

An investigation of the experiences of newly graduated English Language Teachers (ELT) in their first years in Libyan schools: a case study in post-conflict Tripoli

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Abstract

This thesis analyzes the experiences, perceptions and views of a group of newly graduated teachers in post-conflict Tripoli, Libya. The focus of the study was on the first year teachers of English as a foreign language EFL and the aim was to gain an insight into those teachers' experiences and the contextual factors that shaped them. The present study adopts communities of practice (CoP) as the conceptual framework for exploring the newly graduated teachers' experience and perceptions in post-conflict Libya. In particular, the study attempts to identify the elements within CoP: mutual engagement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire to allow me to interpret the data.

The data for the study come from three main sources: (a) semi-structured interviews with eleven teachers, (b) two expert teachers, (c) three headteachers, (d) the manager of the Education Development Centre and (e) focus group interviews with three inspection office managers and (f) documentary analysis.

The results suggested that the newly graduated teachers' experiences in the context of the study are influenced by several factors that interact together to make these experiences unique and a contextually situated phenomenon. These factors are: (a) the conflict, which has diminished the opportunities for integration, learning, and establishing relationships so that any CoP was precluded from existence, b) the social restriction, (c) personal characteristics, (d) the discrepancies between their teacher preparation programmes and the requirements of teaching. Within each of these broad categories, there are also sub-categories such as age barrier, the impact of the conflict which further demonstrates the complexity of this situation and how this shapes the development of teachers. The thesis finishes by recommending that further research is needed conducted to explore the experiences of newly graduated teachers in other parts of the country to obtain a clear picture of this category of teachers. A reform of teacher education programme in this context will contribute to the development of these teachers. Formal training sponsored by the government would be the means through which these teachers can be trained and developed in the absence of any professional communities due to the reasons mentioned earlier.

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Table of Contents

Abstract.....	2
Acknowledgements.....	3
Table of Contents.....	4
List of Figures.....	11
List of Tables.....	13
Chapter 1 : Introduction.....	14
1.1 Introduction.....	14
1.2 Aims of the study and research questions.....	15
1.3 Contribution of the research.....	15
1.4 Structure of the thesis.....	16
1.5 Chapter Summary.....	17
Chapter 2 : The Context of the Study.....	18
2.1 Introduction.....	18
2.2 A brief geographical and historical view about Libya.....	18
2.3 An Overview of Education in Libya.....	20
2.4 Development of the Educational System in Libya.....	21
2.5 Enrolment in Higher Education.....	23
2.6 English Language Teaching (ELT) in the Libyan context.....	25
2.7 The New English language Curriculum.....	26
2.8 English in Basic Education.....	27
2.8.1 English in Secondary Education.....	28
2.8.2 English at university Level.....	29
2.9 ELT specialization at university level.....	29
2.9.1 ELT specialization at college and higher institutes for teacher training.....	32
2.10 ELT in the private sector.....	36
2.11 Females and teaching in Libya.....	36
2.12 English Language Inspectors in Libya.....	37
2.13 Chapter Summary.....	37
Chapter 3 : Literature Review.....	39
3.1 Introduction.....	39
3.2 Experiences of the First Years of Teaching.....	40

3.2.1 Reality shock.....	40
3.2.2 Role Conflict.....	47
3.2.3 Isolation and loneliness.....	49
3.3 Challenges of Second Language Teachers.....	49
3.4 Part 2- Beginner teachers' needs.....	53
3.5 Introduction.....	53
3.6 Conceptualization of socialization.....	54
3.7 Teacher socialization.....	55
3.7.1 Stages of Socialization.....	57
3.7.2 Changes during the Socialization Process.....	61
3.8 The Importance of Induction and Mentoring.....	64
3.9 Teacher Education and First Year Teaching Experience.....	68
3.10 Types of Knowledge.....	69
3.10.1 Practical Knowledge.....	69
3.10.2 Pedagogical Content knowledge (PCK).....	72
3.10.3 Subject Matter Knowledge (content knowledge) SK.....	75
3.10.4 Pedagogical (practical) Knowledge (PK).....	78
3.10.5 Knowledge of Self.....	80
3.10.6 Teachers' Knowledge of Learners.....	81
3.10.7 Teachers' Knowledge of the Curriculum.....	82
3.10.8 Knowledge of Educational Contexts.....	85
3.11 TP Experiences.....	86
3.12 EFL teacher and TP experience.....	88
3.13 Significance of TP.....	89
3.14 Chapter Summary.....	92
Chapter 4 : The conceptual framework: Communities of Practice.....	93
4.1 Introduction.....	93
4.2 Learning in situated learning theory (Learning as socially situated activity).....	93
4.3 Learning as becoming.....	94
4.4 Communities of Practice.....	96
4.4.1 Mutual Engagement.....	98
4.4.2 Enabling engagement.....	99

4.4.3 Diversity and Partiality	99
4.5 Joint enterprise	100
4.5.1 Accountability	100
4.6 Shared repertoire	101
4.7 Identity	102
4.7.1 Defining and maintaining identity	103
4.8 Chapter Summary	104
Chapter 5 : Research Methodology	105
5.1 Introduction.....	105
5.2 Aims of the study and research questions	105
5.3 Research Paradigm.....	106
5.4 Research Approach	109
5.5 Case study	109
5.5.1 Rationale of case study	111
5.6 Distinctive Characteristics of Case Studies	111
5.6.1 Particularity.....	111
5.6.2 Complexity.....	112
5.6.3 Contextualization	112
5.6.4 Multiple sources of data.....	113
5.6.5 Flexible design	113
5.7 Limitations of Case study	114
5.7.1 Criticisms of case study research	114
5.8 Types of case studies	115
5.8.1 Exploratory	115
5.8.2 Instrumental	115
5.8.3 Multiple case.....	117
5.9 The study type.....	118
5.10 Case Study and Beginner teacher research	119
5.11 Sampling	120
5.12 The setting.....	123
5.13 Methods of data generation.....	124
5.14 Interviews.....	125

5.14.1 Strengths of interviews	127
5.14.2 Limitations of interview.....	127
5.14.3 Semi-structured interviews	128
5.14.4 Focus group interviews	130
5.15 Observations	133
5.15.1 The role of the observer	136
5.16 The researcher’s diary.....	137
5.17 Documents	138
5.18 The Piloting Stage.....	139
5.18.1 Procedures of the Pilot Study.....	139
5.18.2 Experience gained from the Pilot Study	139
5.19 Ethical considerations	140
5.19.1 Access and Acceptance.....	141
5.19.2 Informed consent	141
5.19.3 Confidentiality	142
5.19.4 Protection from harm	142
5.20 Stages of Data Analysis	143
5.20.1 Introduction.....	143
5.20.2 Familiarizing yourself with the Data	145
5.21 Generating Initial Codes	147
5.21.1 Searching for Themes	151
5.22 Reviewing Themes.....	152
5.23 Defining and Naming Themes	153
5.24 Trustworthiness of the study	153
5.24.1 Introduction.....	153
5.24.2 Credibility	155
5.24.3 Prolonged engagement.....	155
5.24.4 Persistent observation	156
5.24.5 Triangulation.....	156
5.24.6 Transferability.....	157
5.24.7 Thick description	158
5.24.8 Purposive sampling.....	158

5.24.9 Reflexive journal.....	159
5.24.10 Dependability	159
5.24.11 Confirmability	160
5.25 My position as a single female researcher in post-conflict Libya.....	161
5.26 Chapter Summary	168
Chapter 6 : Data Analysis 1	170
Operationalization of Communities of Practice.....	170
6.1 Introduction.....	170
6.2 Mutual engagement.....	171
6.2.1 Seeking Opportunities to Learn within the Community	171
6.2.2 Limitation of integration	181
6.3 The impact of the conflict	181
6.4 Age barrier	182
6.5 Lack of Confidence.....	185
6.6 Summary of mutual engagement	187
6.7 Joint enterprise	187
6.8 Summary of Joint Enterprise	195
6.9 Shared repertoire	195
6.10 Summary of shared repertoire.....	197
6.11 Significant Experiences	197
6.11.1 Lack of Pedagogical knowledge	198
6.11.2 Lack of subject matter knowledge SK	200
6.11.3 No interest in teaching	203
6.11.4 False view about Teaching.....	204
6.11.5 Summary of significant experiences	206
6.12 Data Analysis 2: Teacher Education.....	206
6.12.1 Introduction.....	206
6.12.2 Teacher preparation programmes at university.....	207
6.12.3 Teacher preparation programme at Teacher Training institutions	212
6.12.4 Teaching practice programme (TP)	215
6.13 The impact of the conflict	217
6.13.1 Vignette 1: Reserve.....	218

