(Qualitative)**
- What are the barriers to using CLT in Libya? **(Qualitative)**

The nature of the questions in this research makes the methodology of the research qualitative-dominant rather than quantitative-dominant. The bulk of this research answers “what” questions, not “how much” or “how many” questions. Hence the research is not a QUANT+ qualit but a QUALIT+ quant type of mixed research method. The questions require answers that can mostly be achieved by means of qualitative methods of research in which the researcher both reflects upon and observes their own, and their participants' behaviors. However, quantitative methods can also assist in evaluating measurable aspects of the pre service teachers' knowledge of teaching methodologies.

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) recommend going back to the characteristics of each of the two approaches in order to make the best use of mixing them together to achieve the best possible results. Quantitative research methods usually aim to conduct experiments, test a hypothesis, apply deductive reasoning, and use statistical analysis, whereas qualitative methods usually lean towards induction and theory generation, also

working through exploration and discovery of the world. This study comprised a mix of some of these aspects; therefore a mix of data collection techniques was applied.

The concept of perceived reality in the field of enquiry in this research is interpreted as being both “out there”, “knowable” and measurable — a positivist stance. However, reality is also interpreted through peoples’ observable behaviour and the way they act or react to each other, or to the researcher in the fieldwork. This reality is located in the researcher/observer’s mind — a constructivist stance which involves how the researcher perceives the world. Therefore, choosing only one of the two approaches (positivist–quantitative or constructivist–qualitative) will not lead to a comprehensive understanding of the whole reality investigated in this enquiry. The use of both approaches mixed together is a better option for obtaining richer data from all the sources available in the field. Therefore, constructivism is the methodological framework informing the study, which is outlined in the next section.

3.3. Constructivism

Constructivism refers to the construction of knowledge by humans through obtaining new information from the surrounding environment and comparing that information to the existing knowledge that had been developed before through interaction with a particular environment. Constructivism as a theory has its roots in cognitive psychology and biology and an approach to education “emphasizing knowledge construction rather than knowledge transmission and the recording of information conveyed by others. The role of the learner is conceived as one of building and transforming knowledge” (Applefield, Huber, & Moallem, 2001, p. 6). Thus, a constructivist is a person who believes that knowledge is constructed in peoples’ minds and is innate and not located in the outside world around them. In this sense, reality varies from one individual to another depending on how each person sees it.

This case study focuses on the Libyan social and cultural factors which can partly act as barriers or as contributors to developing English teaching among Libyan undergraduate students of English language and ELT education in Libya. This country has a unique socio-cultural system (Lacher, 2011; Myers, 2013; Tempelhof & Omar, 2012). Due to the policies of the dictatorship and the former political regime of this

country, very little about it is known to the world. Therefore, this cultural aspect will be discussed and examined in terms of its relation to the main problem that this study is attempting to investigate. The meanings of the participants' actions, behaviours and cultural concepts will also be interpreted from their own perspectives, that is, what these actions and behaviours mean to them. For this purpose, I will be dealing with this particular issue as an insider and a local who is an actor himself and who is familiar with this context, being an ex-ELT educator in the University of Benghazi. The ELT environment in Libya will be investigated and studied in terms of these factors:

- ELT education in the University of Benghazi which includes, but is not limited to, textbooks, use of teaching aids, resources and equipment, teaching methods and methodologies, and the overall pedagogical approaches of teaching and learning. All these matters will first be dealt with individually and then how they interrelate to serve the teaching and learning process in this university is examined.
- The social and cultural background of the Libyan PELTs, English language lecturers (ELTs) and stakeholders, and the relationship of this background to impeding or enhancing the ELT situation in Libya.

This study does not aim to generate theory for its own sake, but to generate theory that interprets the current situation of ELT in Libya and that can eventually help to achieve a better quality of English teacher preparation and training. All possible aids and techniques that may work in the Libyan context were used in the fieldwork of this study to generate theory that can eventually help in understanding the core problems that ELTs encounter in delivering communicative English education.

3.4. Context of the research methodology

This section reviews and justifies the use of the methodologies framing this research project: action research and case study. The research comprises a single case study that focuses on the Agdabia campus at the University of Benghazi and uses this campus as an example of universities in Libya with respect to learning and teaching of English. Data

were collected using questionnaires, action research, pre and post tests of teacher knowledge, observation, focus groups, artefact review and individual interviews.

This study investigated the reasons for the current low level of knowledge of teaching of English among the Libyan pre service teachers of English at the Agdabia campus at the University of Benghazi. A further goal was to propose some possible way(s) to help those learners develop new teaching skills. The best (and probably the only) way to affect this change is through an intervention. The intervention took the form of a purpose-designed course delivered in Libya to see if this course can help the PELTs develop their teaching skills. I observed the learners throughout this course and adapted the materials studied and the methods of teaching as the course progressed according to the participants' needs and what worked for them and what did not.

I also tried to determine the participants' overall attitudes toward developing teaching skills and to modify this attitude towards successful learning if necessary. Such a mission cannot be accomplished without an intervention that is well planned and is based on adequate knowledge of the whole ELT context in Libya (Doukas, 1996; Wedell, 2003). The action to be taken in this process was to reverse the overall direction of the ELT process in the University of Benghazi from teaching oriented to learning oriented. The focus was on learning through communication in English for real-life purposes; my role as a teacher-researcher was to observe and manage this activity and also to motivate the participants towards this outcome.

The following sections (3.4.1. to 3.4.6) describe the data collection methods used in this study to answer the research questions. A summary of the methods is provided in Table 2.

Table 2

Summary of methods of data collection and research questions addressed

Research phase	Methods	Research question
Participant selection		2 and 3
Intervention	Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT): Both test and comparison groups took this test before and after the intervention; however, only the intervention group participated in the intervention.	1
Action research	Observation: A 7-week action research program in which new teaching knowledge was presented to participants was delivered to the intervention group. Participants were involved in practical workshops with the new methods and techniques to develop their teaching. I maintained a journal to document in situ changes to the program in response to student needs by applying an “adopt, adapt or reject” policy in the reflective action research cycle. Monitoring and evaluation: A Libyan colleague held a focus group each Thursday during the intervention to monitor the participants’ emerging needs and to provide ongoing feedback on the program by applying CIT. Questionnaires were administered to participants a posteriori to analyse their attitudes in comparison to the initial questionnaires and action research data.	2 and 3
Interviews	Individual interviews and focus group interviews: A subset of six PELTs were interviewed to collect rich attitudinal data from the pre service teachers, English language lecturers and other university stakeholders.	2 and 3
Curriculum analysis	Artefact review: Books, tests and teaching materials.	2 and 3

Note. CIT = Critical Incident technique**3.4.1. Action research and case study**

Action research operates in a cyclical motion; after determining the research problem initially, the research is planned; then comes “action”, followed by reflection, which involves evaluation, change or modification. The same cycle then starts again (Figure 1).

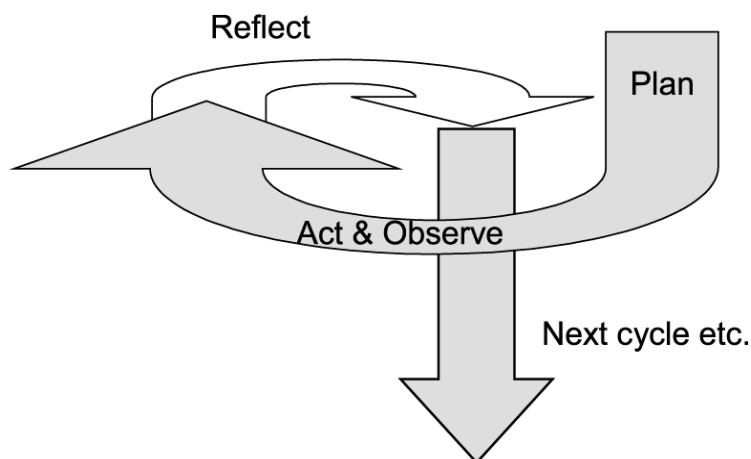


Figure 1. Action research cycle. Source: Kemmis and McTagart (1988, p. 11)

Action research is defined by Aviason, Lau, Myers and Nielsen (1999) as follows:

Action research combines theory and practice (and researchers and practitioners) through change and reflection in an immediate problematic situation within a mutually acceptable ethical framework. Action research is an iterative process involving researchers acting together on a particular cycle of activities, including problem diagnosis, action intervention, and reflection on learning (p. 94).

They claim action research is the only qualitative research method that combines research with practice, with each informing the other in a synergistic way. The combination of action or “practice” and research in this enquiry is not intended to verify an already investigated phenomenon, nor is it intended to re-enquire into any already accepted theories and findings or to discover new facts. The aim is, as Punch (2009) and Stringer (2004) point out, to obtain information that can be analysed and applied as a solution to some specific problems relevant to the researcher’s work.

The aim of this action research study is to generate knowledge concerning effective English teaching practices that are appropriate for the teaching and learning of English in this university. The in situ researcher reflection generated through action research informs further action in subsequent learning and teaching activities.

The coursework delivered through action research in this study was documented in a diary to detail the progress made during the intervention. This helped, together with the learners’ feedback and self-reflection, to iteratively change the future action in the

classroom. I also involved an independent third-party academic in the intervention. This academic is an educational psychologist from the Department of Psychology at Benghazi University to monitor and evaluate the progress made through the teacher–learner interaction. I asked the independent academic, henceforth “the monitor”, to informally interview the 10 PELTs in the intervention group on my behalf on a weekly basis as part of an ongoing monitoring and evaluation process. Third-party monitoring and evaluation sessions allowed the participants in the intervention course to feel more comfortable and able to talk freely about the course.

As with any case study, the participant student group in this study is not meant to be a “sample” that is identical to other PELTs in the whole university (Darke, Shanks, & Broadbent, 1998; Ellram, 1996; Punch, 2009; Yin, 2009). The main goal of this case study is to achieve an “analytical generalization” rather than “statistical generalization” (Punch, 2009; Yin, 2009). It is not feasible to say that, if the same intervention (i.e. the teaching methods, textbooks and pedagogical approaches) were repeated, even in the same university, we are likely to obtain exactly the same results and findings at the end of the course. This is because we are dealing with human behaviour, which varies from one individual to another.

Sometimes, even the same individuals respond differently to the same situation at different or distant times. Because of these individual differences between PELTs, it is hard to predict the results achieved through exactly the same intervention process when working with different student groups. Thus, the main goal was to achieve an analytical generalisation which is only valid for the PELTs at this campus within the University of Benghazi at the time of finalising the study. As I seek a firm understanding of the situation and aim to penetrate as deeply as possible to uncover the details of the ELT situation in this university (Darke et al., 1998; Walsham, 1995), only the PELTs, ELLs and stakeholders in this English department within this university were chosen as participant groups.

Thus, this study is not a multi-case study in which the selected cases can be used to verify or judge the validity and reliability of each other. Achieving an adequate understanding of the ELT situation was a priority in this study and was perceived as more important than involving multiple cases in the study for the sake of greater validity and “generaliseability” of the findings (Ellram, 1996). However, this does not mean the validity

of the results of this study is not sustained. There are other factors that give greater validity and also reliability to the findings of a case study, such as using multiple sources of data collection and multiple methods of analysis (Danziger & Kraemer, 1991; Gable, 1994; Punch, 2009; Thurmond, 2013; Yin, 2009). These different methods and sources of data collection and analysis are viewed as supportive and complementary to each other rather than competitive or contradictory.

The research can also be viewed as both a case for teaching and a case for research (Ellram, 1996; Punch, 2009). In the former sense I worked with the participant PELTs to develop their levels of English using alternative pedagogical approaches and teaching methods. The aims were to reorganise and update the Libyan English classroom so the difference in the outcomes of the teaching–learning process surfaced through the course. In the latter case, however, the research is intended to explore the Libyan ELT context, describe it and then test the applicability of the new methods in the Libyan context.

3.4.2. Questionnaires

Pre service teachers of English who wished to participate in the study completed purposive screening questionnaires to determine some factors that helped me to decide about choosing participants and also to design the intervention in the best way. The only PELTs who were excluded were those who were born and received most of their education in English-speaking countries. Their input was not perceived in this study as representative of English education in Libya and therefore their participation was not considered valid in terms of answering the questions in this study.

After I selected the participants through this screening questionnaire, I then allocated 10 participants into an intervention group and 10 participants into a comparison group. The screening questionnaire also assisted in choosing a subset of six interview participants from the intervention group. These six participants were selected on criteria that determined that, as a group, they represented a diverse cross-section of regional and educational backgrounds in Libya; hence they represented different geographical locations and high school learning backgrounds, as well as overall perspectives on and attitudes to learning English.

3.4.3. The Teaching Knowledge Test

As the research aimed to investigate the current knowledge of teaching of English among the Libyan PELTs at the Agdabia Faculty of Arts and Sciences, the University of Benghazi, the participants took the Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT) (see Section 5.2.) before the intervention. I did not provide or use any TKT-relevant materials to prepare the PELTs for the pre test. The test aimed to test the PELTs' current knowledge (before the intervention commenced); therefore providing any preparatory materials could have influenced the results. The PELTs were only instructed on how to answer the test, particularly with regard to time management and use of the test sheet. Both groups (the 10 test and the 10 comparison PELTs) were pre and post tested to determine the progress (if any) that the intervention group had made in terms of their knowledge of teaching of English after receiving the intervention. The intervention consisted of ELT knowledge and practical methods and skills instruction. Examples of TKT test sheets are presented in Appendix F.

3.4.4. Individual interviews and focus group interviews

ELLS, school teachers, and stakeholders in the administration of the Agdabia faculty were interviewed. The ELLs were interviewed to talk about the problems and difficulties they encounter in their interaction with the PELTs. The ELLS and high school teachers were asked about the kinds of textbooks, methods and methodologies they adopt in the classrooms and how they choose them. They also talked about their interaction with the PELTs and high school students in classrooms and their overall motivation and attitude towards English. The ELLs discussed some of the PELTs' common habits in classrooms and the reasons (from their own perspectives) for these habits. Examples of these habits are the PELTs' heavy use of translation, memorisation and study of grammar. The interview frame for the ELLs and high school teachers is presented in Appendix J. The stakeholders were interviewed to discuss the availability of teaching aids and facilities, libraries and internet, and the PELTs' access to these resources. They were also asked to talk about the average class sizes and the entire management of the university. The interview frame for stakeholders is presented in Appendix K.

The female PELTs were interviewed in a focus group by a female interviewer because the student participants' husbands would not consent to allowing their wives to be interviewed by a male interviewer. Before they get married, males and females are strictly

not allowed to even come close to each other or to have any kind of physical contact such as shaking hands. They should not even engage in any unnecessary conversations or be on their own in any closed room or office. If necessary, they can sit in a place where they can be seen by the public. An example of such a place is a room that has a glass door or windows, and the two people should have a strong reason to be together in that place. These matters are not only socially unacceptable but they are also illegal. The interview frame for PELTs is presented in Appendix I.

For this particular reason, I hired a female employee from the university to conduct focus group interviews with the female PELTs on my behalf. She is an information technologist at the faculty and known for her skills in note taking, conducting interviews and public speaking. A staff member from the faculty mentioned her name to me and recommended that I contact her for this job as she has helped him to do similar work with female students before. I initially asked her to interview the PELTs on a one-on-one basis and take detailed notes of the interviews. She then suggested to audio-record the interviews with the female PELTs to provide me with transcripts of these interviews in Arabic. She then gave the audio records back to the PELTs with a guarantee that no copies of these audio recordings would be kept by anyone else. She provided me with the transcripts in Arabic which I then translated into English. It took her three weeks to interview the five PELTs and transcribe the conversations in Arabic.

Only one of the female PELTs gave me consent to interview her personally, audio-record the interview and keep the record for my future work. The student was born and raised in the industrial city of Albreiga where people from different parts of Libya and from overseas live and work, mainly in the construction and oil industries. Libyan people living in this city, which is located about 80 kilometres to the west of Agdabia, are known for leading a Western-like lifestyle.

3.4.5. Observation

Observation started at the beginning of the intervention and continued until the end of it. I maintained field notes which were reviewed weekly to improve the delivery of the intervention course work. As part of the PELTs' needs analysis process, I applied an "adopt, adapt, reject" framework while the intervention was in progress (Nisbett & Colins, 1978). That is, participants were asked to respond to teaching methods in one of three

ways: adopting them wholly, adapting some aspect to their practice, or rejecting the practice outright. This framework provided a vehicle for feedback on what worked for the Libyan learners for teaching English, and on what did not.

3.4.6 Critical Incident Technique

The Critical Incident Technique (CIT) was used to identify critical incidents in the data. Flanagan (1954) explains CIT:

a set of procedures for collecting direct observations of human behavior in such a way as to facilitate their potential usefulness in solving practical problems and developing broad psychological principles. The critical incident technique outlines procedures for collecting observable incidents having special significance and meeting systematically defined criteria (p. 1)

The CIT is a flexible and systematic technique of incident identification, allowing the researcher to choose from a variety of methods and techniques of data collection when observing human behaviour in a particular targeted activity. The researcher records each incident for later use in case they view it as a possible significant contributor to their own work.

Hughes, Williamson and Lloyd (2007) and Kain (2004) maintain that, since it is flexible, the approach has to be adapted to suit the particular situation being addressed. It also has to aim at identifying incidents important to the people involved in the activity being observed — both the observer and the participants. People involved in this activity also have to determine the significance and value accompanying the particular incident so that they can be analysed and presented to an interested audience.

Extreme incidents are classified and then categorised and documented as categories that either help or hinder the progress of the process being observed. Flanagan (1954) maintains that the behaviour has to be fully observed; in other words, to continue to be observed until it occurs in full. Use of data from a partially observed human behaviour can be misleading or present an unrealistic result.

Some data collected in this research have necessitated using the CIT. For example, the CIT was used in the screening questionnaires to choose only those PELTs who were eligible to participate in the study. I could not include PELTs who received all or part of

their English education outside of Libya and in English-speaking countries (see Section 3.4.2., for more details).

CIT was also applied in the third-party monitoring and evaluation of the PELTs to enable them to reflect honestly on what they felt about various aspects of the course and to discover the participants' perspectives on the various incidents we identified throughout the data collection process. I arranged for the monitor to sit with the PELTs on the last day of each week to talk with them on a number of topics I had prepared for the monitor in advance on the basis of both my reflection and observation of the classes each week and the research questions. I classified critical incidents and categorised them in a table of notes on the students' performance, responses to the various parts of the course, what I did to alter their behaviour, and the results of my actions (i.e. how the PELTs responded to my actions).

3.5. Research procedure

I announced my intention to conduct a study on teaching English in the Department of English within the Faculty of Arts and Sciences at the Agdabia campus of the University of Benghazi (ethics approval number S12422), which involved delivering a free English and teaching methodology course. Twenty-seven PELTs from this department volunteered and took a screening questionnaire to determine their suitability to participate in the study. The questionnaire aimed to obtain information about their attitude to and background in English learning and teaching, regional backgrounds, exposure to English, and places they received their previous English education.

Twenty PELTs were selected and were divided into two groups of ten: a intervention group and a comparison group. The comparison group only took the pre and post survey and the TKT. The TKT is a test developed by the University of Cambridge which aims to test the English teaching knowledge of individuals. The intervention group — in addition to taking the TKT with the comparison group — further underwent a 7-week course in English teaching methodology, were interviewed and had sessions for reflection on practice as the course was progressing.

At the design stage of this research, I had planned to personally conduct one-on-one interviews with the six PELTs from the intervention group. However, due to the cultural

sensitivity of male–female interaction in Agdabia, I had to hire a third-party female interviewer to conduct these interviews on my behalf in a focus group interview. She audio-recorded the six interviews and prepared them in written scripts for me and then returned the audio recordings to the female PELTs in compliance with our agreement before we started. The reflection-on-practice sessions involved both oral and written reflections. The intervention group either reflected on their practice orally to me and their peers in the classrooms or in writing by trading “notes” in the classroom. These options were offered to enable participants to feel comfortable talking honestly about how they felt and what they thought about the various aspects of the course and their own performance. For the same reason, they were also interviewed by a third party once a week for approximately 45 minutes. The third party is an academic from the Department of Psychology in the same faculty. We adopted the Critical Incident Technique (discussed in Section 3.4.6) in this part of the data collection. The academic was given a list of issues that were covered in the course throughout the week to ensure none were omitted in his discussions with the PELTs.

After screening and grouping the PELTs, the two groups then took the TKT test and were advised that they should finish in the time allotted. They were also given some instructions in Arabic with regard to how to use the test sheets and what the test is designed to measure. The selection of the intervention group participants was also made with regard to the PELTs’ own intentions to take the course: some students took the screening questionnaire and the pre-TKT test but they said that were not very interested in participating in the course.

After the course finished, the two groups took the survey and TKT again to measure the differences in their scores and reflections before and after the course. At the time of starting this intervention, the two student groups were attending regular university classes but only the intervention group took the methodology course.

In summary, Figure 2 presents the chronological sequence of methods.

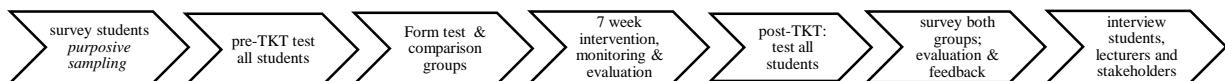


Figure 2. The sequence of activities for this mixed methods single case study.

3.6. Participants

There are three participant groups in this study: the pre service English language teacher participants (PELTs), the English language lecturers (ELTs) at the faculty and the stakeholders from both the faculty and the Agdabia Department of Primary and High School Education. The student participant group was divided into two groups: the test and comparison groups.

3.6.1. Pre service English language teacher participants

The PELT participants' were aged between 21 and 22 years old. Most of them came from the eastern region of Libya and had received their previous English education in that part of the country. Only 15% of the participants said in the screening survey that they had received their previous English education either in the western or southern parts of Libya. This was particularly important to know about the PELTs in the Agdabia faculty due to its location near the major industrial city of Albreiga where families from all parts of the country are residing for work. Of the PELTs, 10% said they had studied English for 3–6 years while 75% of them said they had studied the language for 7–10 years. Only 15% of the total number had studied English for 11 years or more. For their English practice, 88% of the PELTs said that they practise English for either 20 hours or less a week, while 12 % practised for 21–30 hours a week. As far as practising English outside the faculty is concerned, 95% said they do not practice English outside of school.

The targeted PELTs who were invited to take part in this study were final-year students in their fourth year in the Department of English within the Faculty of Arts and Sciences in the city of Agdabia campus of the University of Benghazi. They were anticipated to have accomplished a major part of their study at the university. Therefore, if they had had any prior practical experience with the intended methods to be used in the intervention, this would have occurred at the university. Fourth-year students are usually busy with their graduation research work and may not be studying any teaching methods and methodology at this level.

The university had not adopted a semester-based calendar until 2009. The PELTs were required to enrol in the faculty for four years after graduation from high school to obtain the degree of Bachelor of Arts. They studied for nine successive months each year, usually from January to September with some occasional short breaks and holidays. This

period is a full academic year on the university's calendar. Students take two mid-term exams in all studied subjects and then take the final exams at the end of the academic year (i.e. in September). For the first mid-term exams, the students are required to cover the materials studied in the first part of the academic year. For the second mid-term exams, they are required to cover the materials studied between the first mid-term and the second-term exams; that is, they are not required to cover any materials studied before the first mid-term exam. In the final exams, however, students are required to cover all materials studied from the beginning to the end of the academic year.

Since 2010, the university has adopted a semester-based calendar instead of the year-based one. Each year, students can only be enrolled in two semesters: the spring and the fall semesters. Currently, the PELTs in this department have to pass through eight semesters taken within at least four years. They can take two semesters each year and are required to conduct a research project and pass a viva in the final semester before graduation. If a student repeatedly fails a course, they can retake it an unlimited number of times until they pass.

The PELTs chosen to participate in this study were those between semesters 5 and 8. They are assumed to have an adequate background concerning the methods and methodology of English teaching and learning. The PELTs do not usually study these methods and methodology until they reach Semester 5. Most of the subjects they study in the first four semesters are the so-called "Introduction to ... subjects".

3.6.1.1 PELT participant allocation

After conducting the pre-survey (Appendix A), I had several casual conversations with the PELTs before I reached a final decision on who to include in the course and the intervention group and who to include in the comparison group. I asked the ELLs if I could have short occasional conversations with the PELTs at the end of their classes; the ELLs said they were happy for me to come in and chat to the students. Some students said they preferred to be in the comparison group because they were overwhelmed with university classes and assignments. Thus, they expected to be absent for most of the classes if they were to enrol in the course. Others said they would like to take the course and were looking forward to its commencing.

3.6.2. English language lecturers at the faculty

Both ELLs at the Agdabia faculty and school teachers in Agdabia are either Libyan nationals or are of non-Libyan Arab or Indian nationality. It is noteworthy that most of the non-Libyan ELLs observed during this study brought their selected materials with them to use in classrooms in Libya. Thus they chose the materials before they knew anything about the needs of the Libyan PELTs in this particular faculty or knew anything about their students' English, cultural and social backgrounds. The ELLs said that they conducted some assessment sessions in the first days after arriving at the faculty and meeting the PELTs. However, they mostly did not indicate if they had had any criteria for this assessment, or what this assessment included.

Some of these ELLs join the Department of English and start teaching PELTs at advanced levels without considering their background and what they have studied in the preceding semesters. The PELTs reported that in many situations they studied inconsistent materials and sometimes studied reading materials in a class that was supposed to be a spoken English or listening class. Moreover, the PELTs sometimes study advanced materials in their first or second semester and then study less challenging materials in their final semesters. This happens when they are assigned a new ELL who has no knowledge of what they have studied in their earlier semesters.

Both non-Libyan ELLs at the faculty and high school teachers sign a contract with the Ministry of Education to work for several years in Libya, unless this contract is revoked in writing by either of the two sides. They come to Libya to work as teachers for a number of years then return to their countries. A common belief exists in Libya that non-Libyan teachers who have no intention to reside permanently in Libya do not take their work seriously enough to adopt authentic teaching methods and methodology in their teaching.

None of the Libyan ELLs who teach at the Agdabia faculty actually live in Agdabia, including the head of the Department of English. They come from other cities, some of which can be seven or eight hundred kilometres away. They come to classes once a week. Some of them distribute enough materials for PELTs for two or three weeks in advance so they do not have to travel to work every week. They then come to class again in two or three weeks to give the students more materials for the next few weeks to study on their own. ELLs, especially Libyans, are free to instruct their PELTs in the way that suits them,

without the right of interference from any third party in the university. For instance, speaking and listening classes can be delivered in grammar and reading format and all exercises and assignments done in writing. Administrative and educational authorities in Libya know about these practices and yet none of these authorities seem able to intervene to alter these classroom practices.

3.6.3. Stakeholders

The stakeholders who participated in this study were from the Agdabia faculty and the Agdabia Department of Primary and High School Education. Some of them were senior administrators at the two government bodies. Others were student affairs and resource management administrators in the faculty. There were also senior inspectors at the Educational Monitoring Office of the Department of Primary and High School Education. Some of the interviewee stakeholders work for the Agdabia department of school education and concurrently work part-time as lecturers at the Agdabia faculty. That is, in addition to their positions at the Agdabia department of school administration, they work for a few hours each week at the faculty; in Libya these are called “cooperative staff members” who cooperate with the university to deliver lectures although they are not appointed to work there by the Ministry of Education. This practice happens when the university has more students and departments than can be handled by the staff members. These stakeholders discussed issues related to both the faculty and the Agdabia department of school education because of their familiarity with these two places.

3.6.4. High school teachers

Two high school teachers were interviewed to gain the perspective of English language teachers’ regarding the implementation of the English for Libya curriculum and the problems encountered in teaching the four skills of English.

3.7. Data analysis

The data that I analysed were obtained from the following sources:

- classroom observation
- pre and post intervention surveys

- pre and post TKT test
- the intervention (this includes data from further tools of data collection: PELTs' reflection on practice sessions and third-party monitoring sessions)
- an artefact review.

To analyse the data in relation to the research questions, I organised the data from the various sources into themes (Namey, Guest, Thairu, & Johnson, 2007). These themes were identified by reading the data, coding the main ideas and then grouping the similar and frequent data together to reduce it and highlight its significance. I considered the decisions made during this data reduction and coding process as my personal “analytic choices”, following Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 11). Data reduction “is a form of analysis that sharpens, sorts, focuses, discards, and organizes data in such a way that ‘final’ conclusions can be drawn and verified” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 11). Namey et al. (2007: p. 139) also state that “eliminating data not relevant to the analysis at hand — or extracting the data that are relevant — is usually the first, and arguably the simplest, form of data reduction.”

I documented the PELT classroom interactions in the intervention course by writing a daily report. Regarding the PELTs' reflection on practice sessions and the third-party monitoring sessions, I only kept a record of the data that I considered relevant to the research questions. I started developing the themes after all the interviews were conducted and the process of data collection was accomplished. I highlighted the main and most relevant data (obtained through the interviews) and coded it first. I then started classifying the data obtained through the other sources under these themes. The important data which was collected through sources other than the interviews, and which were not covered by the interviews, were then added and coded as themes as well.

Namey et al. (2007) argue that the reliability of the thematic analysis may be questioned because of the individual differences between research analysts. The research analysts using this type of data analysis go through the data and screen it, which could affect the quality and quantity of the used data depending on their personal skills. In other words, which data to use and which data to eliminate remain a personal decision. This process is different from content analysis, in which the analysts use the whole data set without exceptions. This latter method, however, also has drawbacks because using all the data collected does not lead to a well-summarised and shaped product that takes the

research context into consideration. Thematic analysis may require more time but the results are usually richer and more contextualised.

To attend to this drawback in thematic analysis, after all the themes were identified, I put all the themes into one document and started reading through my raw data again to check if the themes covered all the content of the data collected. I then also checked if the themes were directly relevant to addressing the research questions. While I was screening my raw data looking for themes, I was actually looking for the barriers to implementing CLT in Libya and, therefore, to making the Libyan future teachers better teachers of English. In other words, I set a framework for myself to screen the data in a close-ended procedure and to ensure that the data I used would eventually address the main question of the research.

Regarding the quantitatively collected data, I statistically analysed the TKT results using a paired t-test. I converted the survey results into percentages and analysed these results descriptively by comparing pre-test and post-test results. I then interpreted these figures in light of the overall data analysis context. After all of the results were revealed, the discussion went further to suggest solutions to enable adaptation of CLT in Libya. This discussion was informed by scholarly literature and the review of the experiences of other countries which had adapted CLT at various stages in the past.

Having established the themes, I then started the explanatory part of the data analysis (Namey et al., 2007). I constructed a discussion of the outcomes of the data collection and presented the barriers to adapting CLT in the Libyan ELT context and, therefore, to making the Libyan future teachers of English better teachers. To further enhance the reliability of the data analysis outcomes, I sharpened my arguments in this discussion through triangulation of the data (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Thurmond, 2013). This discussion is presented in the final chapter (Chapter 6) of the thesis. The following chapters 4 and 5 present a description of the data and results that arose from the research methods discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 4: Data description and results. Part 1

4.1. Introduction

Chapter 3 justified the research paradigm and methodology used to investigate the research questions of this thesis, and outlined the research methods and the data sources. It also presented the participant groups and the design of the research. This chapter first presents demographic and socio-cultural data collected from surveys. Then a comparison of attitudinal survey data collected pre and post the intervention of the methodology course is conducted. Next, Libyan school and university English curricula are described through a discussion of some example artefacts used in teaching to these two sectors. Finally, the chapter discusses the assessment, evaluation and grading systems used in the Libyan English language teaching context. Throughout these descriptions of the data, responses from interviews held with all stakeholders are triangulated in the description.

Two major topics were unearthed from the interviews with pre service English language teachers (PELTs), English Language lecturers (ELLS) and other stakeholders which are barriers to developing English education in Libya:

- factors contributing to the PELTs' attitude towards being a teacher in Libya
- suitability of the faculty building and resources.

4.2. Factors contributing to the PELT's attitude towards being a teacher in Libya

Generally, PELTs think that the average income for a teacher in Libya, especially in the public sector, is very modest compared to those of other people in different domains or teaching in the private sector. ELLs and stakeholders also agree with this opinion. Stakeholder participant 7, for instance, revealed:

As a matter of fact, we have teams of very capable teachers in town but sometimes they complain about the pay in the education sector.

Males and females are separated in schools starting from Grade 6, which is the end of elementary school. The students are typically 12 years old in Grade 6. Beyond that point the two genders attend separate schools until they graduate from high school, when they have mixed gender classes at university.

PELTs at this stage (especially males) usually start thinking about getting married and other life necessities such as buying a house and a car, commencing private business or finding a good job. Males tend to think that these issues are important when females judge if a man is a suitable marriage partner. Participant 13 said:

That is true [students are distracted by their financial goals]. I agree about it unconditionally, you know, I have four older brothers. There might be some social or psychological issues surrounding this and affecting the ideology of most Libyan students, especially males. Many of them think that they became adults when they reached the age of 18 and need to be independent, especially when it comes to finances. Most of them find it hard and embarrassing to ask their parents for money at this age. I think that this greatly affects their learning abilities and eagerness to learn. They just need to escape university at this age and find a job instead. They think that it is shameful for them to say that they are still dependent and ask their parents for their personal expenses to females. They think that females will not see them as dependent adults who are worthy of respect and attention.

Male PELTs do not take English education seriously and do not tend to spend adequate time on it because they usually want to achieve their non-academic goals as soon as possible after entering university. This attitude becomes common among PELTs when some of their peers quit high school or university and start their journey toward achieving their financial goals. Some of them leave university when they are only about a year or so from graduation and start looking for a job. Stakeholder participant 7 said:

Many students at the university are distracted with achieving some financial goals. Many of them are currently, for example, enrolled in the Army and working with the revolutionary groups [who fought against the former regime in Libya]. So when they come tired in the morning and unable to focus on their study ... we ask them why and then they say that they were on guard duty in an Army compound. We do encourage them to place a distinction between their personal life and work as soldiers, employees, teachers, or students. All these factors do make students prefer specific [less sophisticated] learning styles. This is to say that they always tend to find the easiest way out of their courses so they can obtain their degrees and jobs. That is how most of our male students think. Many of them are very limited with their thinking and no matter how hard you try to encourage them to learn something that they might benefit from in the future, they meet you with refusal. Many students think practically and only want the things that they can benefit from momentarily. However, others have longer-term plans to pursue their higher degrees and therefore they focus on learning rather than on beneficiary and practical matters.

A male is also socially required to cover all marriage expenses himself, and those of his wife. He has to pay for jewellery and expensive gifts to his mother-in-law and other relatives of his wife. Sitting at a university desk or trying to learn a new language is not, therefore,

considered by male PELTs as a way to achieve their goals. They also consider leaving school early and finding a job not only less demanding than studying but also more rewarding with regard to improving their financial situation. Moreover, some PELTs believe that learning how to communicate in a different language can be done more easily and faster by travelling to a country where that language is spoken to ensure adequate exposure for proper learning. Spending a great deal of time on learning the grammar and lexis of a language is not considered a good option for PELTs if they need to acquire the language for the sake of communication and other practical purposes.

Male PELTs usually refuse substantial assistance from their families to build their own houses. Those who accept help in these matters from their families are usually not respected. Some men find it insulting if they are told that they married and can live as independent adult men because someone else paid their way. Female students, on the other hand, are usually less stressed with financial matters but they usually have very few opportunities to practice English or develop linguistic skills, especially speaking and listening. Arabic is almost exclusively used in the public domain. PELT participant 11 said:

Luckily, we [female students] do not have to worry a lot about finances while we are studying. We don't spend much time on doing these things as the males do. However, we have no place to go in town to practice English. Not even on campus. You know that English is not used here by the public and we cannot speak in English even with my classmates here on campus. If you do so, you will not be taken seriously and you might be perceived as only showing off. You get embarrassed as other people may mock you and make fun of you if you speak to them in a different language.

As mentioned earlier, most of the PELTs at the university are females while most ELLs are males. This creates another problem for authentic communication between the two genders. Male and female PELTs do not feel free to interact or participate actively in any class activities in mixed classes. In order for such activities to be carried out as appropriately as possible, the entire class should be one gender. In some cases, the PELTs (male or female) prefer the ELL to be the same gender as well. PELT participant 10 revealed:

In a mixed class the embarrassment is even more likely to happen and in the class of females only the embarrassment will still be there because it shows the teachers actual competence in English. The student then will need to study the materials unit by unit.

Male PELTs also perceive teaching as a feminine profession and think men should do "tougher" kinds of work that females cannot do, such as construction, auto mechanics or

catering. Male PELTs who quit their education and start businesses apart from education are admired by their fellow PELTs and viewed as models of success in life without reliance on obtaining education and a university degree.

The interviews with the PELTs revealed a preference for traditional transmission teaching and respect for teachers who maintained discipline in the classroom. The attributes and behaviours that the PELTs preferred to see in a teacher were (a) being strict, (b) firm on decisions, (c) knowledgeable in the subject and (d) being able to convey knowledge to students coherently. PELT participant 15 said:

An easy-going teacher will not be taken seriously in classrooms, especially English classes. Students will misbehave and will not abide by any of his instruction or do the homework he tells them to do. If the teacher is not knowledgeable and have extended experience in English he will not be trusted by the students, parents, and stakeholders as well. Private schools will not hire such teachers to work for them as well. This makes all teachers toughen up to make up a good career in this field.

This type of teacher, according to the PELTs, is the only kind who can maintain successful teaching of English and provide an adequate atmosphere for learning in the class. *Learning* here refers to mastering what is enough for the students to pass the exam. The PELTs think building communicative or linguistic competence and skills can be done after graduation. PELT Participant 13 said:

Many students think that they can develop better linguistic skills after they leave university and find a job. They become more comfortable at this stage to learn.

4.3. Suitability of the faculty building and resources

The Agdabia Faculty of Arts and Sciences in which the English department is located has two buildings that are located on Tripoli Street in Agdabia. The two buildings are across the road from each other and are both located on one of the busiest streets in town.

Many of the Libyan traffic rules and laws are unenforced and people usually sound their horns when they drive past the two faculty buildings. In addition, the trucks and heavy machines that use the road make the problem worse. ELLs and PELTs complain that they can hardly hear each other during class activities because the windows of most classrooms face the roadside. ELL participant 4, in explaining his experience in teaching English at this faculty, said:

The faculty is situated at the heart of town and the streets there are very busy. Sometimes we have to suspend the class for a few minutes till the noise decreases.

The acoustic treatment of classrooms is very poor which makes the environment unsuitable for learning.

The classrooms are not acoustically treated and were designed for one person to speak at a time, usually the teacher. Pedestrians who walk past the buildings also interrupt communication between PELTs and ELLs in the classrooms if they talk loudly. ELL participant 4 commented:

It is usually hot in summer and cold in winter so the overall environment in the class is not suitable for the PELTs to learn. They have no comfortable seats or air conditioning systems. Thus, generally, I would say there are not enough facilities that help the learners to learn in a satisfactory way in this faculty.