6.13.2 Vignette: 2 -The transitional Stage	221
6.14 The expert teacher support.....	223
6.15 The Inspection Office	224
6.16 The Education Development Centre (EDC)	226
6.17 Data Analysis 3: Teacher Development and Identity	227
6.17.1 Introduction.....	227
6.17.2 Perception of teacher development (Teachers’ perception of themselves).....	228
6.17.2.1 Perception as being unqualified	228
6.17.2.2 Teachers’ perceptions as being beginners.....	234
6.18 Perception of Development.....	241
6.19 Areas of Development	244
6.20 Defining and maintaining identities.....	245
6.20.1 Defining identity	246
6.21 Chapter Summary	251
Chapter 7 : Discussion and findings	252
7.1 Introduction.....	252
7.2 The significant experiences.....	253
7.3 Limitation of integration	253
7.4 Opportunities to learn within the community	254
7.5 Lack of Confidence.....	256
7.6 Teacher Preparation Programme (RQ2)	257
7.6.1 Introduction.....	257
7.7 Graduates of Arts	259
7.8 Graduates of teacher training colleges	264
7.9 My comments on the main complaints	268
7.10 Teacher Development	270
7.10.1 Introduction.....	270
7.11 Teachers’ perceptions of themselves	271
7.12 Perception of training and development	275
7.13 Identity construction	278
7.14 A critique of CoP conceptualization	283
7.14.1 Introduction.....	283

7.14.2 Antagonism and the community	284
7.14.3 Other sources of conflict	285
7.14.4 A new view of becoming	287
7.14.5 Chapter Summary	289
Chapter 8 : Conclusion and Recommendations	290
8.1 Introduction.....	290
8.2 Summary of the Main Findings	290
8.3 Contribution to Knowledge.....	292
8.4 Limitation of the study.....	292
8.5 Recommendations for Future Research	294
References.....	296
Appendix 1-School Description and Teacher’s profile.....	307
Appendix 2: School Description and Teacher’s profile.....	309
Appendix 3: School Description and Teacher’s profile.....	311
Appendix 4: School Description and Teacher’s profile.....	315
Appendix 5- Questions for Interview 1.....	321
Appendix 6: Questions for Interview 2.....	323
Appendix 7: Questions for Interview 3.....	325
Appendix 8: An example of observation notes (1)	327
Appendix 9: An example of observation notes (1)	328
Appendix 10: An example of observation notes (2)	329
Appendix 11: An example of observation notes (3)	330
Word count: 85,795	

List of Figures

Figure 1 Map of Libya -Source: World Fact Book 2011	19
Figure 2: Structure of the Education System in Libya Source: Libya. World Data on Education (2007) adapted from (Tamtam et al, 2011).....	22
Figure 3 Criteria for judging the quality of quantitative versus qualitative research.....	154
Figure 4 Summary of Techniques for Establishing Trustworthiness in this study	161

List of Abbreviations

NGTs	Newly graduated teachers
TEFL	Teaching English as a foreign language
ITE	initial teacher education/ initial teacher training
CoP	Communities of Practice
PK	Practical knowledge
PCK	pedagogical content knowledge
SK	Subject matter Knowledge (content knowledge)
PPK	Pedagogical (practical) knowledge
MoE	Ministry of Education
EDC	The Education Development Centre
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
TP	Teaching Practice

List of Tables

Table 1: secondary school distribution	24
Table 2 Courses at Faculty of Arts	31
Table 3 Courses at College of Education.....	33
Table 4 Courses at higher institutes for teacher training.....	34
Table 5 Courses at college for teacher training.....	35
Table 6 Data Generating Methods	125
Table 7 Phases of Thematic Analysis (Braun & Clrake, 2006, p. 87)	145
Table 8 Codes and Subcodes (R.Q.1)	149
Table 9 codes for R.Q.2	150
Table 10 codes for R.Q.3	151
Table 11 Subjects taught in English at university and the time spent.....	207
Table 12 Subjects taught in English at the college of education, and time spent	211
Table 13 Subjects taught in English and time spent at the higher	212
Table 14 Subjects taught in English at teacher training college and time spent	213
Table 15 Teachers distribution and qualification.....	320

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This study is about the experiences of newly graduated teachers of English as a foreign language (henceforth NGTs of EFL). One factor behind the choice of topic was my own personal interest in teaching. I have always been fascinated by the working of the English language, both as a student and even more so as a teacher and teacher trainer in the field of teaching English. As a student, I have always enjoyed learning about it at all levels and as a teacher, I have found teaching satisfying but challenging. As a teacher trainer, I have been intrigued by the variety of attitudes of teachers towards teaching and particularly those expressed by newly graduated teachers (NGTs) I worked with during the teaching practice stage TP or actual teaching at different levels. Before I started doing my PhD, I participated in a private course in which one of the newly graduated teachers came to me asking how to plan and conduct her lesson. She was terribly confused. Then I thought of focusing on the NGTs experiences in their first year. I was also motivated to conduct this study by what I saw as a clear need for such work in the field of EFL teacher education especially in my context where such categories of teachers are less investigated. I thought of how this category of teachers might learn and develop. These thoughts informed my first proposal of the current study.

While considering the specifics of preparation and training for FEL teachers, I identified communities of practice (Wenger, 1998) as a means to learn, develop and build identity as EFL teachers through experiencing the main features: mutual engagement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire. Operationalization of the main features of the theory, allowed me for the first time to understand my data and go deeper to interpret the teachers' experiences, expectations and their views of developing themselves in post-conflict Libya.

This study was an interpretive qualitative case study involving 11 NGTs, two expert teachers and 4 inspectors, three headteachers and the manager of the Education Development Centre EDC sampled purposively. All the NGTs were appointed to one of four state run schools: The White School, The Beam of Knowledge, Tripoli Castle and Al-Manahal School (pseudonyms) in Libya. I generated data through semi- structured interviews, observations, and analysis of selected documents.

1.2 Aims of the study and research questions

The study investigates the experiences, perspectives and challenges of NGTs of English in the post- conflict Libyan context. It also aims at understanding the relationship between teacher education programmes and NGTs' early classroom experiences in formulating those experiences. In addition, it explores these teachers' views of themselves and the development of their knowledge and building their identity as EFL teachers in post-conflict Libya. The research questions will be explored fully in chapter 4 but I placed them here to highlight. In particular, the study is designed with a view to answer the following research questions:

RQ1-What are newly graduated EFL teachers' perceptions of their experiences during their first years of teaching in post-conflict Libya?

RQ2- RQ2-How are EFL newly graduated teachers prepared for their teaching practice? What type of preparation is it? Who offers it if there is any?

RQ3- How do those teachers perceive the development of their knowledge, and identities as teachers of English?

1.3 Contribution of the research

The study is a contribution to knowledge as it explored the experiences and perspectives of a sample of newly graduated Libyan teachers of English in post-conflict Libya. This is the first study conducted in this post-conflict context to include this category of teachers.

I applied communities of practice as the conceptual framework and operationalize its elements to analyze my data and this approach is also new in studying teachers' experiences. The findings of this study reveal that the conflict precluded the development of communities of practice and therefore, these teachers had limited opportunities for learning and developing themselves. The application of Wenger's communities of practice theory to a novel context; the unique context of post conflict- Libya with all its political, cultural and social complexity is a significant contribution to the knowledge . My unique position as a researcher who is culturally, linguistically and professionally insider to the context of the research illustrates my immersion in the context transferring a clear picture of the conflict and the extent of its effects. This insider position gave me a unique position to magnify the instants of the participants and decode their verbal and physical responses. An outsider to the cultural context would not be able to decode guarded responses or hints of the participants in different occasions in the manner I did.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

Following this introductory chapter, in chapter two, I present the context of the study and give a detailed description of the educational system in Libya. This includes the historical development of education up to the present day with focus on teaching English at all levels. Chapter three looks critically at the literature review which is divided into two parts; part one presents the various experiences of the beginner teachers while the second part covers teacher education. As the literature review will indicate, I have searched systematically.

Chapter four presents the importance of the theoretical framework and so commences the explanation of the conceptualizations. I first discuss learning as viewed by situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and communities of practice (CoP) (Wenger, 1998). Furthermore, it is where I seek to discuss community, learning and identity, which are at the heart of this research. It explores the essential elements of CoP; mutual engagement,

joint enterprise and shared repertoire and attempts to locate the NGTs experiences within this framework. Building identity is another issue of great importance to the NGTs.

In Chapter five, I present the methodology starting with an explanation of the research design, then highlighting the negotiation of access, selection of participants, pilot study, data generation process and data analysis. It also explains the ethical issues and the trustworthiness of the study.

Chapter six attempts to more closely analyse the data by operationalization of the elements of CoP to help me answer my questions and to consider how to conceptualize the findings of this study in order to better understand how perceptions and the experiences of the NGTs were formed and maintained in post-conflict Libya. It also attempts to describe and justify the impact of the conflict on the formation of experience, identity and professional development.

Chapter seven presents the discussion of the findings and a critique of CoP based on the findings of this study. I make some general conclusions about the contributions, limitations and implications of the study, ending with suggestions for further research in the last chapter.

1.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter highlighted the structure of the thesis by identifying the significant stages of the research and giving a brief account on the route of each. However, in order to fully understand teachers' experiences, views of themselves and their identity development in post-conflict Libya, it is necessary to understand the educational context in which they participate. This is the subject of the next chapter.

Chapter 2: The Context of the Study

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to provide some features of the context where this study has been conducted. It starts by presenting a brief account of the geographical and historical situation of Libya, an overview of its education in general and its development. It also sheds light on higher education and provides background information about the status of English in this context. Then I move on to a discussion of English language teaching at the university level and the private sector. The last part elaborates the journey of teacher education in this context.

2.2 A brief geographical and historical view about Libya

Libya is a North-African country having borders with 6 countries; Tunisia and Algeria in the west, Egypt and Sudan in the east and Chad and Niger in the south. It is the fourth largest country in Africa with an area of 1,759,540 sq. km (679,358 sq. miles). It has a Mediterranean Sea coastline of about 1,900 kilometres where almost 80% of its population reside and carry out agricultural and some industrial activities. A large area of the country is in the Great Sahara where life is mostly only possible in the many oases where water and some flora exist. Oil, gas and some petrochemicals are the main products that contribute to the national income of the country.

Historically, in the 7th century B.C the Phoenicians colonized the eastern part of Libya, while the Greeks colonized the western part where both built cities and harbours. Remnants of colonists still bear witness of that era. Then it became part of the Roman Empire from 46 B.C. to A.D. 436, after which it was sacked by the Vandals. The eastern part belonged to the Roman Empire from the 1st century B.C. until its decline. The Arabs conquered it in 642 and it was ruled by different Arab governors throughout the various eras. In the beginning of the 16th century, it became part of the Ottoman Empire from 1551-1912.

Following the outbreak of hostilities between Italy and Turkey in 1911, Italian troops occupied Tripoli. The Libyans continued to fight the Italians until 1914. Then Italy controlled most of the colony; the fourth coast of Italy as it was called. During the Italian colonial period, Italian was the medium of instruction and Arabic was only taught as a school subject. Such restriction led most Libyans to refuse to enrol their children in schools and resort to religious education in Kuttab and Quranic schools. Therefore, Italian could not be rooted in Libya as the French language was in Tunisia and Algeria. Opportunities for learning were more accessible to male students than to their female counterparts and mainly in urban rather than rural areas. In 1943, Libya came under Allied administration (Clark, 2004, p.1). In 1951 it became the United Kingdom of Libya.



Figure 1 Map of Libya -Source: World Fact Book 2011

In September 1969, Colonel Muammar Al-Qaddafi came to authority in the bloodless revolution against the Kingdom. After 42 years of dictatorship, Libyan people with the

help of NATO led a bloody upheaval against the tyrant to move the country towards a new era.

2.3 An Overview of Education in Libya

During The Ottoman era, Quranic schools or Kuttabs provided traditional religious education that focused on religious studies, and Arabic language (Arabsheibani, 2001). Enrolment in these schools was limited to a small category of Libyan people who lived in cities and towns whereas females were deprived of learning except in a few cases of certain relatively liberated families at that time (AlMoghani, 2003). Institutes and colleges were distributed throughout all parts of Libya. Graduate and postgraduate studies could be continued in Zawiyas (places for learning), prestigious university and mosques such as El-Azhar in Egypt, Al-Zaytuna in Tunisia, and the University of Al-Karaounie or Al-Qarawiyyin in Morocco and in Turkey as well.

The educational system in the colonist era “was designed to prepare workers and clerks who were supported to be appointed in works defined and specified by the colonizers ” and was “ oriented towards serving the interests of others” not the Libyan citizens (AlMoghani, 2003, p. 18). Libyan people resisted this system with a counter education system Islamic education, which contributed to the flourish in the Quranic schools.

In the Kingdom era, education was guaranteed to all Libyans. Arabic began to be used in school. Then Education became compulsory up to the end of class 6. Single sex schools were established. In addition to that, students started learning foreign languages such as English and French in preparatory and secondary schools. Female education developed rapidly through the encouragement of education and the establishment of schools and institutes for females only. Many new institutes and training centres were established in urban and rural areas. Compulsory education continued to the end of basic education which consisted of 9 years; 6 years primary school and 3 years in preparatory school at that time, which is equivalent to classes 1-9 in the current system in Libya.

2.4 Development of the Educational System in Libya

As in many other countries, the educational system in the context of this study has been designed to include various age groups starting from kindergarten to adult students in graduate and post-graduate studies. It has witnessed an expansion in the number of students enrolled in all stages and provisions of various forms of educational services. However, although the political situation changed after the Revolution of 17th February; the current regime, the educational system has not been changed yet as the country is going through a transition period.

The contemporary education system is divided into kindergarten, basic and secondary. Kindergarten varies in terms of years and programmes. It is optional and mainly managed by the private sector in most cases. It aims at preparing children aged four and five years for actual school. Basic education comprises 9 nine years of study and caters for the age group of 6-15 years. It is divided into 6 years primary school which includes classes 1-6, and 3 years preparatory schools including classes 7-9. Successful pupils at the end of preparatory school are awarded the Basic Education Certificate which allows them to join general secondary school or intermediate institutes for vocational training. Those who fail the final exams have the chance to resit the exam, but if they do not pass they resit the year. Resitting the whole year can take up to two years. Secondary (intermediate) comprises 3 years of education and training. Students in this stage are in the 15-19 years age group. It includes general secondary school education and vocational training institutions and centres. This stage is open to all students. The Ministry of Education (MoE) issued the decision NO.165/2006 which classifies secondary school specialization according to these disciplines: basic sciences focus on mathematics and physics, engineering sciences study the sciences of engineering and construction; life sciences cover chemistry, biology, botany, zoology, geology. Social sciences and humanities focus languages including Arabic, English, French, Swahili and Hausa languages and others while economic sciences focus on accounting, administration, economics and banking.

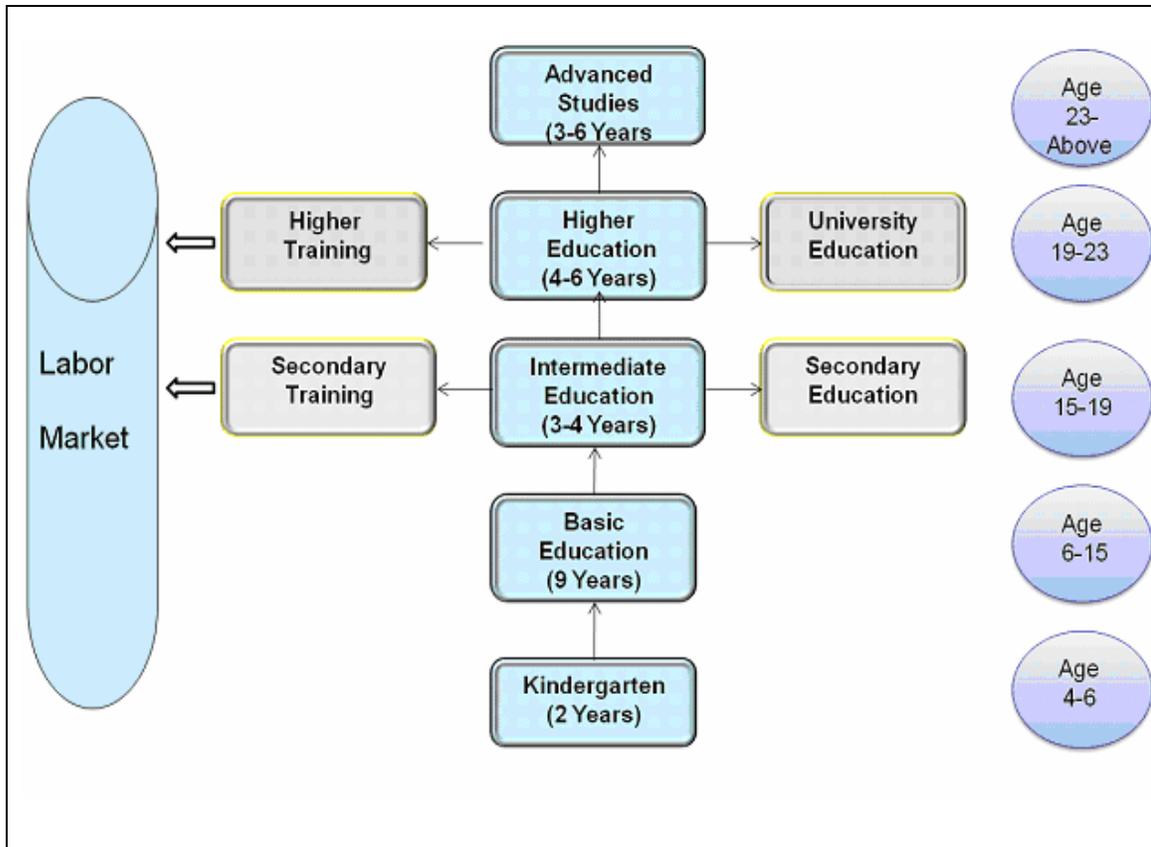


Figure 2: Structure of the Education System in Libya Source: Libya. World Data on Education (2007) adapted from (Tamtam et al, 2011).