The buildings were built in the late 1950s and were first used by the former government of King Idris and then used by successive governments for various purposes. They have been modified to be used by the Faculty of Arts and Sciences. Stakeholder participant 9 said:

One of the buildings of Agdabia faculty is not suitable to be used for this purpose and is too old even to inhabit.

The classrooms' only facilities for the PELTs are boards and desks. The ELLs complained that the number of seats available in many of the classrooms is fewer than the number of PELTs. PELTs have to try to find desks or chairs to bring from other classrooms into their own room. The rooms have no carpets or air conditioning and therefore are usually very hot in summer and very cold in winter.

Each class is taken once a week and runs for 90 minutes. The class sizes range from 40 to 90 PELTs. ELLs for subjects such as writing, for example, say that they cannot provide timely feedback to their PELTs because of this problem. This probably explains, at least in part, why classes scheduled for listening and speaking are studied through writing activities. Despite all my efforts to invite the ELLs from the Agdabia faculty to discuss the issue of why listening and speaking are taught through writing activities, none of them did. The ELLs did not acknowledge that this happens but the PELTs did report this.

Some ELLs reported similar problems caused by the overcrowded classrooms, which leave the teacher no option but to eliminate communicative skills and maintain traditional styles of classroom instruction that focus mainly on grammar and reading. On this point, ELL Participant 4 commented:

I once had a Writing III class of 120 students. In this case, I had to lead a traditional style of learning to convey information to the students. Communication and discussion becomes impossible in such cases. Evaluation and assessment also become hard as you are talking about 120 students here which require three to four hours just for assessment of all these students. Therefore, and because of all these matters, we will have to lead traditional styles of teaching and both sides [ELLs and PELTs] will be negatively influenced by this practice.

In addition, there is no wireless internet network available for PELTs or staff on campus and the library is very small with few books and journals. PELTs cannot borrow any of the available books to take from the library. The PELTs also complained that the library does not operate according to the announced timetable. It sometimes closes suddenly without any notice. PELTs in the library are told they need to leave as soon as possible without a reason or an alternative place for them to go.

The university had one language laboratory before the war, which accommodated only 20 PELTs, and another computer laboratory which was modified for language learning purposes. The two language laboratories were either destroyed or removed by the former regime's forces during the 2011 upheavals to prevent them being used by the public for any anti-regime purposes.

The problem of the lack of equipment both in the Department of English in the faculty and in high schools in Agdabia was raised by several participants. Some considered it a barrier to delivering speaking and listening classes as intended in both the design of the school curricula and the materials prepared by the ELLs in the faculty. However, others said that the lack of equipment was only an excuse to cover the ELLs inability to deliver proper listening and speaking instruction. Participant 6, a high school English teacher, for instance, said:

The teachers are not qualified to teach skills such as listening and speaking. They did not also study or learn how to deal with these skills at the university. So they take the lack of laboratories as an excuse to eliminate these skills.

Some other participants traced the elimination of these skills back to the PELTs' weak background in English; therefore ELLs cannot expect PELTs at the faculty to show outstanding command of these two skills. ELL participant 1, for example, revealed:

The teaching of English is not good or the culture of English is not at all here. So they [PELTs] come from a society where English is not spoken in the streets or at home. They don't have books to read, they don't have video records and newspapers in

English to read so I tell them to listen to BBC or Aljazeera English or any other English program. They say they would but they wouldn't. So my personal opinion is that English is not taken or considered as a language. Rather it is like mathematics, you know, to score marks.

Some participants did not believe that the presence of equipment would significantly improve the listening and speaking activities in the faculty. ELL Participant 2 pointed out:

And generally they say that you need the lab, you need the equipment. You need modern technology for listening and speaking. But I, as a teacher I differ. I totally differ in this opinion [disagree with this opinion]. Because, let me just remind you, did we go to the language lab to learn our mother tongue? But all of us speak a perfectly correct mother tongue. How did we do that? These things, these labs help you, but a good teacher, he or she should make the best use out of the available resources and get the best out of the students. That is [these are] the resources. I always believe that human resources are the best resource[s].

Some ELLs at the faculty presented the opinion that Arabic-speaking ELLs do not encourage an atmosphere of communication in English on campus. They say that ELLs communicate in Arabic even for the official departmental events and meetings. ELL participant 1 said:

There should be some kind of arrangement. Students should talk among themselves first, only in English while they are on campus. At least the Arab teachers should not talk in English [meaning in Arabic]; they should not communicate, not only in class but also on campus and in the meetings.... They should initiate a culture of speaking in English when they are on campus. At least when the students are around.

4.4. Findings of the pre-intervention and post-intervention surveys

PELTs typically enter the university at the age of 19. Therefore the participant PELTs' ages were between 21 and 22 years. Most of them come from the eastern region of Libya and received their previous English education in that part of the country. Only 15% of the participant PELTs indicated in the survey that they received their previous English education either in the western or southern parts of Libya. This was particularly important to know about the PELTs in the Agdabia faculty due to its location near the major industrial city of Albreiga where families from all parts of the country reside for work.

Ten percent of the PELTs indicated they had studied English for 3–6 years, whereas 75% of them indicated they had studied it for 7–10 years. Only 15% of the PELTs had studied English for 11 years or more. The majority of PELTs (88%) reported that they spent 20 hours or less a week practising English (Figure 3). The majority of their practice time is during

class; 95% of the PELTs reported they do not practise English outside their classroom time at university (Figure 4).

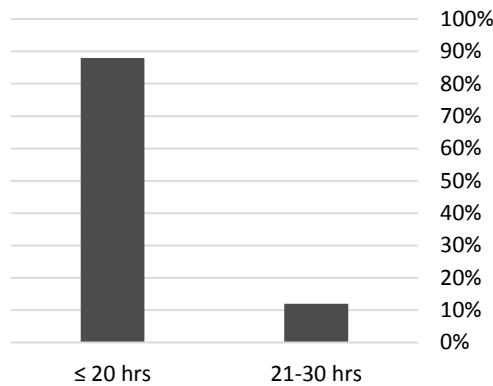


Figure 3. Intervention and comparison group combined response to the survey question: How often do you practice English per week?

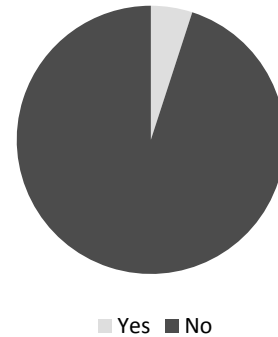


Figure 4. Intervention and comparison group combined response to the survey question: Do you practice English outside of your classroom?

When comparing the differences in terms of the attitudes to and perspectives on various educational aspects of both the intervention and comparison groups of PELTs before and after the methods course intervention (see Appendix A), only the survey results for the intervention group showed substantial differences in some of their attitudes to the teaching of English. For example, while 80% of the intervention group said in the pre-intervention survey that grammar translation is the best way to teach English, in the post-intervention survey 70% of the group had changed their view and said they preferred communicative approaches. With regard to whether grammar should be taught explicitly or learnt inductively (Figure 5), 80% of the group preferred explicit teaching in the pre-intervention survey, 10% were neutral and only 10% chose inductive learning as a better way to learn grammar. In contrast, in the post-intervention survey 90% of the group said that they preferred inductive learning of grammar and only 10% preferred explicit teaching.

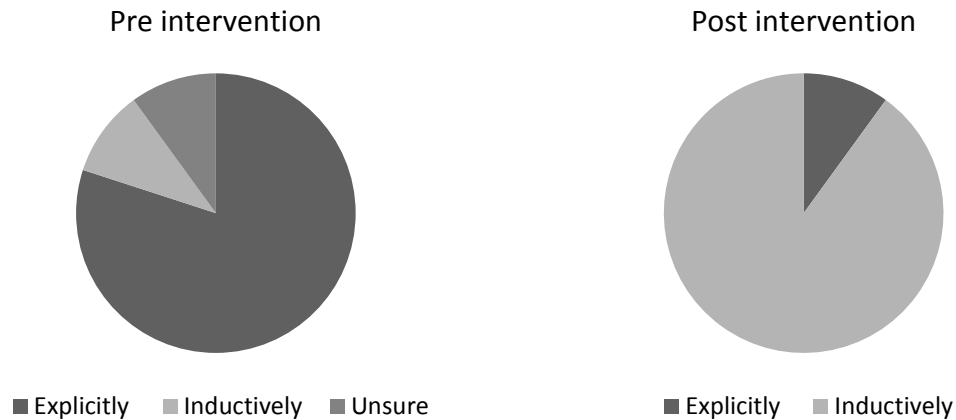


Figure 5. Intervention group response to the survey question: Do you think grammar should be taught explicitly or inductively?

In the pre-intervention survey, the PELTs in the intervention group were mainly satisfied with their English education at the university. However, this attitude changed remarkably after attending the course and experiencing the communicative methodology that was modelled in the course: 80% responded they were either *neutral* or *satisfied* with their English education at the university before taking the course, whereas 80% responded that they were either *strongly unsatisfied* or *unsatisfied* in the post-intervention survey.

Regarding their interest in learning English (Figure 6), 80% of the intervention group were either *neutral* or *interested* in learning English in the pre-intervention survey; however, 90% responded in the post-intervention survey that they were either *interested* or *very interested* in learning English.

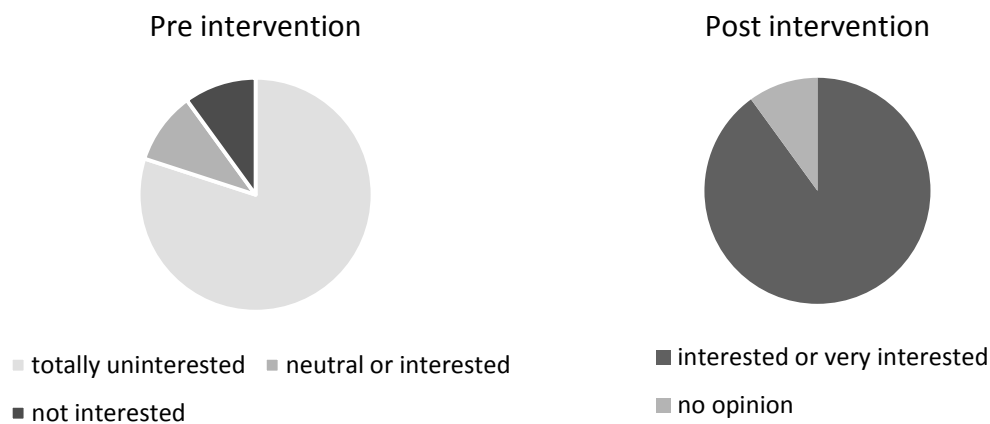


Figure 6. Intervention group response to the survey question: How interested are you in learning English?

In response to the survey question about the reason they were learning English, in the pre-intervention survey 60% of the intervention group said that they were learning it because it is useful to them; however, in the post-intervention survey 90% of this group said that they were learning it because it is useful and interesting. This reflects a dramatic change in the attitude to and perspectives of the PELTs in the intervention group towards learning the language before and after the methods course intervention.

Before the intervention, a large proportion (80%) of the PELTs responded through the survey that their current English education in the university would eventually enable them to teach English in Libyan schools. However, this belief substantially changed after practising communicative approaches in the course: the majority (90%) of the intervention group changed their attitude, saying that they did not agree that their university education would enable them to deal with primary and high school curricula. This change indicates that after experiencing the new communicative teaching methods they became dissatisfied with the traditional methods used at the university.

The final attitudinal change involved the intervention group's level of confidence in speaking English before and after the intervention. Seventy percent of the intervention group reported in the pre-intervention survey that they felt *diffident* regarding their ability to speak English if asked to speak in any situation, while 30% felt *very diffident* (Figure 7). However, the majority (90%) revealed in their post-intervention survey that they had become *confident* to speak English without hesitation or without feeling stressed and 10% were *neutral* after participating in the methods course (Figure 7). Although these results do not necessarily mean that the PELTs became fluent in English and that their skills had dramatically improved, they do suggest that the PELTs now have less fear of making mistakes and have developed self-confidence in using the language without hesitation.

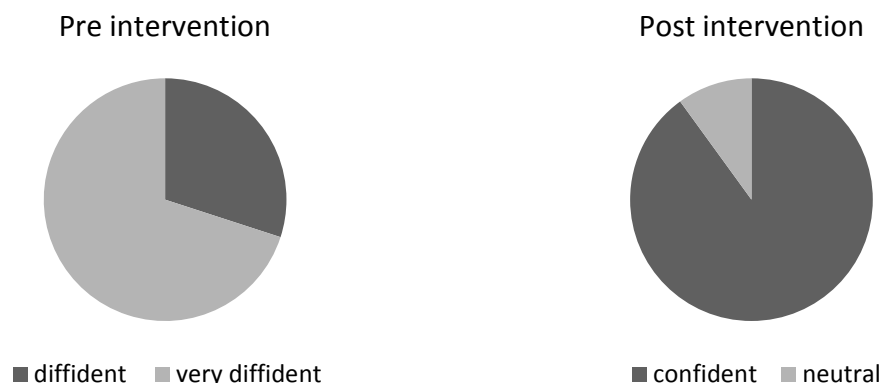


Figure 7. Intervention group response to the survey question: How comfortable do you think you will feel if you are invited to speak English?

4.5. Curriculum analysis

As a part of addressing the overarching research question — *How can the future teachers of English become better teachers?* — the current state of education within the high school and university sectors needs to be discussed. This will be done through a review of the school English curricula and how they are delivered to PELTs. The English teaching materials studied at the university and how they are delivered to PELTs will also be examined. The alignment between high school and university English education will then be discussed with regard to how they both contribute to serving the main goal of the university, which is to prepare PELTs for their future English teaching role. This preparation comprises developing the PELTs' English proficiency as well as their English teaching skills.

Based on the findings of the pre-intervention survey, in this review of the curriculum I assume that high school and university are the only opportunities for PELTs to develop their English proficiency and teaching skills. The English language and culture are not accessible in Libyan society; therefore, this lack of authentic and natural exposure to English language and culture contributes to the PELTs' poor English proficiency and English teaching skills (Rajendran, 2010). In support of this assumption, ELL Participant 1 said:

They [PELTs] don't have books to read, they don't have videos or newspapers in English to read so I tell them to listen to BBC or Aljazeera English or any other English program. They say they would but they wouldn't.

Therefore, I also assume that the PELTs are not likely to develop any English proficiency or English teaching skills in Libya through informal access to authentic resources such as books, the internet or English TV programs. To investigate if the materials used at schools and the

faculty help learners develop better English skills, the socio-cultural appropriateness of using these authentic resources in high school and university contexts was examined through the methods course intervention.

4.5.1. English high school curricula in Libya

The introduction of the *English for Libya* series in Libyan high schools by the Ministry of Education was highlighted as a panacea for English education in Libya by some researchers in the field. Orafi and Borg (2009), for instance, viewed this action as an attempt by the Ministry to overthrow the traditional English materials and methods of teaching which the Libyan schools had adopted until the 1980s. The *English for Libya* series was developed by Garnet Publishing Ltd. (Reading, UK) especially for the Curricula and Educational Research Centre at the Libyan Ministry of Education. The new curricula focus basically on helping learners to develop better listening and speaking skills, which were previously overlooked.

By reviewing a sample of the English secondary school curricula, it can be seen that the series is designed as a program to be taken over 3 years. It consists of graded books for each school level and a number of accompanying CDs for listening and speaking instruction and practice. The first book is entitled *English specialization: language and communication*, the second book *English specialization: language and society* and the third book *English specialization: language and culture*. For each of these levels, the series contains a teacher's book, a subject [course] book, a workbook and a skills book. Some of these books are divided into two or even three booklets. The teachers' book, for example, which guides the teachers in delivering the entire series to the students, is supplied as *Teacher's book A units: 1 to 12*, *Teacher's book B units: 13 to 24*, and *Teacher's book C units: 25 to 36*.

The same applies to the workbooks and skills books. The teacher's book first provides the teachers with broad and then with detailed information about the course book, workbook and skills book. The information includes the general organisation of the course so that the teachers know how to use the three books as intended. They are intended to complement each other to achieve the short-term and long-term objectives of the course. The short-term objectives include what the learner should be able to do at the end of each activity, lesson or unit. The long-term objectives include what the learner should be able to demonstrate at the end of a group of units or the entire course.

The teacher's book explains how to teach the various aspects of the language and how to manage the various types of learning activities for each skill separately. It also shows the teachers how to monitor the learners in the classroom and provides assessment, error management and feedback strategies.

There is a balanced focus on the four macro skills of the language (reading, writing, listening and speaking). The learning activities are mainly communicative in orientation, consisting of games, pair and group work and task-based speaking activities. However, there are also sections on the explicit demonstration of grammar and vocabulary. The curricula require language-laboratory work for the listening activities.

The course and skills books are the books to be used in the classroom, whereas the workbook should be used for self-learning and homework. Teachers should only provide instruction to the learners on how to use the workbook at home.

The course book primarily forms the reading component of these curricula. Each lesson within these books is typically divided into three phases: before you read; while you are reading; and after reading. The books usually contain reading stories about different cultures, societies, civilisations or literature. After providing a general idea of what the text is about, the activities usually include individual, direct pre-learning of the vocabulary that is used in the text. Activities may also involve answering a few questions about the reading passage, matching words with definitions set out in two columns, or multiple choice exercises. The skills book, on the other hand, includes activities about the four skills of the language. The skills are arranged in a consistent order: reading, speaking, writing and listening.

The "skill of reading" part of each unit of the skills book mainly introduces the learner to learning reading skills. In some of these activities the learner is asked, for instance, to scan a reading story to determine its subject matter. The learner might also be required to scan a couple of texts to find out what they have in common, or if they discuss two opposing subjects.

In the "skill of speaking" part of a unit, the learner is usually asked, for instance, to read a conversation (maybe done through pair or group work) and to then answer a set of questions about it. The prompts also include activities such as brainstorming and providing ideas similar to the ones in the conversation. For instance, each learner may be asked to think of a possible solution to a problem that the people in the conversation talked about. Or a learner might be asked if they think that the solutions suggested either in the conversation or

by their friends in the classroom are appropriate for solving a problem. Learners may also justify their answers in these problem-solving learning activities. The learners are encouraged to share their ideas in pairs and groups and to rotate their roles in these learning activities.

In the “skill of writing” part of a unit, the learner, for example, is introduced to a letter that a mother has sent to her son who is studying in a different country, or one from a person seeking employment with a company or a bank. The piece of writing can also be a short informal letter, a short story or any other piece of literature. Depending on the level of the learner and the objectives of the lesson, the learner will then be asked to either paraphrase some sentences or structures from the piece of writing, or to determine its genre or the tenor (the writer and intended reader).

As is the case with the reading components of the series, the “skill of listening” sections of each unit of the books are typically classified into three main phases: before listening, while listening, and after listening. However, some are not classified as such. The listening part of each unit of the books contains sections on Listening Development, the Skill of Listening, Pronunciation 1 & 2, and Laboratory Work 1 & 2.

The learners are advised to prepare themselves before listening and to focus on understanding the main topic of the listening materials. They also learn about aspects of listening such as stress and intonation. The listening activities generally involve the learners listening to a conversation, a story or an announcement, for example, and then identifying particular parts of the listening piece depending on the topic studied and the objectives of the lesson.

The high school English curricula are an extension of those of the primary school. They are designed to build upon the materials studied and knowledge acquired within the primary school stage. Thus, the students in primary and high school in Agdabia have been supplied with materials which focus on the four skills of English. The curricula gradually develop from early secondary school until the end of high school, with various specialisations — that is, English for specific purposes — throughout high school.

4.5.2. Classroom assessment, evaluation and grading in Libya

Admission to high school in Libya is not usually conditioned by any criteria. Students who finish primary school can choose to automatically enrol in any specialisation in high school just by finishing primary school. Students are tested locally by their teachers in primary and

high schools and at the university level. The teachers mark these tests and exams and prepare the final student grades. The final grade is usually calculated both on the basis of the students' performance in their monthly tests and on their mid-term and final exams. The total is then added to marks assessed against other personal criteria by the teachers, including the students' behaviour in class and completing their homework in a timely manner. This total determines the final score or grade that each student obtains. However, the final exams for each of these two school levels are run by the Bureau of Primary and High School Examinations in Tripoli. In the final examinations of the final year of primary school, all Libyan students take the same exam for each subject as scheduled by the Ministry of Education. The same applies for high school exams.

While reviewing samples of these exams and other exams prepared by individual teachers at schools in Agdabia, I noticed that none of these examinations had any sections that evaluated either listening or speaking skills. For example, an English test sheet for Grade 9 (Appendix H) consisted of six printed pages, including the cover sheet which contained instructions for students written in Arabic. The prompts are also written in Arabic and only the actual questions are in English. The test comprises three principle question types: true or false, multiple choice, and sentence-matching from two columns. The true or false section, for instance, is presented in Arabic on the test sheet but the sentences are in English. The same applies for the other categories of questions. The three parts of the test primarily aim at testing grammar. For example:

Tick either true or false (this prompt is written in Arabic on the test sheet)

- I quite like swimming.
A) True
B) False

- No article is used to with general, plural countable nouns.
A) True
B) False

- If you drive so fast, you fuel.
A) Would save
B) Wouldn't save
C) Won't save
D) Will save

Multiple choice questions (this is also written in Arabic on the test sheet)

- When the water is dense than egg. It float.
 - A) The sentence has one mistake.
 - B) The sentence has two mistakes.
 - C) The sentence has three mistakes.
 - D) The sentence has no mistakes.

Another placement test sample at university level taken from the Department of English in the Agdabia faculty shows a similar focus on grammar. The applicants who wish to enrol are sometimes required to pass a placement test to determine their competence and background in English before being admitted to the university English courses. These are examples of these questions:

- Write the correct form of the verb in each sentence.
 1. She (enjoyed-enjoy-enjoied) reading last night.

Eighteen other sentences are listed after this prompt.

- Change the following sentences into questions
 1. I like reading detective stories.

.....

This prompt is followed by eight sentences to be turned into questions.

- Make the following statements negative
 1. The students begun class at 9:00 a.m

.....

This prompt is followed by 12 sentences to be changed into negative statements. These example prompts, including the various errors, have been reproduced here exactly as they appeared in the original documents.

Regardless of the possible reasons, all participants reported that teaching the skills of speaking and listening has been eliminated in both schools and the faculty. The focus is primarily on reading and grammar. The elimination of teaching speaking and listening skills at the faculty might also have its roots in high school English education. In particular, some participants reported that there used to be two language laboratories in two different schools in Agdabia but that they had been either tampered with or taken away during the 2011 upheavals in Libya. This small number of laboratories may explain, at least in part, why the examinations designed by the government for high school students do not contain any sections testing the speaking or listening skills of the students. Participant 5, a high school English teacher, said:

I think that the problem is not the teachers, frankly, because the problem is the exam. When the exams focus on, or concentrate on listening, the teacher must teach this

section. But all of our exams don't focus on listening at all and we have MCQ, [multiple choice questions], we have true/false, and we have match. These are the three kinds of questions here in high schools. These exams are arranged from Tripoli from the higher... we can say from the higher institution of examination.

The examinations for the final years of both junior and senior high schools are arranged in Tripoli by the Bureau of School Examinations. They are designed to be taken simultaneously by Grade 9 and Grade 13 students throughout Libya. However, these examinations which are designed to measure the competency of students in English do not include any speaking or listening sections. There is therefore a lack of alignment between the design of the curriculum and the final examinations, which is curious considering the Bureau of School Examinations belongs to the Ministry of Education, which introduced the new English curricula into the country. It also mandated the focus on the four skills of the language and the use of language laboratories to achieve these objectives as stated in the teacher's books of these curricula.

This probably leads us to question whether the former Libyan Government was serious about helping Libyan students attain adequate competency in English. Stakeholder participant 8 said:

I think that the former regime in Libya was not serious in maintaining proper education in the country that enhances the students' capacities in all subjects in general and their English education in particular.

4.6. English study materials at the Agdabia Faculty of Arts and Sciences

The review of the high school English materials suggested that the materials the PELTs are expected to study in the Department of English of their faculty are an extension of these curricula to build upon their previous English knowledge and education. The material is also expected to be more comprehensive to enable them to teach English in high school when they graduate from the university. However, throughout the interviews I have conducted, many of my interviewees thought differently. Participant 5, a high school English teacher, for example, said:

I think there is a gap between what they [PELTs] are studying at the university and what they are going to teach at high schools and prep [primary] schools. Because at the university they don't have enough education. I think they must have two classes a week to practice [teaching] English at schools. So when they graduate, they can find it simpler and easier to teach [high and primary school] students.

In his view of how a typical English class in an Agdabia high school operates, Participant 6, a high school English teacher, said:

If we consider the new English curricula starting from the unit, we will find that this unit is composed of interrelated skills. It starts with reading, then speaking and then grammar and then writing and then listening. Here the teacher focuses only on the reading and grammar. In some rare situations, they teach some speaking. They neglect writing and listening. These skills need labs and a proper environment to be maintained. These are not available in our schools at the current time. Also teachers did not learn how to teach these skills at university.

I also reviewed randomly selected sample teaching materials which were mainly “handouts” that I either obtained from the faculty or from the PELTs. The first thing I noticed about these handouts was that the quality of the photocopies was poor. In some cases, it was hard to read some parts of the printed pages. Many of the handouts I obtained had been appropriated from other published books, journals or stories. For instance, a handout for the course Spoken English 1 was only a few units taken from *The new headway* book. It is not clear on the first few pages of the handout whether this photocopy was made under a licence agreement with authorisation from the author or publisher. The photocopy started with the first lesson of the unit and the cover page of the original book was not photocopied.

Notably, Oxford University Press, the publisher of *The New Headway* series, does not permit photocopying or reproduction of their materials without prior permission in writing. This is stated on all the publications in this series. The title of another handout for the pre-intermediate level was Everyday Listening and Speaking. It contained 15 lessons on listening and speaking. The handout directs the student to use a tape to carry out some of the activities given in the book; however, I could locate no related CDs or tapes anywhere on campus, at the photocopying shop, or with the PELTs who studied this course. Example lesson topics in this handout are: Nice to meet you; At the bank; Starting a conversation; Going sightseeing; and Lost and found. The activities and lesson types are mainly communicative and focus on pair and group work. However, a large part of this material is recorded on the tape, which is thus an integral part of the study. The PELTs said that their ELLs fill in the gaps and answer the questions and then present them to the PELTs already completed. All the PELTs are required to do is memorise these materials in preparation for their exams.

The PELTs have no opportunities to listen to the authentic materials recorded by a native speaker of English. They hear the closed words missing from the texts through the ELLs, who read the passages in class instead. PELTs may find this an easier way to pass the course by having a number of words listed in writing to be memorised for the exam. This also saves the ELLs the time and effort of using tapes and repeating them multiple times to the PELTs, who may or may not understand anything of what is being said. PELT participant 13 said:

The student generally appreciates a teacher who keeps the ball in their own court, does everything to convey knowledge to the students and then guarantees success to his students at the end of the course.

Commenting on how speaking activities are typically conducted, PELT participant 14 revealed:

I like the fact that the teacher speaks Arabic in English classes; even in spoken English classes they use Arabic and they give us home work to be done at home in writing. This makes things easier and more understandable when it is explained to you in your first language.

Reading is taught by providing lengthy passages to PELTs to read either individually in class or at home. A passage is usually followed by a set of questions about it. The ELLs then answer these questions for the PELTs to memorise and recall in their exams if need be. Therefore, the PELTs are not expected to perform any critical reading, for example, nor are they given any resources for further reading for pleasure.

Writing class handouts are more lengthy and theoretical. One of the handouts I found, for example, consisted of several units about different aspects of writing such as thesis statements, paragraph and essay writing, and the parts of an essay. These are usually presented theoretically with some model examples. The handouts are generally accompanied by word-for-word translations of the texts given in English. The PELTs are only required to study the texts and prepare them for the exams. They are not expected to produce any writing of their own, not even in their last year before graduation.

4.7. Conclusion

In summary, after describing all these aspects of both the school and university sectors, it can be said that, although the main mission of English education in these two sectors in Libya is to prepare capable English teachers, there is not much evidence within my data that supports

the existence of an intention to achieve this goal. The school artefacts are well designed, arranged, aligned and sequenced to help the learners develop communicative English proficiency. The *English for Libya* series is also appropriate to the Libyan socio-cultural context. It does not include any culturally unacceptable terms, themes or messages. For instance, it does not discuss issues such as same-sex marriage and alcohol consumption or include any images of people in swimsuits at a beach, which are all considered culturally acceptable in most Western contexts.

However, the curricula do not contain suitable content to prepare learners to eventually teach other learners by including sections on modern teaching methods, methodologies or pedagogical approaches. The education authorities in Libya have no clear mechanism in place to ensure the delivery of this series as intended by its developers. The environment in which this series is suggested for adoption is not provided at most Libyan schools. The series is filtered and partially taught to students, with a major focus on reading and grammar.

As for English education at the university level, I cannot assess or judge it accurately here. It is highly dependent on the individual ELL, who determines the course materials and teaching method as well as the type and suitability of evaluation and assessment criteria and methods. Therefore, examining one or two samples cannot be viewed as representative of all situations. The ELLs interviewed in this study commonly thought that the PELTs were generally weak in English and only capable of acquiring grammatical knowledge, and thus of being assessed accordingly.

Throughout my extensive discussions with the ELLs in this faculty and through working in the field to collect data for over six months, I found no evidence that the PELTs at this faculty have any opportunity to practise teaching through modern methods such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) or to experience communicative learning activities. In both high school and university, the focus is on teaching reading and grammar. I recall ending a conversation with a teacher of English who is a graduate from the Department of English at the Agdabia Faculty by asking him about the frequency of professional development courses and conferences available after his graduation. He said (referring to the whole situation) that “PELTs do not typically graduate with any professional teaching capacities to develop”.

Chapter 4 has provided demographic and socio-cultural data about the PELT participants based on data from pre- and post-intervention surveys. It also triangulated the survey data with interview responses and analysed secondary school and university English curricula through a discussion of artefacts. It further discussed the assessment, evaluation and grading systems used in the Libyan English language teaching context. The following chapter provides the second half of the data description: a description of the qualitative data gathered through two of the techniques defined in Chapter 3 (the TKT and methods course intervention). It also presents the results for the quantitative pre and post tests of teacher knowledge (TKT).

Chapter 5: Data description and results. Part 2

5.1. Introduction

Chapter 4 provided demographic and socio-cultural data about the pre service English language teacher (PELT) participants based on surveys and a comparison of the data from pre- and post-intervention surveys. It also triangulated the survey data with interview responses and analysed secondary school and university English curricula through a discussion of artefacts. It further discussed the assessment, evaluation and grading systems used in the Libyan English language teaching (ELT) context. This chapter provides the second half of the data description. It provides a description of the qualitative data gathered through two of the techniques defined in Chapter 3, the Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT) and the methods course intervention. It also presents the results for the quantitative pre and post tests of teacher knowledge (TKT). The description is organised according to the following phases of the research outlined in Chapter 3.

- pre intervention (TKT results)
- action research on the intervention
- comparison of the pre-TKT and post-TKT results of both groups.

5.2. Descriptive results for the pre-intervention Teaching Knowledge Test of both groups

The TKT is a test developed by Cambridge ESOL for teachers of English to speakers of other languages. It is designed to test the candidates' "knowledge of concepts related to language and language use, and the background to and practice of language teaching and learning. The TKT consists of seven modules: TKT module 1, TKT module 2, TKT module 3, TKT: KAL (Knowledge About Language), TKT: CLIL, (Content and Language Integrated Learning), TKT: YL (Young Learners) and TKT: Practical" (Spratt, Pulverness, & Williams, 2011, p. 1). The three modules used in the intervention of this study are modules 1, 2, and 3. The modules as classified by Cambridge ESOL (2010, p. 5–7) are as follows:

Module 1: Language and background to language learning and teaching

This module consists of three parts:

- describing language and language skills
- background to language learning
- background to language teaching.

Module 1 tests the teacher's knowledge with regard to the common terminology and concepts in ELT. It further aims to determine the essential knowledge of the candidate underpinning learning the language and the teacher's knowledge about the management of the available learning resources in classrooms.

Module 2: Lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching

This module consists of two parts:

- planning and preparing a lesson or sequence of lessons
- selection and use of resources and materials.

Module 2 focuses on the knowledge and skills teachers need to be able to plan a lesson framework or a series of lessons. Teaching in this context also refers to any assessment required by the teacher to consolidate learning. The module also focuses on the resources that are available to guide teachers in their lesson planning.

Module 3: Managing the teaching and learning process

This module consists of two parts:

- teachers' and learners' language in the classroom
- classroom management.

Module 3 tests candidates' knowledge of what happens in the classroom during language learning, the teacher's role, and the ways in which the teacher can manage and exploit classroom events and interactions.

The test used in this intervention contained 80 questions and consisted of 15 pages (Appendix F). The time allotted for this test was 80 minutes. The test was divided into three parts: describing language and language skills (40 questions), background to language learning (15 questions) and background to language teaching (25 questions). The test as used in this intervention was classified into the following six categories:

- speaking practice activities
- teaching approaches
- learning strategies
- learning' preferences
- motivating students
- language functions.

The TKT was chosen in this intervention for the following reasons:

1. To provide a baseline of teacher knowledge about teaching English.
2. To establish if the intervention improved PELT knowledge cognitively.

The choice of module 1 was made on the basis of the initial results of the pre survey (Appendix A) and on the meetings held with the English language lecturers (ELTs) and the PELTs before the intervention commenced. It was decided through these preparation sessions that the PELTs lacked the basic knowledge about learning and teaching required for Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and that the classroom environment where this method would potentially be applied was not appropriate. All of the PELTs said in the survey that they had never heard about the TKT nor had they taken it at any stage in the past. The majority (88%) studied English for less than twenty hours a week and 95% did not practice English outside the classroom. Approximately 80% of them believed in the explicit teaching of grammar as the most effective way of learning English.

5.3. Action research on the intervention

After the PELT participants took the pre-TKT test, their results (Figure 8) revealed that their knowledge about learning and teaching of English was very poor. Their scores for the two categories of learning strategies and learning preferences, for instance, showed almost no measureable knowledge of these learner-centred aspects of learning. These results, combined with the initial survey results presented in the preceding chapter, collectively informed my decision to start the intervention and action research cycle with input on “principles of classroom management”. One of the common problems that the PELTs had was an insufficient knowledge of CLT. The PELTs’ responses commonly suggested that they adopted teacher-centred perspectives rather than learner-centred perspectives in the

learning and teaching of English. The conversations I had with the PELTs and their ELLs before taking the test further influenced my decision to start the intervention with classroom management within a CLT environment.

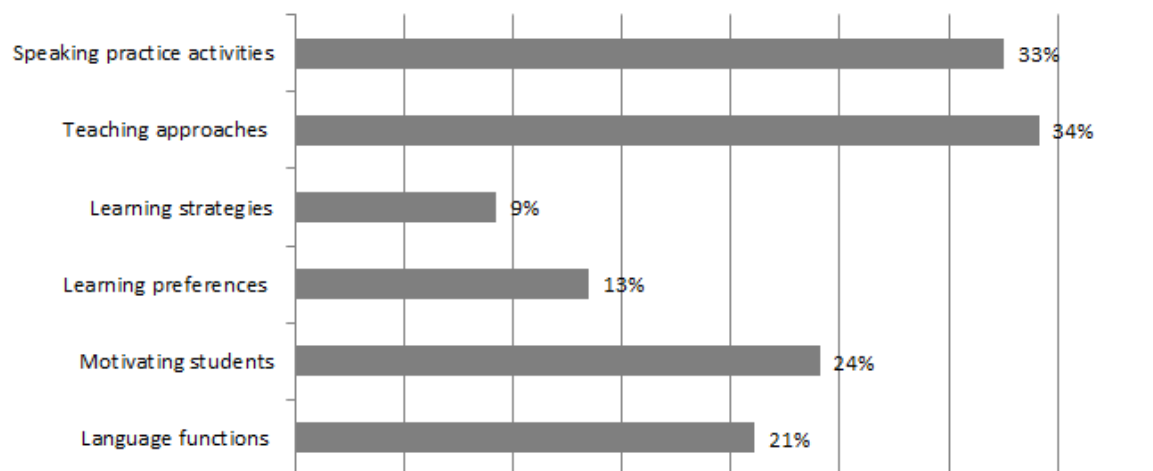


Figure 8. Mean pre-intervention TKT results by test topic for comparison and intervention groups combined. Note: Mean results are displayed as percentages. Original scores for each topic are out of 5, 6 or 7 points and are presented in full in Appendix E.

Before proceeding with the description of the intervention, it is important to note here that I considered the feedback I obtained from the PELTs and their reflection on their practice as the most valuable sources of data to inform this study. How they felt about the various aspects of this intervention as well as what they needed to learn next were the aspects I principally focused on. I occasionally asked them to write their feedback on pieces of paper I collected to assist me to deliver my next class in a better way. I then gave these notes back to the PELTs so that they could share them and encourage a culture of sharing their different perspectives with each other.

In the intervention I structured my lessons by (1) delivering a plenary outlining the teaching technique or method, (2) giving a demonstration, and (3) facilitating experiential learning through peer teaching. I used this structure for many of the classes throughout the course but also used the CLT method several times by maintaining communicative activities such as role play and group learning activities. CLT was intended as the main teaching method for introduction to the participants, in contrast to the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) with which the PELTs were most familiar. The classroom was equipped

with a smart board which works like a large computer touch screen. This made interaction with the materials easier and more enjoyable. We watched video vignettes of methods sourced from the internet and displayed on the smart board to demonstrate communicative teaching, and used books and other resources such as articles as complementary resources. I occasionally paused the videos for some group discussion and used PowerPoint slides to present main ideas and discussion topics. The PELTs then brainstormed ideas and discussed some techniques and methods to manage an English classroom as effectively as possible with regard to the topics mentioned.

Other forms of practice for the PELTs included peer teaching, role play and subsequent discussions on these learning activities. The purpose of the peer teaching was to see if the PELTs could apply the knowledge from this course in practice and also to determine what modifications needed to be made for the Libyan context. At the end of the class I provided the PELTs with online materials to guide them and recommended further reading and practice on the various topics.

The third-party assessment of the intervention was conducted by a professor of educational psychology from the Agdabia Faculty of Arts and Sciences at the University of Benghazi. He had 45-minute discussions with the PELTs once a week, which constituted the second half of the class time. He aimed to ascertain how the PELTs felt and what they thought about what they had learned so far in the course. He was particularly interested in finding out about their perspectives on the teaching methodology I used. I pre-prepared a set of broad questions and topics to guide him in his discussions (Appendix G).