Very recently compulsory education has been extended from basic education to the end of the general secondary stage. It is fully funded by the government, which takes responsibility and decisions for curriculum development, regulating admission to schools, teacher provision, and training, building and establishing schools, institutes, universities across the country, examinations, inspection and educational and cultural foundations, and offering scholarships (Orfai & Borg, 2009).

Higher education is offered in universities and higher vocational institutes. Admission to both institutions requires gaining a certificate or diploma awarded at the end of

secondary school after passing examination at a general secondary school or intermediate institute. The increasing demand for university education, in particular, has led universities to require high grades exceeding 85% in secondary school certificates. This is a national standard examination similar to British A levels, in which all students have a written exam in all subjects at the same time in all parts of Libya regardless of specializations. The result of this exam determines the route a student will follow in his or her future. Therefore, for admission in faculties such as medical facilities, and engineering, students are required to achieve excellent grades in their secondary school certificates; that is, over 85%, whereas students having lower grades of up to 65% can join higher training institutes and vocational institutes and centres.

2.5 Enrolment in Higher Education

Studying at universities in Libya does not differ much from one institution to another in terms of grades of acceptance, regulations, length of study and subjects of studies. The difference seems to be in classification of subjects under different labels. This diversity emerges from the idea of centralization; the most prestigious universities usually have more facilities and equipment such as laboratories, libraries and accommodation. Thus the majority of students prefer to study at the most prestigious universities in the country; Tripoli and Benghazi, with their many colleges and centres. Below is a table (1) of university and higher institute departments that students can join after obtaining secondary school certificates according to specializations.

Table 1: secondary school distribution

No	Division	University Faculties- Students enrol in
1	Basic Sciences	Sections of the Faculty of Science (Maths-Statistics, Physics, Earth-computer -Meteorology, Teacher Training Colleges and Higher Vocational Training Centres)
2	Engineering Sciences	Various Sections of the Faculty of Engineering, and Teacher Training Colleges and Higher Vocational Training Centres.
3	Life Sciences	Medicine, Dentistry, Pharmacy, Veterinary, Medical Technology, Teacher Training College, Higher Institutes of Health, Faculty of Science Departments (plants and animals).
4	Economic Sciences	Economics, Accounting, Administrative Sciences, Colleges of Teacher Training colleges and Higher Vocational Training Centres.
5	Social Sciences	Literature, Law, Political Sciences, Physical Education-Arts and Media
6	Languages	Language Departments in Faculty of Arts and Teacher Training Institutes

(Education, 2008)

Furthermore, students who want to study petroleum sciences prefer to go to Berega University whereas students wanting to study Islamic sciences can join Al-Asmaryia University or the Private Universities according to the individual's circumstance. University students are not however obliged to study in Tripoli or Benghazi. Their branches and others are distributed across cities and towns. Universities award degrees at bachelors, master and doctorate levels while higher institutions award diplomas. Postgraduate studies are offered by almost all Libyan Universities with a variety of subjects and degrees awarded. The main institutions in terms of awarding masters and doctorates are Tripoli, Benghazi, Sebah, Misurata, Al-Zawia, Omar Al-Mukhtar, Al-Asmaryia Universities and the Academy of Graduate Studies.

Recently The MoE has decided to offer a monthly grant for all students at university and higher institutes as a means of encouraging them to obtain higher degrees of education and give them a different view of the new regime. Students at universities and higher institutes had previously received monthly grants until these were cancelled in 1982. Furthermore, universities and some higher institutes still offer free accommodation to national and international students.

2.6 English Language Teaching (ELT) in the Libyan context

Teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) was started in 1946 during the British administration. English FL is the term used in this thesis as it merely the “non-native language taught in school but has no status as a routine medium of communication” (Crystal, 1997, p. 1997). Therefore, Libyan students are exposed to English language only during the classroom activities (AL Moghani, 2003). The language does not play an institutional and social role in the community.

In the early stages of teaching the language a large number of the staff were foreigners coming mainly from Britain, the USA, Egypt, and Sudan. Then once Libyan students started graduating from intermediate institutes and universities, they gradually began to become involved in teaching. Mixed curricula adapted from Egyptian, Iraqi and British curricula were used. In 1961, the first Libyan series of books written by Gusbi and John was used for the preparatory stage. At the same time, secondary schools started to use the “Oxford English course for the Republic of Iraq”. Later in 1971, schools started using a new series for preparatory schools called “*English for Libya*” written by Gusbi and “*Further English for Libya*”, for secondary school written by Gusbi and John. It was based on the audio-lingual method and characterised by concentrating mainly on grammar issues, with no opportunity for group work or interactive activities. It introduced familiar topics in the learners’ culture followed by drills and exercises of the same pattern in the lessons. Then in 1982, Gusbi introduced “*Living English for Libya*”

which focused on memorization of isolated vocabulary, application of grammatical structures, translating and understanding reading texts (Abusrewel, 2002). In 1999-2000, preparatory schools started using a new series “*English for Libya*” written by Jenny Quintana and Bab Mardsen, published by Garnet Education UK and sponsored by the National Centre for Educational Planning and Vocational Training and this is still in use. Secondary schools have changed their curricula and textbooks completely; every secondary school of specialization has its own textbooks yet they are all published by Garnet publications (Al Moghani, 2003).

2.7 The New English language Curriculum

In 2000, a curriculum for English was adopted by the educational authorities in Libya. It is based on the Communicative Approach to English language teaching CLT. It is a series consisting of course books, workbooks, teachers’ books and CDs and is called “*English for Libya*”. The course was written by a committee representing the National Education and Research Centre in Libya and the Garnet publishing company, based in the UK (Orafi, 2008).

“The new curriculum is organized around activities based on communicative principles which promote meaningful and purposeful language use, receptive and productive, in oral and written contexts” (Orafi & Borg, 2009, p. 245). Within the CLT, English is recommended to be used in class as much as possible by the teacher and students as “the aim is for the students to communicate effectively and fluently with each other and to make talking in English a regular activity” (Macfarlane, 2000, p.3). The mother tongue has limited use. The activities are interactive, requiring pair work, and this is “a good opportunity for the students to speak the target language” (ibid, p.3) and develop communication skills.

The syllabi, a kind of ESP aim to prepare students to continue their education at a high level in universities and institutes that offer different specializations; that is for specific

studies see table (1). These syllabi introduce information for different specialty. The course books at different levels are structured in a similar way; each unit is divided into 11 lessons dedicated to reading, vocabulary and grammar, functional use of language, listening, speaking and writing. The first part of the unit is a core section that circulates around a theme and is studied by all students in the second and third years regardless of their specialization. It is developed in terms of vocabulary, grammar, and communicative functions of the materials used.

2.8 English in Basic Education

English was taught in primary school up to 1973 as a main subject in class 5 and 6 and was then restricted to preparatory school until 1986. Then there were major changes during the late 1980s and early 1990s, when teaching English was banned for many years as the result of political clashes between the former regime and the west after The Lockerbie case and other terrorist actions in Europe such as the West Berlin Discotheque incident. As a result of this, America attacked Libya in 1986, which stimulated the regime to ban teaching English at all levels as it was stated to be a kind of western cultural invasion. The teaching of English was banned from 1986-1993. Although the ban was subsequently lifted, it had an impact for many years on both students and teachers. English language teachers and inspectors had no jobs and were forced to teach subjects such as history or geography; an experience I encountered myself. The status of teachers declined which led many teachers to search for jobs other than teaching. Students of English were forced to change their specialization while others abandoned their studies and looked for jobs. The ban of teaching English has left long term effects on students as well as teachers.

Lately, English has been taught at primary school to pupils of grade five and six, with adoption of a new syllabus aimed at enabling them to learn the language at early stages. It is taught in most cases by specialist teacher graduates of higher institutes. It is a compulsory subject taught in 4 periods a week; that is three hours. Although the

materials used in ELT at primary levels are simple and schools lack appropriate facilities, this is still a good start towards a new phase for teaching of the language and responding to the repeated requests for teaching the language in primary school which is a new trend in the Libyan context. The syllabus aims at changing the status of English in the Libyan educational system. Proponents of this trend, look forward to it being taught as a second language in the near future instead of as a foreign language. This would be in keeping with other changes in other sectors of life in Libya.

Similarly, English is a basic subject in the preparatory school. The time allotted to the subject is 3 hours per week. Students who finish this stage are supposed to be above the elementary level, which enables them to join secondary schools of different specialization. However, a large number of students finish this stage still at a beginner level, which can be attributed to lack of facilities and equipment and the use of unqualified teachers.

2.8.1 English in Secondary Education

In secondary school, students study general English in their first year for 3 hours per week (4 periods a week, each period lasting 45 minutes). They also use a series of books published by Garnet publishing, with a different series for secondary and vocational education. In the second year, the subject is taught according to the specialization, such as basic sciences, life sciences, social sciences, engineering, agriculture, arts and media, economics, and English specialization. In such secondary schools, English is learned for special purposes; that is, is related to the student's particular subject of specialization.