The results from the action research are reported using the weekly lesson-plan topics adopted for the intervention:

- managing the learning environment
- CLT vs GTM
- teaching vocabulary, grammar and speaking within CLT
- teaching reading and writing within CLT
- teaching listening within CLT
- peer teaching speaking through CLT.

In the following sections, the findings for these six topics are divided into two or more sub-sections, followed by a discussion of the feedback from the third-party monitoring sessions

that occurred at the end of each week of the intervention. Finally, each section is concluded with my reflections on the delivery of the topic and the PELTs' behaviour.

5.3.1. Managing the learning environment

I selected the following aspects of learning and teaching to be delivered under the main topic "Managing the learning environment": motivation, learner needs, learner error management, giving feedback and the teacher-centred versus the learner-centred classroom. An examination of how the learning environment is managed was deemed necessary to examine the suitability and applicability of CLT in the Libyan English as a foreign language (EFL) context.

5.3.1.1. Motivation

In groups, the PELTs were asked to brainstorm some ideas about how to motivate their students and then to share these ideas. They thought about some problems that they might encounter with their future students in the classroom, for example, ill-behaviour, aggression and withdrawing behaviour. They explained how to manage these situations and why they thought their actions would be enough to solve the problems. Sometimes I acted as a PELT and at other times I intervened to correct some major mistakes with regard to using the method of teaching and providing tips for motivation. I noticed that providing them with feedback and intervening in some situations kept them active and practising English in the class. It was challenging, especially on the first day of the course, to encourage the PELTs to speak in English and to break the ice. The PELTs feared making mistakes and speaking to their peers in English.

Their ideas and creative abilities were greatly appreciated. I therefore encouraged them to be more creative in both their brainstorming and their verbal responses. The PELTs did not seem to be interested in the actual topic as much as they were interested in speaking in English and getting feedback from me on how they spoke. Many of them revealed that the main reason for their participation in the course was to have an opportunity to practise spoken English, rather than to do any type of theoretical study.

The PELTs used their electronic dictionaries to translate their ideas into English before they presented them to the class. They spoke slowly and were hesitant in their speech at the beginning. It was evident that they did not see classroom management as an important

aspect of maintaining a successful English classroom. They also did not believe in the idea of a “negotiated syllabus”. They thought that it is the teachers’ sole responsibility and role to determine the materials that suit their students and to convey knowledge to the students. The teacher is also solely responsible, according to the participant PELTs, for assessing their students’ knowledge of English.

The PELTs said that they would never allow their future students to participate in determining the choice of learning materials or teaching method(s). This would be totally the PELTs’ responsibility. They believed that the teacher should be firm and serious about leading and controlling the classroom and that the students had to abide by what they said. This was obviously one of the main reasons why they did not believe in motivating students and in other learner-centred techniques for managing the learning environment.

The PELTs also revealed that they had been given some materials about motivation through their university English education but had never had the chance to experience peer teaching practice in their university sessions. They said that they had enjoyed peer teaching in the classroom and found this type of exercise enjoyable and beneficial. Notably, the university program used to include a practicum in schools at some stages in the past. The PELTs used to be required to maintain about 20 hours of supervised teaching in schools as part of their graduation requirements. However, this requirement no longer exists. Thus the PELTs now graduate and start teaching without any assessment of their practical teaching abilities.

In response to their lack of interest in the topic, they were given some spoken English materials (their favourite skill) and were asked to motivate their students (their fellow PELTs) using the materials, and to reflect on and discuss what they had learned throughout the lesson. In the discussion the PELTs were asked to justify in English why they had chosen particular problems that they thought they may encounter with their students, and how they would handle these problems (i.e. how they would respond to their students’ lack of motivation). The PELTs’ lack of interest in the topic itself caused me to maintain speaking activities in the classroom with a major focus on classroom management issues. This strategy caused them to become more interactive and enthusiastic about participating in classroom activities and thus they unwillingly learned more about the topic. The particular method I modelled

was explained to them, including how it had effectively made a difference to their own motivation to learn about a useful topic although they were not interested in the topic per se.

The lack of motivation among Libyan learners to learn English is attributed to the negative attitudes students and teachers hold towards learning English in Libyan schools (Youssef, 2012). Youssef states that some Libyans hold positive attitudes towards learning English in terms of gaining extra economic benefits and accessing modern technology that is mainly introduced through English. Other Libyans feel that they live well with knowing and using only Arabic and therefore they have no motivation to learn other languages. Other researchers (Emhamed & Krishnan, 2011; Soliman, 2013) argue that Libyan teachers generally have a positive attitude toward the learning and teaching of English using modern technology but that the lack of resources and adequate technology, poor administrative practices and short time allotted for learning English all represent challenges for them to maintain successful English teaching.

5.3.1.2. Learner needs

Learner needs analysis is simply a prerequisite for syllabus design. It helps the teachers in deciding what to teach to their students and how to teach them. This is typically done through collecting information about the learners' existing knowledge and their beliefs about the learning process (Morell Moll, 1999). It was apparent that the PELTs were not engaging with this topic of practically mastering the skill of needs analysis and knowing how this relates to maintaining a successful English classroom. Throughout their discussion, the PELTs were more concerned with how well they spoke and the new vocabulary and English structures they learned.

To motivate the PELTs, I asked them to perform this skill by pretending that they wanted to teach their students spoken English and that they wanted to know what sort of things their students needed to learn. So the PELTs performed learner needs analyses on each other (focusing on speaking). For example, one PELT (with relatively good speaking skills) took the teacher's role and started walking around the class assessing the students' (peers') speaking skills to decide what she would teach them if she were their teacher. The PELTs used various techniques such as interviews and short questionnaires to obtain information about their peers' learning needs. I then asked them to discuss what they had done together, first in pairs and then as a group, saying what sort of materials they would teach with and

how they would teach. I stressed to the PELTs in advance the importance of this skill in teacher education and its role in maintaining successful learning. The PELTs reported that they enjoyed the practice session as it was carried out through speaking. They managed to perform the needs analysis process in a satisfactory way, which suggested that they had understood the idea and acquired some skills. I used a summary of the criteria I adopted from (Nunan & Lamb, 2000, pp. 38–39) to determine the satisfactory level of performance in the students' needs analysis.

It was apparent that their previous education had focused on the teacher's unilaterally deciding PELT learning needs. Some of the PELTs discussed needs analysis in a way that suggested that they understood the idea and the philosophy behind it; however, they seemed hesitant to totally accept it. They believed they would not need to conduct needs analyses because they could not choose any materials for their future students. The Ministry of Education chooses textbooks for the curriculum. They understood that they had enjoyed the session because I gave them the chance to practise English through speaking exercises. This was an example that demonstrated to them why the ability to conduct a learner needs analysis is an important skill and a necessary part of the learning process. They revealed that that was the first time they had practised these activities or any other activities to acquire this skill.

5.3.1.3. Error management

I presented to the PELTs the concept of error management and how to detect and respond to the errors that learners make as an essential part of their learning (Harmer, 2007). I started by discussing the differences between slips, errors and attempts as the main types of errors that students may make. The main topics of the lesson focused on the feedback given during both fluency and accuracy exercises in speaking activities. The possible techniques for the former are *showing incorrectness* through asking students to repeat with the teacher and *showing facial expressions* to indicate an error, that is, *hinting*. *Recording mistakes* is also an example of error correction which can be conducted unobtrusively while focusing on fluency. The teacher in this case observes the students while they are speaking and keeps a record of their mistakes and then corrects them after they finish. An example technique of error correction while focusing on accuracy is *gentle correction*, which happens when teachers try to help their students to continue talking when they cannot think of what to say next.

Throughout their peer practice sessions, I noticed that the PELTs had a tendency to focus only on grammar errors in spoken English. The PELTs were not confident enough to recognise the mistakes of other students. They revealed that they were still trainees and therefore they were unable to detect all the errors their peers made. They feared failing to detect some of their fellow students' errors, which I might notice and provide negative feedback about. They were also afraid of making errors themselves. They practised error identification and enjoyed this task more than determining how to provide feedback on these errors. They said that this might be due to their previous background in teaching, which focused on maintaining correct grammar and looking for errors instead of trying to improve any particular skill.

I encouraged them to brainstorm and think about all sorts of errors that might occur. I said that errors do not necessarily have to be in speaking or grammar. Errors can also be in pronunciation and word choice, for instance. They were encouraged to do the best they could and I told them I was there to participate with them and help. They then started to expand their focus to include various sorts of errors such as those mentioned above. Although they were still quite reluctant to provide feedback on errors and decide if particular instances were actually errors, they did become more confident about talking. They could also justify why they should provide feedback on their peers' demonstration of vocabulary and pronunciation errors, for instance. For example, the PELT participants were asked to say if it was better to wait till their peer finished speaking and then correct them or to interrupt them while speaking. I asked them to discuss when and why each option was better in terms of a conversation's focus on fluency or accuracy. They also became more at ease and their concern with making mistakes decreased.

On many occasions the PELTs declared that they enjoyed assessing each other's performance, locating errors and talking about how to deal with them. They revealed in their reflection-on-practice sessions and also to the third-party evaluator that these activities were carried out in a friendly environment, which they felt was less threatening than a university class on the same topic would be. They explained they felt less threatened because they did not have to worry about passing a final exam in this topic. They also said it was the first time they had practised this skill in a classroom.

5.3.1.4. Giving feedback

The PELTs thought that feedback should be given only summatively with numerical scores and in writing, and that the score received from the ELL represents their knowledge about a particular topic. They also did not know that positive reinforcement on classroom performance, such as “Yes, you are doing very well.” counts as feedback. The PELTs also believed that assessment and feedback can only be conducted by ELLs. I therefore presented to the PELTs, as demonstrated by Harmer (2007), that helping the learners to judge and monitor their efforts can assist in making them aware of their success in learning, thus enhancing their learning.

After the presentation, the PELTs could differentiate between various types of feedback throughout their practice. In their peer teaching practice sessions, one PELT (acting as a teacher in class) talked to her peers and gave feedback on their responses. For instance, she greeted them “Good afternoon” and they replied “Good afternoon”. She then stood closer to one PELT, focusing on her pronunciation, and told the PELT that she had pronounced it very well. The peer teacher also asked her students (fellow PELTs) to take turns and write these greeting statements on the board, and then asked them to provide feedback about their peers’ work. If a PELT misspelt a statement on the board, the teacher said, for instance, “You were almost correct.” and then asked if another PELT could suggest how the statement could be corrected. She did not say, for example, “No, that is incorrect.” to ensure the students stayed motivated and to avoid frustrating them.

The peer teacher also asked her fellow PELT “students” “Do you think that is correct?” after another PELT had made a statement or written one on the board. She further asked her peers to evaluate their own work. In the above example, the peer teacher asked the student what she thought about her own statement. The peer-teaching PELT then compared the response and self-evaluation with her own assessment of that student.

During their reflection-on-practice sessions, the PELTs said it was the first time they had practised feedback as they did. They could tell that there was a positive difference between this chance to practise feedback in the classroom and how they had studied this topic theoretically.

5.3.1.5. Differences between teacher-centred and learner-centred classrooms

I presented to the PELTs the difference between teacher-centred and learner-centred classrooms. I explained the teacher's and learner's roles mainly as demonstrated by Harmer (2007). In teacher-centred classrooms the teachers are at the core of the teaching and learning process. The students in this classroom are less important and solely depend on their teachers to acquire knowledge. In learner-centred classrooms, the learners are at the centre of the learning and the entire teaching and learning process is managed according to how they learn and what they need to learn. The PELTs said that this was the first opportunity they had had to discuss this topic. However, after discussing the topic they were still not fully aware of the central philosophy behind it and were keen to have some practice, so I displayed two videos on the smart board to provide examples of both classroom types. We then had a discussion about the videos and what had been presented.

Throughout the discussion, the PELTs revealed that most of their previous education was teacher centred. Some explained that a good and successful classroom is one in which the teacher acts as a book from which students can acquire all the knowledge they need. One PELT said that "a good teacher should have the skill of conveying the knowledge to the student". The teacher should also be able to choose the quality and quantity of materials they need to enable them to do a particular job (e.g. to teach at secondary and high schools). They also said that school-aged children should not be left to choose what suits them or how learning is given to them. "They are still too young for this even though they are university students." one PELT commented. Another major quality of the "best teacher", according to the PELTs, is being highly skilled in "conveying information and making them easy to understand for their students". This is a major point that all of the PELTs kept repeating and focusing on. In this sense, the students can ask questions, but they should not contradict what the teachers say in the classroom as a sign of respect for them. What the teacher says should be automatically accepted.

I made it clear in my response to this discussion on teacher roles that the teacher has an important role to play in learner-centred education: guiding the students, managing the classroom and making sure the students stay on track to learn and achieve particular objectives. However, the teachers do not spoon-feed them. They work as facilitators and managers rather than as instructors.

After the discussion and viewing the videos, the PELTs could explain the main differences between both styles and also discuss the philosophy behind learner-centred education. They understood that practice is as important as theoretical knowledge and is even more enjoyable for learning. However, the classroom discussions revealed that they still had a strong belief in the teacher's management role in any successful English classroom. According to many of them, the teachers must be capable, firm, and know what best suits their students. They should also explain concepts well and encourage the students to work as hard as they can.

The PELTs thought that most secondary and high school students are usually lazy, careless, unwilling to do assignments, and can be ill-behaved if the teachers are not firm enough to handle these sorts of issues seriously. One student, for instance, said that “the teachers will not be able to lead the class or have their students’ attention unless they are firm, serious and [harsh] no matter how capable they were in their subjects especially in primary and high schools”. Another PELT said “the teacher needs to have a prevailing personality and [enforce] learning and make sure that the students understand the lesson well”.

5.3.1.6. Third-party monitor feedback

The PELTs reported to the third-party monitor that they enjoyed pairing theoretical study with practice activities in the first week of the course. It was something new to them and they said that they would use this style of learning in the schools when they graduate from university. In addition, they revealed that they did not have to stress about any tests or exams at the end of this course which would determine if they would pass to the next level or not. They felt that this factor may have helped them dramatically to acquire knowledge and skills more effectively. They enjoyed practising important skills with peers, including how to motivate students, perform a learner needs analysis and give feedback. They also liked being guided by a teacher in a friendly environment to experiment with these activities. They said it would have been an unpleasant experience if they had had to practise these sorts of activities for the first time in an actual secondary or high-school classroom and that they would have encountered some practical difficulties. Notably, the PELTs graduate from the university without doing any practicum or having any kind of practical experience in teaching before graduation. This issue will be discussed further in Chapter 6.

Another point they raised to the third-party monitor was that they wished that the rest of their fellow university PELTs could have the same chance to learn and acquire these skills in theory and practice as they had done in this course. However, they said they could not fully agree with some parts of the information on the topics they had dealt with. For example, they thought that meeting all learners' needs can sometimes be impossible because all students are different; thus such diverse needs cannot be catered for. They also assumed that meeting learner needs is irrelevant to them because they will have to cover the set curriculum. One PELT, for example, asked "How can over 40 students in a class have the same needs and the same way of learning? This sounds almost impossible to me." She explained that each PELT would have a different background in English and would prefer a different way of learning. Another PELT also said "If we are to work as teachers after graduation we will have to abide by the textbooks and study materials adopted in all private and state schools by the Ministry of Education. We will not be allowed to change, omit or add anything to these study materials. Therefore, we will probably not have to decide about what or how to teach to the students because the Ministry of Education does that."

5.3.1.7. Researcher reflections on classroom management

The PELTs' methodological orientation is teacher-centred classroom instruction rather than learner-centred instruction. They did not accept the idea of a negotiated syllabus, for example, and rejected its philosophy. They believe that the teacher is responsible for providing the students with all the knowledge that they think that they need and for showing them how to do well in their exams. The teacher is also responsible for determining the suitable teaching method and type of knowledge and for conveying this knowledge to the students. The students only receive the knowledge and should not discuss anything with the teachers. The teachers also evaluate and assess the students and determine their competence, mainly concerning their grammar and reading knowledge. The PELTs revealed that they will not allow their future students to take any part in their own learning; the teachers will have full control of their classes so that their students trust them as capable teachers and therefore accept the knowledge that comes through them. This last point was the main reason that the PELTs gave for their belief in the teacher's dominance in class and why they neglect the importance of issues such as learning about classroom management techniques and techniques for motivating learners. They believed success in learning and acquiring

knowledge about English is highly dependent on the teacher's own teaching and English capacities, personality and ability to deliver knowledge to the students.

Some PELTs also said in the future they will have to deal with specific curricula that are pre-designed and assigned for them to use (e.g. secondary and high school English textbooks). Whether the PELTs want it or not, this is what they will have to use. Thus they do not have much choice about what to give to their students.

5.3.2. Communicative Language Teaching vs the Grammar Transmission Method

PELTs were familiar with the theory of the CLT method; however, they had some misconceptions about it and also said that they had never used it in practice. The method had never been used by any of their teachers, either in previous schools or at the university. However, they were eager to take some time to practice the method. The PELTs asked questions about pros and cons of the method and talked about it in comparison to their background.

I presented a few short example lessons to the PELTs using the Presentation, Practice, Production (PPP) technique and gave them some time to practice as well. I then gave them some ideas, topics and online resources to consider for their home practice and to eventually practise in class as well. At this stage, the PELTs were not sure about whether the CLT was a method they would like their ELLs to use at the university. They were also unsure whether they would like to use it themselves eventually in secondary schools. However, their discussion indicated that they understood the methodological argument for CLT and that their previous misconceptions about it had been resolved.

As far as the GTM is concerned, when I first entered the class I wrote the abbreviation "GTM" on the whiteboard. Unlike the other methods we discussed in the course, the PELTs immediately knew that GTM stood for Grammar Translation Method before I had mentioned anything about it. It was evident that they were very familiar with the method theoretically. They said they could also practise this method and perform well as they had had a lot of practice with it at the university. They said they used it when helping other people such as siblings or friends with their English assignments and work, both at home and on campus. They had not practised it in the classroom until that point and we planned to practice the method the following day.

The PELTs were obviously deeply engaged in my presentation when I started talking about the method and how it is used. Almost the entire group interacted well and were greatly interested in this topic. They were actively discussing the method both with me and with each other while my presentation was in progress. I needed no effort to encourage them to talk and did not have to ask them what they thought about the various aspects of the method. They commented on almost every point I raised. It was evident from the PELTs' discussion that the GTM was their favourite method of teaching. They only discussed its positive aspects, praising it for most of the discussion time. The PELTs' pride in knowing the details of the method were evident in their communication and their tendency to want to speak about it before others in the class. They also competitively jumped in to discuss the next aspect of the method before I began speaking about it.

Although this may fall outside the scope of the objectives of this class, it should be noted here that the students' tendency to gain the attention of the teacher at the expense of other students in the class, which seems to be common in Libyan English classrooms, has been highlighted as a characteristic of good learners (Rubin, 1975). However, it has also been criticised by Kagan (1989) who states that this behaviour negatively affects the social relations between students in the class. When students raise their hands to answer a question and the teacher picks one of them to speak, the other students lose the opportunity to win the teachers' attention and show their competence. If the chosen PELT provides the wrong answer, then the other students compete to win the opportunity for recognition. Thus, a student's chance to provide a contribution in the class depends on another student's failure and loss of opportunity, which could negatively affect the learning environment.

I appreciated their enthusiasm but made it clear that there are other methods which have been proven to be effective as well, such as the CLT method. I then asked them to take some time to think about CLT (the lesson taken the day before) and how it differs from GTM. This was to be discussed again and practised in the following few days. I then gave them some possible topics and ideas for teaching both the GTM and CLT classes. I informed them that they could practise using both methods with any topic of their choice in the following couple of days. However, I did provide some topics to help those who could not think of any possibilities or to help in finding similar ones. We discussed the two methods, comparing the

pros and cons of each. We also compared the objectives of the two methods and what they enable learners to do.

The PELTs understood that CLT aims to develop the necessary skills for acquiring the language and uses real-life situations, something they needed themselves to develop functional, productive capacity in speaking English. However, they also argued that they needed to do well in their exams in order to graduate. Therefore, they did not want their assessment left to subjective evaluation by their ELLs at the university. I discussed this issue with the PELTs in depth, clarifying their misconception that CLT evaluation and assessment are always open-ended and left up to the teacher. I explained that the given learning materials and the assessment and the evaluation processes can still be close-ended or semi-close-ended in CLT methodology. For example, a teacher can have a checklist when assessing a student's speaking skills to evaluate particular parts of the student's speech. After this presentation the PELTs seemed ambivalent, neither agreeing nor disagreeing with what I had said.

Concerning the main principles of the method, the PELTs performed the GTM perfectly well in the classroom. They also commented on each other's work actively and focused on the minute details of their peer teachers' lessons throughout their peer feedback in the classroom. The PELTs used their bilingual dictionaries extensively to translate in their teaching from English into Arabic. They mainly focused on how effectively and accurately every PELT translated and explained grammar. Another common practice was showing commitment to the meaning of the word given in the dictionary, regardless of whether or not that definition fitted within the given context. They had a tendency to choose either the first word that appeared as an equivalent in the English dictionary or the most common given meaning. Most topics were related to grammar. They considered grammar as the most important component in mastering English. Other skills such as speaking and listening were always less important. They said that grammar is enjoyable for learning and teaching and that it shows how capable and skilful a person is in using a different language.

The main activities the PELTs usually performed were presentation of new vocabulary with their equivalents in Arabic listed on the board. The peer teacher read to their class and asked them to repeat afterwards in listen-and-repeat drills. The words were mainly taken from stories, dialogue or pieces of literature. The PELTs said that it is important that

the students know the meanings of these words in Arabic in order to read and understand the story. The peer teacher then asked the class to take turns and read the English words. The Arabic equivalent is said only the first time. The peer teacher then read the story twice and then asked the class to read sections of it. Sometimes she stopped suddenly and asked someone to continue with reading the passage to see if they were paying attention and following the lesson.

Sometimes the peer teacher asked the class what a particular sentence meant in Arabic. At others she asked questions about the tense, syntax and other issues, such as the use of a particular preposition or a relative clause in English and their equivalents in Arabic. Other than reading the passage and list of words, most of the communication was done in Arabic.

A few other PELTs also focused on grammatical components from the story such as relative clauses and the use of adjectives and pronouns; they started analysing and explaining their function and their equivalent in Arabic. None of the PELTs did any paraphrasing in English or provided an explanation of any English word or phrase using English.

In response to these issues, I explained the philosophy behind CLT again, especially how it covers important skills which the GTM does not address. To clarify my point, I started asking the entire class questions such as “If you keep learning English through the GTM, when you go to an English-speaking country will this type of learning help you to communicate with people and express yourselves properly in English? Will it enable you to conduct any sort of work in an English-speaking country, especially academic work?” I then asked them to prepare to practise CLT in the next class and provided them with some materials to use if they wished.

After teaching the PELTs about CLT, I had some doubts about their self-confidence in teaching via this method. I therefore started with the more proficient PELTs in the group to make it easier for the rest to follow them later on. However, it was evident that the PELTs, including the most proficient PELTs in the group, were still confused when it came to practically delivering an English lesson using CLT.

I noticed that the peer teachers started delivering the CLT lesson satisfactorily as far as the principles of the method were concerned but then shifted unintentionally and gradually to the GTM as they continued teaching. The PELTs sometimes stopped and discussed whether a particular drill or act was, or was not, a communicative one. They also took some

notes on how their peer teacher performed and shared this feedback anonymously at the end of the class. I collected and inspected the sheets and then gave them to the peer teacher. For example, the peer teacher selected a sentence or clause and started to grammatically analyse it and gave its meaning in Arabic to the class. A peer then interrupted her and said "explicit teaching of grammar was not within the main principles of CLT".

On the other hand, some other PELTs complained that they did not understand what was being said in the classroom and that therefore there had to be an opportunity for translation. They required grammar analysis, or at least translation into Arabic as they said they needed to understand the rules so they could use correct English. This might lead us to question whether it is better to focus on accuracy or fluency in an English classroom (see this discussion in Section 2.2.2.1). In this lesson we decided to focus on fluency because it was what the PELTs requested; Savignon also suggests developing fluency first, which will result in developing accuracy as well (1980). At that point, I wrote in my notebook that the PELTs needed more time to practise using CLT and reducing the use of the GTM before the following class. I also noted that it was important that the PELTs have adequate ability to practise the techniques of CLT and bear its main principles and philosophy in mind while using the method. I therefore asked them to start with authentic, short, easy and simple English lessons which were not very challenging and would not require much translation to understand at least the subject matter of the lesson. I also intervened more in the first few exercises to make sure they developed more confidence in using the CLT techniques. At this point, they only needed to look up key words, preferably in an English–English dictionary. I also asked them to do so only when they did not know the meanings of the words and could not guess them by relying on the overall context.

After these actions were taken, I noticed a remarkable improvement in how they used CLT. Also, their choice of topics was purely communicative. For instance, they tended to choose dialogues for their classes about functional, contextualised topics such as looking for accommodation and airport pickups and flights. They focused on communication instead of grammar and reading. At that point they tended to guess the meanings of some words that they had never seen before without using their English–Arabic dictionaries. In their own words, they found learning something that they would use in real life “enjoyable, interesting and beneficial”. These real-life situations were even more enjoyable and beneficial for them

because they focused more on fluency in their activities and achieving communicative objectives than on accuracy. This seemed to have motivated them to learn accurate pronunciation and intonation, for example, instead of focusing only on grammar and reading. However, the PELTs revealed that they would not have enjoyed this activity as much if it were in an actual university class. They said that they would have been stressed about getting good marks through grammar and reading, rather than spending time on acquiring accurate pronunciation and intonation.

The third-party monitor reported that most PELTs liked the CLT method as it allowed them to acquire communicative skills and be creative. It enabled them to think about possible ideas and situations and gave them more freedom than the GTM did. They thought that they needed more time to further practise CLT. They said that they wished their ELT staff at the department of English would adopt methods such as CLT, on condition that the staff guaranteed using fair methods of evaluation. They also wished that their fellow PELTs at the university had the opportunity to experience CLT in practice as they had done in the course. In addition, they said that they could learn much grammar and acquire other skills through their classroom activities without having to study grammar for its own sake — in other words, they would not have to bear in mind that they would have to specifically acquire those skills. One commented, “Learning was fun, automatic, comprehensive, and useful. So yes, I would love to use this method eventually in my English classroom and wish everyone would do the same.”

The PELTs had a major issue with how they are evaluated at the faculty by the ELT staff. At the university, they can fill a form out and get their answer sheets revised by a committee of academics if they think they were given less marks than they deserved on a multiple choice test or any test of similar design. They also receive set study materials which they are required to cover and remember throughout the semester. The midterm and final exam questions cannot be developed from outside of these materials. All that they need to do to score highly in their exams is to study (basically memorise) the content of these materials from cover to cover. However, for activities similar to the ones they experienced throughout this course, the PELTs said the evaluation would be subjective and therefore, to their minds, not valid. Moreover, there would be no set materials they could have in their hands on the exam day. In other words, they liked brainstorming and bringing in their own ideas and

thoughts to use for exercises in their classrooms; however, they worried that they would not be able to recall all of what they had discussed throughout an entire semester to prepare themselves for the final exam.

5.3.2.1. Reflections on Communicative Language Teaching vs the Grammar

Translation Method

The PELTs are familiar with CLT theory but have no practical abilities in using it. They think it is an enjoyable method through which they can learn English but they have concerns about how their ELLs at the university would evaluate them. Their prime concern at this stage is to exit the university, not the quality of their learning. They demonstrated both practical and theoretical understanding of the GTM and they prefer the GTM to any other method, not just to the CLT. They excessively rely on translation into Arabic and the teaching of grammar, which they perceive as the best indicator of a person's competency in English. However, after experiencing the CLT method, they enjoyed it and liked how they learned grammar through communicative activities without having to study grammar for its own sake.

5.3.3. Teaching vocabulary, grammar and speaking within Communicative Language Teaching

The PELTs brought in topics of their own choice and took turns in demonstrating their abilities to teach grammar through speaking activities for the entire week. At first glance, during a quick conversation with the PELTs at the beginning, I noticed that they mainly chose topics involving communicative situations to teach. The situations were mostly situations used in everyday English. Many of them understood the English grammatical components (based on translation from Arabic) and learned them individually after they had practised them in contextualised communicative activities. They then used various grammar books to explain the rules that governed these spoken sentences and clauses to each other.

The PELTs revealed that they understood the rules and therefore could flexibly use them by relying on their previous knowledge of English to create new sentences. This gave them a lot of motivation and confidence. They also said that this was different from how they used to “memorise” the rules. Therefore, they could only recall them either orally when asked by an ELL or on an answer sheet for the exam. One PELT further said she had forgotten, on

many occasions, some parts of the rules, which caused her to stop somewhere in the middle of a question and therefore lose the entire mark for the question. “If I had the chance to practise the rule in a spoken context like this, I wouldn’t have to lose any of those marks ...” she added.

For my part, I commented on how the peer teacher delivered the spoken section of the class to her peers. I also let the PELTs practise speaking and then picked up the grammatical components and explained these components individually. I once intervened in the peer teacher’s lesson and explained what she was doing; I did this because I wanted the other PELTs to understand how their peer was presenting the lesson and why she was presenting it the way she did. The following dialogue that the peer teacher brought to class was between Diana and Vince:

Diana: Have you got any children?

Vince: Yes, we’ve got three kids. Two go to high school and Brad started at UCLA last year. What about you? [We do not know what UCLA stands for].

Diana: My daughter is 9. She’s called Delia. We’ve only got one. My husband is looking after her.

Vince: Look. Paul and Joanne are already there. Can you see them? They are sitting outside the pub.

Diana: Yes, it quite hot now, but it was cold this morning.

Vince: You have really nice weather here.

Diana: Yes, sometimes.

The peer teacher read this conversation to the class using slightly different voices and intonation (indicating she was taking two roles) and then asked her peers to take roles practising the same dialogue. She then picked the sentence “My husband is looking after her” and explained it to the class to prepare them to start manipulating the sentence to convey different meanings. She first changed the pronoun to “him” and placed the phrase “looking after him” in other sentences such as “My younger brother is at home. My mum is looking after him.” She asked her peers why she had said “him” and not “her”. One of her peers answered “because it is about your younger brother and not sister”.

The peer teacher then asked her peers if they could choose other sentences from the dialogue and use them in different situations by keeping the structure and changing the vocabulary. One peer chose the same sentence but completely changed it and said: “I do not enjoy looking after my younger brother as I prefer watching TV when I have free time at home.” She wrote this sentence on the board and underlined “enjoy looking” and “prefer

watching”. The class then started brainstorming and creating new sentences in the same pattern but with different meanings for different situations.

I then provided feedback and corrected them on some occasions with regard to how and where they used a particular structure. I further gave them immediate feedback as they spoke and discussed the grammatical rules. For example, as the PELTs were talking, one said: “I prefer listening music on reading a book” (which is a word-for-word translation from Arabic). I intervened and asked her to ask me if I prefer listening to music or reading a book on a day at the beach, for example. I then said to the class “Well, when I’m at the beach, I usually prefer reading a book to listening to music.”

We continued talking about the same topic; I allowed them to provide one sentence each and then stopped them, explaining to the class the difference between what had been said and how it should be said in English. This example illustrated the difference between English and Arabic structures and the mother tongue influence on the students when using English. They then continued to manipulate English structures in their speaking activities, also bearing in mind the grammatical rules. The PELTs became more involved and interactive in their classroom discussion. The PELT peer teacher then wrote on the board the following grammatical form:

Verb + to + infinitive *or* verb + ing form.

The peer teacher then used this short conversation between a mother and her son. The mother holds her son by the hand and says:

Mother: I want to go home now.

Son: But I love going on the rides.

The peer teacher underlined the grammatical components and started explaining them. She then asked if they could think of similar conversations to practise orally in class. She divided them into groups and asked them to brainstorm and work in teams to construct these conversations. She allowed them to use resources such as dictionaries and electronic translation devices and then they practised the dialogues in pairs. They also located the grammatical focus of their speaking activities in various grammar books and discussed the rules that governed those spoken sentences and clauses.

While teaching grammar and vocabulary in this way, some PELTs kept asking the peer teacher about the meanings of some words and idioms in Arabic. They said they could

understand the subject matter of the conversation and could also guess the meanings of some idioms and words by considering the context. However, they remained unsure about these meanings and therefore they had to use their dictionaries. Some idioms and words were also too hard for them to guess. The PELTs then followed the peer teacher and repeated the words and idioms in English and uttered their equivalent translation once in Arabic. I could see some PELTs wrote direct translations of the meanings of the words and idioms in Arabic in their notes.

At the end of the class, I suggested some ideas and topics for the following day's classroom activities, particularly those including games and role-play exercises which the students preferred. I asked the PELTs not to overuse Arabic–English dictionaries and to take some time to think about the meaning of the vocabulary as it occurred in the given context. I also recommended to the PELTs that they use English–English dictionaries and explained that words usually have many different meanings. Thus they should not rely on only one Arabic counterpart for English words: a better way is to look it up in an English–English dictionary when necessary and find some possible sentences and situations in which that word or idiom is usually used. I named some dictionaries which offer these examples, such as the *Active study* and *Oxford English–English* dictionaries. I provided the PELTs with an English–English dictionary with which to take turns to practise looking up some words.

Throughout their peer-teaching presentations, I noticed that the PELTs had chosen appropriate topics. Almost every resource they chose was rich in new idioms and vocabulary. It was evident that the PELTs had taken some time to think about the quantity of new words and idioms that every passage contained. The PELTs also expressed their comfort in using the English–English dictionary, which they found much more useful and enjoyable to use than the bilingual one. They could find their intended words in new sentences and with many synonyms. They considered this an effective way of learning the vocabulary, which was different from how they had been taught in both high school and university. They had previously studied the words separately and memorised them in lists with no opportunity to manipulate or re-use them differently in a fun, game-based environment. They said they were treated as mature PELTs who are too old to play games in classrooms. Another reason they gave for not having these activities in the university mixed-gender classes was a cultural one. Males and females do not feel comfortable practising these activities together.

Some PELTs said the class time had flown by quickly. They felt sorry when I said that we had to stop as class time was over. They said that they wished we could extend the class time so we could have some more fun and learn at the same time. I could also feel this: we sometimes used to unknowingly take up to 30 minutes extra time when we had these sorts of activities because the students just kept talking and laughing. They reported that this was totally different from how they felt about most of their compulsory lectures at the university. They said that they used to count the time down and get out of the classroom as soon as they could. They also used to delay the ELLs and slow them down by asking questions so that they did not give them as much of the proposed materials to learn. The more materials they covered in the classroom, the more responsibility was put on their shoulders and the more time and effort they had to spend to prepare for the exams.

The third-party monitor feedback confirmed what the PELTs expressed in the class: they all said that CLT is an effective and enjoyable method of learning and they would like to use it eventually in their classrooms. However, one reason they might have enjoyed it and felt that they had benefited from using CLT is because this was not an official, assessed course. In such courses they would have been thinking about their summative assessment at the end of the course.

In our intervention, the PELTs sometimes used English freely but put English communication through Arabic structures to generate conversations. In other words, they used their knowledge of Arabic structures to build new conversations in English by directly translating these structures from Arabic into English and mixing them with the English vocabulary they had learned. This technique results in new sentences and conversations which may or may not make any sense in English for English speakers who do not know Arabic. Let us consider the following conversation that they created to demonstrate in the classroom. The conversation is between Mary and David who are waiting for their friends at school to board the bus together to go to a nearby town to visit a zoo. Part of the conversation provides an example:

Mary: Good morning David, *you are always accurate in your appointments?* Where are the others?

David: Good morning Mary, They said that they will gather at this bus stop at 7:00 this morning. I am sure that *they are near to arrive*.

Mary: *I will ride in the bus*. It is freezing here. *Are you cold?*

David: *Half and half* but I will have to *stand* here so that the guys will see me when they come ...

In this conversation between David and Mary we can see that there are frequent errors in word choice and structure. It would also be apparent to bilingual (Arabic–English) speakers that these errors originate from the Arabic influence on the speaker’s performance in English. For instance, Mary’s sentence “You are always accurate in your appointments” is a word-for-word translation from Arabic: *انت دائما دقيق في مواعيدك*. It is both grammatically and semantically correct in Arabic but the English translation of it does not convey the message properly to the English- speaking audience.

David’s sentence, “I’m sure that they are near to arrive.” sounds grammatically correct but it is semantically incorrect. The PELT who created this dialogue meant to say “I’m sure that they are about to arrive” or “I’m sure that they are on their way” but did not use the correct English structure to achieve the communicative goal of this sentence.

5.3.3.1. Reflections on teaching vocabulary, grammar and speaking within

Communicative Language Teaching

The PELTs’ assumption that structure can come before meaning theoretically aligns with Hatch (1978) who states that, in order to develop fluency, we may learn structure in the first place and then put it into practice for the sake of communication. However, the PELTs’ practice and use of structure for communication was often incorrect throughout the class activities in this course. The PELTs found these activities both beneficial and enjoyable as I provided them with guidance and corrected their use of the English structures and vocabulary. It was evident that these types of interactive group learning activities helped them to develop positive attitudes towards learning and teaching English despite the relatively short time we spent to achieve these major goals. The activities also helped them to speak, read and write English and to respond to spoken English with less hesitation and more confidence.

This excessive and guided exposure to English in class for these adult learners of English is what Krashen (1981) also calls Comprehensible Input. He argues that the formal environment (classroom environment) can sometimes surpass the informal environment (country or context where the language is spoken) with regard to supplying comprehensible input and helping younger learners (usually up to the intermediate level) in developing proficiency in English. In the formal classroom environment, the learners can have

extensive and optimal language exposure (input) that is purposely designed to help them achieve some learning objectives. The informal environment is not always conducive to adult learners of the language having such opportunities because the adult world

“is more complicated grammatically, contains a wider range of vocabulary, deals with more complex topics, and is generally harder to understand. This is simply a reflection of the fact that the adult world is more complex than the world of the child, and our expectations for adult comprehension are much higher” (1981, p. 58).

Thus, according to Krashen (1981), classroom learning is more effective than learning informally from a society where English is the medium of communication, especially for adult beginners. Adult beginners might need days or even weeks to grasp some useful expressions from the “barrage of language” directed at them. The PELTs’ conceptions of learning English in our class activities probably differ from that of Krashen’s comprehensible input in the sense that they thought they needed to construct abstract knowledge of grammar and structures (through both exercising and exposure to the language). In contrast, the comprehensible input hypothesis suggests that learners acquire language through the reception (input) of language (what we hear and read) and not through producing language (what we speak and write), although these two latter channels also indirectly help in encouraging acquisition, according to this hypothesis.