English for special purposes in the Libyan context typically refers to teaching the language for the specialty such as engineering, life and basic sciences, Social sciences, economics and others in secondary schools. The aim of introducing the language of each specialization is to familiarize the students with the language earlier and to prepare them for university and higher studies (Orafi, 2008).

If they have secondary school certificates, Libyan students are supposed to be at least at the pre-intermediate or intermediate levels in relation to the difficulty of the material included in the syllabi, which is not well covered most of the time because of the lack of time allotted to the subject, and lack of facilities and teachers' training. Currently when they finish secondary schools, Libyan students have been exposed to English for 8 years of study as a school subject.

2.8.2 English at university Level

At the tertiary level, learning English varies according to the faculty and college. In scientific, medical and technical colleges and faculties, English language is a medium of instruction in almost all subjects. Students learn the language for the purpose of that particular field. They also study some non-specialist subjects in Arabic for the first two semesters in all medical and technical colleges. Most social sciences faculties teach general English or technical terms for two semesters while some do not teach English at all.

English is taught as a specialty in the departments of English in Faculties of Arts and Languages and some higher institutes for teacher training. Students who specialize in English can join the departments of English at universities and higher institutes based on the grades achieved in their secondary school diplomas and the entry exams of these institutions.

2.9 ELT specialization at university level

English as a specialization is taught at university in the faculties of Arts and Education for four years at undergraduate level. Students holding secondary school certificates of English specialization have priority in admission to study at these facilities, however, there are many students of other specializations. During the first year, four main aspects of the language are taught: reading comprehension, grammar, writing and speaking for a total of 14 hours per week; that is, 4 hours for each of the first three aspects and two

hours for speaking. Other additional subjects are studied in the first and second years and these include other languages such as French, German, Spanish and Russian. In the second year, they study the same aspects in addition to phonetics, literature and translation. In the third and fourth years, they study other aspects of the English language, such as linguistics, literature, and grammatical structures. Therefore, the first and second years are very important for such students because they still have the opportunity to improve their linguistic abilities. Graduates of the Faculty Arts are supposed to participate in further studies and research or work in other fields not including teaching. As this study shows, they are not prepared for teaching. Curricula at departments of English do not include teaching subjects of relevance to teaching methodology or teaching practice. However, many of the graduates, especially females find themselves involved in teaching sometimes reluctantly, and under certain social conditions obliged to accept teaching as a job, such is the situation of some teachers in the sample of this study. Such graduates will not have studied any pedagogical knowledge that would enable them to teach effectively. Studying in the Faculty of Arts does not qualify students to be teachers. Therefore, some graduates involved in teaching might encounter difficulties in teaching as the study will show. The table (2) indicates the subjects studied during the four years.

Table 2 Courses at Faculty of Arts

Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4
Grammar*	Grammar*	Grammatical structures*	Literature*
Reading comprehension*	Reading comprehension*	Phonetics *	Contrastive Analysis*
Writing *	Writing*	Translation *	Oral Practice*
Speaking *	Speaking*	Literature*	translation*
Arabic Language A	Arabic Language A	Creative writing*	Grammatical structures *
psychology	Foreign language+	Theoretical linguistics *	Phonetics *
Political culture A	Translation*	Applied linguistics *	Creative writing*
Foreign language+	Political culture A	Political culture A	Varieties*
	Foreign language+	Oral Practice*	Literary criticism*
	Literature*	Creative writing*	Applied linguistics*
			Theoretical linguistics *

* Subjects Taught in English

Subjects taught in Arabic

+Other languages

2.9.1 ELT specialization at college and higher institutes for teacher training

Some students, especially females, join colleges or higher institutes for teacher training at the undergraduate level. They do not differ in any way from other Libyan student colleagues as they are holders of a secondary school certificate or another equivalent certificate authorized by the Libyan MoE. The majority of the students have secondary school language specialization and they are given admission priority although students of other specializations might gain admission under certain circumstances, particularly those who are native speakers or have certificates in a language. Courses of study at these two institutions last four years, but the subjects and their contents differ from their equivalent at Faculty of Arts. The objectives of these places are to prepare and qualify student teachers to be qualified teachers of English at the basic and secondary schools in Libya. They are taught the language alongside certain pedagogic subjects, which differs from courses in the Faculty of Arts. However, many graduates of these institutes do not become teachers preferring to get jobs outside the education sector. Tables (4, 5) below indicates the subjects studied at these institutes. Studying at these two institutions qualifies students to be teachers after completing the required subjects in the specified time. The subjects studied in the faculty of education and higher institute of teacher training differ in type from those studied at the faculty of Arts in terms of exposure to materials of relevance to pedagogy and teaching.

Libyan students at these institutions would have teaching practice as part of their teacher preparation programme. Teaching practice in the Libyan context refers to the time when students would spend on practical teacher training while they were still students at the institutions. It “provides the primary opportunity for pre-service teachers to learn about, and in, the workplace, including testing ideas about their emerging teacher identity” (Pridham, 2013, p. 51). It enables them to “understand the full scope of a teacher’s role, to develop the capacity to learn from future experiences, and to accomplish the central purpose of teaching, helping all pupils to learn” (Schulz, 2005, p.148-149).

However, in 2004, the teaching practice period was cancelled by the MoE in the Libyan context for no definite reasons. The subject was then only taught theoretically in classes in both institutions under tutors' instruction. Students could ask what they would do in certain situations in class. Graduates of these colleges are assumed to be well-prepared and trained to teach English in preparatory and secondary schools. The reference to the teacher preparation programme in both institutions mentioned above is of great relevance to this study. Some teachers in the sample represent this category whose experiences and perceptions of themselves as EFL teachers as the findings will show were affected by their previous study.

Table 3 Courses at College of Education

Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
Writing*	Reading Comprehension*	Poetry*
Grammar*	Conversation*	Phonetics*
French Language+	Grammar*	Reading Comprehension*
Linguistics*	Writing*	Translation*
Literature*	Phonetics	Novel*
Reading Comprehension*	Linguistics*	Grammar*
Conversation*	Literature*	Writing*
Political orientation	Research methods*	Conversation*
Arabic language	Translation*	Syntax*
History of civilization	Foreign Language +	Applied Linguistics*
Introduction to Psychology	Islamic culture	The play*
	Arabic language	varieties*
	Political orientation	Project writing*
		Political orientation

* Subjects Taught in English

Subjects taught in Arabic

+Other language

Table 4 Courses at higher institutes for teacher training

Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4
Arabic language*	Educational psychology*	Educational guidance and counseling*	Assessment and measurement*
Islamic studies*	Bases of curricula*	Psychology of growth*	Practice teaching*
Political orientation*	General methodology*	Teaching Aids*	Reading comprehension
Introduction to education*	Methods of scientific research*	Reading comprehension	Grammar
Reading comprehension	Reading comprehension	Writing	Spoken English
Writing	Writing	Grammar	Introduction to linguistics
Grammar	Grammar	Spoken English	Instructional strategies
Language Laboratory	Spoken English	Literary reading	Teaching practice
Conversation Practice	Phonetics	Teaching Methodology	Project writing
	Principles of statistics and probability*	Political orientation*	Political orientation*
	Political orientation*		

Subjects Taught in English

* Subjects taught in Arabic

Table 5 Courses at college for teacher training

Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4
Creative writing*	writing*	Creative writing*	Creative writing*
Advanced Reading *	Advanced Reading*	Translation*	Grammatical structures*
Spoken English*	Grammar*	Advanced Reading*	Advanced Reading*
Phonetics*	Spoken English*	Advanced Spoken English*	Academic spoken English*
Assessment and measurement	Phonetics*	Grammatical structures*	Introduction to international literature*
Teaching Aids	Bases of curricula	Linguistic psychology*	Applied linguistics*
Political orientation	General Teaching Methodology	Psychology of growth	Project writing*
	Methods of scientific research*	Political orientation	Varieties*
	Educational Psychology		Practice teaching*
	Statistics		Psychological Health
	Political orientation		Political orientation

Subjects Taught in English*

Subjects taught in Arabic

2.10 ELT in the private sector

Education is financed by the private sector and ruled by regulations issued by the official educational authorities. English language teaching has grown rapidly because of the increasing need for individuals to improve their language in response to the new requirements of work and study in different fields of life such as working in the oil industry, and with companies. Language learning and training centres have changed completely in their attempts to cope with the development of teaching the English language throughout the world. There are no restrictions in terms of provision and quality of courses, unlike in other countries. For instance, in Tripoli, more than ten centres are authorised to arrange courses for international certificates. Therefore, students intending to take international exams do not, unlike previously, need to travel to other countries since some centres are licensed to conduct these exams, such as the Academy of Graduate Studies-the Language Centre, the Petroleum Institute, Al-Jewabi Teaching and Training Centre, Al-Waha Teaching and Training Centre, Al-Dehra Language Centre and others. These centres have connections with other universities and other centres in other countries. They also have native speaking staff. Although they are widely available, they are not affordable to everyone.

2.11 Females and teaching in Libya

A large number of Libyan females are engaged in teaching at different levels, as teaching is considered a more appropriate profession for women in the Libyan society than other jobs. The particularities of the conservative Libyan society pressurise women to accept certain professions such as teaching rather than staying at home and becoming completely dependent on their families or husbands. Libyan women in general prefer teaching to other jobs because they have limited contact with men. They can work for certain hours and leave whenever they finish. They also can bring their children to a nursery in school. They are often employed to the nearest school to their houses. Furthermore, education in Libya accepts graduates of all institutions, particularly women into teaching.

Focusing on female teachers is significant as the sample was all females and some were reluctant to join teaching. The social view of teacher's status leads many Libyan females to get involve in teaching as an option of establishing identity and participating in activities.

2.12 English Language Inspectors in Libya

Inspectors of English in Libya are former teachers who have been nominated to inspection after passing oral and written exams. They are chosen by the inspection office on the basis of their inspection reports for their last three years of involvement in actual teaching. These reports need to be very good in all aspects of evaluation. The inspector's job is to monitor, and evaluate teachers' performance and competency through conducting regular visits and attending classes with teachers to provide direct feedback on their performance and report back on it to the educational authority. Inspectors may contribute in a correction process of general national certificate examinations at national level. However, they do not participate in curriculum development which is a weaknesses in the inspection role in terms of development and innovations in education (Orfai, 2008). Referring to inspectors sheds light on their contribution in teacher learning in context.

2.13 Chapter Summary

This section provided some background about the context of this study. The discussion consisted of a brief description of the educational system, the status of English language at all levels, new trends and the need to change the current situation to respond to the changing demands of modern life.

This introduction is intended to help the reader who is not familiar with the history of the Libyan educational system or its development to get a simple idea of the Libyan context

and the conditions of teaching at different levels and the impacts of all these on teachers and the teaching –learning processes. It also sheds the light on teacher education programmes of different institutions which identifies their impacts on the formation of the teachers’ experiences and perceptions of themselves as EFL teachers.

Chapter 3: Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

It is important to review the existing literature “to get a sense of what we already know about a particular question or problem, to understand how it has been addressed methodologically, and to figure out where we need to go next with our research” (Norris & Ortega, 2006, p.5). In order to understand more about the topic under investigation, the literature on NGTs experiences are reviewed in the first part whilst the second part presents their needs.

Discussion of teaching affairs usually include four main categories; teachers, students, curricula and context. This category, teachers, is often accorded priority of consideration by educationalists and policy and decision-makers (Freeman, 2001). If the first category is the focus, a certain amount of attention should be paid to beginner or novice or newly graduated teachers. Beginners and NGTs, in this study, are defined as those who have just commenced teaching and still have very little experience (e.g. less than three years of actual involvement in teaching). They generally tend to have a lot of concerns regarding starting their new career as teachers (Farrell, 2008a). On one hand, a considerable number of those beginner teachers seem enthusiastic and to have tremendous commitment to making a difference (Farrell, 2008b). and a somewhat idealistic view of how to achieve their goals (Feiman-Nemser, 2003). They tend to look eagerly forward to the day when they will find themselves in a classroom and involved in authentic interactions with their students (Gordon & Maxey, 2000). On the other hand, others appear sceptical, anxious and considerably frightened of that day. However, NGTs are expected to experience hard times and encounter a lot of problems and situations which they did not anticipate during their first few years of study. According to Veenman (1984), those teachers might be quite unaware of the complexity of the learning to teach process and its dimensions. In addition, teachers may experience a kind of conflict

between learning to teach and learning to be a teacher. Later on in this study, this point will be clarified and dealt with in detail (when discussing role conflicting in 3.2.2).

This part of the literature review focuses on the major challenges and difficulties acknowledged to be more generally encountered by NGTs. Then it discusses the challenges that impede English language teachers, henceforth ELT teachers, in more detail. Furthermore, it considers the various techniques those teachers tend to adapt to assist them in coping with the obstacles they meet and achieving a balance that will provide stability and continuity in their teaching career. In order to achieve this, they tend to undergo certain stages. The next section deals first with common experiences of beginner teachers then considers ELT experiences in particular.

3.2 Experiences of the First Years of Teaching

Their first years of teaching represent a crucial, difficult and transitional period in almost all NGTs' lives. "Unlike other professions, there is no real opportunity for a period of gradual development" (Cheng & Pang, 1997, p.195). They are supposed to be equipped with sufficient knowledge, skills and awareness to perform their professional duties competently from day one. First year teaching experiences have been studied under different conceptualizations. The next section presents the most acknowledged challenges that beginners and NGTs face during the first few years of entering the teaching profession regardless of their specialty. At the outset, the challenge is "reality shock" which is a global application.

3.2.1 Reality shock

The transitional stage from the institutes or universities; from being students of teaching to teachers of students may represent a traumatic period in beginner teachers' lives. This phase is categorized as a sort of "reality shock" (Farrell, 2008a ; Kelchtermans, 2002 ; Veenman, 1984). Reality shock is defined by Veenman as " the collapse of the missionary ideals formed during teacher training by the harsh and rude reality of

everyday classroom life” (1984, p. 143). It is apparent that almost all beginner teachers experience such shock when they are assigned total responsibility for planning and delivering instruction for the first time. This phase may continue throughout the first year even into the early part of the second year of teaching, depending on the teachers themselves and the teaching environment. Likewise, this shock seems to be associated with the realization of beginner teachers that they lack the appropriate training and preparation to meet the increasing demands of teaching as a profession. Hence, it may be manifested in frustration, despair and failure as the dominant feelings, which in turn may lead, a substantial number of beginner teachers to abandon teaching entirely if they cannot find any means of support through all of its manifestations. For instance, Sabar (2004) found through interviewing the participants in her study in Israel that they experienced such feelings. In addition and as a result of such feelings, according to Sabar (2004), a considerable number of beginner teachers experience the feeling of losing confidence at certain stages in their early days in the teaching profession. Such a situation may have an impact on their teaching, and general life.

However, Veenman (1984) disagrees with using “reality shock” as a term. He argues:

It is a somewhat inappropriately used term, because it suggests that it is only a very short shock which one has to pass, like a swimmer who must acclimatize to cold water. In fact, the reality shock deals with assimilation of a complex reality which forces itself incessantly upon the beginning teachers, day in and day out. This reality must be mastered continually, especially in the first period of actual teaching (1984, p. 144).

It is believed that this shock is not merely a temporary period that quickly passes. On the contrary, it may last longer and may stigmatize the life of those teachers; its impact can influence further decisions taken by teachers. Beginner teachers cannot avoid it but they may utilize certain strategies to cope with it differently. A number of reasons may interfere and contribute to the extent and intensity of this shock and the results may often not be very positive. New teachers' capacity to tolerate this shock and its consequences tends to vary according to certain personal characteristics, such as motivation, interest in the profession itself and the ultimate desire to succeed in a teaching career.

Müller-Fohrbrodt, Colette, and Dann (1978) cited by (Veenman, 1984, 144) identified five indications of reality shock:

- Perceptions of problems: includes complaining about personal problems, psychological and physical fatigue.
- Change of behaviour: indicates changes in teaching behaviour opposing to one's belief.
- Change of attitude: refers to a shift in teaching methods.
- Changes in personality: refers to emotional changes.
- Leaving the teaching profession: indicates quitting teaching as a career.

These aspects outlined above can be generally experienced by a large number of beginner teachers, but not necessarily all. Those teachers stated that they attempted to adapt to a more democratic style of teaching at the beginning of their professional lives, and then changed their behaviour from student-centred teaching behaviours into a more authoritarian way in their attitude towards handling students in the classroom. For instance, the beginning teachers in Pennington and Richards' study understood that such activities are "against what they have been taught in their BA course(s)" (Pennington &

Richards, 1997, p. 168). They realized that those activities are unfeasible. A broad shift from idealism to realism usually happens in the early stage of entry to teaching (Farrell, 2008a). As a result of the shock, a considerable number of teachers complain that they were not provided with the knowledge base needed for teaching and “handling student discipline problems and classroom-behaviour disturbances” (Friedman, 2002). Other teachers may change their methods of teaching; they find that what they presumed to be effective, does not work with their students. The shift of methods occurs as a result of replacing the ideals with concerns about one’s survival as a teacher (Farrell, 2008a). (This will be dealt with when I discuss socialization stages). Almost all of the aspects mentioned above were experienced by the teachers involved in this study. This will be explored later on in (3.7, 3.7.1, 3.7.2).