5.3.4. Teaching reading and writing within Communicative Language Teaching

Using the guided writing technique and the “plan, act, evaluate” technique, I presented to the PELTs some examples of how to benefit from reading by thinking about it with regard to many issues such as word choice, spelling and grammatical structures, as well as how the structures function. For reading, we discussed the differences between intensive and extensive reading. I also gave them a number of quick practical examples about teaching reading through CLT and strategies for improving reading comprehension skills.

I used videos (displayed on a smart board) to provide examples in my plenary instruction. I further suggested examples of possible reading materials from the *English for Libya* textbooks to consider for their practice in the following class. Some of the videos chosen for this purpose were taken from YouTube (TEFL class instruction, 2013). I explained that the main principle for teaching reading within CLT is that the learner should

have some interest in the topic being presented for reading. For instance, teachers should not choose a reading text about mechanical engineering for students who study medicine or chemistry. The students should also be given some time to demonstrate their reading skills and be encouraged to discuss what they have learned from the reading. They should also be motivated to carry out critical thinking activities and share their ideas and comprehension of the story throughout their learning activities. The questions set on the reading should vary depending on the learners' skill levels.

In our classes we used a mix of levels. We started by reading a few passages and then the PELTs took turns reading. The passages varied from easy English stories (mainly taken from primary school English books) to more challenging ones (from high school English books). In the former activities the PELTs knew that the main reason for starting with these extensive reading exercises was to enforce fluency and self-confidence in reading, whereas in the latter ones the main goal was to build a better English vocabulary and knowledge of sentence structures. Throughout their extensive reading activities, the PELTs were asked to guess the meanings of some of the vocabulary and structures which they had not learned before. In other words, the objective was to use the main context of the story to determine the meanings of the words in these texts. The PELTs were also instructed on how to scan a text as a first reading to get an idea of what the text is about by focusing on the key words and how the paragraphs are arranged.

I noticed that the PELTs were only acquainted with and described one style of learning how to read: the ELL reads first and then tells them to follow because they will have to answer questions about the reading passage at the end of it. Sometimes, the ELL randomly chooses one or more PELTs to read some parts of the reading passage aloud. The ELLs sometimes answer the questions for the PELTs so they can memorise the answers. Arabic-speaking ELLs also translate for their students most of the vocabulary involved. The PELTs then write Arabic equivalents above the English words on the textbook for memorisation. The PELTs also said that they had had no recommendation to read for pleasure by their ELLs and no resources had ever been given to them as recommended further reading. They do not discuss the reading passages and are not usually asked if they find them interesting or what they think about them. One PELT wrote in her feedback notes: "Sometimes I feel that the

main reason for reading the passage in our university reading classes is to answer the questions about it and not to learn how to read in the first place”.

The PELTs started demonstrating their ability to teach reading with a communicative approach. One, for example, started by reading a passage which comprised several shorter passages in which the PELTs seemed interested.

Wonders of the modern world (by Ann Halliday)

I don't believe that today's wonders are similar in kind to the wonders of the Ancient world. They were all buildings and statues. In the last two centuries we have seen unprecedented technical and scientific achievements. These are surely our modern wonders. Here is my list.

Computer: They have already revolutionized the way we live and work. But it is early days for computers. We don't know how much they are still changing the world. More computer wonders are yet to come.

Agriculture: in 1724, Jonathan Swift wrote, “Whoever makes two blades of grass or two ears of corn grow where only one grew before serves mankind better than the whole race of politicians.” In Europe, our farmers have done this. In 1709, whole villages in France died of hunger. Now, in Europe we can't eat all the food we produce. If only the politicians could find a way to share it with those parts of the world where there is still famine.

Other parts of the passage concerned space travel, medical science, holidays and the Olympic Games. The reading passage was chosen from the *New Headway* series, which was among the resources I brought to the class and had suggested they might use in their preparation for peer-teaching activities. The peer teacher first read the passage to the class and then asked her peers to read parts of it aloud. She did not translate any of the vocabulary that they found hard to understand. She encouraged her peers to discuss the subject matter of the passage and some of the key ideas within it. She then asked them if they found this passage interesting, and how and why. She asked them to try to guess the meanings of the vocabulary they needed to translate by relying on the whole context and the subject matter of the text. She gave her peers no “accurate or correct” Arabic equivalents of the English terms. She did not even agree or disagree with any of their attempts to explain the meanings of the terms. She only asked them to look up the meanings of these terms in English–English dictionaries that they had on their electronic devices or from a hard copy that I provided after they had finished their discussion. In the “comprehension check” exercise, she gave the PELTs seven more statements from the same author of the text and asked them to identify the section of the text these statements would fit into. She took this exercise from the same book. She revealed that

she chose this text because it was interesting to her and felt that her peers would find it interesting as well. She also said that the subject matter and the kind of language used were examples of what she would eventually need to use in her future use of the language.

The PELTs also said that they enjoyed their reading sessions because the stories were rich in new vocabulary and structures that they needed to learn to enhance their capacity for everyday use of the language. The interactive group method of teaching and learning cooperatively and communicatively also maximised the benefits they felt they obtained and made it more enjoyable. One of the PELTs wrote in feedback

“We enjoyed looking up words in English–English dictionaries better than taking the Arabic equivalent words from the ELL and writing them down right on top of the English word. This might be easier for us but I feel that looking it up myself in an English–English dictionary is more enjoyable and beneficial. I sometimes unintentionally keep reading in the dictionary, finding new expressions and structures in English.”

Another PELT said:

“I feel that I benefit from looking the words up in my dictionary as much as I do from the reading story itself.”

They further said that using the English–English dictionary and finding the words as quickly as possible is in itself a skill that they do not have the chance to acquire throughout their university classes.

The PELTs then chose topics that they were interested in to present to their peers. Most of their reading passages were related to daily activities and real-life situations. Examples are stories about traffic jams and the impact on cities and people, as well as the wide use of the internet and modern technology and its affect on peoples’ health and social life.

Another point that the PELTs raised was that, throughout their reading classes at the university, the questions from the ELLs were usually direct and the answers chosen by “skimming and scanning”, that is, looking for similar words in the question and the particular part of the passage. They would then copy the appropriate sentence, which would (hopefully) be the answer to the question. At other times they would copy the answers for the questions about the reading passage from the most proficient PELTs in the class and keep them for use if they were asked these questions in the exam.

I attempted to reverse their tendency to maintain bottom-up reading strategies which they had obviously developed throughout their regular English education in Libya. These strategies are based on word and letter recognition rather than on more meaning-related, top-down strategies which involve a higher-order comprehension. They commonly translated, word-for-word, most words of each text into Arabic and tended to require the meanings of these words individually. Each English word had its Arabic equivalent written above it.

Therefore, I instructed them on how to focus on the reading story and to understand at least the subject matter of it before translating the words. They then said that they felt encouraged to read further on their own when the class finished and started to discuss the given reading in English (mainly with major pronunciation and intonation problems). However, they interacted with each other and apparently tried their best to get involved in the discussion. I gave them feedback about their pronunciation and other aspects. They said that they lacked this style of learning during their university study and enjoyed learning reading by focusing on the overall meaning of the text. They said they would use this learning strategy for teaching their students in the future.

To teach writing, I delivered the lesson through the guided writing technique to demonstrate the process writing method (Heald-Taylor, 1986). In guided writing classes, the teacher usually starts by presenting a topic, gives an example to the students and then works with them as a group to produce another example (as will be shown in the day 4 class). I then gave them some examples of how to write a paragraph and then how to develop it within an essay.

The first thing I noticed when the first peer teacher began delivering her lesson was that she automatically shifted from involving the learners in writing practice, through which they focused on the top-level function of the text, to theoretical, form-based instruction. Although I had asked them again before we started to focus on function through writing practice, none of them did. For example, in my introduction I presented to the PELTs the basic elements of an essay. I generally said that an essay has to start by determining the topic and then we need to brainstorm to determine what we are going to write. We will also need to think about the parts of an essay:

- Introduction: which requires an introductory paragraph

- Body: which bears the main content of an essay and has to be more than one paragraph (typically three paragraphs)
- Conclusion: which comprises a few statements.

I then gave them further details before giving them an example essay in which to identify the parts in groups and demonstrate their understanding of the lesson. I then asked them to work as a group to produce one essay by following the same strategy that we had just discussed. However, in their demonstration of teaching writing, they commonly selected sentences and parts of the text and started explaining them grammatically and discussing what they meant in Arabic.

I asked the PELTs to start demonstrating their abilities in teaching writing using guided writing techniques. I noticed that they started their presentation by giving examples but shifted to selecting some parts of the texts in the middle of their demonstration (usually if asked a question by another peer or if they received a comment) and focused on breaking them down to several grammatical components and explaining them to the class.

In their reflection on the practice session, the PELTs said that group discussion sometimes causes the classroom to be noisy and creates an atmosphere that is not suitable for learning. Others said that some learners probably prefer working with particular colleagues while others do not prefer working in the same group or in pairs. Learners might also need to be asked if they like working in groups or in pairs before they are asked to do so. The PELTs also discussed and started making comparisons between their previous experience in learning reading and writing at the university and the learning in this course. One important point commonly raised was how they felt comfortable and less threatened about talking and interacting in the classroom when they worked in groups. They revealed that they were not sure if their discussions, points of view and feedback were of any importance to improving their learning process. They perceived the teacher as the only person who should speak in the class and whose contribution is the most beneficial for students' learning. They felt students should be as quiet and as receptive as possible to make it easier for their teacher to convey knowledge to them. Students should not talk in the class for any reason so that they do not waste the class time.

The PELTs in this session reported to the third-party monitor that, although the time they had for writing in this course was relatively short, they found practising in the classroom

while talking and discussing how to develop a paragraph — and the theory behind this — very beneficial and enjoyable. They tended to use Arabic while discussing the development of each paragraph and they discussed aspects like genre and tenor in Arabic, although I kept intervening to reinforce the use of English in the classroom instead.

The third-party monitor also reported that the PELTs felt that there was a remarkable difference between their university instruction and the use of CLT for both reading and writing. Reading and discussing the reading passage with their peers and the teacher made it easier for them to understand the reading, to get involved in it, and therefore to talk about it in different ways. They saw could answer a question in more than one way, that is, paraphrase and say the same thing in different ways, which was different from their practice of memorising answers throughout their university reading classes.

Regarding writing, they said they found interacting together to develop a particular paragraph or essay very enjoyable. They felt they would have significantly benefited if this was among the ways they had been trained in their university writing classes. They could practise and bring some examples of various writing aspects to the classroom. Moreover, they could get immediate feedback from me, which was very helpful for them in various ways. In their university writing classes, they did not have any of these opportunities. Everything was delivered theoretically without any form of participation on the part of the PELTs. They said their university teachers did most of the talking and exercises, not only in writing classes but also for most of the other classes, including spoken English. They said that they felt less stressed and more enthusiastic about participating in all the speaking, reading and writing activities in this course than in the activities in their classes at the university.

In reading classes, they used to read stories that they sometimes were not interested in. They read for the sake of answering a few questions about the passage and to prepare for the exam. In contrast, they enjoyed reading stories that they were interested in and chose themselves. They also found the English–English dictionaries more interesting and useful than the Arabic–English dictionaries used in their regular university reading classes.

In discussing the CLT method, the PELTs said that it is certainly a method that they would like to use in the future which is different from all common methods used in schools and the university in Agdabia. Therefore, other PELTs would not know the benefits that this

method could offer unless they had the chance to practise it in teaching the various skills of English. They complained that the time they had for practice in this course was very short. They added that I was delivering too much material and they wished to be given more opportunity for deeper study and further practice, especially in listening and speaking.

It was evident that their university writing education was mainly based on theoretical instruction without practical experience. The PELTs felt less threatened working in groups (both in reading and writing classes) and more confident in participating in class activities and asking questions, in contrast to participating in regular university classes in which they worked and learned individually.

5.3.5. Peer teaching speaking through Communicative Language Teaching

At the beginning of the sessions on teaching speaking, I asked this question: Can speaking be taught effectively through different methods to CLT? Why? Or why not? I then gave quick examples of teaching speaking through CLT. One of the most engaging activities involved showing a “Mr Bean” video and then asking the PELTs to describe what he was doing, why, where, if they would probably do the same as he did, and what the dialogue would be.

I gave the PELTs some time to discuss these issues together after they enjoyed watching the comedy. We carried out some speaking activities through CLT by discussing the comedy. For instance, one asked the others about the dialogue that Mr. Bean and other people in the show might have spoken. I then suggested some possible topics and ideas for the PELTs to prepare to practise in the following day’s class. For instance, in addition to a list of online resources (including the VOA and the BBC) and the English textbooks and materials used in the *English for Libya* series, I suggested that they use a book called *English practice grammar* (Macfarlane & Abo Jalalah, 1995). This book contains Arabic explanations to assist their understanding and to prepare tasks for their classroom activities. These PELTs tended to be creative in brainstorming and creating conversations and texts to share with their peers in the class but they also tended to be cautious about how to use the correct grammar and put it into practice. The book, for example, provides advice on how to use the different tenses in English through drawings and short conversations from everyday situations. It also provides exercises and explanations of patterns of usage and uses them in amusing and real-life situations.

Throughout their previous English education, the PELTs said that talking to their teachers to acquire speaking skills was the main strategy adopted for speaking classes. They were interrupted immediately for feedback (i.e. corrections from the teachers) as they spoke. The feedback was usually said loudly in the classroom so that all PELTs could benefit from it. Most corrections were about grammar, segmental pronunciation and word choice. Intonation, stress and pragmatics, for example, were not as important in these teacher–student conversations.

PELTs rarely speak with each other in the classroom for practice. Arabic is usually used in this conversation to explain the content. They are sometimes required to memorise lengthy conversations and stories in English chosen by their ELLs to build better speaking skills. This is usually done through assignments which they need to prepare at home. Conversations and speaking materials are usually analysed for grammatical structure. The ELLs choose the speaking activities and the level and type of materials. The PELTs may or may not be interested in the content. The PELTs said that sometimes when they see ELLs for the first time (especially non-Libyans) in the classroom the ELLs bring their materials to the class and start their lectures from Day 1. The PELTs do not believe these ELLs could have any knowledge about their learners’ needs and learner profiles before they first enter the classroom and start teaching.

With little further encouragement from me, the PELTs started demonstrating their abilities to peer-teach speaking through CLT. The PELTs first comments on practising the method were that they felt comfortable with learning English through CLT for the flexibility, practice, and variety of English situations it provided. I had guided them to discuss and discover the pros and cons of this method in teaching speaking, especially with regard to their own background and knowledge on teaching speaking. I then provided feedback about their performance and recommendations for changes for the following class.

I noticed that the PELTs spoke Arabic when they could not say what they wanted in English and then helped each other to translate that into English. They also had a major mother-tongue influence, hesitated and relied on much use of body language and gestures to make themselves understood. In response to these issues, I asked them to read and listen to authentic English resources. I also explained what resources are authentic and recommended

some example resources. As mentioned earlier, the PELTs mainly preferred the VOA materials and said that they found them useful and enjoyable.

Although the PELTs started using simple English structures and dialogues, they performed satisfactorily. I asked them to provide feedback to each other and I then commented on their feedback. I noticed that they became more engaged and willing to speak. They started to be emotionally involved in their own learning.

In their last third-party evaluation session, the PELTs revealed that they were not happy with their fluency in English. They thought that they could not speak English properly because their sole focus throughout their previous English education, starting from secondary school, was on grammar. They also said that they theoretically studied other aspects separately, including phonology, syntax and semantics. They did not practise speaking as it was not generally considered a major skill by their teachers.

Discussing the principles and philosophy of CLT with the third-party monitor showed the PELTs seem to have developed a better understanding of the method. They said they do accept it as a better alternative to other traditional methods commonly used in the Libyan ELT context. They also said they would like to have more time to practise it and then to use it eventually in their future classrooms.

They further said they felt that they benefited more with regard to speaking and listening skills than with writing and reading. This might be due to the time given to each pair of skills. They felt that they would have developed better skills in English if this course was longer. According to the PELTs, this contrasts with their English courses at the university, through which they did not feel that they progressed dramatically in terms of acquiring better listening and speaking skills.

On reflection, it is evident that the intervention group of PELTs is keen to develop speaking and listening skills in English, preferably through the CLT method. However, considering the Libyan cultural and social influences on the quality of English education as previously discussed, in combination with what has been delivered and noted throughout this course, it is evident that the PELTs are highly influenced by their cultural and social background. The society's view and high social status of holders of university degrees influences the PELTs to aim at obtaining the degree rather than focusing on learning. The PELTs developed a common belief that this process can be done backwards; that is, obtaining

the degree before learning. This may explain why the PELTs in the intervention group believed that communicative approaches are interesting and effective in non-compulsory courses like this one but that they should not be part of any university or compulsory type of education in Libya. They prefer close-ended approaches in their university education in order to avoid gambling with their scores and grades at the end of each course.

5.3.5.1. Reflections on teaching reading and writing: Learning in isolation in a teacher-centred class vs collaborative learning in a learner-centred class

By observing the PELTs in the class, it was apparent that they were hesitant to participate in classroom discussions and activities. During my first attempts to discover the reasons for this attitude, I asked them to work in groups to determine their views on the various aspects of our discussions and then to nominate a representative to speak on their behalf. I also asked them to briefly write small anonymous notes about their personal thoughts and to share these notes before I collected them for a class discussion. To maintain the least threatening learning environment possible, I explained that I did not expect them to provide error-free answers on all matters discussed and therefore they should not worry about making mistakes, as mistakes are an important part of their learning (Harmer, 2007).

After several attempts, they started to talk more and participate in classroom discussions, ask questions and provide feedback on peers' comments and responses. We then started our reflection-on-practice session in which I asked the PELTs to write how they felt about their experience.

In the PELTs' written feedback, I saw a number of similar comments. The following, for example, is a word-for-word translation of a PELT's written feedback: "I sometimes have lots of questions in my mind and feel hesitant to ask many questions. I fear that any of my questions could be taken as 'stupid' either by my teacher, colleagues or both. Practising with a group made it easier for me to find answers to all my questions and to acquire skills that were almost impossible for me to get if this class was a university writing class. I feel now more daring to talk, ask questions (because everybody does), and also less stressed if I'm asked to write a paragraph in English."

On this particular point, Harmer (2007) points out that group work motivates learners to talk and participate in classroom discussions and helps in creating an atmosphere of creative learning, especially in writing tasks and planning. However, he assumes that there

will also be some solo work tasks in the classroom in which students work alone and the teachers walk around the class helping individual students because some do not feel comfortable working in groups or in pairs.

The first time we presented teaching writing via CLT, the PELTs could theoretically discuss writing aspects such as tenor, genre, cohesion and coherence. However, they only provided definitions and theoretical descriptions of these concepts. I deduced from this theoretical demonstration of their capacities that their university study was based mainly on theoretical instruction without any practice time. This probably explains why they enjoyed working as a team to develop and discuss a full essay which is because they lacked these sorts of learning activities throughout their university education. Working individually represents a risk to them as they fear making mistakes which might be held against them in the class and might also affect their overall grade for the course.

5.3.6. Teaching listening within Communicative Language Teaching

To teach listening within a CLT framework, I adapted Harmers' style of teaching listening (2007), which is primarily done in three stages: prediction (or before-listening practice); listening (sometimes a few times); and then post-listening activities. For example, I started one of the activities by pre-teaching a few key words taken from the listening script entitled *Small businesses make big*, which was downloaded from the Voice of America (VOA, 2013) website and asked the PELTs to try to predict what the story was about. This is part of introducing PELTs to pre-listening techniques and preparing them to listen. I then gave them the transcription and asked them to compare what they thought they had heard with what was written. I started asking questions about the story and asked them to take turns asking each other questions and giving answers as well.

We then listened to a number of conversations in English and finished the class with overall discussion and feedback. I commented on their questions and provided references for further reading and listening materials. I also provided materials I recommended for their own practice in the following class. I suggested a few credible resources for obtaining authentic materials, which included the BBC, VOA and podcasts. The PELTs mainly used the VOA as they found the materials on this website the best for their interest and ease of understanding.

A major but expected point of feedback I obtained from the PELTs was the difference between teaching listening within CLT and the methods of their teachers in both high school and university. They said that the most common and widely accepted way to teach listening there was to repeatedly play (about three times) an audio or audiovisual material to the students. The teachers first tell the students about the subject matter of what they are about to hear. The teachers then play it for the first time, play it again, and then stop at some desired sentences and phrases, asking the students to either repeat them or write them down. The teachers may write these sentences on the board and make sure the students know the sentences and what they mean. At other times, they analyse them as grammatical structures and new vocabulary. Another important point here which all PELTs in the group reported was that most teachers at secondary schools skip the speaking and listening activity sections of the textbooks and tell their students that “this is not so important”. I have also seen this with English high school textbooks when I helped students (outside of the course) with some parts of their assignments.

At the university, the situation sounds to some extent different because some courses are named “Listening comprehension” and therefore most of the class has to be about listening. Even in this case, the PELTs said that sometimes most of the listening class time is spent on grammar and learning sentences and vocabulary, usually through following what the teachers say instead of listening to any authentic materials. “Listening classes” sometimes consist of worksheets for the PELTs to read for themselves at home. They said that they would like to listen to conversations, especially everyday English ones such as those at airports, hotels and in travel situations; they would like to be able to understand people talking in English about issues such as weather conditions, entertainment or a favourite beverage at the supermarket.

The PELTs usually retrieved audio materials from the VOA as sound files and these were accompanied by transcriptions. They sometimes either used the questions from the website on the chosen story or added a few questions, activities and comments to raise in the class with their peers. I practised listening with them and guided them to discover and discuss the advantages and disadvantages of teaching and learning listening within CLT. I also provided them with feedback about their performance and made recommendations to change some of their actions for the following class.

Throughout their reflection-on-practice and third-party discussion sessions, the PELTs said that they felt that learning listening skills within CLT was more effective and beneficial to them. The support and guidance I provided them before, during and after listening increased their self-confidence and belief in themselves, which meant they could listen and understand well. They revealed that they needed this sort of support to develop better listening skills. However, they also said that at that stage they still had difficulties in comprehending the listening materials and in understanding what was being said. The peer teacher said that she might have understood more of the material because she had worked on it and prepared it at home before she came to class. The PELTs still also had problems in segmental pronunciation and intonation. They expressed their comfort in using the pre-, while- and post-listening technique to develop better listening skills; however, they said they needed to step back to get closer to beginner's level. In this way, they would build up a solid foundation for stronger listening skills.

The PELTs asked me to replay the listening section multiple times when I played lengthy conversations or stories. The less challenging the material, the less they would request me to replay it. I also noticed that they felt hesitant to comment in English on what they had heard for fear of making mistakes. They commented and talked about the meaning of what was being said in Arabic instead.

I encouraged them to try their best to maintain as accurate segmental pronunciation and intonation as possible in speaking activities. I explained that they must make mistakes in order to learn a different language and that "he who makes no mistakes, makes nothing". I had to try a few times before they were encouraged to speak in English and make mistakes rather than talk in Arabic.

I then decided that in the following class I would choose short and simple dialogues rather than lengthy, complicated stories. They preferred the type of conversations that enabled them to understand people and to at least express themselves in real-life situations. Therefore, I decided to comply with their needs and adjusted the content to match their abilities.

Subsequently I noticed that the PELTs felt more comfortable comprehending the audio materials and understood at least the subject matter of what was said. They were trying to paraphrase what they heard in English but they lacked self-confidence. Next I provided

them with transcriptions of the audio materials so that they could learn with slightly more advanced materials for the following exercise. The peer teachers were asked to concentrate on a specific “language focus” within the listening materials, which they should bear in mind as the main objective(s) of learning. I thought having listening materials for the following day accompanied by transcripts would probably help the struggling class members to understand them. However, they would not be reading the transcripts until they had listened to the audio material at least three times. They would also need to understand the learning focus before seeing the transcripts to verify what they had learned.

I also noticed that they still had problems understanding commonly used vocabulary, even in contexts that clearly supported comprehension of meaning. The PELTs, for example, mixed up verbs such as “sit” and “set”, using them interchangeably. They also used other heard-only words and sentences incorrectly. However, they recognised the mistakes they had made once they saw these words and sentences written correctly on the board beside each other.

In peer-teaching activities, the peer teachers brought their own topics and some of the ones I had suggested the day before (mainly obtained from the VOA and the BBC websites), as well as some from the *English for Libya* curriculum that is currently used in secondary and high schools in Agdabia.

The transcribed texts made it easier for the PELTs to understand the listening materials. They made a remarkable improvement when they were allowed to see the transcripts to understand the mistakes they had made in their initial practice. They revealed that seeing the transcripts helped them to develop better listening skills.

I noticed at that stage that although the PELTs were developing better listening skills they needed to focus on conversations that contained only short and simple sentences and phrases. The longer the sentences were, the harder it became for them to comprehend them.

When the PELTs encountered lengthy sentences, it distracted them and caused them to miss the rest of the listening section. They were happy to choose simple dialogues which were not too long. The first PELT presented a short and simple conversation of two friends talking about whether to go to the cinema or to the theatre. Another PELT presented audio material which contained a conversation between five people talking about a football match they had played last weekend. The conversation contained several lengthy sentences and

difficult vocabulary which the female PELTs had no interest in at all. Although both conversations were accompanied by transcripts, the entire group found the former very interesting, enjoyable and beneficial in contrast to the latter. An example of the short dialogues the PELTs brought to class is a set of dialogues entitled *Old town two* by Wassily Kandinsky, which were retrieved from a website called Dialogue Workout. The selected dialogues primarily aimed to teach speaking and comprehending spoken English in the present simple tense. This is first dialogue:

A: My name is Tom. What's yours?

B: I'm Mary.

A: Hi, Mary. What level are you in?

B: I'm in Level 3. And you?

A: I'm in Level 3, too. So this is the right classroom.

B: Do you work, Tom?

They found this dialogue an easy one to start with. The PELT who chose this dialogue said she recalled that I had suggested during the preceding class that they should choose less complicated dialogues and materials, especially at the beginning to “break the ice” and provide their peers with some self-confidence and to encourage them to participate actively in the class activities.

One thing I noticed about these dialogues was that they contained culturally inappropriate terms and subjects. For example, in the following dialogue Tom asks Mary if she is married:

Tom: Are you married?

Mary: Yes, I am. My husband works as a janitor.

Tom: Does he study English too?

Mary: Yes, he does. He studies at night. How about you?

Tom: I'm single, but I have a girlfriend.

Mary: I met my husband eight years ago.

In line five, Tom says to Mary that he is single and that he has a girlfriend. I was uncertain about whether the PELT understood what this communication referred to in Arabic. However, due to cultural sensitivity I could not possibly discuss this with the female PELTs and preferred to wait, hoping to find out as the discussion continued. It was apparent that the PELT did not understand what a “girlfriend” referred to in the Western context. One PELT asked me why Tom said that to Mary and what was he responding to. The peer teacher

delivering the lesson responded in a way that did not reveal an understanding of the meaning of this term from the Western perspective.

Another example of the long stories brought by some PELTs, which others had no interest in, was the story of *Former Pentagon Chief Robert Gates to lead the Boy Scouts of America*, which was taken from the VOA website. The PELT revealed that she chose this story because she likes politics. Her peers found it too long, full of complicated terms and structures, and the topic uninteresting.

Throughout the peer-teaching demonstrations, we referred to a focus on the correct form of English and the direct translation of the listening materials into Arabic as “teaching listening via GTM”. In their regular university listening classes, the PELTs revealed that their ELLs usually provided them with a number of listening scripts accompanied by transcriptions but they focused on the written texts in the class, at home for their assignments, and also for their midterm and final examinations. The focus was on the correct form of the components of the written texts and not on the meaning of the audio material. Their ELLs only played the audio materials (if they brought any) at the beginning of the class for the PELTs and might replay it once or twice if the PELTs requested. No structured practice in listening comprehension or discussion about the audio material took place, either between the ELL and the PELTs or among the PELTs themselves. The ELLs also explained theoretical aspects of listening and speaking in some classes and expected the PELTs to acquire this theoretical knowledge.

The third-party monitor reported that the PELTs said that they felt comfortable with negotiating and manipulating the learning materials in the course. However, they said that this was impractical and unlikely to be realistic for their university education and also in secondary schools. The textbooks and chosen materials in all of these teaching contexts are usually prearranged and have to be fully covered. The same is true for the methods of teaching.

They further revealed that listening is the least practised skill and they needed to give it more time and effort. Their ELLs, according to the PELTs, need to make sure that they are flexible and change the level of the learning materials if required. They also need to negotiate the methods used until they find the most suitable method of learning for their PELTs.

In reflection, university listening classes are sometimes based on using lengthy audio materials but these mostly concern written texts to study for examinations. This course provided the PELT participants with an interactive learning environment where they could cooperatively work in groups on short, interesting audio materials which helped them understand spoken English well.

5.4. Comparison of the pre-intervention and post-intervention Teaching Knowledge

Tests of the groups

This section presents the results of the pre and post TKT for the comparison and intervention groups. A finding that the intervention group had not improved their knowledge of teaching English through the intervention program would indicate that they had not cognitively engaged with the learning. A finding that the comparison group had significantly improved upon their score from the pre test to the post test would suggest the test was an invalid instrument with which to evaluate teacher knowledge. Table 3 shows pre-test and post-test results for the intervention and comparison groups. The scores reported are raw scores, not percentages.

Table 3

Pre-test and post-test TKT results for intervention and comparison groups

Group		<i>Mean</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>SD</i>
Intervention group	Pre test	20.500	10	4.4033
	Post test	43.200	10	7.7431
Comparison group	Pre test	17.500	8	4.7509
	Post test	18.000	8	6.5465

Within each group (test and comparison) a pre- and post-test analysis of the difference in means was conducted using SPSS to test the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the pre- and post-TKT scores of the test and comparison groups. The means and standard deviations of the TKT test for the test and comparison groups pre and post the intervention are reported in Table 4.

Table 4

Paired samples correlations of pre- and post-test results for the intervention and comparison groups

	<i>N</i>	<i>Correlation</i>	<i>p</i>
Intervention group	10	.518	.125
Comparison group	8	.730	.040

At $r = .518$, the correlation between the pre-test and post-test results of the intervention group is not statistically significant ($p < 0.125$). However, a statistically significant result of $r = .730$ was returned for the comparison group, meaning that the comparison group's results on the TKT remained unchanged, with a statistically significant and strong association between the pre- and post-intervention result for this group that did not receive the intervention.

Regarding the change that occurred in the intervention group, a two-tailed paired t-test was used to test for statistically significant differences between the means. The intervention group achieved a mean 22.7 improvement in scores after the intervention, $t(9) = -10.82$, $p < .001$. The comparison group achieved a marginal improvement of 0.5, which was not statistically significant, $t(7) = -0.12$, $p = .76$. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the TKT scores of the intervention and comparison groups following the course intervention can be rejected. This means that the intervention consisting of instruction in current ELT methods made a real difference to the ELT knowledge of the participants which was not achieved by the comparison group participants who were only exposed to their regular ELT classes at the university. The intervention group improved their knowledge as measured by the TKT across all topics tested (Figure 9), with the greatest improvements in the topics of learning strategies and motivating students.

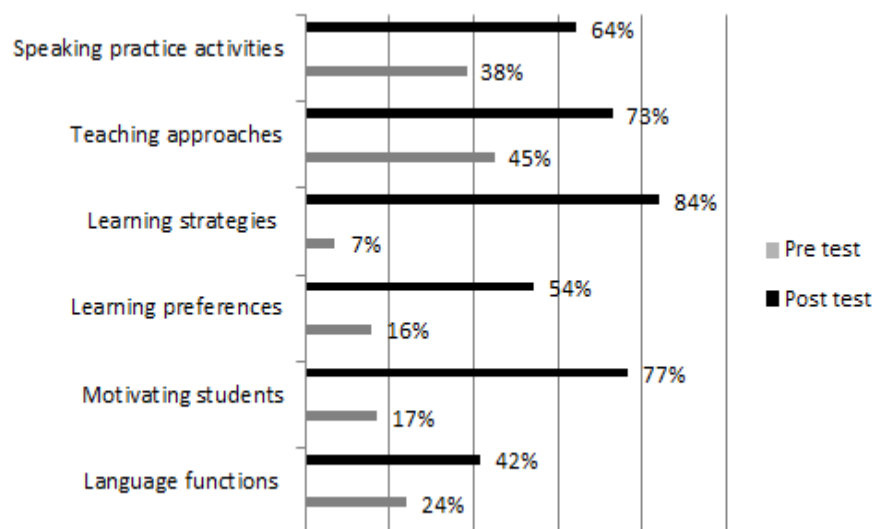


Figure 9. Mean pre- and post-intervention Teaching Knowledge Test results by test topic for the intervention group. Mean results are displayed as percentages.

This chapter has described the qualitative data gathered through the teaching methods course intervention. It also presented the results for the quantitative pre and post tests of teacher knowledge (TKT). The next, and final, chapter provides an interpretation of the data and presents the findings identified from a comparison of the themes that arose from the data. The findings are then discussed with reference to the research questions, some possible solutions to the problems identified in the Libyan ELT context are suggested, and these solutions are justified with reference to the literature. Finally, the chapter presents opportunities for further research and draws the conclusions of this research.

Chapter 6: Data interpretation, findings and discussion

6.1. Introduction

The preceding Chapters 4 and 5 described the data collected through the various data collection techniques used in the study. This chapter interprets the data and presents the main findings elicited from a comparison of the themes that arose from the interview data and the data obtained through other methods.

The data obtained by interviewing the three participant groups in this research were classified, grouped and themed. These interview data were then triangulated with the other data components and interpreted with reference to the research questions below:

- What is the current English language teaching knowledge of the future Libyan teachers of English in the Agdabia campus at the University of Benghazi?
- Does Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) work in Libya?
- What are the barriers to using CLT in Libya?

The findings from the interview data are presented under seven identified themes:

1. The influence of the Libyan culture on the English language teaching (ELT) context
2. The low salaries of teachers in Libya and the financial expectations of pre service English language teachers (PELTs)
3. The pedagogy of English language teaching
4. The excessive use of the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) in teaching and learning of English
5. The lack of opportunities for exposure to authentic English in the faculty
6. Professional standards and management problems
7. The use of resources.

What follows is an expansion on these themes and a comparison of these themes to other findings to determine implications for English education in the Agdabia faculty. The implications lead to a series of recommendations to educate future teachers to be better teachers of English.

6.2. Research question 1: What is the current English language teaching knowledge of the future Libyan teachers of English in the Agdabia campus at the University of Benghazi?

The student participants of both intervention and comparison groups in the teaching methods course intervention scored poorly in their pre-test with the Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT), indicating that the knowledge of the PELTs about teaching and learning of English is deficient by Western standards. In the post-intervention TKT, a statistically significant pre-test–post-test difference was only observed in the results of the intervention group. This finding provides evidence that the intervention groups' knowledge about teaching and learning of English increased through participation in the intervention. The TKT results of the PELTs in the comparison group, who did not participate in the intervention, did not show a statistically significant difference. Both the intervention and comparison groups were attending regular university classes while the intervention group participated in the 7-week teaching methodology course. This suggests that the substantial improvement in knowledge about teaching and learning of English achieved by the intervention group was due to the teaching methodology course and not to their university education.

The areas of knowledge that were the poorest at the pre-testing stage (as tested by the TKT) were *learning strategies*, *learning preferences* and *language functions*. After the intervention, the areas of teacher knowledge that improved most for the intervention group were *learning strategies*, *learning preferences* and *motivating students*. These findings suggest that the methodology course, which implemented an action research design focusing on developing the participants' areas of greatest need, managed to achieve significant improvement in two of the group's weakest areas of pedagogical knowledge: learning strategies and learning preferences. The PELTs' knowledge of language functions also improved (a linguistic knowledge improvement), but not as much as another pedagogical knowledge area: motivating students. Improvements in these three areas of pedagogical knowledge reflect a cognitive uptake of knowledge framed by constructivist approaches to learning and teaching developed by post-Vygotskian scholars in CLT. The next research question addressed the issue of whether the CLT approach can be implemented in practice, in addition to cognitive understanding of the approach.

6.3. Research question 2: Does the Communicative Language Teaching approach work in Libya?

As far as the cognitive learning outcomes of the methodology course are concerned, it can be said that the CLT approach can be understood by PELTs in at least one Libyan university context, though PELTs possibly need some time to get acquainted with using the method in practice. They also need clarification of their misconceptions about the method. Despite the theoretical knowledge the group developed about the CLT in the initial stages of the course, when it was first demonstrated practically in their class the PELT participants demonstrated no practical skills in teaching within CLT, nor did they display positive attitudes towards it. Within a few days of guided peer practice and group learning activities, the PELTs showed positive attitudes towards the method and developed skills in using it. However, they were reluctant to accept that their English language lecturers (ELTs) should adopt it in their regular university classes because they could not see how spoken communication could be assessed within the current mode of paper-based assessment. They were also unsure at the beginning of the course whether they would eventually use the method to teach their students when they graduate and become English teachers in the near future. By the end of the course, the PELTs had changed their attitude and perspective on CLT as a method of teaching to be used in schools. At the end of the course they revealed that they would eventually adopt CLT to teach their primary and high school students when they graduate.

The PELTs revealed that they liked CLT because it is enjoyable and allows them to choose from a variety of topics to learn. Oral practice of English also helped them develop better fluency and confidence in using English. Kirkpatrick and Ghaemi (2011) point out that peer and group learning activities, which are central to CLT classes, place the learner at the centre of the learning process and therefore provide more exposure to English and more opportunities to practise it orally. This in turn leads to better quality learning outputs. Such a learning environment also provides individual learners with timely feedback and therefore generates more motivation towards learning.

The PELTs' exposure to English structures and functions and communicative interactions in English led them to manipulate language to generate new sentences and dialogues while accessing their previous knowledge of English vocabulary and terminology. Kirkpatrick and Ghaemi (2011) state that it is important to teach learners how to perform this

kind of structural manipulation in a CLT class but that it should not be done for the sake of mere manipulation of the language. Learners should be able to construct new statements that can be used in real-life situations and for communicative purposes. As far as reading and writing are concerned, the CLT method helped the PELTs to interact and become actively involved in group learning activities to construct paragraphs and essays and to discuss written texts.

The PELTs also perceived CLT as beneficial for teaching listening skills. Easy-to-understand listening materials and short dialogues were used along with communicative approaches to include listening activities in their teaching. They were encouraged to share their perspectives with each other. This interaction was successful due to the less threatening learning environment based on group and collaborative learning rather than on the teacher-to-PELTs unidirectional instruction experienced in their university program. The accompanying listening transcripts also made learning more enjoyable and achievable.

Libyan learners of English are mainly either at the “pre-learning level” or the “how to learn English level” (Jha, 2014), especially with regard to listening. The CLT helped the learners to develop better listening skills and then to gradually develop these skills, starting from the beginners’ level. This result aligns with what Kirkpatrick and Ghaemi (2011) say about the method: it is useful to all learners alike, from beginner to advanced levels.

In short, the CLT method can be adopted in the Libyan ELT context provided that the method is introduced theoretically in Arabic to ensure that all misconceptions about it are clarified. Kirkpatrick and Ghaemi (2011) reveal that 387 students in a study conducted in Thailand reported that the use of the mother tongue to explain the rules and provide instructions in the classroom can be very beneficial if incorporated with the CLT method. The teachers should then start with less challenging authentic learning materials and work as a facilitator, allowing the learners to work cooperatively in pairs and groups to encourage and motivate them to learn and to develop more confidence.

6.4. Research question 3: What are the barriers to using CLT in Libya?

Various barriers to using the CLT method in Libya were revealed through the literature review, interviews, action research, monitor feedback sessions and researcher observation during the intervention: socio-cultural barriers; teachers’ low salaries; teacher-centredness;

excessive use of the GTM in teaching and learning of English; lack of any opportunities for exposure to authentic English within the faculty; professional standards and management problems; and use of resources. These barriers are expanded upon below.

6.4.1. Socio-cultural barriers

The culture of respecting the elderly and superiors in Libya in general and Agdabia in particular (Bayoud, 2013; Elbendak, 2008) necessitates that students accept what their teachers say without much negotiation. For example, when I was talking to the PELTs in a mixed class at the university to encourage male PELTs to participate in the study and explain what their participation involved, both the male and female PELTs were not communicating with me and did not even look at me in the eye while I was talking to them. They mainly kept their eyes on their desks. Only one PELT responded with short answers. The ELLs and stakeholders in this faculty also revealed that the PELTs do not usually negotiate their learning needs or maintain eye contact with their ELLs, which is perceived culturally as a sign of respect to them as supervisors.

There is also a culture of sustaining anything old in Agdabia, especially in teaching and learning. Maintaining traditional styles of teaching is at the core of the culture of the teachers in Agdabia, especially the older teachers. ELLs and some PELTs in this study revealed that they perceive old-fashioned English language teaching as more authentic, effective and long-lasting, although it may be slower than modern English teaching methods; modern methods are perceived as more “commercial” and faster, but less effective. They perceive that all knowledge obtained through modern methods, in this sense, vanishes as soon as the course ends. However, when the PELTs experienced the CLT method in contrast with the GTM in the intervention, they found learning through the CLT method more enjoyable and effective in achieving their communicative purposes. They could see the philosophy of this approach as learners in the Western context see it. However, they still had concerns about adopting this philosophy at their university, which were related to their assessment and passing in their regular university courses.

Libyan male and female students do not communicate or experience any mixed-gender learning activities in mixed classes. This cultural gender barrier makes communication in English and carrying out pair and group learning activities, which are fundamental aspects of CLT, difficult. The problem is not only that males do not

communicate with females in English classes but also that males do not even communicate with other males in the presence of females in class. The same is true for the females; females do not communicate with other males or females in the presence of males. Some female PELTs revealed that they do not even feel comfortable speaking in class if the ELL is a male.

The PELTs did not have any knowledge about managing the learning environment and how to make it suitable for communicative learning. Therefore, they did not take these skills into account or recognise them as necessary for communicative language teaching. Another major barrier to adopting CLT in the Libyan context is the PELTs' concerns about passing their exams, or what Jha (2014) calls the phobia of English and English tests/testing. The PELT participants prefer the GTM because it only requires them to memorise the content and recall it for examination when needed. They have been exposed to the GTM for a long time so this method is held in the highest esteem in the society by both students and parents (Abidin, Mohammadi, & Alzwari, 2012).

Libyan people tend to only communicate in Arabic and do not appreciate other Arabic-speaking people communicating in another language. This is evident in the English learning context within schools and universities as well. Some students do not take other people seriously if they communicate in English or any other language than Arabic, even in English language classrooms. This factor led some of the students who would like to communicate in English for practice to hesitate and be shy. Teachers and stakeholders do not take any significant steps to provide learners of English with any kind of exposure to English. All these cultural barriers prevent CLT, which fundamentally relies on communication, taking place in the Libyan context.

6.4.2. Teachers' low salaries

Teachers' salaries are among the lowest in the government sector, which directly affects the application of teaching methods such as CLT in Libyan English classrooms. The teachers perceive their low salaries (in comparison to those in other sectors) as a sign of disrespect (both by the government and the society) to them and to the nature of the service they provide to the society (Jha, 2014). They also tend to find other jobs in addition to teaching to meet their financial needs. These issues in turn affect the motivation of the teachers of English and reduce their productivity and performance. The issues also negatively affect the PELTs' attitude towards learning English and their commitment to learning. Stakeholders revealed

that many male PELTs, for example, come to their classes in the morning tired and unable to comprehend their studies due to their nightly army duties. Some PELTs quit university early to find jobs that can secure them a better income. In other words, the general view of a typical teacher in Libya is usually that of a less fortunate person who finds it difficult, for instance, to pay bills and raise children. Therefore, they tend to rely only on teaching of grammar and reading in order to save time and effort for other more financially rewarding work. Similarly, money matters affect the PELTs' current attitude towards being future teachers; therefore they do not apply effort to learn about the CLT method.

It is estimated that more than a million Libyan and non-Libyan people work in the public services sector in the country but only 55% of them are Libyans. Half of the total workforce works in the education sector, with a total annual budget of LYD3.3 billion (approximately USD2.66 billion) and an annual salary of LYD6800 per person (approximately USD5500) (Taghavi, 2013). Contrary to the claims that education in Libya consumes a considerable portion of the country's GDP (National report of Libya, 2008), government spending on education and the salaries of teachers is modest. The quality of education output is highly affected by the poor level of state spending and leads to negative attitudes towards teaching and a lack of motivation by both teachers and students. This situation is worsened by the major financial and administrative corruption in the various levels of the education sector in Libya (El-Katiri, 2012; Taghavi, 2013).

6.4.3. Teacher-centred teaching

Although the Ministry of Education in Libya and Libyan ELLs say that the current orientation of English education in Libya is learner-centred and assume that communicative methods of teaching are used in classrooms, Libyan English classrooms actually operate according to more traditional teaching methods (Jha, 2014). Teachers, students and also parents have become accustomed to the GTM and a focus on teaching of grammar and reading as well as on translation into Arabic in classrooms. This "heritage" is an influential barrier that makes it challenging to adopt CLT in Libyan classrooms.

The PELTs' learning background is based on teacher-centred classroom instruction rather than learner-centred instruction. It is the teachers' sole responsibility to transfer knowledge from the textbooks to the students. The teacher is also responsible for determining the suitable teaching method and type of classroom activities. The students are only required

to be receptive and should not discuss anything with their teachers. The teachers evaluate and assess the students and determine their competence, mainly with regard to their grammar and reading knowledge.

This scenario has caused the PELTs to adopt similar perspectives on teaching and learning. They revealed in this study that they will not allow their future students to take any part in constructing their own learning and that the teachers (i.e. the current PELTs) will have full control of their classes. This philosophy has become a culture that continues to be passed on from one generation to the next. The PELTs believe that their future students will trust them as capable teachers and therefore accept the knowledge that they impart.

However, this attitude of the PELTs in the intervention group changed dramatically as the course progressed from teacher-centred classroom instruction to focusing on CLT and learner-centred classroom styles. For example, we started the intervention with lessons related to classroom management and presented some pedagogical topics such as how to motivate learners and prepare them for various types of communicative lessons in English, as well as determining their needs and providing them with feedback. Before we started discussing possible techniques to maintain successful classroom learning, I commenced by presenting the importance of these issues. I wanted to explain why it is important that we be aware of these issues before we decide to become English teachers.

However, the PELTs were not interested in discussing this topic and were keen to start speaking, listening and grammar activities. They considered that managing the learning environment is solely dependent on the teachers' own personality and knowledge about English. A capable teacher is someone who can provide answers for any questions the students may have, is firm, knows what suits the students without asking them, and knows how to deliver knowledge to students. This type of teacher can run the class efficiently and wins students' trust, respect and attention. The PELTs did not accept any of the topics that I was trying to discuss with them (e.g. negotiated syllabus and learner needs analysis). It was not until almost the end of the week that the PELTs started to understand the philosophy behind the "new pedagogy" that the course was exposing them to.

Knowing that they were highly interested in learning speaking, I divided the PELTs into a few groups and suggested that they brainstorm and ask their peers how to deal with some possible problems that might arise in a classroom where they are the teachers, or how

to motivate their PELTs who have no interest in the topic. I asked them to work in groups and respond to these situations in English, and to tell their peers possible ideas to overcome the problems that they encountered. I helped the PELTs brainstorm possible problems and provided feedback on their interactive activities and performance. I then asked if they had enjoyed the activities or found them beneficial; in their reflection-on-practice sessions they said that they did.

They reflected that they had learned about conducting speaking activities and also about classroom management techniques. I then explained what we had done from the beginning and how I had modified their classroom management lesson and delivered it to them through speaking activities which they needed to learn. The PELTs then started to understand the philosophy, but were reluctant to accept it due to concerns related to the possibility of failing their compulsory university courses if this style of “open-ended” classroom instruction were adopted.

6.4.4. The excessive use of the Grammar Translation Method in teaching and learning English

The PELTs are acquainted with both the theory and practice of the GTM. Although they demonstrated some theoretical knowledge (with major misconceptions) of the CLT method, they demonstrated no practical abilities to peer-teach spoken English through this method. The students’ main reason for preferring the GTM and other teacher-centred styles of teaching seemed to be that they found these traditional channels of knowledge transference more “secure”.

After they had experienced CLT and a learner-centred classroom in this course, the PELTs started to accept the philosophy, but with some reservations related to the existence of obstacles in the Libyan context which could prevent these new philosophies from being adopted. ELLs also said that they adopt the GTM and maintain teacher-centred styles of classroom instruction because this is the overall educational environment with which the PELTs are acquainted.

6.4.5. The lack of any opportunities for exposure to authentic English within the faculty

The PELTs are used to the procedure of learning English structures and then generating new English sentences and conversations by relying on their knowledge of Arabic-to-English

translation and their resource of English vocabulary to develop speaking skills. Communication is ELLs-to-PELTs oriented and not PELTs-to-PELTs, except in rare situations. The discourse is usually analysed around grammar and vocabulary without any focus on cultural or oral proficiency aspects such as stress and intonation. In other words, PELTs create their own English by relying on their knowledge of Arabic-to-English translation. This approach usually results in problems regarding structure, stress, intonation and word choice because English does not exist as a language of communication in Libya in general, and in Agdabia in particular. These structures created by learners are likely to be word-for-word translations from Arabic into English. The structures may make sense to Arabic speakers who know some English but not to native speakers of English. The focus on this kind of learning activities and rejection of other types of communicative learning activities are barriers to using the CLT method in Libya. The study of listening and speaking via writing is another barrier. The non-Arab ELL interviews revealed that all English education in the Department of English at the Agdabia faculty is delivered in Arabic, which is the main medium of communication in both classrooms and the Department of English official meetings.

Concerning reading and writing, the PELTs believed in the teachers' dominant role in delivering these two skills to the students. The main philosophy behind the teaching and learning process in the Department of English at the Agdabia faculty is based on the theory of knowledge transmission. It assumes that knowledge can be passed from one person to another without any focus on developing the creative language skills of the learners. After the PELTs were given the opportunity to experience learner-centred teaching and learning of reading and writing in this course, their attitudes changed remarkably and they became more involved in their learning, although with some reservations related to their concerns about the teachers' assessment and evaluation in regular university courses. They also found the group interactive learning to be a less threatening and more motivating way for them to learn compared to the usual individual learning method based on memorisation and retrieval of information.

The PELTs' demonstration of teaching listening skills revealed that the skill of listening is not included in their regular university education. They revealed that they study listening via writing and that the listening materials they have at the university are all in text

format. They said that they hardly ever listen to any recorded materials at the university. The main focus in their textbooks is on reading and grammar rather than on anything concerning listening. Throughout my discussions with the ELLs who taught listening, I could not identify any recorded material that they had delivered or were going to deliver to their PELTs. I further checked with both the bookshop managers on campus and the photocopying shops but found nothing.

6.4.6. Professional standards and management problems affecting the use of Communicative Language Teaching

Higher education in Libya generally suffers from a lack of organisation and strategic planning which results in a lack of clear long-term or mid-term educational objectives for learners (Tamtam, Gallagher, Olabi, & Naher, 2011). The Agdabia faculty is no exception. The disorganised management of the faculty directly affects the actual teaching of English in classrooms. The lack of clear allocation of responsibilities among stakeholders regarding who monitors the practice of ELLs in classrooms allows great freedom for some ELLs to maintain traditional styles of teaching instead of using CLT for spoken English and listening classes. They rely on lecturing rather than guiding the learners to interact through communicative activities. Their tests are mainly delivered in written format and very rarely are skills such as speaking and listening assessed; however, this varies with the ELLs and their background in teaching.

There are general guidelines and rules within the administration which the ELLs should consult and which tell them the sort of materials they should choose for their students and the methods they should use in classrooms. The guidelines also tell the ELLs the expected capabilities of the PELTs on graduation to become in-service teachers. However, the administration of this university has no authority to monitor the teaching and learning processes and the actual practice of the ELLs in classrooms.

At some stage in the past, the administration of the faculty had an agreement with the Department of School Education in Agdabia to send PELTs to various schools in Agdabia to undertake about 20 hours of supervised teaching before their graduation. At the time of conducting this research, this agreement did not exist and there was no cooperation between these government bodies to ensure the quality of higher education in the faculty.

The Ministry of Education has implemented several reforms to develop a better English education system in Libya. The ministry developed English materials for primary and high schools which focus on communication and require communicative teaching methods. However, the ministry did not develop equivalent training courses for the in-service teachers to develop modern communicative teaching skills so they can use these materials. This has created a gap between the teacher, the study materials and the PELTs and has led to teachers using these materials selectively. The teachers only choose the grammar and reading material for students to study and neglect other communicative skills such as speaking and listening. Some teachers trace this back to the lack of equipment and large class sizes but other teachers and stakeholders believe that teachers need to attend professional development courses to learn to use these learning materials. The school curriculum, therefore, is not understood by the university graduates in preparation for when they graduate and become in-service teachers. In short, there is a general lack of educational planning to provide schools with capable teachers who are trained to become English teachers (BTI Libya Country Report, 2012).

6.4.7. The use of resources

In both Agdabia schools and the university faculty, rooms and lecture theatres are not assigned according to the types of classes, the teaching methods used or the area of study. The rooms are randomly selected by the ELLs and PELTs. This lack of administrative organisation represents another challenge for using CLT in the Libyan ELT context.

There is a lack of language laboratories, high-speed internet and a limited supply of books and study materials which are necessary to provide learners with authentic learning opportunities through the CLT method. In addition, the classrooms are not suitable for communicative learning. Classrooms are not equipped with carpets nor are they acoustically treated; they are designed for one person to speak at a time. Therefore, the environment is inadequate for ELLs and PELTs to carry out any pair or group learning activities. The lack of air conditioning also makes the situation worse in most of these classrooms when the summer temperature exceeds 40 degrees and the temperature falls to zero in winter. The ELLs said that sometimes they could not deliver their lectures because of the heat or extreme cold and had to cancel their classes or finish them early.

6.5. Implications of the research findings

The implications of the research findings are discussed below.

6.5.1. Implementing Communicative Language Teaching in the Libyan cultural context

One way to implement CLT is to make it mandatory for ELLs to provide their learners with an “English immersion” environment to encourage their learners to practise English. If ELLs communicate in English on campus, hold departmental meetings in English and urge their learners to use English on campus, then that may motivate the students to practise English. This approach would not involve the total elimination of Arabic language and culture in the classrooms, but there needs to be a balance because the excessive use of the mother tongue in CLT English classes is problematic. Research (e.g. Alshammari, 2011; Machaal, 2012) shows that Arab learners of English in Saudi Arabia, for instance, prefer using Arabic in the English classroom and that they learn better when they have a teacher who knows Arabic. Both studies revealed that the use of Arabic in English classes in Saudi Arabia contributed significantly to improving the quality of learning through providing the learners with the necessary clarification and explanations in Arabic to understand English. They also argued that the use of the mother tongue is, in some situations, mandatory for the students to understand English. It should be noted here that people in Libya and Saudi Arabia have similar cultural backgrounds and the ELT systems in these two countries are also similar.

Use of the mother tongue in the language classroom is also important in non-Arabic ELT contexts. Studies (Cianflone, 2009; Cook, 2001) reveal that the use of the learners’ first language cannot be avoided. It can also be convenient to use the first language to coordinate the classroom and learning activities because it ensures that the learners understand what they are asked to do without wasting class time by providing instructions in English. Cook (2001) argues that banning the use of the mother tongue in the communicative classroom limits learning opportunities. She suggests that each particular activity or learning objective to be achieved in a communicative class should be considered on its own merits. For instance, the teacher should consider if using the mother tongue would be the best way to efficiently achieve the learning goals. The teacher should also determine if the students prefer using their mother tongue rather than English for a particular task, and whether using the mother tongue may help the students to understand the cultural contexts of “everyday” English better than they may understand them through English itself.

The importance of the role of the learners' culture in learning English is controversial. Hashemi (2011), Holliday (2013), and Smith (1985) all point out that the culture of the learners can significantly contribute to their learning of the second language. We cannot privilege either of these two important aspects at the expense of the other without losing an important part of learning the language. Preventing the learners from making use of their own culture and mixing it with the English culture in learning English limits their motivation and interest in learning the language. Humans carry certain aspects of their own cultures and inject them into other languages and cultural contexts. History also tells us that languages are dynamic and borrow linguistic and cultural items from each other. Over time, these borrowed items usually become authentic components of the languages and cultures that borrow them (Holliday, 2013). Holliday recommends that teachers of English should teach their students how to meaningfully transfer their own culture to the English language. Teachers of English in India, for instance, tell their students that the only correct way to learn English is through either Northern American or British English. If this were true, says Holliday (2013), how would people from different cultural backgrounds, who speak different languages, understand each other's literature without the need to travel to the country where a particular piece of literature was created or to learn the language spoken in that country?

Phillipson (2009) also contradicts this argument and thinks that spreading the English language and culture across the Non-English speaking countries including the European nations is among the agenda of the powerful countries in the world. He argues that there is a common belief that the English culture is flexible and can be adapted anywhere in the world without encountering any major difficulties. However, this adaptation according to Philipson (2009) is probably easier said than done. English is becoming the language of scientific research, commerce and diplomacy in the European Union and this endangers the other European languages. If English is adopted in these European countries, only people who speak English as a first or second language will get used to the new situation but others who do not know the language will be affected and might encounter major difficulties in embracing this change. Philipson (2009) further points out that Politicians and academics both cooperate to globalise English but he says that this should be made within a more ethical frame and that the cultural values and first language of the other people should be taken into consideration. In other words, these efforts should aim to help people in non-English

speaking countries to be bilinguals rather than to replace their first language and culture with the English language and culture. This requires the true will of politicians and the rethinking of professionals to make it happen Philipson (2009).

In the Libyan English education context, and in the Agdabia faculty in particular, this study found that the Arabic language and culture in classrooms is overused. Some ELLs who do not speak English well revealed that they rely on a few PELTs in the classroom who are fairly competent in English to translate for their peers, while Arab ELLs deliver listening and spoken English classes mainly through Arabic. Therefore, it is recommended that the medium of communication and learning in the Department of English in this faculty shifts to English, with the use of Arabic only when PELTs cannot understand a particular component of the class in English.

This approach aligns with Krashen's (1981) belief that learners should learn English in the same way they learned their mother tongue, only being instructed in their first language when necessary. Second language learning takes place when the learners are provided with an anxiety-free learning environment and receive a great deal of "comprehensible input" such as pictures, props and mime to scaffold the target language. They do not need to be given instructions about the grammatical rules that govern that language. The learners develop a sense of grammatical correctness as they gain adequate exposure to the language. Learners can sometimes be instructed on correct grammar use but the process becomes, in this case, learning *about* language rather than being a language learning process. The comprehensible input theory suggests that learning should happen as a result of direct exposure to the language and not via enforcing learning and correcting grammatical mistakes. Learning a second language takes time and successful learning happens gradually. Learners must have an interest in learning the language and be able to understand the input directed at them. If the learner is at Stage i in learning the language, then the input must be that of Stage $i+1$ so that the learner can develop from Stage i to Stage $i+1$. The learner develops from one stage to the next by relying on their knowledge of the outside world to support understanding of the language input (Krashen, 1981).

In this study the PELTs' excessive use of Arabic language and culture in classrooms resulted in developing a learning approach based on the memorisation of English structures and then using these structures for various communicative purposes by manipulating a

vocabulary memorised with their Arabic equivalents. The PELTs also used this English vocabulary through Arabic structures. This further assumes no knowledge or consideration of the English culture when using English. The material becomes only a literal translation from Arabic into English, which would not, in most cases, make any sense to an English-speaking audience.

Therefore, it is suggested that the Libyan ELLs focus on maintaining a learning environment that privileges English culture as a crucial part of learning the English language. It is also suggested that they explain the importance of cultural learning to the PELTs and allow them to practise how to sustain culture while learning English. This approach will enable them to help their future school students to avoid learning English linguistic elements without consideration of the English culture.

The learners should also have time to practise peer teaching through the CLT method. They should experience the method practically rather than being provided with mere theoretical knowledge about the method. Contrary to the view of the ELLs from the faculty that the PELTs only need to learn grammar and that they have no motivation to speak in English, the survey results conducted before and after the intervention showed that the PELTs' attitude changed remarkably from negative to positive towards speaking in English after they experienced the CLT approach in practice in this course.

Some good examples for introducing Libyan learners of English to the English culture might be also found in the ELT systems of Oman and Kuwait. In Oman, English-language students are encouraged to use English software on their computers and phones, for example. They are also encouraged to fill in forms in English and to send and receive texts and emails in English. The teachers and educational inspectors constantly monitor and evaluate the communicative English curricula brought into service by the Omani Government (Al-Jardani, 2014). In-service teachers are provided with professional development courses which improve the teachers' abilities and skills in maintaining focus on the English language and culture in classrooms. Al-Jardani (2014) reports that English is considered a second language in Oman and is widely utilised both in public and private sectors across the country.

In Kuwait, the government invited several state and private universities from English-speaking countries, especially the USA, to open universities throughout Kuwait. Kuwaiti school students who do not have sufficient English capability are not usually granted

admission into major universities unless they meet specific English requirements beforehand — they are offered free, non-credit English courses before they start their university studies (Tryzna & Shuroufi, 2014). These authors state that the Kuwaiti English education system improved dramatically because of these procedures and that although most Kuwaiti people speak Arabic in their daily communication they now also use English for pleasure. Notably, Kuwaiti and Libyan peoples have similar cultures and both have no history of foreign language use in their countries.

The Libyan ELT education system is likely to dramatically improve if similar steps are taken to encourage learners of English to use digital devices and software in English. The ELLs and teachers could play a significant role in initiating this change. The Ministry of Education could enter into agreements with governments of English-speaking countries such as the USA, the UK and Australia to open universities and language centres in Libya. These steps would help create an English culture in Libya to assist students to develop a better understanding of English and English culture.

6.5.2. The excessive use of the Grammar Translation Method in teaching and learning of English

The heavy use of the GTM by school teachers and ELLs at the faculty created a culture of sustaining this method as the only method of teaching in the society. Competency in English is based on the knowledge of grammar and translation by PELTs, teachers and parents. PELTs are assessed and evaluated on their memorisation of grammar and reading skills. This system of assessment and evaluation should change to contain more communicative assessment procedures. For instance, ELLs should allow more time for communicative learning in their classes and allocate time and resources to continuous assessment of PELTs' skills in presentations, writing papers and understanding spoken English. These procedures will provide the PELTs with the necessary motivation to equally develop the four skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking when learning English.

The current teaching orientation at the faculty is influenced by the ELLs' background and beliefs about teaching. This study found the educational process in Agdabia faculty is exclusively based on direct teaching and learners have no role to play in their own learning. They are only receptive. ELLs mostly adopt the knowledge transmission model rather than

the cooperative learning model, and learners learn individually and do not interact with other learners in the classroom.

Learners' beliefs about learning might be negatively affected by teaching-centred styles of classroom instruction. In a study conducted by Kember and Gow (1994) at Ohio State University which investigated the impact of adopting this type of teaching orientation in classrooms, learners who were exposed to instructional strategies based on knowledge transmission developed traditional perspectives and behaviours around their learning approaches. These perspectives and behaviours are traditional in the sense that the learners tend to rely on their teachers to provide them with knowledge, which they receive and accept. This attitude towards learning is caused by the methods of teaching, design of curricula, type of classroom activities and approaches to assessment and evaluation adopted at the educational institution.

Conversely, the study showed that learners who were exposed to teaching philosophies based on providing learners with interactive and creative learning environments developed creative learning behaviour and habits which led to successful achievement of learning objectives. These learners did not take tests or examinations but were assessed on the basis of their contributions to projects conducted in their course. Kember and Gow (1994) reported that the learning skills of these learners were constantly increasing, whereas the learning skills of their counterparts who were exposed to the knowledge transmission model were constantly decreasing.

In the latter model, learning becomes a process of knowledge development and is shared between learners and teachers who work together to interactively construct knowledge (Badillo & Bourgeois, 2003). However, in cooperative learning, the relationship between teachers and learners as humans interacting together to achieve the learning objectives should be sustained in order for the learning to take place. Badillo and Bourgeois (2003) point out that it is a process of knowledge development that helps the students acquire skills and develop knowledge through cooperation in the classroom. This cooperation is vital and is the main channel for acquiring knowledge. Each learner in the group has a responsibility to contribute to the learning of the group and the teacher's role is only to guide the learners and manage the learning process.

This humanistic interaction and interactive learning style was found to be essential for the PELTs from the Agdabia faculty as well. They reflected that they became more motivated to learn English after they experienced it. Moreover, their attitude towards learning English also dramatically changed from negative before taking the course to positive afterwards (see Section 4.4).

6.5.3. Lack of any opportunities for exposure to authentic English in the faculty

The ELLs' excessive reliance on the GTM, the communication in other languages (mainly Arabic and Hindu) in the Department of English, and the lack of interactive communication in English between PELTs in classrooms created an absence of English language and culture in the university environment. ELLs should be provided with professional development courses and workshops to stay up-to-date on creating a suitable environment for learners of English to learn the English language and culture.

The importance of using the English language in any particular society to develop its English education system can be seen in the two example countries which were presented earlier in this study: South Korea and Finland. Both countries have no history of English use, either officially or by the public. The people and governments in both countries were concerned about the risk that English use might impose on sustaining their mother languages and cultures. Both countries have witnessed technological booms and rapid development in their industrial and economic systems (Ammon, 2001; Chung & Choi, 2014; Hyrksedt & Kalaja, 1998). Although the Korean Government and people developed efficient technology for learning and spent greater amounts of time and money in their endeavours to develop a better English education system, they were surpassed by Finland, which managed to develop one of the most successful English education systems in the world. Finland's English education system was greatly improved by intermigrations between Finnish people and people from English-speaking countries (Taavitsinen & Patha, 2003). The geographical location of Finland, the ease of adopting the English culture in this European country, and the openness of the Finnish youth and government to using English in the public domain have all contributed to developing the current English education system of Finland (Hyrksedt & Kalaja, 1998). South Korea's English education, however, remained underdeveloped for over four decades because of its reliance on principally teaching grammar and reading (Cho, 2004). The use of the English language and knowledge of English culture did not exist in the

country during these decades. Only when the government adopted a more communicative orientation in English education and offered teachers and other workers from English-speaking countries attractive work and residency opportunities did the country's English education system develop.

Providing Libyan learners of English with a suitable learning environment that comprises the use of English language and understanding English culture is the responsibility of all those concerned with the English education system in Libya. This responsibility starts with the Ministry of Education, which should adopt plans to encourage teachers of English from native-speaking countries to work in Libya and also provide means to introduce the English culture into the Libyan society. These strategies could include (a) adopting PELT and ELL exchange programs with universities from English-speaking countries, and (b) cooperating with other ministries in Libya (e.g. the Ministry of Tourism) to attract more native English-speaking people to visit and work in Libya. The ELLs could also play a leading role in this process by motivating learners of English to use English and understand the English culture.

6.5.4. Professional standards and management problems

As previously described, the choice of study materials at the faculty is not governed by transparent policies and procedures and is solely dependent on the personal preferences of the ELLs. There is no correspondence between the Department of Primary and High Schools in Agdabia Council and the university faculty in Agdabia, which are both governed by the Ministry of Education. High school students of English are required to study the communicative materials developed by the Ministry of Education; however, these materials are filtered by the teachers according to their own beliefs about and background in teaching English (Orafi & Borg, 2009). Only the reading and grammar components of these materials are delivered to the students. The students are also tested in their final examinations during the last year of high school solely on their knowledge of grammar and reading. No listening or speaking skills are incorporated into these examinations, which are run by the Ministry of Education. When these students join the Department of English at the university, they study materials that are randomly selected by their ELLs and delivered to them mainly through the GTM and teacher-centred lessons. Assessment and evaluation are also based on grammar and reading. The students thus graduate only being acquainted with the GTM and teacher-

centred instruction. Therefore, they start teaching at primary and high schools through the same style of teaching, which causes them to filter the “communicative” school English materials. That is, the output is university graduate teachers of English who are only acquainted with the GTM and teacher-centred instruction, and so the cycle continues.

These complications arising from lack of alignment (discussed in the previous section) within the educational institution itself seem to exist in some Western educational contexts as well. Phillips (2005) and James (2010), for example, maintain that the educational systems in some Australian universities need to be reorganised and reformed, especially with regard to their administrative operation, education functionality and adopted paradigms of learning. The problem arose as the government increased the pressure on these universities by increasing the number of students, yet failed to provide funds to accommodate the large number of students starting their university education each year (James, 2010; Phillips, 2005). The students also have to find jobs while they are attending the university and maintain their family and social commitments. For these reasons, the students demanded more flexibility in their study and attendance, which escalated the problem.

To effectively reform this situation at these Australian universities, Phillips (2005) suggests creating a more aligned instructional and administrative system. He argues that if the teachers do not operate according to an aligned approach that is based on providing suitable environments for students to learn and if they do not adopt learner-centred assessment but rather use more teacher-centred styles of instruction, then learning objectives will not be achieved. The educational process will be based, in this sense, on lecturing and university-wide assessment policies that are not compatible with the learner-centred assessment that is most appropriate to assess achievement of expected outcomes. Administrative cooperation is also crucial for any reform to take place. For instance, a dedicated team of teachers will be unable to implement any agreed plans unless the head of department supports them.

In Kuwait, where the English education system seems to be similar to that of Libya, there is also a similar problem of miscommunication between the government education bodies (Tryzna & Shuroufi, 2014). These authors point out that there are well-established educational plans and objectives set in place by the Kuwaiti Government for English teacher university graduates; however, these efforts are hindered by the teachers’ limited English

proficiency and their beliefs about teaching. As in Libya, teachers mainly rely on the teaching of grammar and vocabulary and the memorisation of rules.

In South Korea, Chung and Choi (2014) report that English teaching is based on the teaching of the receptive skills of listening and reading, despite the government's clear plans and objectives to maintain communicative English education in the country. He argues that Korean teachers of English encounter difficulties in teaching English as intended by the government. They therefore tend to filter the teaching materials and to rely on receptive skills, disregarding the teaching of productive skills in English classrooms.

In both Kuwait and South Korea, Tryzna and Shuroufi (2014) and Chung and Choi (2014) suggest that the governments adopt more aligned English educational systems and enforce the application of all governmental policies as intended. They suggest this should be accompanied by more advanced professional development courses for in-service teachers. In Kuwait, Tryzna and Shuroufi (2014) recommend establishing a national accreditation course and examination that is accepted by the government to recognise and license teachers of English. In South Korea, Chung and Choi (2014) suggested improving the national college entrance examination, which is called *Suneung* or the *Korean Scholastic Ability Test* (KSAT). He argues that this national test only comprises testing receptive English skills and that other productive skills such as speaking and writing should be included in the test. In response to this problem with the KSAT, the Korean Government developed and piloted another test, the National English Ability Test. However, the government reconsidered adopting this test due to technical difficulties with testing the productive skills of large numbers of applicants; human examiners are required for this testing, in contrast to the testing of receptive skills, which can be easily assessed with computers. Another factor was the high cost for individuals to take this test.

By reviewing the English education systems of these two countries, it is apparent that their English education systems are more organised and developed than is Libya's system, despite all the drawbacks that the authors highlighted in the systems of both countries. In Libya, there are no transparent national English education accreditation programs or tests that could monitor the quality of the English programs and the teachers. The university and teacher training colleges have no such programs either, nor do they have well-aligned strategies for instruction and assessment (Ibrahim & Carey, 2014).

Therefore, it is suggested in this thesis that there should be an alignment between what the PELTs study, how they study, and what they are eventually expected to do (i.e. to interpret the communicative curriculum and teach via CLT). For this purpose, the ELLs should use the primary and high school study materials as training materials at the university so that the PELTs can deliver them through the CLT approach to their future students when they (the PELTs) graduate. These materials can be used for peer teaching in the university classrooms under the supervision of the ELLs. They should be taken as a whole unit and not filtered. Speaking and listening skills should be treated equally alongside reading and writing skills. I am not suggesting here that the ELLs use primary and high school study materials at the university level when PELTs should be studying more challenging and more advanced materials. I only suggest that primary and high school English materials might be used as supplementary resources in the faculty for peer-teaching activities and training purposes.

To align teaching, learning and assessment, a modified version of Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) (Spady; 1994; Berlach & McNaught, 2007) could be adopted at Agdabia faculty. OBE would require the ELLs to design their own curricula for PELTs based on identified learning outcomes. However, to create an aligned whole-of-school and university education system that could be utilised nationally, it is recommended here that the Department of Educational Planning at the Ministry of Education develops the university English materials on the basis of the outcomes that are expected by expert linguists, applied linguists and educationalists (Wedell, 2003). These experts can also determine the teaching methods and methodology that should be adopted by the ELLs. It would also be prudent for the ministry to assign new departments, committees or individuals at these universities the task of ensuring the new departmental programs are delivered appropriately.

There should also be adequate correspondence between the university faculty and the Department of School Education at the Agdabia Council. This correspondence should focus on what students and PELTs at both levels study, how they study, and the nature of the future challenges to be dealt with beforehand. An example of these challenges is the relationship between the specialisation and background of the ELLs and the school teachers and the type of subjects that they are assigned to teach. Currently, holders of linguistics masters degrees teach literature, for instance, and holders of other degrees in literature teach phonetics and spoken English. In school education, the teachers should be provided with ongoing

professional development courses and attend workshops on teaching and learning English so that they can prepare their students for university-level English education. Only when this lack of organisation in the administration of these two government bodies is rectified will the quality of English education be improved.

6.5.5. Use of resources

In order for the abovementioned suggested solutions to be implemented, equipment such as computers and data projectors, high-speed internet, libraries and audiovisual learning materials must be supplied to both schools and the faculty. Spending on education in Libya, including supply of materials and equipment, is very limited, leading to a significant decrease in teachers' motivation, which affects the quality of the educational outputs (Emhamed & Krishnan, 2011). This view was supported by the inspectors at the Department of School Education in Agdabia, who revealed through stakeholder interviews that the teachers can only work as well as the existing equipment will allow.

In some countries such as South Korea where foreign-language use is not common, the Ministry of Education equipped the English education institutions with audiovisual learning materials and high-speed internet. The government also invested large amounts of money in this sector to implement the educational plans as intended (Chung & Choi, 2014; Jeong, 2004). Finland, which probably has the best English education system of the non-English-speaking European nations, also started developing their current English education system with a technology boom and the assistance of media and communication devices (Taavitsinen & Patha, 2003).

Neither of these two countries has any history of English use as a medium of communication. Finland used mainly the Finnish and Swedish languages; the existence of English was resisted, especially by the older generations who feared the loss of their national languages and culture. However, the government developed a strong English education system through well-designed policies and procedures and by providing state-of-the-art equipment and learning facilities. A similar scenario took place in South Korea, especially after the Japanese occupation of the country when the Japanese language replaced the Korean language and English language use was banned because it was deemed "the language of the enemies" at that time (Kim-Rivera, 2002). However, after the Japanese occupation ended, the Korean Government realised the importance of English in developing the country's

economy. Therefore, plans were put in place to improve English education in the country, mainly through the use of technology and learning equipment (Chung & Choi, 2014).

The current status of English education in Libya seems similar to that of South Korea and Finland a few decades ago. Libya has no history of English use in public, and both the people and the government have concerns about influencing the identity and first language of the country. Even after several attempts to reform English study materials and manipulate teaching methods and methodology, South Korea and Finland were unable to develop better English education systems and improve the English capabilities of their people until they started using the technology and the necessary equipment to make learning happen.

The physical learning environment is another important factor which impacts on learning outcomes. In their project which aimed to prepare Papuan English teachers for the IELTS Test, Carey and Robertson (2014) reported that they encountered difficulties in delivering this preparation program due to the unsuitable classroom environment in Papuan schools. They maintained that the poor acoustics of the classrooms caused by hard reflective surfaces such as the flooring and large windows, in addition to the noise from the adjoining road, made conducting cooperative learning activities difficult. They point out that this classroom environment is only suitable for teacher-centred instruction in which only one person speaks at a time, usually the teacher. In the Agdabia faculty and Libyan high schools, the buildings are not acoustically treated and are located on main streets, which makes communication between people in classrooms difficult. The English classes at the faculty are overcrowded and the seats are typically arranged in rows so the ELLs cannot move around the class or reach the back without moving a full row of seats. This seating arrangement can only suggest that the ELLs adopt lecturing rather than conducting any kind of interactive learning. Therefore, it is recommended that the current average class size, which can be more than 70–80 PELTs, is reduced to less than 30 students. The classrooms should be acoustically treated by installing soft floor coverings and the seats should be rearranged in a U shape so that interactive learning and communication between people in the classroom can take place.

Textbooks for teaching English communicatively have been created for use in schools, but the use of these materials is not monitored. The Libyan Ministry of Education should monitor the use of these materials to ensure they are being used as intended, with communicative competence as the main outcome. The Omani quality assurance plan (Al-

Jardani, 2014) might be a good example to consider here. With this plan the teachers and education inspectors could independently monitor the application of teaching materials and prepare weekly reports to the Department of Education in Agdabia Council, for example. These reports and feedback can be sent anonymously to either an office or a person at each school whose role is to ensure that the instructional strategies are implemented as desired by the ministry.