In addition, Veenman in a review of literature (1984, p. 155) attempted to make a comprehensive classification of the perceived problems ranked as most serious and frequent by beginner teachers:

- Classroom discipline
- Motivating students
- Dealing with individual differences
- Assessing students’ work
- Relation with parents
- Insufficient materials and supplies
- Organization of class work
- Heavy teaching load resulting in insufficient preparation time
- Dealing with problems of individual students

- Relation with colleagues or principals or administrators
- Planning lessons and school days
- Effective use of different teaching methods
- Awareness of school policies and rules
- Determining learning levels of students
- Knowledge of subject matter
- Burden of clerical work
- Dealing with slow learners
- Dealing with students from different cultures and deprived backgrounds
- Effective use of textbooks and curriculum guides
- Lack of spare time
- Inadequate guidance and support
- Large class size (Kurtz, 1983 cited in Frye, 1988)

These classified perceived problems may be encountered by almost all beginner teachers everywhere. They can apparently be placed under three major areas: classroom management, dealing with students and relationships with colleagues and administration. Mackinnon (1987) has limited the challenges to relationships with students and classroom management which in turn cover sub-concerns such as teaching materials, and teaching methods at the early stage. He claims that teachers focus on other issues later on when their main concerns are directed to their teaching performance, their students' learning and their teaching and their learning as teachers (Farrell, 2008a).

However, such problems may not necessarily be encountered by all beginner teachers everywhere in terms of order and intensity. Various contexts, cultures and forms of education could contribute in formulating such challenges. What the teachers bring into the classroom in terms of knowledge and experiences, the context of teaching and the distinctive characteristics of the particular teacher can all determine what sort of problems are to be faced (Bullough, 1989). There might be other sub-problems encountered in contexts other than those searched in the survey conducted by Veenman (1984) and others. Although the problems may seem obvious, when they overlap, the impact might be heavy; quitting teaching as a career generally seems to be one potential decision on the personal side and teacher attrition on the institutional side. The impact of this decision may constrain some schools to employ or hire less qualified teachers to compensate for the shortage of teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). One possible consequence of hiring or employing such teachers is the detrimental effect on the students' achievement since those teachers might lack the pedagogical and content knowledge required for teaching. The current study aims at investigating other issues encountered by EFL beginner teachers which might not have been identified in the previous studies. The other point to make here is that the current study attempts to investigate the extent to which those perceived problems may persist and other associated problems that might emerge from a new post-conflict context. Another issue of significant importance is the impact of conflict on NGTs and how their experiences differ from what is identified in the literature and which have not yet been fully investigated. Investigating post-conflict teacher experiences is significant and contribution to knowledge.

Veenman (1984) has also attributed the phenomenon of reality shock to certain personal factors; these include the wrong choice of teaching as a profession, unsuitable personal characteristics, lack of attitude and motivation. Some other situational factors can interfere too such as lack or shortage of training, and poor school discipline. The transition from being a student to bearing the burden of responsibility of a new

professional life from the very first day can be another cause of reality shock. Such factors are given great consideration in the present study. In-depth interviewing of EFL beginner teachers in the context of this study enabled them to articulate the reasons for choosing to be teachers and allowed exploration of the different options they had considered. This could reveal other psychological, social and other factors that contributed both to their choice and their shock. For the first time, this study attempts to clarify the dimensions of the reality shock from the perspectives of EFL teachers in the new Libyan context.

This study examines the statement “that the student learning must be postponed until novices work through other concerns (Feiman-Nemser, 1999, p. 10). It seems that these factors cannot be ignored since they are almost always encountered by those teachers right from the beginning of their actual teaching, and addressing them cannot be postponed. If such teachers might overcome these problems successfully, they might then adjust themselves to teaching, learn from their own experiences and consequently this will reflect on their teaching. Teachers who fail to overcome the trauma of the shock are likely to experience intense strain which can lead to complete fatigue, depression and sometimes subsequently quitting teaching entirely, as Sabar (2004) and Varah et al. (1986) have mentioned. Others may continue under severe pressure that affects their whole life and they are unlikely to be able to teach effectively (Feiman-Nemser, 1999), while some seriously consider other career paths (Scherff, 2008).

What makes the situation even worse is the fact that some beginning teachers are sometimes assigned the most difficult classes or less able ones (Gordon & Maxey, 2000). Those teachers find themselves responsible for large classes, more difficult students to handle and long, difficult syllabi to cover within a certain time. This issue can be attributed to the stereotyped impression that that “new (beginner) teachers’ skills are taken for granted and thus they are given full responsibilities from the first day of work” (Farrell, 2003, p.107). Farrell adds that the participants’ comments and notes collected

through semi-structured interviews, journal writing in his qualitative study in Hong Kong indicated that beginning teachers “can end up in such stressed out states that they abandon the profession after only a short time” (ibid). Ulvik et al. (2009) found that their participants (new teachers) in their study indicated that they need to accept what the experienced teachers have chosen or left in terms of classes, and proficiency level of students. Other duties might be added such as substituting for other teachers and preparing and marking other teachers’ examination papers. They are expected to fulfil all these duties professionally. This finding was supported by the studies of Chubbuck et al. (2001), Sabar (2004) and Scherff (2008). Moreover, Veenman (1984) mentions these issues as being among situational causes of the reality shock. Encountering such extra problems, could contribute to overloading the adjustment of beginner teachers to their schools.

3.2.2 Role Conflict

NGTs generally tend to be young adults (in their late twenties and early thirties) (Gordon & Maxey, 2000) and this is so in the current study and similarly in other contexts. However, the private sector may employ or hire beginner teachers who are under or over this age. This category may include teachers who work part time and at the same time they might be involved in professions other than teaching. Those young teachers might experience some conflict in their role as teachers and as young adults. They may find themselves confused and overwhelmed by the clash between their expectations of teaching and the heavy demands of teaching reality (Scherff, 2008). The conflict might be socially related; teachers are in a different position now; they need to behave as respected teachers which may seem puzzling to many of them. They apparently find themselves acting out different roles, such as mother, policeman, supervisor, orchestra director, counsellor and member of the professional community (Bullough, 1989). They have to act the role as it is viewed by other members of the community and not as they normally do. They are required to behave in a way that satisfies their community, even if this may be uncomfortable for them.

One of the factors that affects beginner teachers is keeping discipline in class (control of students). Many of those teachers have limited experience on how to control the class and may leave the class and burst into tears, as the interviewees in Friedman's (2002) study reported. They may ask for help and sometimes move to a different class under certain recommendation or they may quit teaching. Some teachers cannot find support and find themselves in miserable situations and experience the feeling of being unsuccessful teachers (Scherff, 2008).

Moreover, some beginner teachers find rewards for their hectic teaching, in terms of salaries, promotions and better working conditions, are not worth the effort expended (Farrell, 2003). Therefore, they abandon teaching as early as possible (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003 ; Scherff, 2008). They tend to compare themselves with friends and colleagues in other sectors. They consider the long term financial gain and other benefits from teaching in comparison to other careers. Consequently many quit within the first five years (Darling-Hammond, 2003 ; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). This is the situation in many western countries but is observed almost everywhere (Armstrong, 1984 ; Gold, 1986 ; Van Mann, 1991 ; Geve-May, 1995 all cited Sabar, 2004). Thus a number of schools are forced to employ or hire inexperienced or under-qualified teachers to teach in different schools and at various levels to relieve the shortage of teachers. Students' achievement seems to be affected by employing such inexperienced teachers in the contexts of the cited studies and elsewhere. This situation seems not only to apply in America (Bullough, 1993), but also it occurs in many other countries including the context of the current study.

According to Urmston & Pennington, a large number of teachers, and particularly beginners, do not learn the skills of teaching merely by relying on what they have learnt in books on methodology. Classroom situations seem to affect teachers' selection of the appropriate approach to teaching beyond what they have been taught in their education (2008). They acquire these approaches by trial and error, by reflecting on their successes

and analysing failures (Renard, 2003). They need skills and tools that will help them process and organize what they learn from their experiences.

3.2.3 Isolation and loneliness

Beginner teachers, coming from their previous places of education (teacher education or others) often carry with them the culture of those places. They want to integrate in the norms of their school and create routes of communication but they “ were socialized through isolation and were treated as a separate category of teachers; their contacts with experienced teachers were minimal” (De Lima, 2003, p. 214). Thus the possibilities of learning from their more experienced colleagues tend to be reduced. Many beginner teachers find themselves unable to adjust to the norms of the school. Lortie (1975, p. 72) states that “beginner teachers spend most of their time apart from colleagues”. They tend to be reluctant and hesitant to ask experienced colleagues, which may be interpreted as a sign of incompetence while at the same time these colleagues would like to offer assistance, but they feel their effort might be interpreted as interference. Thus, they contribute to their own isolation by not asking for help.

Moreover, a considerable number of beginner teachers, may experience “marginality” (Sabar, 2004) because they do not have enough confidence in their abilities and they depend on other teachers (either beginners or experienced). This situation decreases their network and at the same time strengthens the feeling of strangeness and loneliness. Beginner teachers’ lives seem to be characterized by a mismatch between idealistic expectations and classroom reality on one side and the requirement of school and social life on the other side.