The current educational inspectors in Agdabia Council are “officially” required to monitor how English education is maintained by teachers in schools. However, inspectors revealed in this study that teachers of English are considered to be performing satisfactorily as long as they cover all the content (excluding that of listening and speaking) in the allotted time. Inspectors believe that teachers are not trained to teach listening and speaking and that the necessary equipment through which these skills can be obtained are not available. Therefore, the teachers are permitted to focus only on grammar and reading. The Department of English at the Agdabia Council and the Ministry of Education assume that the educational plan is implemented as intended providing the inspectors report that the English education system is run satisfactorily.

All of these issues hindering the application of CLT and the development of better English education in Agdabia faculty and in schools appear interrelated. For instance, developing a culture of disrespect for school teaching as a profession is probably due to the low income of school teachers in Agdabia, as well as the modest teaching skills of most teachers. These poor teaching skills can be traced back to their poor-quality university education and lack of any professional development courses after graduation. Lack of equipment and resources, large class sizes, and automatic admission of all applicants to the Department of English at the faculty significantly add to the problem. The result of these combined issues is a poor-quality teaching output. English high school graduates then join the university and receive fragmented English education that is based on grammar and reading. Their subsequent graduation as school teachers with poor teaching capacities further increases the culture of disrespect for teachers and teaching by society, and the cycle starts again. Therefore, attending to only one or several of these issues will not solve the problem. Only when all these interrelated matters are addressed together and dealt with holistically in

both the faculty and the schools can the Libyan teachers of English become better teachers of English.

6.6. Recommendations

The following is a list of action items that are suggested to reform the learning and teaching of English in Libya, based on the case study of Agdabia:

- The Libyan Ministry of Education is advised to adopt a paradigm of English education in universities and teacher training colleges that is based on communicative learning rather than only on teaching of grammar and reading. For instance, as the current school curriculum mainly requires the use of the CLT method, OBE may be adopted in universities and teacher training colleges to prepare PELTs to use communicative methods and authentic English materials. As the first priority, the learning process in these institutions should be based on the learners, their needs, and what they will be required to do in the future and not on the interests of teachers and ELLs.
- The Ministry is advised to develop curricula for the university level that aim to enable PELTs to assist their school students to gain the most benefit from the current communicative school curricula.
- The Ministry is advised to also propose suitable teaching methods and methodologies to be adopted at the universities. The ELLs should use these methods to deliver the proposed curricula. These methodologies, as presented in this study, should be based on communicative learning. Therefore, most learning tasks and activities should be designed accordingly. They should incorporate adequate teaching practice with the CLT approach for PELTs, not only provide them with theoretical knowledge about teaching.
- The Ministry is encouraged to supply the necessary equipment, learning resources and technology to enable ELLs and their PELTs to work together to achieve the desired learning outcomes. The buildings and classroom environment in which education takes place should be made suitable for this purpose.
- The Ministry is also encouraged put administrative policies and procedures in place to monitor the provision of education to ensure learning outcomes are delivered and

quality teachers of English who are both theoretically and practically capable are produced.

- Applicants for the departments of English who wish to become teachers of English should be interviewed to determine their motivation, their reasons for their intention to become teachers, and their existing proficiency in English. Admission to these departments should be based on merit, not on merely the lodging of an application.
- ELLs should be assigned to teach subjects that they are qualified to teach and in which they have some experience.
- To help create a culture of learning for the sake of learning in the PELTs, assessment of PELTs should not be solely conducted through paper-based examinations on grammar and reading. Assessment should include more personal aspects such as participating in classroom speaking and listening activities, projects and teamwork assignments, as well as presentations and demonstration of teaching skills.
- To help the PELTs develop an understanding of English-speaking cultures, English language should be experienced through authentic English contexts and study materials, not through literal translations from Arabic into English.
- The Ministry of Education should employ the media to develop a public awareness campaign that recognises the important role that teachers play in Libyan society and in educating the public.
- The Ministry should increase the salary and improve the financial situation of school teachers to promote dedication and commitment to their work. This should also assist teachers to improve their teaching skills and to develop an interest in attending professional development courses and maintaining quality teaching.
- The Ministry should provide school teachers with professional development courses and conduct conferences to keep the teachers updated with the overall orientation of the Ministry and to keep all the elements of the educational process aligned.
- The Ministry should provide high schools with the necessary equipment and a learning environment that enables students of English to benefit from the current English curricula. This includes language laboratories, access to high-speed internet, libraries and well-insulated, acoustically treated classrooms.

- University and teacher training colleges should have direct contact with the Department of School Education to facilitate supervised teaching practice sessions in schools by the PELTs before their graduation.

If all these recommendations are implemented by all those concerned with the English education system in Libya — starting with the Ministry of Education — the system may be improved. As stated above, these recommendations should be taken together, not partially implemented. Addressing only some of these recommendations is likely to result in an education system that continues to be fragmented; therefore, the current problems will remain unsolved.

6.7. Significance of the findings

Libyan learners of the English language cannot use English for any communicative purposes and the quality of the teaching and learning of English in Libya is poor considering the amount of effort, time and money spent by both the government and individuals to improve it (Omar, 2012; Rajendran, 2010). The available research about English education in Libya mainly investigates the existence of some problems (e.g. Omar, 2012; Orafi & Borg, 2009; Rajendran, 2010) related to the poor status of English education at various education levels in the country. The findings and outcomes of this study are hoped to contribute to the available knowledge about English education in Agdabia and, more importantly, to suggest some possible solutions to improve English education in Libya.

Six months were spent conducting field work to find answers to the main question of the research: How can the future teachers of English become better teachers of English? The findings presented earlier in this chapter identified many themes that directly affect the quality of English education in Agdabia faculty. It is hoped that this comprehensive investigation of the cultural, pedagogical, administrative and economic factors that are directly related to the problem of teaching and learning English is taken into account by the Libyan authorities to revise the English education system in Libya.

The introduction of the textbook series *English for Libya* in 2000 was described as a total departure from grammar-based English instruction towards a more effective communicative model that was intended to help learners develop better communicative skills. However, the adoption of this series did not result in quality communicative teaching in

Libya because the government did not accompany it with professional development programs for teachers (Orafi & Borg, 2009). The teachers could not implement the program as intended by the designers and filtered it by delivering it through their own background and beliefs. Other important factors to motivate them for better performance and dedication to education were also not taken into consideration, such as increasing the average income of teachers and tertiary educators and promoting the significance of their work in the society and the respect they deserve. In other words, tackling only one aspect of the problem and neglecting the others will not solve the global issue.

If similar studies are conducted in other regions in Libya, the results can be compared to the results of this research to develop more verified, generalised and therefore thicker and richer results that can be used by the Libyan Government to further develop English education holistically in any future reform endeavours. These results can also be further developed to establish a Libyan model that may be adopted or adapted by other Arab countries which also aim to develop better English education systems. In addition to the cultural, economic and educational similarities, the same first language spoken across all the Arab nations may make it easier and less time consuming for this model to be adopted or at least adapted by their governments.

This study has shed light on further issues that could not be properly examined within the scope of this thesis; hence these issues present opportunities for further research. Some of the obstacles that I encountered are reported in the following section so that future researchers can bear them in mind while designing their own studies. These obstacles include videorecording and male–female direct interaction, which were intended components of the research design of this study. However, these components could not be used during the data collection stage due to the extreme cultural sensitivity of these matters in Libya in general and in Agdabia in particular.

6.8. Opportunities for further research

This study has probably raised more questions than it has answered. For example, if this study is to be duplicated in another university in Libya, it is not clear whether the results would be similar to the results of this study, or would be slightly or completely different. This would especially be the case if a study were conducted in a culturally different place in

Libya, such as Tripoli. The following questions and issues represent opportunities for further research on this aspect of education in Libya.

Duplicate studies should be conducted in Libyan universities that differ from the Agdabia faculty in size, available equipment, acoustic treatment of classrooms and teaching quality. The University of Tripoli is a good example of where a future study might take place. This university is purpose built and has been resourced by international companies. There are also more strict procedures on hiring teaching staff in its various departments. People in Tripoli also have a significantly different cultural and economic status from that of the people in Agdabia and personal relationships play a less important role in administrative and academic matters.

The male PELTs' attitude towards learning and using English might be determined in the Agdabia faculty by conducting a major (and possibly male only) survey. The participation of female PELTs in this study was one of the main reasons that male PELTs did not volunteer — they wanted to avoid any possible cultural embarrassment.

A study into the development of transparent and aligned curricula could be designed for the university level in the Agdabia faculty. These curricula should consider the PELTs' existing knowledge and proficiency in English as well as the scope of their expected capabilities upon graduation. This would be an opportunity to investigate this issue in greater depth than the scope of this study permitted.

6.9. Limitations

The main difficulties encountered in conducting this research were probably related to the cultural sensitivity of issues like male-female direct interaction in Agdabia. The researcher at the time of designing this research intended to video record the intervention and also to audio record all interviews. However, the participant female students did not agree to give consent to be recorded in any form. The researcher could not conduct one-on-one interviews with the female students either and had to find a female interviewer to interview the female students in a focus group. The researcher also hoped to involve male students to participate in the study but both the male and female students do not seem to prefer attending mixed classes. This is especially the case in English classes where students are expected to interact and conduct activity-based learning activities.

Some stakeholders at the Agdabia faculty were reluctant to discuss issues related to the existing problems in the administration and how the faculty operates. In spite of the researcher's explanations that all information given and the identities of the participants are to be kept strictly confidential, many of them refused to participate. This could be due to a fear of talking about superiors in the administration area.

6.10. Conclusion

This single case study was conducted to investigate the current English education practices and knowledge of English teaching at the Department of English within the Agdabia Faculty of Arts and Sciences at the University of Benghazi in Libya. The study was driven by the principle question *How can the future teachers of English be better teachers of English?*

The study adopted a pragmatic research paradigm to collect thick and rich data about the topic. Various research methods were used to achieve this purpose. These methods comprised observation, questionnaires, focus groups and one-on-one interviews, artefact analysis, the TKT, and conducting an intensive 7-week course in the Agdabia faculty. During the course other methods of data collection and interpretation were used: PELTs' reflection on practice; third-party monitoring and feedback; and action research. The action research was primarily designed to assess the PELTs' learning approaches at the time of conducting the study and how to improve them. For this reason, I adopted an adopt-adapt-reject policy in the intervention to introduce the PELTs to new teaching methods, methodologies and pedagogical approaches and to determine how they responded to this new style of education. This course was also designed to challenge the current trends in teaching and learning of English in this faculty, which are mainly based on the teaching of grammar and reading and the heavy use of translation from Arabic into English and vice versa.

The PELTs who expressed an interest in volunteering for the study were given a screening questionnaire to find, for the purposes of the study, participants who met the criteria of typical Libyan learners of English and typical PELTs. The PELTs who were invited to participate in the study were divided into two groups: an intervention group and a comparison group. Both groups took the TKT before the course began. Only the intervention group then started the teaching methods course while both groups were attending their regular university classes. After the course ended, both groups took the survey and the TKT again to compare the results of both groups before and after the course. The intervention

group of PELTs developed a significantly improved knowledge of modern Western ELT methods and a more positive attitude towards learning and teaching English for communicative purposes.

Interviews that sought to investigate the impact of the PELTs' cultural background on the learning of English and their understanding of English culture revealed that they studied English through Arabic structures by relying mainly on translation. This practice was perpetuated by cultural respect for elders, tradition and conserving the practices of the past. Interviews with PELTs and other stakeholders revealed that the learning environment in the faculty and schools is not suitable for learning English communicatively. There is a severe lack of learning resources and equipment. The entire English education system in both the Department of English in the faculty and the high schools is fragmented. There is no clear plan or an overall strategy that suggests any sort of alignment between the faculty Department of English, schools and government departments.

Several unanswered questions arose while conducting this research. For example, male PELTs at the Agdabia faculty did not choose to volunteer in the study and therefore could not be surveyed to determine their attitudes towards teaching and learning English from the male perspective. It is not clear if attending university in mixed classes increases their learning skills and motivation for learning or if it has the opposite effect. Other than the reasons determined in this study for the PELTs' current attitude towards English, the research could not confirm whether any other factors inform their attitude. Moreover, if this study is duplicated in a culturally different area in Libya, it is not clear how the results would compare with the results of this study.

Overall, on basis of the findings, this study recommends that, in order to develop a better English education system that produces better teachers of English, the Ministry of Education should adopt a more communicative orientation and develop English curricula for the university level that are based on the current high school English curricula. All necessary learning resources and equipment should be provided to ensure all outcomes can be achieved. School teachers should be provided with ongoing professional development courses and be given higher salaries and, more importantly, more respect and appreciation. Thus, improving English education and preparing quality teachers of English starts in high school, not at university level. Administration in both the faculty and high schools should operate more

systematically and be unified to create a more aligned plan that leads to creation of quality graduate teachers. Such a plan requires the serious involvement of those concerned with Libyan education in general and Libyan English education in particular.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Screening questionnaire samples for participant students

1. For how many years did you study English?

- Please circle

a. 3-6 years b. 7-10 years c. 3. 10 or more

2. Where did you study it?

- a. In Libya b. In another non-English speaking country c. In an English speaking country, Please specify (.....)

If the answer is b or c, please go to question number 4.

3. In what region of Libya did you study it?

- a. The eastern region of Libya b. The western region c. The southern region.

4. How often do you practice English per week?

- a. Approximately 20 hours a week b. 21-30 hours a week c. 31 hours or more a week.

5. Do you practice English outside of your school?

- a. Yes b. No

- If No, please go to question number 7.

6. With whom do you practice it?

- a. Family member b- friend c- other, please specify

7. In your opinion, what is the most effective way to teach English?

- a. Focusing on teaching grammar and vocabulary b. Focusing on communicative skills c. Other, please specify

8. Do you think that grammar should be taught explicitly or implicitly?

- a. Explicitly b. Implicitly c. Not sure.

9. Have you ever heard about the Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT) before?

- a. Yes b. No

- If the answer is NO, please go to question number 12

10. Have you taken the TKT before?

- a. Yes b. No

- If the answer is NO, please go to question number 12

11. What score have you got on the TKT test?

- a. Please specify b. Prefer not to say

12. In what city did you go to high school?

Please specify

13. What was your major of study in your high school?

- a. Please specify b. Prefer not to say

14. How satisfied, do you think you are, with your English education at the university so far?

- Please circle

- a. Very satisfied b. Satisfied c. Neutral d. Not satisfied e. Very unsatisfied

15. How interested do you think you are in learning English?

- a. Very interested b. Interested c. Neutral d. Not interested e. Very not interested

16. Why do you want to learn English?

- a. It is interesting b. It is useful c. it is both useful and interesting

17. Do you think that the current ELT pattern will eventually enable you to teach English at high or secondary school effectively?

- a. Yes, I think so b. No, I don't think so c. Not sure

18. How comfortable do you think you will feel if you are invited to speak English?

Very comfortable b. comfortable c. neutral d. uncomfortable e. very uncomfortable.

Appendix B: Participant consent form samples

Project Title: Teaching and Learning of English in Libyan Universities.

(University of the Sunshine Coast Human Research Ethics Approval Number (S12422)).

Freedom of Consent

I have read and understand the contents of the *Research Project Information Sheet* for the study “*Teaching and Learning of English in Libyan Universities*”. I agree to act as a participant in this research project and give my consent freely.

I understand the contents of the *Participant Information Sheet* for the research project and this Consent to Participate in Research Project form. I agree to participate in the research project “Teaching and Learning of English in Libyan Universities” and give my consent freely. I understand that the activity will be carried out as described on the *Participant Information Sheet*, a copy of which I have kept. Any questions I had about this research project and my participation in it have been answered to my satisfaction.

Participant's signature

____/____/____

Date

Mr. Abed Ibrahim (researcher)

____/____/____

Date

Appendix C: Participant information flyer samples

Principal Researcher:

Mr. Abed B. Abed Ibrahim
PhD student at the USC

Faculty of Science, Health and Education

Abi001@student.usc.edu.au

ABOUT THE PROJECT:

The main goal of this research is to investigate the current knowledge of Teaching of English among the pre-service teachers of English in Benghazi University, Agdabia campus, Libya. It has a general aim to enhance the levels of teaching of English among these students through the application of new teaching methods, methodology and pedagogical approaches in this university. It is mainly an ethnographic study (and also an action research and single case study). The participants in this study are undergraduate students of English from the above-mentioned university, ELT teachers and stakeholders. The data collection techniques will include questionnaires, individual and focus group interviews, observation and test-taking.

About the researchers:

The principal researcher is Mr. Abed Ibrahim, a PhD student in the Faculty of Science, Health, Education and Engineering at the University of the Sunshine Coast, Queensland, Australia, and is a former assistant lecturer in the Department of English at the University of Benghazi, Agdabia campus, Libya.

Voluntary participation

Participation in this research project, which involves the participants taking tests and a short eight-week English course in Libya, is voluntary. Participants who choose to participate will not benefit by such means as gaining academic credit or any other means. However, the English course and also the English tests are free of charge. Each participant may withdraw their consent to participate at any time before, during, or after the research project without penalty or the need to provide an explanation.

Relevant Information on participation in the Research Project:

The three participant groups (Students, ELT teachers and stakeholders) will contribute to this research in different ways, if they choose to participate. The students will first answer a screening questionnaire to select students with an appropriate profile for the research. The chosen students will take a test that aims to measure their knowledge of teaching of English. Six out of these 20 students (or pre-service teachers) will be interviewed and then the remainder will be asked to answer a questionnaire. Participants will then take a short eight-week course in English which will be delivered at Benghazi University, Agdabia campus. Students will be pre and post tested before and after the course. Some of the classes in this course will be video recorded. The ELT teachers,

however, will only be interviewed and invited to talk about their experiences with their students in terms of using teaching methods and methodology and also other issues such as learning facilities, resources and textbooks. Stakeholders will be interviewed to talk about the availability of teaching and learning facilities and equipment, class sizes and any issues that they encounter with respect to arranging a suitable environment for the learning-teaching process. All interviews in this study will be audio-taped by the researcher. The participation of the three groups is voluntary. There will be neither penalty nor rewards for choosing to participate or not to participate in the study.

Some of the interview questions may elicit sensitive information that participants may wish to withhold by requesting that these details be removed from the transcripts of the audio-taped interviews. Each interview will take approximately 25 minutes. This research is considered to involve negligible risk with the only potential risk being the participant's perception that their participation, or non-participation, could affect their grades. To negate this risk, only the participants' first names are to be written on their own answer sheets, question, and consent forms. Numerical stickers will be stuck on their first names so the names cannot be seen at a first glance. However, if the students request their records and choose to withdraw at any stage during or after the research these numbers will be used to re-identify their records so they can be found and given to them. When the original copies are given to their owners no copies of these records shall be kept anywhere else, not even with the researcher. The researcher has no ability to impose any obligations on the students.

CONFIDENTIALITY:

The data gathered from the participants will be kept strictly confidential by the researcher and will not be divulged to any other person. The participants who are selected for participation will be assigned numbers, which will be recorded against their interview transcript, and stuck on their consent forms and answer sheets. As for ELT teachers and stakeholders, an alias will be assigned to them. During any future published description of data from the interviews and / or the answer, sheets an alias / number will be used. A list of the participants' names and their alias/ numbers will be kept by Abed Ibrahim. This will be kept only for the purposes of follow up with participants so that they can be given their transcripts of their interviews, so that they may amend them in any way they consider. Participants will be told if any de-identified direct quotes are being used in documents based on the interviews, and will be given the opportunity to withdraw their permission to use these direct quotes. This list will not be available to any other person other than Abed Ibrahim. Hard copies of data will be kept in a locked safe. Electronic copies of data will be de-identified and stored on a password protected computer hard disk. All data will be kept for a period of seven years and then destroyed, or erased from the hard disk.

Use of the data collected may include: publication in educational journals; conference presentations; professional development, and future course design and delivery. However, this data will generally be reported in terms of group trends, or in the case of the participants being interviewed, through the use of an alias or a number; no individuals will be identified in any of the reports. Data recorded from a participant who subsequently withdraws from the research project will not be used, and will be destroyed. Feedback from the data collected will be available to the participants upon request in the form of a brief written summary. Results will be published in the

public domain. Participants with any concerns regarding the research project may contact the Researcher, Mr. Abed Ibrahim on the phone number/email addresses given above. You are encouraged to take your time to think about whether you wish to participate in this teaching-learning activity. If you agree to participate please sign the consent form.

The Researcher, Mr. Abed Ibrahim and the University of the Sunshine Coast appreciate your participation in this research project.

If you have any complaints about the way this research project is being conducted you can raise them with the Principal Researcher or, if you prefer an independent person, contact the Chairperson of the Human Research Ethics Committee at the University of the Sunshine Coast: (c/- the Research Ethics Officer, Office of Research, University of the Sunshine Coast, Maroochydore DC 4558; telephone (07) 5459 4574; facsimile (07) 5430 1177; email humanethics@usc.edu.au).

Appendix D: Intervention lesson outlines

Day, date and duration of class	Topic	Learning materials and resources	Classroom learning activities
Saturday 23\03\2013. 90 minutes.	Introduction to classroom management; (motivation).	Online materials used by the researcher to guide participants. Videos displayed on smart board+ books and articles.	Pausing the video for group discussion \ power point slides for discussion. Pair and group work. In groups, students are asked to brainstorm and think about possible problems they may encounter at a classroom and discuss some possible solutions for them.
Sunday 24\03\2013 90 minutes	Learner needs	Online resources used. Books+ PowerPoint slides displayed on smart board.	The researcher presents in English the importance of learner needs analysis (how and why) and meeting the needs of the learners for a successful English classroom. The researcher allows classroom discussion and the class talks about what they have learned and how this is different to what and how they used to study the topic. The students take turns in the classroom to find out the needs of their students in the classroom.

			They then discuss what they have done as a group and reflect on what they have just learned and practiced.
Monday 25\03\2013 90 minutes	Learner error management	Books+ videos and PowerPoint slides displayed on smart board. Online resources used.	<p>The researcher presents in English the importance of learner error management (What is learner error management? how and why to conduct it) and making use of these errors for a better learning and successful English classroom.</p> <p>The researcher allows classroom discussion and the class talks about what they have learned and how this is different to what and how they used to study the topic.</p> <p>The students take turns in the classroom to find out the errors and manage them.</p> <p>They then discuss what they have done as a group and reflect on what they have just learned and practiced.</p>
Tuesday 26\03\2013 90 minutes	Giving feedback	Video displayed on smart board + books. Online resources.	The researcher presents in English the concept of feedback (What is feedback? how and why to judge the students and provide them with the best possible feedback. The researcher also explained why feedback is important

			<p>and necessary for a better learning and successful English classroom and its role in the learners' future work and improvement. The choice of a particular kind of feedback was also discussed and how this decision is made.</p> <p>The researcher allows classroom discussion and the class talks about what they have learned and how this is different to what and how they used to study the topic.</p> <p>The students take turns in the classroom, prepare some notes (feedback for their colleagues) and think of possible ways of giving that feedback.</p> <p>They then discuss what they have done as a group and reflect on what they have just learned and practiced</p>
<p>Wednesday 27\03\2013 45 minutes</p>	<p>Differences between teaching-centered and learning centered classrooms.</p> <p>This is discussed with reference to</p>	<p>Video displayed on smart board + books</p>	<p>How to maintain both. This is only discussed theoretically and will be peer- practiced next week.</p> <p>Overall discussion</p>

	<p>the students' main idea, background and experience in their own university and high school (as far as they can remember).</p> <p>Pros and cons of teaching-centered and learning centered classrooms were also discussed. The students participate in the discussion and say what they think.</p> <p>Third party assessment.</p>		
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45 minutes			
Week 2			
Saturday 30/03/2013 90 minutes	What is CLT? How to maintain a CLT classroom? The pros and cons of CLT discussed.	Audiovisual material displayed on smart board + books and online resources.	Group discussion while taking notes on student's impression about it.
Sunday 31/03/2013 90 minutes	What is GTM? How to maintain a GTM classroom? Pros and cons of GTM.	Audiovisual materials displayed on smart board + books and online resources.	Group discussion while taking notes.
Monday 01/04/2013 90 minutes	GTM peer practice.		Participants teach each other via GTM using either topics suggested by the researcher or any other topics of their own choices.
Tuesday 02/04/2013 90 minutes	Students practice the CLT on either suggested topics given to them or on ones of their choices. Started with the top students in the group to make it easier for the rest of the group to follow them later.	Books + online resources.	
Wednesday 03/04/2013	Overall discussion with participants to reflect on how they feel about both		

45 minutes	methods and which method would they prefer for any future work and why.		
45 minutes	Third party feedback		
Week 3			
Saturday 13/04/2013 90 minutes	The participants demonstrate their abilities to teach grammar within CLT.	Topics of their own choices	The students take turns to demonstrate their abilities to teach grammar through speaking activities.
Sunday 14/04/2013 90 minutes	The participants demonstrate their abilities to teach grammar within CLT (extra time given to grammar for its importance for the context and students. How can grammar be learned through CLT?).	Topics of their choices. (different to the ones taken yesterday)	The students take turns to demonstrate their abilities to teach grammar through speaking activities.
Monday 15/04/2013			
90 minutes	The participants demonstrate their abilities to teach vocabulary within CLT.	Topics of their choices	<p>The students take turns to demonstrate their abilities to teach vocabulary using CLT method.</p> <p>The teacher works with her students in group and pair work and maintain a variety of speaking activities.</p> <p>She then picks up new words and idioms and study them separately.</p>

			<p>She asks the students to use the new words in different sentences of their own choices.</p> <p>She explains the meanings of these words and idioms in Arabic.</p> <p>Students are allowed to use Arabic English dictionaries.</p>
<p>Tuesday</p> <p>16/04/2013</p> <p>90 minutes</p>	<p>The participants demonstrate their abilities to teach spoken English within CLT.</p>	<p>Suggested material + topics of their choices</p>	<p>The students take turns to demonstrate their abilities to teach speaking using CLT method.</p> <p>The teacher works with her students in group and pair work and maintain a variety of speaking activities.</p> <p>Various learning activities used. The students have learned these activities and games in previous lessons.</p>
<p>Wednesday</p> <p>17/04/2013</p> <p>45 minutes</p> <p>45 minutes</p>	<p>Overall discussion with participants to reflect on how they feel about what they have learned.</p> <p>Third party assessment</p>		
<p>Week 4</p>			
<p>Saturday</p> <p>20/04/2013</p> <p>90 minutes</p>	<p>The students are given some instructions about teaching reading through CLT before they have some time the following day for</p>	<p>English for Libya textbooks</p> <p>+ Quick practical examples about teaching reading through CLT.</p>	<p>Researcher guides the students to try to predict the subject matter of a listening script and then replay it a few more times to get more familiar with the story.</p>

	<p>practice in this aspect.</p> <p>They are given some examples of how to benefit from the reading story by thinking about it with regard to many issues like word choice, spelling, and grammatical structures and how they function.</p> <p>Examples of possible reading stories are suggested for the students to consider for their practice next class.</p>		<p>Students may paraphrase what they heard in it and share their ideas.</p>
<p>Sunday</p> <p>21/04/2013</p> <p>90 minutes</p>	<p>Students demonstrate their abilities to teach reading through CLT</p>	<p>Topics of their own choice. English for Libya textbooks or online resources</p>	
<p>Monday</p> <p>22/04/2013</p> <p>90 minutes</p>	<p>The students are given some instructions about teaching writing through CLT before they have some time for practice on this aspect.</p> <p>Examples of possible topics for writing and suggested for the students to consider</p>	<p>Power point slides and books.</p> <p>+ Quick practical examples about teaching writing through CLT.</p>	<p>They are given some examples of how to write a paragraph and then how to develop it to an essay. Other relevant aspects are briefly presented within the given time framework.</p>

	for their practice next class.		
Tuesday 23/04/2013 90 minutes	<p>Students demonstrate their abilities to teach writing through CLT.</p> <p>The time was enough only for one essay and then another student wrote a paragraph with the help of her fellow students.</p>	Suggested topics + topics of their own choices.	<p>The peer teacher (student) thinks of a particular topic and writes it on the board. She then asks the students to brainstorm and think of possible ways to develop it to a paragraph and then an essay.</p> <p>They discuss the things like genre, tenor, and other relative issues while the essay is in progress.</p> <p>The researcher sometimes interferes and asks some questions to know why the students wrote or suggested something in a particular way and not in another different way. They then get immediate feedback.</p>
Wednesday 24/04/2013 45 minutes 45 minutes	<p>Overall discussion and reflection on practice session.</p> <p>Third party assessment session.</p>		
Week 5			
Saturday 27/04/2013 90 minutes	<p>The students are introduced to how to teach listening via CLT?</p> <p>References for further reading and listening materials and materials</p>	Online resources, PowerPoint slides.	<p>Pre listening:</p> <p>Preparing students prepare to listen.</p> <p>While listening: helping students to focus their attention on the listening text</p>

	recommended for practise next class.		<p>and guiding the development of their understanding of it.</p> <p>Post listening: helping students integrate what they have learnt from the text into their existing knowledge.</p> <p>Discussion and getting feedback and commenting on questions.</p>
<p>Sunday</p> <p>28/04/2013</p> <p>90 minutes</p>	Participants practice teaching listening as they were instructed the day before.	Suggested topics and topics of their own choices.	<p>Students ask some questions about the topics they have prepared to teach.</p> <p>Students discover and discuss the advantages and disadvantages of what they have practiced (teaching and learning of listening via CLT)</p> <p>Students get feedback about their performance and recommendations for any changes for next class.</p>
<p>Monday</p> <p>29/04/2013</p> <p>90 minutes</p>	Participants practice teaching listening as they were instructed.	Suggested topics and topics of their own choices (provided that they consider the recommendations given last class by the researcher).	Students ask some questions about the topics they have prepared to teach.
<p>Tuesday</p> <p>30/04/2013</p> <p>90 minutes</p>	Participants practice teaching listening as they were instructed the day before.		<p>Students ask some questions about the topics they have prepared to teach.</p> <p>Suggested topics and topics of their own choices (provided that they consider the recommendations given last class by the researcher).</p>

<p>Wednesday</p> <p>01/05/2013</p> <p>45 minutes</p> <p>45 minutes</p>	<p>General discussion about the use of CLT and GTM to teach listening and how the participants feel about them.</p> <p>Third party assessment session.</p>		
Week 6			
<p>Saturday</p> <p>04/05/2013</p> <p>90 minutes</p>	<p>The students are re-introduced to how to teach speaking through CLT</p> <p>Can speaking be taught effectively through different methods to CLT? Why? Or why not?</p>	<p>Use of videos displayed on smart board</p>	<p>Quick examples of teaching speaking through CLT.</p> <p>A video for "Mr. Bean is displayed on the screen and then the students are asked to describe what he does or why, where ... etc. Just to give the students to discuss this while they enjoy the comedy.</p> <p>Suggesting some possible topics and ideas for practice next class.</p>
<p>Sunday</p> <p>05/05/2013</p> <p>90 minutes</p>	<p>Students demonstrate their abilities to peer-teach speaking via CLT.</p>	<p>Topics of their own choices.</p>	<p>Students get feedback about their performance and recommendations for any changes for next class.</p>
<p>Monday</p> <p>06/05/2013</p> <p>90 minutes</p>	<p>Students demonstrate their abilities to peer-teach speaking via CLT.</p>	<p>Topics of their own choices.</p>	<p>Students get feedback about their performance and recommendations for any changes for next class.</p>
<p>Tuesday</p> <p>07/05/2013</p>	<p>Students demonstrate their abilities to peer-</p>	<p>Topics of their own choices.</p>	<p>Students get feedback about their performance and</p>

90 minutes	teach speaking via CLT.		recommendations for any changes for next class.
Wednesday 08/05/2013 90 minutes	Students demonstrate their abilities to peer-teach speaking via CLT.	Topics of their own choices.	Students get feedback about their performance and recommendations for any changes for next class.
Week7			
Saturday 11/05/2013 90 minutes	Students demonstrate their abilities to peer-teach speaking via CLT.	Topics of their own choices.	Students get feedback about their performance and recommendations for any changes for next class.
Sunday 12/05/2013 90 minutes	Students demonstrate their abilities to peer-teach speaking via CLT.	Topics of their own choices.	Students get feedback about their performance and recommendations for any changes for next class.
Monday 13/05/2013 90 minutes	Students demonstrate their abilities to peer-teach speaking via CLT.	Topics of their own choices.	Students get feedback about their performance as they speak.
Tuesday 14/05/2013 45 minutes 45 minutes	Overall discussion and reflection on practice session Third party assessment		

Appendix E. Pre and Post TKT raw scores for the test and control groups

	Test Totals		Language functions Q: 17 – 21		Motivating students Q: 41- 46		Learning preferences Q: 47 – 53		Learning strategies Q: 54 - 59		Teaching approaches Q: 60 – 66		Speaking practice activities Q: 67 – 73	
Intervention group participant	TKT pre	TKT post	TKT pre	TKT post	TKT pre	TKT post	TKT pre	TKT post	TKT pre	TKT post	TKT pre	TKT post	TKT pre	TKT post
1	21	39	0	1	3	5	0	5	1	3	3	5	2	5
2	23	39	2	2	0	4	1	4	2	4	5	5	3	4
3	21	54	2	3	1	5	3	4	0	5	0	5	4	6
4	18	50	0	4	0	5	1	3	0	5	3	4	2	2
5	22	47	1	2	1	5	0	4	0	6	3	6	4	5
6	26	52	1	2	3	6	3	7	1	5	4	5	0	5
7	23	47	1	5	2	5	1	2	0	3	2	6	1	5
8	23	38	2	2	1	4	2	4	1	4	1	5	1	5
9	18	33	1	1	0	4	0	3	0	3	2	5	4	3
10	10	33	2	3	1	3	0	2	0	4	4	5	2	5
Comparison group participant														
11	18	20	1	0	3	3	1	1	1	0	2	4	1	2
12	24	24	2	2	2	3	2	0	2	0	3	3	3	5
13	15	17	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	2	2	2	4
14	18	13	0	0	3	0	1	3	0	0	1	1	2	0
15	14	8	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2	4
16	13	21	1	2	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	6	2	2
17	13	13	1	1	2	2	0	1	0	1	1	0	2	1
18	25	28	0	3	2	3	1	2	1	2	6	5	4	2

Appendix F: Original TKT test sheets of the PELTs before and after the test

10

UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE ESOL EXAMINATIONS
English for Speakers of Other Languages
TEACHING KNOWLEDGE TEST
Module 1

001
Sample Test
1 hour 20 minutes

Additional materials:
Answer sheet
Soft clean eraser
Soft pencil

33
80

TIME 1 hour 20 minutes

INSTRUCTIONS TO CANDIDATES

Do not open this booklet until you are told to do so.

Write your name, Centre number and candidate number on the answer sheet if they are not already printed.

There are eighty questions in this paper.

Answer **all** questions.

Mark your answers on the separate answer sheet. Use a pencil.

You may write on the question paper, but you must mark your answers in pencil on the answer sheet. You will have no extra time for this, so you must finish in one hour and twenty minutes.

At the end of the test, hand in both the question paper and the answer sheet.

INFORMATION FOR CANDIDATES

Each question in this paper carries one mark.

المجلس الوطني الانتقالي - ليبيا
الحكومة الليبية الانتقالية
وزارة التربية والتعليم - إدارة الامتحانات

شهادة إتمام مرحلة التعليم الأساسي
ورقة أسئلة امتحان مادة

اللغة الإنجليزية

الدور الأول للعام الدراسي 2011 - 2012

اسم الطالب:	ام الهناء عبدالحكيم عابد ابراهيم
المنطقة:	اجدابيا
اللجنة:	الطليبة
المدرسة:	الشعلة
المادة:	اللغة الإنجليزية
الزمن:	ساعتان ونصف
رقم الجلوس:	131816
رمز الامتحان:	12101912
تسلسل:	177/9
رمز الطباعة:	20120610181619/123204

إرشادات وتعليمات هامة

- على الطالب أن يتأكد من أن اسمه ورقم جلوسه مطبوعان من المنظومة على كل من ورقة الأسئلة وورقة الإجابة وأنهما فعلاً مخصصتان له.
- إذا استخدم الطالب ورقة الإجابة الخاصة به لمخصصة لطالب غيره فلن تصحح إجابته وسيرسب في الامتحان

اهيم

131816

- على الطالب أن يستخدم اسم المرسل إليه بخطه في ورقة الإجابة الصحيحة. خطأ وذلك بمسح الإجابة الخاطئة واستبدالها بالإجابة الصحيحة.
- في حالة استخدام الطالب قلم الحبر الجاف الأزرق أو الأسود لن يستطيع المسح ولا تغيير أية إجابة.
- في حالة استخدام الطالب قلم رصاص غير نوع HB أو قلم حبر غير قلم الحبر الجاف الأسود أو الأزرق لن تصحح ورقة إجابته.
- في كل سؤال، عليك أن تظلل الدائرة الخاصة بالإجابة الصحيحة بالكامل كما هو مبين في الشكل التالي، وعدم الاكتفاء بوضع علامة داخل الدائرة أو رسم دائرة أو مربع حولها أو وضع علامة أخرى خلاف التظليل الكامل للدائرة.

(أ) (ب) (ج) (د) (هـ)

- جميع الأشكال التالية تمثل طرقاً غير صحيحة لتحديد الإجابة وتسبب في احتساب الإجابة خاطئة بالكامل:

(أ) (ب) (ج) (د) (هـ) (أ) (ب) (ج) (د) (هـ) (أ) (ب) (ج) (د) (هـ) (أ) (ب) (ج) (د) (هـ) (أ) (ب) (ج) (د) (هـ) (أ) (ب) (ج) (د) (هـ)

- إذا أردت تغيير الإجابة بعد تظليلها فتأكد من مسحها أولاً ثم ظلل الإجابة الصحيحة.

تابع في خلف هذه الصفحة ...

For questions 6-10, match the underlined words in the text below with the grammatical terms listed A-F.

Mark the correct letter (A-F) on your answer sheet.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Grammatical terms

- | | | | |
|---|---|----|------------------|
| X | A | 6 | pronoun |
| X | B | 8 | collective noun |
| | C | | plural noun |
| ✓ | D | 7 | compound noun |
| ✓ | E | ✓ | proper noun |
| X | F | 10 | uncountable noun |

Kofie stood on the shore of (6) Lake Volta and looked at the small (7) fishing boat bobbing on the waves. The boat was empty and had been there for two days. (8) He had wanted to jump into the lake and pull it onto the beach, but he remembered his father's (9) advice, and knew that he must not take other people's property. His (10) family often went hungry, and he could have caught fish if he only had a boat.

[Turn over

For questions 11-16, choose the correct word(s) to complete each definition of lexical terms.

Mark the correct letter (A, B or C) on your answer sheet.

✓ 11 A is a group of words which together mean something different from the meanings of the individual words.

- A An idiom B A phrase C A clause

X 12 Colloquial English contrasts with B ... English.

- A formal B accurate C spoken

X 13 Two or more words that often go together are called ... C ...

- A comparatives B collocations C conjunctions

✓ 14 Homophones are words that have the same B

- A spelling B sound C meaning

X 15 Synonyms are words with A meanings.

- A opposite B similar C several

X 16 An appropriate A is the style of language that best fits a particular situation.

- A rhythm B context C register

For questions 17-21, match the example sentences with the functions listed A-F.

Mark the correct letter (A-F) on your answer sheet.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Example sentences	Functions
✓ 17 This burger hasn't been cooked properly. <i>F</i>	A suggesting
✓ 18 How about reading the latest Harry Potter book? It's brilliant! <i>A</i>	B disagreeing
X 19 I wouldn't eat that apple if I were you – it looks bad. <i>F</i>	C advising
✓ 20 Excuse me, is it too late to get a ticket for the disco tonight? <i>E</i>	D asking for an opinion
X 21 What do you think of my new jeans? <i>A</i>	E enquiring
	F complaining

(3)

[Turn over]

For questions 22-29, each word has two vowel sounds. Match the vowel sounds in the words with the pairs of phonemic symbols listed A-I.

Mark the correct letter (A-I) on your answer sheet.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Words	Phonemic symbols
✓ 22 curly J	A /əʊ/ /ə/
X 23 over G	B /eɪ/ /ɪ/
X 24 kitchen D	C /əʊ/ /ɜ:/
✓ 25 paper H	D /ɜ:/ /ə/
X 26 homework F	E /aɪ/ /ə/
X 27 learner B	F /aɪ/ /eɪ/
X 28 timetable C	G /ɪ/ /ɪ/
X 29 baby G	H /eɪ/ /ə/
	I /ɜ:/ /ɪ/

2

For questions 30-35, match what the writer does with the writing subskills listed A-G.

Mark the correct letter (A-G) on your answer sheet.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Writing subskills

- | | |
|---|-----------------|
| A | Using a model |
| B | Drafting |
| C | Peer-evaluation |
| D | Brainstorming |
| E | Planning |
| F | Re-drafting |
| G | Proofreading |

- X ☐ 30 B Before I start, I write down as many ideas as I can.
- ✓ ☐ 31 E I organise my main points into different paragraphs in note form.
- X ☐ 32 C I start writing, developing my main points.
- X ☐ 33 G I re-organise what I have written to make my ideas clearer.
- X ☐ 34 F I give it to someone else to ask for his/her opinion.
- X ☐ 35 A I give my work a final check for accuracy.

①

[Turn over

For questions 36-40, look at the following terms for language skills and three possible descriptions of the terms.

Choose the correct option A, B or C.

Mark the correct letter (A, B or C) on your answer sheet.

✓ ☒ 36 C Summarising is

- A explaining a text in detail.
- B writing the last sentence of a text.
- C giving the main points of a text.

X ☒ 37 C Interactive listening is

- A listening, responding and giving feedback.
- B listening for detail, mood and attitude.
- C listening and identifying word stress and linking.

✓ ☒ 38 B Oral fluency is

- A speaking without making any mistakes.
- B speaking naturally without hesitating too much.
- C speaking without considering the listener.



X ☒ 39 A Paraphrasing is

- A using phrases to say something instead of using complete sentences.
- B connecting sentences together in speech or writing by using conjunctions.
- C finding another way to say something when you cannot think of the right language.

X ☒ 40 C Scanning is

- A reading a text quickly to get the general idea.
- B reading a text quickly to find specific information.
- C reading a text quickly to identify the writer's attitude.

For questions 41-46, match the general advice on motivation with the techniques for encouraging motivation listed A-D.

Mark the correct letter (A-D) on your answer sheet.

You need to use some options more than once.

Techniques

- | | |
|---|---|
| A | Encourage learner autonomy. |
| B | Find out what students think. |
| C | Make your feedback positive and constructive. |
| D | Build variety into your teaching. |

(3)

Advice

- ✓ ☒ 41 B Listen to student feedback using a class 'suggestion box' or a short questionnaire.
- ✓ ☒ 42 A Don't always do the same kinds of things in the classroom. Try new activities and change activities in each lesson.
- X ☒ 43 D Think about how you tell students about their progress. How can you can praise or encourage them instead of just giving marks?
- ✓ ☒ 44 D Choose activities that different students can respond to in different ways, for example, making posters or writing poems.
- ✓ ☒ 45 C Give comments on students' work which are helpful and enable them to feel a sense of progress.
- X ☒ 46 B Train students to use reference resources to help them study successfully on their own.

[Turn over

For questions 47-53, match the following learners' comments to the descriptions of learner preferences listed A-H.

Mark the correct letter (A-H) on your answer sheet.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Comments

- X 47 B 'Most of the time should be spent doing grammar exercises.'
- ✓ 48 C 'I prefer working with other students to speaking to the teacher in front of the class.'
- ✓ 49 A 'I really like knowing how language works.'
- X 50 B 'Rules just confuse me – give some examples and let me work it out myself.'
- X 51 C 'Why should I listen to other students' mistakes? The teacher should talk most of the time.'
- X 52 F 'I just want people to understand what I mean. I don't worry if I make mistakes.'
- X 53 E 'I like deciding for myself what and how I learn.'

2

Preferences

- A This learner wants explanations of grammar rules.
- B This learner enjoys explaining language to other students.
- C This learner enjoys practising language in pairs and groups.
- D This learner enjoys doing language practice that focuses on accuracy.
- E This learner doesn't want to work with other students.
- F This learner enjoys learning independently.
- G This learner focuses on communicating.
- ~~H This learner doesn't want the teacher to explain grammar.~~

For questions 54-59, match what the student does with the learning strategies listed A-G.

Mark the correct letter (A-G) on your answer sheet.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Learning strategies

- | | |
|---|----------------------------------|
| A | self-monitoring |
| B | guessing from context |
| C | memorising |
| D | organising learning aids |
| E | repeating |
| F | consulting reference resources |
| G | using opportunities for practice |

- ✓ 54 C To learn new words, I always create pictures of them in my mind. (4)
- ✓ 55 D I always keep new vocabulary on cards which I separate into topics.
- ✓ 56 G Whenever I can, I talk with native English speakers in social situations.
- ✓ 57 B I work out the meaning of a new word from the language around it.
- X 58 F I pay attention to my own language to make sure it is accurate.
- X 59 A If I am not sure of the meaning of a word or of how to use it, I look it up in a dictionary.

[Turn over

For questions 60-66, match the statements with the teaching approaches that they describe listed A, B or C.

Mark the correct letter (A, B or C) on your answer sheet.

Teaching approaches

- | | |
|---|---|
| A | Presentation, Practice and Production (PPP) |
| B | Task-based Learning (TBL) |
| C | Grammar-Translation |

5

Statements

- ✓ ☒ 60 A The teacher moves from providing models of language use to monitoring learners' use of language.
- X ☒ 61 C First the learners complete a communicative task; they are encouraged to use any English they know and they do not have to use any particular language item.
- X ☒ 62 B The written form of the language is more important than the spoken form.
- ✓ ☒ 63 A The language focus is at the start of the teaching sequence, with fluency activities coming later.
- ✓ ☒ 64 B The language focus comes after a communicative activity, so that learners notice gaps in their language.
- ✓ ☒ 65 B Learners acquire language by trying to use it in real communicative situations.
- ✓ ☒ 66 C The learners' first language plays a central role in the teaching.

For questions 67-73, match the classroom activities with the types of speaking practice listed A, B or C.

Mark the correct letter (A, B or C) on your answer sheet.

Types of speaking practice

- | | |
|---|--------------------------|
| A | oral fluency practice |
| B | controlled oral practice |
| C | neither |

5

Classroom activities

- ✓ ☒ 67 A At the beginning of the lesson, we got into groups and talked about an interesting newspaper article that we had read.
- ✓ ☒ 68 B The teacher gave us word prompts such as 'cinema' and 'friends', and we had to say them in sentences using the past simple, e.g. 'We went to the cinema'; 'We visited some friends'.
- X ☒ 69 B The teacher read a passage to us, which we then wrote down.
- ✓ ☒ 70 A The teacher gave us roles such as 'filmstar' or 'sports star' and we had to role play a party in which we chatted to each other.
- X ☒ 71 C We had a discussion about the advantages and disadvantages of the Internet.
- ✓ ☒ 72 C The teacher read out some sentences, some of which were correct and some incorrect. We had to shout out 'Right' or 'Wrong'.
- ✓ ☒ 73 B We had to ask our partner five questions about their abilities, using 'can', e.g. Can you swim?

[Turn over

For questions 74-80, match the examples from teaching or assessment activities with the terms listed A-H.

Mark the correct letter (A-H) on your answer sheet.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

- | | |
|---|-------------------------|
| A | Sentence transformation |
| B | Jumbled sentence |
| C | Odd one out |
| D | Form-filling |
| E | Multiple choice |
| F | Categorising |
| G | Labelling |
| H | Gap fill |

74 Complete the sentence.
Last night I went the cinema.

75 Complete the sentence.
The weather yesterday was
A delicious B exciting C fantastic

76 Find the word that does not fit.
C
banana, apple, onion, pear, orange

77 Put the words in the list in the correct box.
Thai, India, Britain, Chinese, Swedish,
Hungarian, Czech, Portugal

Countries	Languages
Malaysia	C

78 Complete sentence B so it means the same as sentence A.
A The man built the bridge in 1892
B The bridge far...

79 Complete with your personal details

Family name:
First name:	D.....
Date of birth:
Address:

80 Put the words in the right order.
do usually what in you do summer ?
..... E

Appendix G: Third party monitor question frame (Translated from Arabic)

- 1- What did you learn about English language and teaching English in this course?
- 2- Do you think that the environment of learning in which this course took place is different from your university learning environment? Explain. (Discuss the testing and evaluation issues and the general classroom environment)
- 3- How important do you think is classroom management for a successful English learning?
- 4- What classroom management skills did you learn in this course? Were they beneficial to you? In what way?
- 5- Do you think that classroom management is essential for maintaining a CLT classroom?
- 6- What are the things that you wish would change over the next few weeks in this course?
- 7- Do you feel that you have developed any better English language and English teaching skills? How?
- 8- What do you think about the CLT as a method of teaching?
- 9- Do you think that the CLT should be adopted as a teaching method at the university?
- 10- How is learning to read in this course different from your reading classes at the university?
- 11- What do you feel about both styles of instruction?
- 12- How is learning to write in this course different from your writing classes at the university?
- 13- What do you feel about both styles of instruction?
- 14- Would you use the CLT method to teach your students in the future? why or why not?
- 15- What do you think about your listening classes in this course?
- 16- Are they different from your university listening classes? How?
- 17- What are the good things about the learning activities you experienced in this course?
- 18- What are the things that you would like to change?
- 19- What are the good things about your peer teaching activities that you experienced in this course?
- 20- What are the things that you would like to change in these peer teaching activities.

Appendix H: Artefacts: school tests and books, and university teaching materials



دولة ليبيا
الحكومة الليبية المؤقتة
وزارة التربية والتعليم — إدارة الامتحانات

شهادة إتمام مرحلة التعليم الأساسي
ورقة أسئلة امتحان مادة
اللغة الإنجليزية
الدور الأول للعام الدراسي 2012 - 2013

اسم الطالب:	نجلاء عبدالحكيم عابد ابراهيم
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اللجنة:	الطلعية
المدرسة:	الشعلة
المادة:	اللغة الإنجليزية
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تسلسل:	148/127
رمز الطباعة:	20130512154850/119719

إرشادات وتعليمات هامة

- على الطالب ان يتأكد من أن اسمه ورقم جلوسه مطبوعان من المنظومة على كل من ورقة الأسئلة وورقة الإجابة وانهما فعلاً مخصصتان له.
- إذا استخدم الطالب ورقة احادية له 132818 في الامتحان وسيرسب في الامتحان
- على الطالب ان يستخدم
اخفا وذلك بمسح الإجابة الحاصته واستبدالها بالإجابة الصحيحة.
- في حالة استخدام الطالب قلم الحبر الجاف الأزرق أو الأسود لن يستطيع المسح ولا تغيير أية إجابة.
- في حالة استخدام الطالب قلم رصاص غير نوع HB أو قلم حبر غير قلم الحبر الجاف الأسود أو الأزرق لن تصحح ورقة إجابته.
- في كل سؤال، عليك أن تظلل الدائرة الخاصة بالإجابة الصحيحة بالكامل كما هو مبين في الشكل التالي، وعدم الاكتفاء بوضع علامة داخل الدائرة أو رسم دائرة أو مربع حولها أو وضع علامة أخرى خلاف التظليل الكامل للدائرة.
- جميع الأشكال التالية تمثل طرقاً غير صحيحة لتحديد الإجابة وتسبب في احتساب الإجابة خاطئة بالكامل:



- إذا أردت تغيير الإجابة بعد تظليلها فتأكد من مسحها أولاً ثم ظلل الإجابة الصحيحة.
- تابع في خلف هذه الصفحة ...



إرشادات حول الإجابة عن أسئلة الصواب والخطأ والاختيار من متعدد والمزاوجة

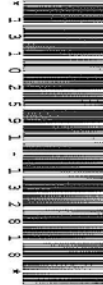
- تتم الإجابة عن هذه الأسئلة في الواجهة الأمامية لنموذج الإجابة، وذلك باختيار إحدى الإجابات المتاحة وتظليل الدائرة الخاصة بها والموضحة برقم السؤال.
- الأسئلة من نوع الصواب والخطأ، يتم تظليل الدائرة (أ) عندما تكون الجملة صحيحة، وتظليل الدائرة (ب) عندما تكون الجملة خاطئة.
- الأسئلة من نوع الاختيار من متعدد، يتم تظليل الدائرة الخاصة بالإجابة الصحيحة، مع العلم بأن لكل سؤال إجابة صحيحة واحدة فقط.
- الأسئلة من نوع المزاوجة، عليك أن تختار ما يتوافق بين العمودين.

إرشادات حول الإجابة عن الأسئلة المقالية

- تتم الإجابة عن الأسئلة المقالية خلف ورقة الإجابة.

إرشادات هامة أخرى

- تمنع الكتابة أو وضع أية علامات في أجزاء ورقة الإجابة الموضحة بعبارة ((يرجى عدم الكتابة في هذه المنطقة))، كما تمنع الكتابة أو وضع أية علامات في هوامش ورقة الإجابة. أية مخالفة لهذه التعليمات قد تتسبب في عدم تصحيح ورقتك. ولأهمية تكرار عدم الكتابة أو وضع أية علامات بين أو على أو بالقرب من العلامات والإشارات التالية، وذلك لتأثيرها السلبي على عملية التصحيح الآلي:



مع تمنيات للجميع بالتوفيق والنجاح إن شاء الله

أسئلة الصواب أو الخطأ:

- Q 1) I quite like swim.
A) True
B) False
- Q 2) If you keen on something , you don't like it.
A) True
B) False
- Q 3) " drop out " means continues doing something.
A) True
B) False
- Q 4) You shouldn't buy products with so much packaging.
A) True
B) False
- Q 5) Large digging machines are used in mining industries.
A) True
B) False
- Q 6) A splinter is a small piece of material under the skin.
A) True
B) False
- Q 7) We can use " might " in conditional type 1 if you are sure about the result.
A) True
B) False
- Q 8) No article is used with general , plural countable nouns.
A) True
B) False
- Q 9) " drought " is when it rains a lot and water covers the land.
A) True
B) False
- Q 10) The adjective " extinct " is used to describe an animal that no longer exists.
A) True
B) False
- Q 11) The satellite navigation system makes life easier.
A) True
B) False
- Q 12) We must share the Earth's resources.
A) True
B) False



Q 13) Thunder and lightening happen during a storm.

- A) True
- B) False

Q 14) Doctors and scientists use microscopes to study the body cells.

- A) True
- B) False

Q 15) A very good win is a factory.

- A) True
- B) False

أسئلة الاختيار من متعدد:

Q 16) People get blisters when their shoes their skin.

- A) rub
- B) bleed
- C) cuts
- D) burn

Q 17) Don't worry ! you can only your best.

- A) do
- B) did
- C) made
- D) make

Q 18) If you drive so fast , you fuel.

- A) would save
- B) wouldn't save
- C) won't save
- D) will save

Q 19) Everyone hopes that a cure for cancer found soon.

- A) would be
- B) will
- C) will be
- D) should

Q 20) we now have more free time , we don't always know what to do with it.

- A) Because
- B) So
- C) Although
- D) However

Q 21) That music is really loud . Can you a bit , please?

- A) turn it off
- B) turn it down
- C) turn down it
- D) turn off it

Q 22) Look ! it was so cold last night , the pool

- A) froze
- B) has frozen
- C) frozen
- D) was frozen

Q 23) Hello , Have you just ?

- A) were arrived
- B) arrived
- C) arrive
- D) are arriving

Q 24) When the water is dense than egg . it float.

- A) this sentence has one mistake
- B) this sentence has two mistakes
- C) this sentence has three mistakes
- D) this sentence has no mistakes

Q 25) I'd love a classical guitar music.

- A) playing
- B) to playing
- C) to play
- D) play

Q 26) My sister by a big dog.

- A) bits
- B) bitten
- C) bit
- D) was bitten

Q 27) She to London last week.

- A) flied
- B) flewed
- C) flyed
- D) flew

Q 28) Our cousins to visit us this Friday.

- A) go
- B) goes
- C) are going
- D) going

Q 29) Plants take water from through their roots.

- A) soil
- B) leaves
- C) branches
- D) moss



Q 30) I hit my head on the ceiling as I downstairs.

- A) walked
- B) have walked
- C) walk
- D) was walking

أسئلة المزاجية (عليك أن تختار من جمل العمود الأيسر ما يتناسب مع جمل العمود الأيمن) :

Q 31) Water is life	A) to treat and cure illness
Q 32) We must stop polluting	B) and we must share it
Q 33) People need stitches	C) of an object for its size
Q 34) Density is the heaviness	D) the Earth with chemicals
Q 35) Humans have always tried	E) when they have bad cuts

Q 36) conventional	A) are large constructions that stop water flowing
Q 37) already	B) are small pieces of stone
Q 38) convert	C) is used when something is done sooner than you expected
Q 39) Dams	D) change something from one thing to something else
Q 40) gravel	E) usual , what has always been done before

***** انتهت الأسئلة *****



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LSIE TBA 10

SKI.1: The skill of reading**Main Learning Objectives:**

For students to practise transferring information from a text to a form.

For students to practise dealing with different text types including electronic.

Subsidiary Objectives:

For students to practise completing a simple form giving personal information.

For students to learn and practise vocabulary connected with (1) communication and (2) personal information.

For students to see grammar in context for the next lesson.

- A Check the pronunciation of each word. Point out the spelling of *business*, *envelope* and *photograph* and ask students to learn them.

Answers

No answers

- B Check students understand the task and do one or two answers with them as examples. Students complete the task individually then compare answers. Elicit answers; if possible use an oht (overhead transparency) of the form on the board and write up the answers in the correct space as you go along.

Extra activity

Elicit what the question would be for each heading on the form (what's your first name? What do you do in your free time? etc.). Practise the questions with the class. Another possibility is to have extra copies of the blank form. In pairs, students ask each other the questions and fill in the form for their partner as if in an interview.

Answers

Title:	Miss
First name:	Jenny
Family name:	Mitchell
Nationality:	British
Age:	14
Address:	5 Green Road Weston
Telephone no:	01346 786 432
E-mail address:	jennym@global.co.uk
Free time activities:	reading; horse-riding
Brothers and sisters	one brothers, no sisters
Father's occupation	journalist
Mother's occupation	hairdresser

- C Elicit the answers from the class, giving explanations where necessary.

Answers

- BR5 2HG
- Weston
- Green Road
- 5

- D Students discuss the words in pairs then elicit ideas from the whole class.

Answers

e-mail address
pen-pals – friends that you write to
website – a page on the internet
local – the opposite of national
business – company

- E Students write the answers. When you go through the answers, focus on the verbs in each sentence and elicit the name of each tense.

Answers

- example
- She is writing to tell Aliya about herself. Present Continuous
- She lives in the west of England. Present Simple
- Her father works for *The Evening News*. Present Simple

- F If students have not done this 'questions for answers' type of activity before, it will need careful setting up. Elicit the questions orally at first; don't let students write. When you have finished practising the questions, the students write them down. Then they can check them in their Skills Book.

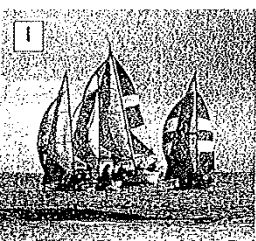
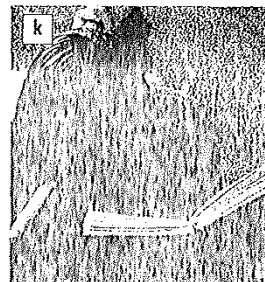
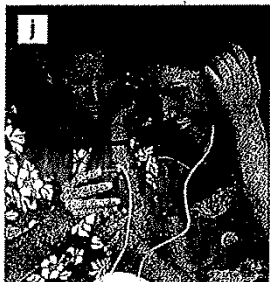
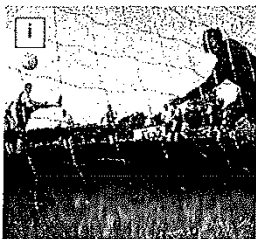
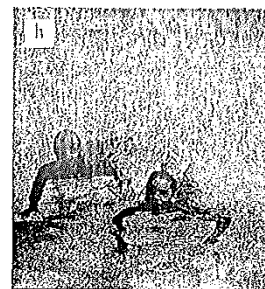
Answers

- She got it from the Pen-Pals website.
- She is writing this email to tell Aliya about herself.
- She lives in the west of England.
- Her father works for the local paper *The Evening News*.

- G Set the task carefully. Monitor students while they are writing and give help where necessary.

Answers

Answers depend on the students.



2 Discuss in groups what you think your teacher likes doing. Choose five activities.

I think he/she likes cooking.

No, I think he/she likes eating in restaurants.

Ask your teacher questions to find out who is correct.

Do you like cooking?

Do you like eating in restaurants?

3 Tell the other students what you like doing and what you *don't* like doing from the list. Ask questions about the activities.

I don't like watching TV, but I like reading very much.

Oh, really? What do you read?


Why don't you like watching TV?

4 Tell the other students things you like doing which are *not* on the list.



READING AND LISTENING


My favourite season

- 1 1 What season is it now? What are the seasons?
2 What month is it now? Say the months of the year.
3 When are the different seasons in your country?
- 2 Look at the photos. Which season is it? What colours do you see?
- 3  Read and listen to three people from different countries.
- 4 Answer the questions.
 - 1 What sports do they play?
 - 2 Do Daniella and Axel like skiing?
 - 3 Where do Daniella and her family eat in summer?
 - 4 Where does Sumalee live?
 - 5 Which season does Sumalee like best?
 - 6 What do Sumalee and her friends do in February?
 - 7 Does Daniella like sunbathing?
 - 8 Why does Axel like spring?
 - 9 Where do Daniella's cousins live?
 - 10 Which months are winter months in the three countries?
- 5 There are six mistakes about Daniella, Sumalee, and Axel. Correct them.

Daniella comes from England. In summer she goes surfing and sailing. She loves the beach and she likes sunbathing.


Sumalee comes from the south of Thailand. Her favourite season is summer. She loves dancing.


Axel comes from Norway. He likes winter best. He likes skiing, but he doesn't ski very fast.

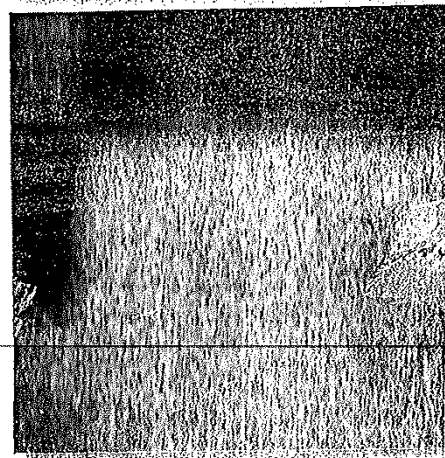
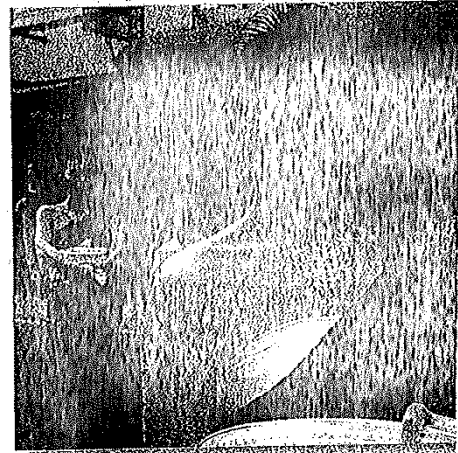
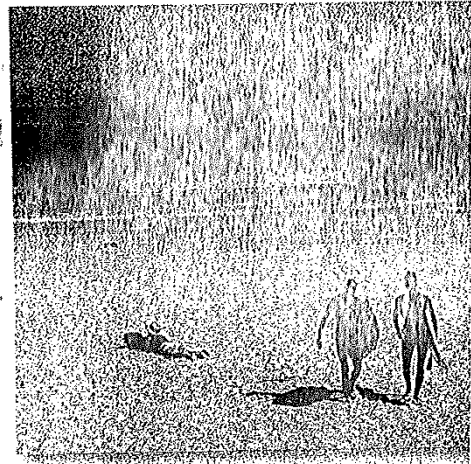
- 6  Listen to the conversations. Is it Daniella, Sumalee, or Axel? Where are they? How do you know? Discuss with a partner.

What do you think?

- What is *your* favourite season? Why?
- What do you do in the different seasons?

 **SONG** *Colours* Teacher's Book *p139*

 **WRITING** Informal letters *p115*



VOCABULARY AND PRONUNCIATION

Words that sound the same

- 1 Look at the sentences. What do you notice about these words?

I write with my right hand.
I have a black eye.
No, he doesn't know the answer.

- 2 Find the words in B that have the same pronunciation as the words in A.

A hear write wear see eye
there by for hour
know son four
too I sun our
sea where buy here
right no two their **B**

- 3 Correct the two spelling mistakes in each sentence.

- 1 I can hear you, but I can't see you.
2 There are three bedrooms in hour house.
3 I don't no wear Jill lives.
4 My sun lives near the see.
5 Don't where that hat, by a new one!
6 Know, eye can't come to your party.
7 You were write. Sally can't come four dinner.
8 There daughter could right when she was three.
9 I no my answers are write.

T 6.8 Listen and repeat.

- 4 Look at the phonetic symbols. Write the two words with the same pronunciation.

- 1 /nəʊ/ _____
2 /sən/ _____
3 /tu:/ _____
4 /ratt/ _____
5 /hɪə/ _____
6 /veə/ _____

▶▶▶ Phonetic symbols p159

EVERYDAY ENGLISH

On the phone

- 1 Here are the names and addresses of some people you want to phone.

Lisa Jefferson
Freelance Journalist

89 Franklin Street
Cambridge
BOSTON

Herald

tel _____
email ljefferson@usa.net

Yoshi Ishigawa
BUSINESSMAN

659 Tearamizu-cho
KYOTO 604-8152
JAPAN

Tel: _____
email yishigawa@kyo.co.jp

Travel Peru

Fernando Diaz
Tourist guide

Simon Junior 612
Lima PERU

Tel: _____
email fmdiaz@travel.co.pe

- T 6.9** Listen to the operator. Answer her questions to get Lisa's telephone number.

Operator International Directory Enquiries.
Which country, please?

You The USA.

Operator And which town?

You _____.

Operator Can I have the last name, please?

You _____.

Operator And the initial?

You _____.

Operator What's the address?

You, _____.

Recorded message The number you require is _____.

Roleplay

- 2 Work with a partner. Take it in turns to be the operator. Use conversations to find out the telephone numbers of Yoshi and Fernando.

Student A Go to p148. Student B Go to p150.

GRAMMAR SPOT

some and any

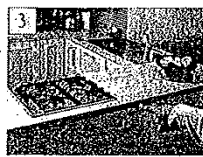
- What's the difference between the sentences?
There are **two** magazines.
There are **some** magazines.
- When do we say **some**? When do we say **any**?
There are **some** cups.
There **aren't any** glasses.
Are there **any** spoons?

this, that, these, those

- Complete the sentences with **this, that, these, or those**.



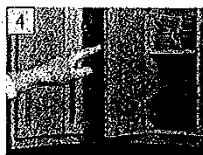
I like _____ champagne.



_____ cooker is new.



_____ flowers are lovely.



Give me _____ cups.

▶▶ Grammar Reference 5.3 and 5.4 p140

PRACTICE

In our classroom

- Complete the sentences with **some** or **any**.
1 In our classroom there are _____ books on the floor.
2 There aren't _____ plants.
3 Are there _____ Spanish students in your class?
4 There aren't _____ Chinese students.
5 We have _____ dictionaries in the cupboard.
6 There aren't _____ pens in my bag.
- What is there in your classroom? Describe it.
- Talk about things in your classroom, using **this/that/these/those**. Point to or hold the things.

This is my favourite pen.

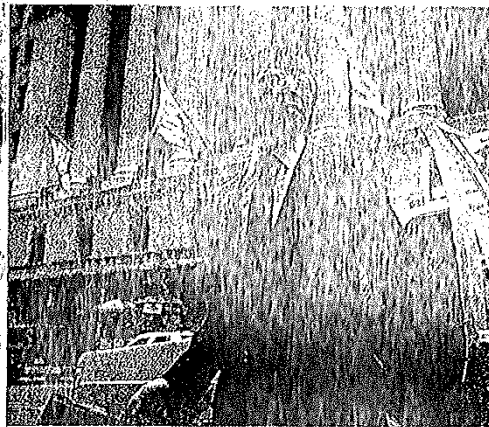
I like that bag.

These chairs are nice.

Those windows are dirty.

What's in Yoshi's briefcase?

- T5.4** Yoshi Ishigawa is on business in New York. Listen to him describe what's in his briefcase. Tick (✓) the things in it.



- | | | |
|--|--|---|
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> a newspaper | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> a notebook | <input type="checkbox"/> a letter |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> a dictionary | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> keys | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> a mobile |
| <input type="checkbox"/> a sandwich | <input type="checkbox"/> a bus ticket | <input type="checkbox"/> stamps |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> pens | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> photos | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> an address book |

- Look in your bag. Ask and answer questions about your bags with a partner.

Is there a dictionary in your bag?

Are there any stamps?

How many stamps are there?

Check it

- Tick (✓) the correct sentence.
1 ☐ There aren't some sandwiches.
☐ There aren't any sandwiches.
2 ☐ Do you have some good dictionary?
☐ Do you have a good dictionary?
3 ☐ I have some photos of my dog.
☐ I have any photos of my dog.
4 ☐ I have lot of books.
☐ I have a lot of books.
5 ☐ How many students are there in this class?
☐ How many of students are there in this class?
- ☐ Next my house there's a park.
☐ Next to my house there's a park.
- ☐ Look at this house over there!
☐ Look at that house over there!
- ☐ Henry, that is my mother. Mum, that is Henry.
☐ Henry, this is my mother. Mum, this is Henry.

RACTICE

Talking about you

- 1 Make questions. Then match the questions and answers.

Questions	Answers
1 What time do you like your job?	a My mother and sisters.
2 Where do you travel to school?	b To Spain or Portugal.
3 What do you go on holiday?	c After dinner.
4 When do you go to bed?	d I always relax.
5 Who do you go out on Friday evenings?	e At 11 o'clock.
6 Why do you live with?	f Because it's interesting.
7 How do you do on Sundays?	g By bus.
8 Do you do your homework?	h Yes, I do sometimes.

Listen and check.

- 2 Ask and answer the questions with a partner. Give true answers.
3 Tell the class about you and your partner.

Kim goes to bed at 11.00. I go to bed at 10.00 on weekdays but at half past eleven at weekends.

I live with my parents and my grandmother.
Kim lives with her parents, too.

Listening and pronunciation

- 4 **T-4.5** Tick (✓) the sentence you hear.

- ☐ What does he do on Sundays?
☐ What does she do on Sundays?
- ☐ Do you stay at home on Tuesday evenings?
☐ Do you stay at home on Thursday evenings?
- ☐ He lives here.
☐ He leaves here.
- ☐ Where do you go on Saturday evenings?
☐ What do you do on Saturday evenings?
- ☐ I read a lot.
☐ I eat a lot.
- ☐ Why do you like your job?
☐ Why don't you like your job?

Positives and negatives

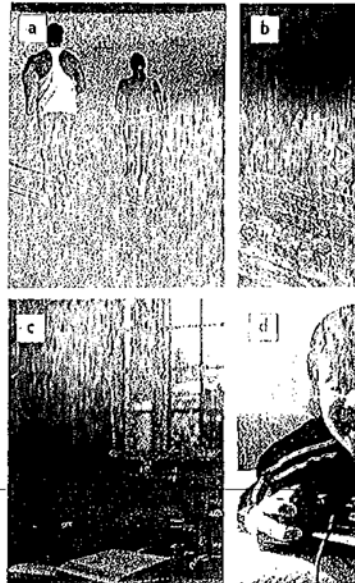
- 5 Make the sentences opposite.
- She's French. She isn't French.
 - I don't like cooking. I like cooking.
 - She doesn't speak Spanish.
 - They want to learn English.
 - We're tired and want to go to bed.
 - Roberto likes watching football on TV, but he doesn't like playing it.
 - I work at home because I have a computer.
 - Amelia isn't happy because she doesn't have a new car.
 - I smoke, I drink, and I don't go to bed early.
 - He doesn't smoke, he doesn't drink, and he goes to bed early.

VOCABULARY AND SPEAKING

Leisure activities

- 1 Match the words and photos.

- ☐ playing football
- ☐ dancing
- ☐ skiing
- ☐ watching TV
- ☐ going to the gym
- ☐ taking photographs
- ☐ cooking
- ☐ playing computer games
- ☐ sailing
- ☐ listening to music
- ☐ swimming
- ☐ reading
- ☐ eating in restaurants
- ☐ going to the cinema
- ☐ going running
- ☐ sunbathing



Appendix I: PELT individual and focus group interview question frame

- 1- Why do you think that many students think that GTM is an ideal method of teaching at the university?
- 2- Why is it that most students do not believe in CLT as a teaching method to be adopted at the University of Benghazi in Agdabia?
- 3- Why, do you think, that students seem only to believe in a teacher of English who is firm, straightforward, and has a wide knowledge about the given topic?
- 4- Why is it that students do not give much attention to such issues as classroom management, and dealing with various types of learner behavior?
- 5- Many students show their interest in learning English for the sake of communication and willing to develop better listening and speaking skills, for example, but when it comes to University classes they tend to prefer other skills such as grammar and reading? Do you agree with that? Please explain why or why not.

Appendix J: Interview questions for English language lecturers and school teachers

- 1- In general, what is your overall assessment for the current ELT situation in the University?
- 2- Would you please tell me about the subjects you teach?
- 3- How do you usually choose the materials for your students?
- 4- Can you think of any reasons why students seem to just rely on GTM or why they prefer it?
- 5- How do you usually choose the materials for your students?
- 6- Do you assess the students before you give them the materials or you just refer back to the university such as the examination department to see the level of the students and then give them materials that a third year university student should take? Is it the level that matters to you or the actual background of the student?
- 7- What are the learning facilities on campus such as language labs, internet, and libraries that you have access to?
- 8- How satisfied are you with these facilities?
- 9- What sort of teaching methods, if any, do you think the pre-service teachers of English prefer for their own learning?
- 10- Do you think that pre-service teachers of English prefer their teachers at the university to use specific teaching methods?

Appendix K: Interview question frame for stakeholders

- 1- What learning facilities and equipment is available at this university?
- 2- Are you satisfied with the current facilities available at the university? Why? Or why not?
- 3- How suitable are the buildings of this university for classroom activities and teaching practice?
- 4- What problems, if any, do you usually encounter in acquiring equipment and facilities required by this university?
- 5- Do you have any priorities to consider when it comes to supplying the university with a list of what is needed?
- 6- What mechanism(s) do you have, if any, for deciding about what to supply for the university?
- 7- On what basis do you hire staff members to teach at the department of English at this university?
- 8- Do you have any curricula guidelines that the ELT teachers are expected to abide by when choosing materials for their students?
- 9- What kind of teaching methods, do you think, are commonly used by the ELT staff members in this university to teach at the department of English?

English language teaching in Libya after Gaddafi.

Abed B. Abed Ibrahim and Michael D Carey

Abstract

This chapter discusses the impact of the political, cultural and social background of Libyan society on the current quality of English education in the country. Moreover, the chapter discusses the government's intentions to adopt a Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach in the country and how English education is actually delivered by teachers and managed by the government in Libya. This discussion is informed by a recent case study conducted at the University of Benghazi, Agdabia campus in which pre-service English teachers, English language education lecturers and other university officials and stakeholders were interviewed, and pre-service language teachers' teaching knowledge and skills were studied through an intensive seven-week English teaching methods course.

The recent events in Libya are well known to the world, but the prelude to these events needs to be explained to set the context for English language teaching and learning in Libya. The discovery of oil and gas in Libya in the 1950s led to an urgent need in Libya to develop better foreign language education in general, and English in particular, as part of improving the country's economy. The former Gaddafi regime that ruled Libya for over four decades developed political tensions with the west, particularly the USA. Consequently, during the height of this period of tension in the late 1980s, the use of any foreign language was banned in the country for over six years, contributing to the current poor English proficiency of Libyans. Though English language teaching was resumed in the mid-1990s, the students experienced a lack of qualified teachers and a limited curriculum (Najeeb, 2013).

Libya has witnessed several attempts to reform English education since the 1970s; however, these attempts were based on introducing grammar-based curricula which were designed by non-native speakers of English, few of whom were Libyans. In an effort to reform English education in the country, the Libyan Ministry of Education developed new English curricula in 2000 based on CLT principles to be used in Libyan primary and high schools in place of the previous curricula which aimed mainly to teach grammar and reading. However, Libyan English teachers have not been able to help their students of English to achieve the objectives of the new curricula because the teachers predominantly use the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) and teacher-centred pedagogy.

The quality of English language teacher education in Libya is underdeveloped and this situation can be seen as a result of a greater issue; the Libyan government's accreditation procedures for universities, programs and courses are not well-developed. According to the Centre for Quality Assurance and Accreditation of Higher Education Institutions report (NCQAAETI, 2012) the centre runs systematic visits to tertiary institutions in Libya and requires the providers to submit applications to obtain accreditation. However, the quality of this process is difficult to verify, as the centre officials state that none of their accreditation

criteria are available for the public to view. The centre accredits all educational institutions within all scientific and vocational fields in Libya. This is very different to the accreditation process in western contexts where vocational education accreditation is discipline-specific, more tightly regulated, and transparent.

Other issues such as alignment between the curricula currently used at primary and high schools in Libya and those used by lecturers at the Agdabia faculty are discussed in this chapter. Despite the government's intentions to innovate with communicative curricula, the teachers do not actually use these curricula in primary and high school classrooms.

Historical background

More than 2000 international companies started investing in Libya in construction, trade and manufacturing after the discovery of oil and gas in the 1950s (Najeeb & Eldokali, 2012; Bayoud, 2013). However, the direction of this economic development changed when the Army Captain Mummar al-Gaddafi (henceforth Gaddafi) took control of the country on the 1st of September, 1969 in a bloodless coup, and established the Revolutionary Command Council (Blanchard & Zanotti, 2011). The council was formed by his army companions and headed by him. The military governors transferred the country's administrative and political leadership from the east of Libya, where the former king Idris Alsnusi used to live, to Tripoli in the west. The former king was on a medical trip overseas when the young military men took control of the country. Gaddafi implemented a political, social, and economic agenda in Libya through his 'Green Book' which rejected capitalism and communism as being rich-oriented. He announced what he called the Third Universal Theory which he considered to be the ultimate solution for the world and anticipated that the world would one day adopt the theory (Blanchard & Zanotti, 2011). The theory is described in the Green Book:

The Third Universal Theory heralds emancipation from the fetters of injustice, despotism, exploitation, and economic and political hegemony, for the purpose of establishing a society of all the people where all are free and share equally in authority, wealth and arms. Freedom will then triumph definitively and universally (Gaddafi, 1976, p.19).

One of the main principles of this theory was that people should all work as partners and not as workers on the one side and rich owners on the other. Gaddafi (1976) states in the Green Book that "wage-earners are but slave to the masters who hire them. They are temporary slaves, and their slavery lasts as long as they work for wages from the employers, be they individuals or the state" (p.12). He sympathized with the poor people and urged them to take the businesses from their owners and distribute them equally among the workers who should work together as partners. The main goal for their work was to produce society's daily needs and not to make profits or expand the business (Bayoud, 2013).

Influenced by the president of Egypt in the 1970s, Jamal Abdu Alnaser, Gaddafi developed the desire to unite the Arab countries and resist western colonising forces (Blanchard, 2012). He declared his sympathy and support for what he considered the movements of liberation around the world. He supported groups and peoples in various parts of the world, including Europe and South America with money, logistics and weapons to fight back against their opponents. His negative attitude against colonising countries, which were mainly western, resulted in Libyans generating similar attitudes towards these western regimes. The United

States and the west considered Gaddafi's support as an unacceptable act of supporting terrorism and urged him to end his support (Blanchard & Zanotti, 2011).

The Gaddafi regime spied on Libyan detractors domestically and in exile and assassinated them through its intelligence and security forces, calling the opposition in exile "stray dogs" (Blanchard & Zanotti, 2011). He was then accused of conducting terrorist attacks in Europe and bombing a Pan America airliner. The International court of justice demanded Gaddafi hand over two Libyan nationals suspected of the bombing, but the regime refused to do so. This act of defiance drove Libya into undeclared war with America. The Libyan regime instigated political tensions with the west and the USA in particular.

Consequently, during the height of this period of tension in the late 1980s, the use of any foreign language was banned in the country for over six years, contributing to the current poor English proficiency of Libyans. Use of any foreign language, including English, was illegal at that time in private and state schools, universities and hospitals. The USA imposed economic, political, and military sanctions on the Libyan regime which continued for approximately twenty years. The Libyan regime then started to re-introduce English education to Libyan schools and universities after Saif Al-Islam, the eldest son of the Gaddafi, launched his *Libya Alghd* or *Libya of Tomorrow* project (Gheblawi, 2011) which aimed to reform Libya and maintain closer relationships with the west.

After the Libya of Tomorrow project was launched in the mid-2000s, the relations between the regime and the west began to stabilize. The main focus of the project was to start a new chapter with the international community and also the Libyans in exile. Saif Al-Islam, who received his PhD from the University of Eastern London, invited all Libyans of opposition in exile to return to Libya, guaranteeing their safety, as well as their civil rights, and financial compensation for being in exile. He declared the start of a new media age in the country with more freedom of speech and less government restrictions on human rights.

However, this was considered as an attempt to polish the face of the regime and to give Saif Al-Islam more popularity in Libya (El Issawi, 2013). The Libyan public and other observers of the political situation in Libya considered his intervention in the country's political domain as a sign that his father was preparing him to inherit the leadership of Libya. He declared the suspension of Libya's nuclear and long-range missile programs. He also visited the United States to negotiate mutual relations and benefits for the two countries. Gaddafi's son implemented several measures to fix the country's relations with the international community and maintain the economic, social and political reformations in the country. He also instigated projects to develop the infrastructure and industrial capacity of the country. He invited international human rights representatives to visit Libya and assess the situation by visiting Libyan prisons and police departments.

Saif Al-Islam, who speaks English fluently, invited international companies and business owners to invest in Libya. This led to an urgent need in Libya to develop better foreign language education, particularly English, as part of improving the country's economy. However, this was a challenge which could not be overcome despite years of work and investment (Omar, 2012). Libya has witnessed several attempts to reform English education since the 1970s. However, the earlier attempts were based on introducing grammar-based curricula which were designed by non-native speakers of English, few of whom were Libyans.

After the reintroduction of English in the 1990s, the new English language syllabus was based on Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), but CLT has not been the panacea for English language teaching in Libya.

The tribal nature of the Libyan society

Tribal loyalties and social customs of the Libyan people play a significant role in organizing the political, administrative, and legal aspects in Libyan society (Myers, 2013). These social norms and cultural heritage are held in the highest esteem by Libyans. Traditional rulers are highly respected by the people in northern African nations and especially in Libya (Elbendak, 2008).

There are over 2000 tribes in Libya (Tempelhof & Omar, 2012) which constitute the social complexity of the country. Tribal elders are most often the leaders of these tribes and therefore the entire country. Myers (2013) reports that elders, especially the *Sheokh* are arbitrators who intervene to resolve disputes between people from either the same tribe, or from different tribes. In the latter case, usually elders from neutral tribes form unofficial committees to manage these situations. The elders in each tribe are known for their wisdom and good decision making and are highly respected by the public, and younger people are required socially and ethically to abide by their decisions. Elders occasionally hold unofficial meetings to discuss the various issues arising in the society and how to manage them.

Gaddafi misused this tribal nature of the country to maintain peoples' loyalty and support (Tempelhof & Omar 2012; Mayer, 2013). Gaddafi considers the tribe as a *social umbrella* that provides its members with the social security they need, but the tribe in his era played a more substantial role in the Libyan political domain (El-Katiri, 2012). Gaddafi (1976) states in the Green Book that "The tribe is a natural social umbrella for social security. By virtue of social tribal traditions, the tribe provides for its members collective protection in the form of fines, revenge and defence; namely, social protection" (p.22). For the first time in Libya, however, he formed what was called in Libya *Keadatshabia* or peoples' leadership councils which gave a semi-official title to these councils in every Libyan city and directly linked them to the main council in Tripoli. These semi-official governing bodies can still, in some cases, influence the government's decisions and actions.

Although the current government does not openly admit their recognition of these semi-official bodies, it does contact them unofficially from time to time to gain the support and compliance of the public with the government's interests. This semi-official legislation is derived from the Arabic term *A'urf* which broadly translates to *social convention*; a set of agreed, stipulated, or generally accepted standards, social norms, or criteria. The *A'urf* comes second after the court in Libya (Myers, 2013) which constitutes the legal and official legislative authority. The Libyans generally appreciate their social convention but there is wide agreement that the former regime misused it as well as Libyan cultural and social norms to maintain Gaddafi's rule of the country (Tempelhof & Omar, 2012).

Colonialism and attitudes towards learning English

Unlike the case with other neighbouring countries, especially in the North West region of Africa, the Libyan people have a history of resisting all forms of colonisation and led battles

against the successive colonising armies that attempted to rule the country over past centuries. Libyans are generally cautious about foreigners and foreign intervention (Gheblawi, 2011). In Tunisia, Morocco, and Algeria, for example, French is the dominant language, although it is only considered the second language of these countries. When the Algerian president Butaflika delivered a public speech in French on a national occasion in Algeria in the 2000s, he was widely criticised in the Libyan media, and by the public in Libya. This reflects the overall attitude of the Libyan people towards all forms of foreign language use in all Arab countries and not just in Libya.

The Libyans fought the Ottoman occupation of Libya for over 300 years and then the Italians for over 30 years. Despite the attempts by both occupying forces to enforce Turkish and then Italian languages respectively in Libya at the expense of Arabic, Arabic is still the only language used now in the country. The Turkish government, for instance, restricted the use of Arabic in the public domain in Libya and put strict rules and penalties in place to punish those who do not comply. The penalties included fines, taxes, imprisonment, and even death.

The Italians had similar rules and both governments placed heavy restrictions on Arabic education and replaced it with Turkish and Italian education. Only a few Libyans were allowed in each Italian school and there were limits to the education levels they could reach in these schools (Youssef, 2012). The Italians also detained hundreds of thousands of families in detention camps and sent them into exile in the Mediterranean islands to reduce the Libyan population and replace them with Italian occupants. Libya was considered the fourth shore of Italy and therefore the Italians instigated these actions to eliminate the Arab identity and language as part of their colonising ambitions.

These practices generated a negative attitude towards communicating in a different language among the Libyan people. Libyan leaders who fought against these occupying forces are now remembered as national heroes in Libya, both officially and by the public and stories of liberation from colonisation are part of the oral history passed from parent to child. The Libyans also developed negative attitudes towards the colonisers and their practices in sympathy for what their forbears had suffered throughout history.

Libyans currently display a negative attitude towards learning English, most likely due to the American military actions against Muslim countries worldwide in the name of peace and democracy (Youssef, 2012). This highlights the importance of maintaining a stable political relationship with Libya while introducing English into the country as identity and motivation are crucial elements in learning foreign languages (Brown, 2007). The lack of motivation and positive attitudes towards learning English in Libya (Youssef, 2012) might be one of the main reasons for maintaining a traditional style of teaching. Generally, when some Libyan students practice English communicatively, their peers do not take them seriously. It is most often perceived as showing off, so it is therefore socially taboo to use English in public.

The low income of teachers and the financial expectations of students

The income for an average teacher in Libya, especially in the public sector, is modest compared to that of other professions, or to teaching in the private sector. This affects the teacher's performance in the classroom and causes them to feel unhappy about the profession. The teachers and stakeholders we interviewed in our case study concurred with this opinion.

A stakeholder from the Agdabia department of education said “As a matter of fact, we have teams of very capable teachers in town but sometimes they complain about the pay in the education sector”. The word for teacher in Libya is *mudares* which is pronounced similarly to the word *imddares*. The former means teacher whereas the latter is used to refer to the car that is parked or stationary. It is used metaphorically to refer to the society’s perspective of the teacher’s financial situation. In other words, the Libyan teacher is unable to progress financially.

Male students also perceive teaching as a feminine profession and believe men should do other more physical work that females cannot do such as construction, car repairing and catering. The income of a teacher is suited to females as they are not socially required to cover any major financial responsibilities. Male students who quit their education and have their own businesses or work hard to create their own enterprise are admired by their fellow students. Male and female students are separated in Libyan schools starting from grade six at the end of Elementary school when they are typically twelve years old. Beyond that point the two genders are not allowed to be together at the same school until they graduate high school and then they get back together again at University. Students at this stage (especially males) usually start thinking about getting married and other life necessities like buying a house, a car, and commencing a private business or finding a good job. Males tend to think that these matters are important for females when judging if a man qualifies for marriage.

Libyans of different gender do not usually interact privately or communicate unless between siblings and families (Abubaker, 2008). Similarly, students of both genders do not feel free to interact or participate actively in class activities in mixed classes. In order for such activities to be carried out within the Libyan schema, the class has to be composed of either males or females. In some cases, the teacher has to be the same gender as the students as well. Some female students prefer to be not only with other female students in the class but also with a female teacher.

The standard of Libyan English and the new curricula

English language teachers in Libya argue that the undergraduate students of English in most of the Libyan universities have poor English proficiency. Rajendran (2010), for example, states that Libyan “university students fail to even understand the meanings of commonly used English words like *post office*, *money*, *street* ” (p.64). Libyan students also have difficulties using English for communicative purposes as they cannot speak or understand spoken English in its natural context (Omar, 2012).

To place these claims within the context of international standards, we consulted the available information provided by the International English Language Testing System (IELTS). IELTS can be sat in academic or general training modules and is a robust, validated international test which examined 2 million candidates in 2012. The test assesses reading, writing, listening and speaking with a 1-9 band scale system for each part of the test and then calculates an average overall band score of the test taker between 1 and 9. A global band score of 1 indicates that the test taker has a very limited competence and command of English while 9 refers to a fully operational command of it.

According to data collected in 2011 (IELTS, 2011) Arabic language users have the lowest English language proficiency across all four skills (5.2 in both the academic and general modules) compared to language learners from the 40 language groups who have been most frequently tested by IELTS (range = 5.2 to 7.2/7.3 in the academic/general modules). Generally, Arabic speakers have the sixth lowest proficiency in speaking English in the academic module and the third lowest in the general module (mean academic and general = 5.7; range = 5.4 to 7.4/8.0 academic/general modules). Libya is not the poorest performing Arabic country in terms of its English performance; it is intermediate in the fifth position out of ten Arabic countries for both speaking and overall competence.

Clearly, English language proficiency in Libya is by all accounts poor. Much time, effort, and money have been spent in Libya in the last few years to develop better English education in the country (Orafi & Borg, 2009). The Libyan government has designed and developed English language teaching materials, in and outside of Libya, for primary and secondary schools. However, the intention for the graduates from Libyan universities to use these materials to teach secondary and high school students did not lead to achievement of the desired objectives of the curricula and designers. This is because there is usually a gap between what the teachers of English have previously studied at their Libyan university and what they are eventually required to teach in schools (Orafi & Borg, 2009). Unless the pre-service teachers of English can utilise their knowledge of teaching of English and also develop their abilities and familiarity with modern and effective methods of teaching English, their knowledge and skills will not impact on what is taught in schools.

The new curricula were introduced in Libya in 2000 and are mainly based on CLT principles to be used in Libyan primary and high schools in place of the previous curricula which aimed mainly to teach grammar and reading. However, Libyan English teachers have not been able to help their students of English to achieve the objectives of the new curricula because the teachers were influenced by their own background and understanding of teaching English (Orafi & Borg, 2009). Their use of the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) and maintaining a teacher-centred style of teaching is at odds with the communicative principles of the new curricula and the ways its objectives can be achieved.

The introduction of the new English curricula was not accompanied by professional development programs for primary and high school teachers, nor was professional development in the new curriculum or CLT introduced into university teacher training courses. English education at Libyan universities is mainly taught by sessional staff and lecturers are at liberty to choose the materials that are convenient for them to deliver to their students. They tend to focus on grammar and reading and use traditional teacher-centred approaches. When pre-service teachers of English graduate and start teaching at Libyan primary and high schools, they find the communicative curricula challenging. Therefore, they tend to filter these curricula and only teach the reading and grammar components and ignore speaking and listening activities.

After the Gaddafi regime was overthrown in the 2011 upheavals, English primary and high school curricula were slightly revised. However, this was only done to omit the political influence of the former regime on these curricula. For instance, the parts of curricula that discussed Gaddafi's life and his political, socialist and economical perspectives as well as

his photos were all removed. The new authorities also changed the state's former name and flag colour on the cover page of the textbooks.

Despite this poor international comparison of proficiency and other problematic intercultural issues with the teaching and learning of English, English is the most preferred foreign language to learn and use in Libya (Black, 2007). It is rare to see or hear about schools or language centres where French, Italian, Spanish or Chinese programs are offered in this country. More than 70% of the Libyan economy is based on the oil industry. This has led parents to pay large amounts of money to language centres so that their children learn how to use English communicatively.

However, the lack of quality teachers of English is believed to be the main reason that the whole process of teaching and learning of English remains ineffective (Orafi & Borg, 2009; Omar, 2012). Besides the poor quality of teaching, learning English is socially maligned and accompanied by low status and income for teachers, so older, traditional methods of teaching English are the mainstay in the absence of well-directed funding and research into teaching methods that are appropriate to the Libyan context.

Methods of teaching English in Libya

Learners vary in their capacity to learn due to their varying capacity across a range of cognitive abilities, most notably referred to as *multiple intelligences* (Gardner, 2011), and also other behavioural factors such as motivation (Feng & Chen, 2009) and attitude (Fakeye, 2010), and students and teachers also preference certain learning and teaching methods due to their particular socio-political and philosophical influences (Wong, 2006). These factors make the choice of the teaching method a challenging task for teachers, especially in Libya where there is a major controversy regarding the Libyan students' level of motivation to learn English and the capacities of the Libyan teachers of English (Omar, 2012). In all cases, the choice of the teaching methods should engage learners and be based on an analysis of the learners' needs (Nunan & Lamb, 2001). However, this is challenging due to the large Libyan class sizes (Kumari, 2013) as the larger the class is, the more likely the learners are to vary in their learning capacities and preferred ways of learning. This problem also hinders the possibility of maintaining interactive learning strategies and suggests lecturing is the only alternative.

In general, the objective of students and educators in Libya is for students to complete their exams with the highest possible scores (Alhmali, 2007). English is seen as a subject to be passed in school and university (Rajendran, 2010) rather than a subject for which functional language proficiency is the end goal. The main focus of English education is on grammar and reading without an equivalent focus on listening and speaking. In this transmission teaching experience, the more grammatical forms and vocabulary learners can memorize, the higher scores they can achieve at the end of each course. Grammar and reading are studied for their own sake and not for practical communicative purposes in real life situations. In addition, Arabic is the dominant medium of instruction and communication in Libyan English classrooms (Shihiba, 2011). Teachers and students communicate in Arabic even in *spoken English classes*. For these reasons, Libyan learners of English have not been able to develop communicative capacity in English (Omar, 2012).

ELTs in Libya have a traditional style of instruction in teaching English and there is evidence to suggest that this style of instruction negatively affects the attitudes of the learners towards learning English (Abidin, Pour-Mohammadi & Alzwari, 2012). There are no guidelines that govern the choice of teaching methods or curricula in Libyan universities and therefore Libyan teachers tend to maintain the Libyan version of the GTM. This version, according to Elabbar (2011) may be slightly different from the standard GTM as it usually has a mix of features of other methods which are randomly selected by teachers depending on the personal beliefs and background of the teacher, the type of learners, and the reason for learning (e.g. to pass, or just be able to read English texts). The students are accustomed to memorization and therefore the GTM suits them. Brown (2000) explains why the GTM remains popular worldwide as requiring "... few specialized skills on the part of teachers. Tests of grammar rules and of translations are easy to construct and can be objectively scored" (p. 19).

In the seven-week teaching methodology course conducted in Libya, the first author worked with a group of 20 students from the Faculty of Arts and Sciences at the University of Benghazi, Agdabia, Libya. The participants were divided into test and comparison groups. Before exposing the test group to modern English teaching methodologies, both groups were surveyed and tested for their knowledge of English teaching methodology with the Cambridge Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT).

The students were surveyed to determine their attitudes towards learning English prior to taking the course. They were introduced to the CLT with a focus on interactive learning as an alternative to the lecturing and teacher-centred instruction that is common in their Faculty. They were then given the opportunity to practice using these methods to teach their peers in class and to directly compare the GTM and CLT methods of teaching. Throughout this action research project, the participants were encouraged to reflect upon their teaching practice and adopt, adapt, or reject methods (Nisbet & Collins, 1978) they were learning about and request less or more input on certain methods. This drove the *in-situ* modification of the flexibly delivered course.

Five out of the ten test group students were interviewed to further investigate critical incidences that arose in the course and to determine how to better develop the course. The students revealed their feedback through scheduled reflection on practice sessions and also through weekly monitoring sessions with an independent academic from the faculty. Third party assessment was necessary to give the students the opportunity to honestly reflect on how they felt about the course. The test and control groups were both surveyed and tested with the TKT after the course.

As would be expected, the test group students scored higher on their post-test compared to their pre-TKT test. They developed positive attitudes towards learning and teaching of English after the course and their confidence to use English increased substantially. Their perspectives on how to teach English changed from focusing on grammar in isolation to interactive learning and focusing on communication. The post test results of the control group students, on the other hand, showed no differences in their attitudes or their teaching knowledge. Students of both groups were attending the university at the time of conducting the course, but only the test group students attended the methodology course. This reveals that the teaching and learning of English, at least in the department of English in this Libyan university, is based on teacher and textbook centred instruction rather than on communicative

and interactive learning. It also suggests that the students can develop better attitudes towards learning English if provided with the necessary environment that encourages cooperative instead of individual learning.

The GTM culture of teaching English in Libya

In what looks like a tendency to sustain everything traditional in the Libyan society (Elbendak, 2008), holding the GTM and the traditional, old school of thought in the highest esteem in Libyan universities and schools is clearly visible in people's words and actions. In one of the interviews conducted during our study, one of the participants, for instance, said:

Libyan society has a common agreement that learning languages can best be done through learning grammar and reading. Libyans value traditions and therefore they prefer anything traditional, even when it comes to teaching methods. Old teachers of English always talk to us about how they used to teach languages in the sixties and seventies with great respect, pride and admiration for their work back in the day. They also talk about today's classrooms and education with a sense of dislike compared to how they used to teach back then. I, as a modern generation prospective teacher, do imitate them and still hold these values regardless of what you tell me about modern education and its effectiveness. It is just what I grew up learning (translated from Arabic).

Thus, cultural and sociological aspects may partly explain why the English teaching and learning approaches maintained in Libyan schools are traditional grammar and reading-oriented, rather than being communication-oriented (Najeeb, 2013). Another participant who calls this approach *GTM heritage* stated:

Because students [pre-service teachers of English at the faculty] have heard a great deal about this heritage from older teachers and were taught only in this way; they know that they will need to use this method in the future if they choose to become teachers of English or any other language. I think it is a matter of a tradition that is passed on from one generation to the next all over Libya and not just here in Agdabia (translated from Arabic).

The widespread use of the GTM in Libya hinders any possibilities to use any other method of teaching, including modern variants of the Direct Method (DM) (Alrahwy, 2008). Students and teachers rely on translation into Arabic (Soliman, 2013) in and outside of their classrooms in the teaching and learning process of English which contradicts the main principles of the DM. There is a common belief in Libya that translation is an efficient way to learn a foreign language including English (Omar 2012). Thus, Libyan teachers and learners of English do not sacrifice translation for the sake of communication.

ELTs who are non-native speakers of Arabic in Libya complain that students do not appreciate communicating in English in the classroom and constantly demand translation (Kumari, 2013). Moreover, Libyan ELT teachers are not acquainted with pronunciation of English, functional grammar and English culture and pragmatics, which remains another obstacle for them to adopt the DM. Libyan teachers typically receive their English education in Libya where Arabic language and culture are the only dominant and available mediums of communication. Therefore, they have little or no opportunity to learn about English culture.

It is often noted that language learning is more effective if learning is conducted in smaller classes and learners are provided with the opportunity to interact actively on authentic tasks for extended periods of time (Brown, 2000). This strategy is difficult to adopt in crowded Libyan classrooms and Libyan teachers generally have no practical experience in using task-based learning in the classroom. Brown (2000) points out that the success of these methods depends on the capacity and skills of the teacher and that there is little evidence that the methods can be adopted by all teachers. Besides these uncertainties over which methodologies to adopt, adapt, or reject, a problem of greater magnitude is the uncertainty surrounding the accreditation processes undertaken by the government and universities in Libya. These processes are meant to ensure the quality of English teacher education and they are currently in a state of crisis.

Teacher education accreditation procedures in Libya

The Libyan government's policy on accreditation procedures for universities, programs and courses is not clear. According to the Centre for Quality Assurance and Accreditation of Higher Education Institutions report (2012), the centre runs systematic visits to tertiary institutions in Libya and requires the providers to submit applications to obtain recognition from the institution to be accredited. However, the centre officials say that none of their accreditation criteria is available for the public and is kept internally for their office use. The centre has forty employees in total, working in three distant offices distributed in the eastern, southern and western regions of the country. The centre accredits all educational institutions within all scientific and vocational fields in Libya.

This is very different to the accreditation process in western contexts where accreditation is more explicit and transparent. In Australia, for example, teacher education programs are accredited separately from all other types of vocational education programs. Australian teacher education programs undergo an accreditation process if the program is new, or an accredited program can be either re-accredited or denied accreditation within a number of years determined by the accreditation agency since it first granted accreditation. Once the accreditation expires, providers of the program must submit an application to renew their accreditation. Usually each program has to be assessed once every four to five years on its own merits, depending on the nature of the program and the negotiations with the accreditation agency (AITSL, 2013).

The only accreditation institution of education existing in Libya is the National Centre for Quality Assurance and Accreditation of Educational and Training Institutions which was established by the Libyan Ministry of Education in 2006. It has two smaller departments in the country; one in the eastern region of Benghazi and the other located in the southern city of Sbha. According to the Higher Education in Libya report (European Commission, 2012), the accreditation body was founded to design and implement a system "for evaluation, accreditation and quality assurance in public and private higher education institutions" (p.5). The centre is owned and monitored by the Libyan Ministry of Education but operates independently with regard to administration and funding. The centre mandates that all higher educational institutions in the country have offices of accreditation to work directly with the governing body in Tripoli. These educational institutions must maintain ultimate cooperation through the organization of conferences, seminars, workshops and publications to sustain the quality of higher education in all regions of the country.

The centre has published the accreditation and quality assurance standards according to which the quality of the higher education system and output in the country is judged. The centre reported that all private universities have been assessed on the basis of these standards and that only five of them have been accredited.

However, after extensive research, no specialized accreditation details have been found about the educational programs in general and the teacher education programs in particular. The guidelines shown in the final annual report published in Arabic by a team from the accreditation centre in 2012 are broad and do not provide any specific details about the criteria of judging education programs. For example, the report states that each educational program provider in Libya is required to submit an application to obtain a license for recognition as an accredited educational institution in the country by the accreditation centre. The program provider must provide all the required documents, lodge a full application and then the application is initially reviewed by a committee in the centre.

If the application is accepted for consideration, the committee then notifies the applicant of their acceptance to process the application and of paying the fees afterwards. The application then goes through academic and administrative assessment and then a decision is to be made by the committee members in the centre about granting a license or recognition of the applicant educational institution as accredited. However, the standards and criteria used in the academic assessment of this application are not detailed in the report. The report only states that the committee writes a recommendation to advise that the standards of the centre to accredit any educational institution are either present, partially present or are not present. However, these criteria are not available for the public and are restricted for internal use at the centre. No reasons are given for this restriction.

The educational institution can be granted accreditation which expires in two to five years depending on various aspects such as the type of program offered and the recommendations of the assessing committee. Granting the accreditation is often conditional on an agreement signed by the representative individual of the assessed educational institution to cooperate with the teams from the centre visiting the educational institution occasionally. These visits are made without notice and may require access to archives and documents of the institution. The guide does not advise if these teams include expertise for each educational program to evaluate them academically. It only reports that the teams assess the whole institution with a major focus on the administrative, financial and logistic capacities.

The report also describes the teaching and learning activities performed at the applicant educational institution as 'good' or if 'adequately practiced'. However, it does not provide details about the basis of deciding if a particular activity is 'good' or 'adequately practiced'. The criteria and standards are mainly related to logistic, financial and administrative matters which are detailed and thoroughly described. However, no clear description of the mechanism of deciding about the quality of the offered programs from an academic perspective is provided. The assessment here involves educational institutions and not individual academic programs.

Undergraduate and postgraduate degree holders who are seeking employment or are willing to study abroad are required to bring their certificates to the National Accreditation Centre in Tripoli to stamp them for quality assurance purposes. The accreditation process is undertaken

in the same way for all graduates from all disciplines. The process may take up to three working days and involves verifying the signatures of the individuals who have signed these qualifications. This is to confirm that the certificate was actually issued, signed and stamped by a recognized university or educational institution in Libya or outside.

The English teacher accreditation process therefore involves verifying that the information provided on the certificate is correct as per the data stored in the Accreditation Centre database. However, the process does not involve any quality control issues concerning the academic quality of the programs that the student has accomplished or the details of that particular program. Once the certificate is approved, it becomes accepted for employment and other purposes in Libya and the applicant is no longer liable for any further kind of assessment.

Other than this particular administration centre, there is no other administration centre, office or an institution responsible for any similar accreditation purposes, either private or governmental in Libya. When establishing a new university, faculties at a university, or training colleges, the broad guidelines for this future educational institution are drawn with regard to who can be admitted into it, what they should study, for how many years and where graduates should be able to work. The remainder of the details are left to the teachers and stakeholders at that educational body to decide. The academic side is usually undertaken by teachers while the administrative issues are handled by stakeholders. This practice occurs in all types of universities, faculties, and training colleges in Libya, including teacher education.

Decision making and English Education policy in Libya

Education policy in Libya, in general, has always been managed from the top down (Elabbar, 2011). It is influenced by the overall political system of the country; this was especially the case during the rule of the former regime. It was “highly centralised and characterised by a complex hierarchical structure” (Shihiba, 2011, p. 11). By centralised, Shihiba refers to the total control of the former General Peoples' Committee of Education (GPCE) in Libya. The GPCE was based in Tripoli and is currently known as the Ministry of Education. All education matters all over Libya such as educational institutions and school construction, development of curricula, and all other decisions related to education were solely made in Tripoli. Despite what the former regime claimed about the social system of the country and Gaddafi's Third Universal Theory, which is based on the idea of the *rule of people* in Libya and which was one of the main sources of legislation during his rule, all major decisions and actions were dictated by Gaddafi and then implemented by lower administrative authorities. These decisions and actions went from one higher authority to the lower until they reached the people to either implement or abide by. The Third Universal Theory posits that no one has the right to act or express an opinion, wish, or a point of view on behalf of another person in Libya. Therefore, all forms of representative bodies such as parliaments and parties were strictly prohibited in Libya.

The Third Universal Theory was developed in response to the two preceding regimes of capitalism and communism. For example, in what was called *mu'utamarat sha'abea issaseea* or *Basic People's Conferences* which used to take place at least once a year all over Libya,

all Libyans of the age of 18 or over had to attend these conferences held in public places such as schools and community centres. Both men and women were required to meet, elect their regional committees who recorded all discussions, points of view, and wants of the general public, processed records, code them statistically and then forward them to a higher administrative authority after which they are tabled at the *People's Supreme Conference* in Tripoli for a final discussion. This discussion was televised for the public to follow. The results were then forwarded in the form of decisions to the executive committees for implementation. In theory, this places the ordinary person at the heart of decision making. The decision starts from the people and then proceeds for implementation by higher authorities.

However, Libyan opposition in exile have been sceptical about the actual implementation of this system. It has been argued that all major decisions were made by Gaddafi unless these decisions were not of any importance to him in extending his rule over the country. People used to meet and express their wishes and desires about all aspects of life in the Libyan society but the actions taken by the executive committees were influenced by Gaddafi's perspectives in the first instance. Therefore, the decision making process is generally top-down, occurring in the opposite direction to that claimed by the former Libyan regime.

Education policy in general and English education policy in particular are no exception. The decisions regarding the adoption of particular curricula, teaching methods and methodology and the availability of resources and equipment for example are made by the Ministry of Education which runs primary and secondary school and the Ministry of Higher education which runs higher education in Libya. The former Ministry determines the objectives of the primary and secondary education, whereas the latter determines the objectives of the higher education in Libya (Youssef, 2012). However, these two government bodies are not at total liberty to manage education in Libya. After the American raid of the two Libyan cities of Tripoli and Benghazi in 1986, Gaddafi decided to suspend English education and to adopt anti-imperialist materials in all education levels in Libya. Another example of the former regime's influence on education is the adherence to Gaddafi's social, political, and economical perspectives in the English curricula of Libyan primary and secondary schools.

It appears little has changed in the governance of education since the Gaddafi years. Even though the higher authorities ask the stakeholders at lower administrative councils to prepare assessment reports and provide a description of the actual situation in schools, these authorities still make decisions without consideration of what stakeholders report. One of the stakeholders interviewed in the study conducted in Agdabia said:

We have been asked [in Agdabia council] to prepare a report and send it to the Ministry of Education to highlight our educational needs here in Agdabia with regard to all logistic and technical issues. You know that all major projects and decisions come from the Ministry of Education and we are only her executive department. We have to accept whatever comes from the Ministry, whether that has to do with curricula or labs for instance. These issues are planned for and done by the Ministry and every department and council of education all over Libya has to abide by these decisions. Whatever you find in Agdabia is exactly the same as what it is in Mustrate, Tripoli and Tubruk (translated from Arabic).

This is similar to how other policies were made during the rule of the former regime; listen to what the public and people in lower administrative councils say and then make the decisions on the basis of the agenda drawn by the highest authorities.

Some universities in Libya had internal rules and legislation but they were not enforced as they contradicted some interests of the former regime. For instance, each university student can fail and repeat the same course twice after the first attempt. When the student fails the first time, s/he can repeat the course twice with an academic warning placed on his/her file. In the case of failing the same course three times, the student is automatically suspended. However, the former regime rejected this policy in the name of supporting the youth and rejecting unfair treatment through decisions made at these universities. A stakeholder from the Agdabia faculty said:

Throughout the rule of the former regime, it was impossible to terminate the enrolment of any student because the former regime feared student anger and having them out of the university with nothing to think about. This could have led them to think about an uprising against the government (translated from Arabic).

The former government interfered in all academic and administrative aspects of education in general and English education in particular in schools and universities alike. The offices of the *revolutionary committees* and *revolutionary work teams* were the eyes of the former regime which monitored schools and universities in Libya and represented the highest authorities in them. The managers of these offices monitored and guided the Chancellors of the universities, for example, and could investigate or replace them if necessary. No materials were allowed in these schools and universities if they contradicted the former regime's perspectives.

The situation is still unstable and the respective governments that came to power in Libya after the 2011 revolution were busy with security matters and pursuing the former regime's pockets of resistance inside and outside of the country. There is also a tendency to change all decisions made during the rule of the former regime. As far as education is concerned, a stakeholder from the Agdabia council pointed out:

...the educational system in Libya after the revolution has been changed mostly because of the public tendency to change anything that was done by the former regime. I strongly support the specialised high schools in Agdabia and am against returning to leading only two high school branches in Libya. Specialization in high schools is now becoming an international system and it was not invented by Mumaar Algdhafi" (translated from Arabic).

Thus, decisions are mainly influenced by the emotions of the current stakeholders and are not practically considered. There are no other obvious reasons for taking such major decisions, nor is it clear whether the other overall objectives of education drawn by the former regime are still valid in the Libya of post 2011.

Developing the ELT situation in Libya

To enhance the quality of the current English education in Libya, the overall policies need to be revised. They need to be based on formal and conventional considerations rather than on personal relationships and emotions of individuals (Tempelhof & Omar, 2012). English

education should enhance the communicative capacities of the Libyan learners of English and this can only be done through a plan that guarantees reaching this goal within a given timeframe. The current objectives of English education in Libya are mainly communicative but the implementation of the plans put in place by the authorities to achieve these goals hinders the achievement of these desired goals. This calls into question the capacities of the administration in all regions of the country. The communicative English curricula developed for Libyan schools which were considered as a departure from traditional English instruction in Libya (Orafi & Borg, 2009), for instance, were filtered and taught through traditional methods of teaching. Soliman (2013) considers these curricula weak and ineffective because of the excessive use of Arabic in teaching English, the short time allocation and the use of traditional methods of teaching.

Conducting continuous teacher professional development courses and monitoring all those involved in the education process and considering the needs of the learners are factors which our study identified to enhance the quality of English education in Libya. These are necessary steps to be taken in Libya to encourage the teachers of English to lead innovative and modern methods of teaching required by the current English curricula adopted in schools. Therefore, the administration in these schools, and in the different councils in all regions of Libya, needs similar courses to our seven-week course in professional development.

Libya has achieved remarkable success in enhancing the literacy rate in the country by increasing the budget for education and making it free and accessible for all Libyans and putting new plans in place to improve education. The literacy rate of 40% in 1970 increased to 89% in 2011, which is substantially higher than that of the Middle East and North African average of around 77% (World Bank, 2013). However, the unsatisfactory wage for Libyan teachers is also a crucial factor that contributes a barrier to implementation of plans to improve education in addition to other factors such as financial and administrative corruption.

The abovementioned recommendations align with the findings of the study conducted in the Agdabia faculty. It has been found out that the pre-service teachers of English require more learner-oriented instruction and to focus on interactive, cooperative group learning instead of silent individual learning which is based on receiving knowledge from the teachers and textbooks, storing that knowledge in their minds and recalling it in examinations. They need to be provided with a less threatening learning environment where teachers focus more on learning the language instead of passing exams and obtaining high scores. Listening and speaking should be given more time and be practised in classrooms. The needs of the learners should be taken into account when choosing the materials for these activities. The nature of their future responsibilities should also be considered and therefore the materials they will be required to use and the methods required for delivering these materials should be mastered by the pre-service teachers of English before graduating university. Other administrative issues need to be attended to as well. Adequate equipment needs to be provided as well as access to well-resourced libraries and high speed internet for both lecturers and students so that authentic English texts (Guariento & Morley, 2011; Soliman, 2013) can be sourced and can drive innovation in the new curriculum.

Conclusion

Since Gaddafi took control of the country in 1969, Libya has witnessed frequent changes in various sectors, particularly in the political, educational and economic domains. This instability was considered by Libyan opposition leaders in exile as a result of Gaddafi's controversial psychological state. It was also believed to be deliberately maintained by Gaddafi as part of his internal policies to sustain his rule over Libya. Regardless of the reasons, this state of instability and lack of long term plans to develop the country has negatively affected the country in various ways, including English education.

Despite the effort and the time spent to develop English education in Libya, English has not become a *Lingua Franca* in Libyan society. The industrial and economic situation of the country required the use of English in Libya; however, various barriers have hindered the attempts to develop English. One important reason for such limited English language development is the change planners' failure to adequately consider what support classroom teachers will need, when, and for how long (Wedell, 2003). A systematic review of classroom resources and professional development is required if teachers are to be helped to make the transition from a grammar translation to a communicative curriculum and to subvert the practice of teaching to a focus on learning. Other barriers include the social and cultural nature of the Libyan society and the overall attitude of the Libyan people towards accepting a different language to Arabic which may threaten the national identity and mother tongue of the Libyans.

The case study research conducted at the faculty of Agdabia provides a glimpse of the difficulties encountered in introducing an alternative curriculum to Libyan learners and teachers of English. The study revealed that the adoption of CLT in Libya will require the serious involvement of all of those concerned, starting with the Libyan Ministry of Education who should consult teachers and learners of English, and other stakeholders in all Libyan regions, with a plan to run professional development programs with teachers. This program should be run by Libyans who are skilled in implementation of CLT and should involve culturally sensitive modelling of teaching methods within the CLT approach.

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