3.3 Challenges of Second Language Teachers

In this thesis the term EFL refers to teachers of English as a foreign language which indicates that English is used only in institutions as a subject. Its use is limited to instruction in these places and is not used in media or other means of communication. On

the other hand, ESL indicates that English is used as a second language and widely used in aspects of life.

Drawing on literature, the first year of teaching has been well documented in general education but not many studies have been done in the area of second language education (Farrell, 2008a ; Pennington & Richards, 1997). There is a paucity of research that specifically investigates the experiences and perceptions of beginner second language teachers in a variety of contexts. Few studies have dealt with beginner ELT challenges, how they manage the complexity of real classroom and how they invest any of the experiences offered to them during their education or training programmes prior to starting teaching. Scholars such as Richards and Pennington (1998) and Tarone and Allwright (2005) have revealed a gap between the academic course contents in language teacher preparation programmes and the real obstacles that beginner teachers face in the language classroom in their first years. For instance, Richards and Pennington (1998) studied teachers in Hong Kong by carrying out classroom observations, with a questionnaire and monthly meetings to study the way teachers of English as a second language cope with classroom complexity. They reported that ELT teachers were confronted with the reality of handling large classes, less-motivated students, examination pressure and obligation to cover the prescribed syllabus. Another case study conducted in Singapore by (Farrell, 2008a) found that beginner teachers encountered challenges in:

- Course content: regarding the conflict between what he or she wanted to teach (which focused on trying out new ideas) and what he or she was required to teach. The school focused on preparing students for examinations and the necessity of covering the assigned syllabi.
- Teaching approach: concerning a conflict between his or her approach to teaching English language i.e. learner-centred versus teacher-centred.

- Collegial relationships: highlighting the difficulties he or she had with various professional relationships with other teachers and administration at the school during the first year.

What Farrell has stated does not look different from what almost all beginner teachers complain about. In fact, although he does not focus on other issues related to teachers themselves in detail, the case study conducted in Singapore with EFL teachers demonstrated the extent to which those teachers suffer.

Furthermore, a large number of beginner teachers complain of lacking sufficient content knowledge that they would use as a basis to develop their teaching knowledge. Shulman (1989) considers having enough content or subject matter knowledge is essential for beginner teachers to meet students' levels (see 3.10 for types of knowledge). However, lacking pedagogical content knowledge, which assists teachers to transform what they know into forms of appropriate instructions, might be a serious obstacle to a large number of beginner teachers. This type of knowledge helps teachers to conceptualize the curricular and content aspects of their teaching and their relationships with their students. Those teachers who have insufficient amounts of such knowledge, according to (Shulman, 1986) tend to draw on the way they were taught. Therefore, they tend to rely heavily on their previous learning experience-what (Lortie, 1975) has called "apprenticeship of observation". It includes two types of memories; the first covers how a teacher learnt as a student whereas the second involves a teacher's memories of his or her teachers and how they approached teaching and learning. Beginner teachers use those memories to construct the bases on which they shape their initial conceptions of themselves as teachers. They appear to formulate what kind of teachers they will become. "Teachers learn about teaching through their prolonged apprenticeship of observation and that these experiences have a much greater impact on learning to teach the content of their experiences in any sort of teacher education program" (Johnson, 1999, p. 51). Thus beginner teachers seem to rely on their past learning experiences to enhance their teaching ones rather than to filter them.

A large number of beginner teachers claim that their education courses have most often been “heavily weighted in theory and insufficient in practical application” (Pataniczek & Isaacson, 1981, p. 16). This category of teachers usually includes graduates of institutions that do not prepare (qualify) their students to be teachers, such as faculties of sciences, engineering and other. Such teachers might be hired or employed to teach and cover the lack of teachers as Ingersoll & Smith (2003) and Darling-Hammond (2003) have indicated.

Likewise, Scherff (2008) attributed the attrition of one of the two teachers who participated in her study to experiencing feelings of isolation, loneliness, being overwhelmed and unsupported. Meanwhile, the other complained about discipline problems, unhealthy working conditions and interference of students and parents in decision-making issues related to class work.

Furthermore, a very considerable number of beginner EFL teachers experience the dilemma of being overloaded with duties. “New teachers’ skills are taken for granted and thus they are given full responsibilities from the first day of work” (Farrell, 2003, p. 107) and “are expected to perform all of their duties with the same expertise as an experienced professionals” (Gordon & Maxey, 2000, p. 2). They need to teach many classes with the most challenging students, sometimes with lower proficiency and plan and prepare different syllabi. They are asked to prepare exam papers for levels they do not teach and they are not aware of what materials have been covered. On other occasions, they are asked to mark other teachers’ papers. All these factors increase the heavy burden on those teachers. Many teachers complain that even their free time is spent preparing for classes, and looking for relevant materials. Fatigue is a dominant complain of those first year teachers, both physical and emotional (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003).

To sum up, the problems surveyed in the literature are faced by beginner teachers in the ELT field were not particularly different from those highlighted in mainstream education. Moreover, the above mentioned studies (Farrell, 2008b ; 2003) and (Hayes, 2008a) share many findings regarding the challenges beginner EFL teachers of English confront at the start of their teaching experience. Yet these teachers' perceptions and experiences have not been not thoroughly researched and hence are not fully understood. In addition experiences of EFL newly graduated teachers in a post-conflict context is not investigated yet. I have searched for experiences of NGTs in post-conflict contexts, but I could not find any. I systematically used Google scholar and Summon searching for any articles using various search terms. I found some about education reform but no reference to teacher education or teacher experience. I looked at The British Education Library index and looked for theses and I found some applying CoP in studying nurses and international students in Netherlands. I asked and contacted some academics but I received no reply. There is literature on education in the apartheid era and after the apartheid. There is literature on education in post-colonial countries, but there is not any about post-conflict countries. As far as I can say, there are no examples of work carried out in the way I did or the subject I looked at (experiences of EFL teachers in a post-conflict context).

3.4 Part 2- Beginner teachers' needs

3.5 Introduction

Freeman argues that effective learning depends to a large extent on appropriate teaching (2001). Learning to teach is considered as one of the most substantially discussed issues in the literature in terms of initial teacher education (ITE) and initial teacher training (ITE) concerning beginner teachers. It focuses on the way beginner teachers' initial education or training prepare them for the authentic practical and psychological challenges of actual teaching with all its dimensions and complexities (Bickmore & Bickmore, 2010).

Assisting beginner teachers in achieving stability in the teaching profession in their first year of teaching is ostensibly a complex process that may often be associated with tension and anxiety, not only because of the classroom demands. It is also attributed to the beginner teachers' needs and intention to establish a place for themselves within the institutional context of their school (Hayes, 2008b). Generally, beginner teachers are recommended to create good rapport with their colleagues and other people in the same institution as well as abiding by norms that govern the overall system of that institution if the teaching conditions are relatively perfect. This part of teachers' role is as essential as their classroom teaching (ibid). Success in both of these areas may create well qualified teachers.

The next section focuses on the literature relating to teacher socialization attempting to demonstrate its significance to beginner teachers in this critical time and for the long term in their teaching career. Furthermore, it provides clarification of the stages, the changes and the expected results that have been achieved by various studies from different contexts.

3.6 Conceptualization of socialization

Socialization is an important stage of a beginner teacher's life and has been defined by a large number of scholars from various positions. For instance, Veenman defines socialization as the "entry and the planned support the new teachers receive as it [induction] occurs" (1984, p. 165) while Greenlee & Dedeugd describe it as the "process of formal assistance for the beginning teacher" (2002, p. 69). Zeichner & Gore define teacher socialization more comprehensively as "the process whereby the individual becomes a participating member of the society of teachers" (1989, p. 1). They consider it as a type of learning that contributes to the development of beginner teachers since there is interaction between all participants in the teaching-learning process, without identifying the nature of their interaction. Quaglia views socialization from a beginner teacher's perspectives as the ability to ignore, refine, eliminate and cope with experiences

(1989). Meanwhile De Lima describes socialization as a “complex, interactive, negotiated, internalized adjustment” that does not ignore what teachers bring to the workplace (2003, p. 215). Likewise, Zeichner & Tabachnick conceptualize socialization as the “interplay of individual intent and institutional constraints during the entry into the teaching role” (1985, p. 4).

In a review of research into teacher’s socialization, Veenman’s (1984) and Greenlee & Dedeugd’s (2002) definitions consider formal support as a major issue in teacher socialization. It seems that their definitions are influenced by the functionalist perspective on teacher socialization where a teacher is viewed as a passive agent who can be filled with knowledge and instructions that later on would be implemented (Zeichner, 1980). Nevertheless, these studies focus on teacher socialization in particular. On the other hand, the other definitions mentioned earlier value this stage as an interaction between beginner teachers, contexts and the other agents involved in this process such as colleagues, administration and principals. This group of definitions regards the new comers as interactive agents who can affect and be affected at the same time. This view emphasizes the potential contribution of beginner teachers to the process of being teachers (Kuzmic, 1994). It is apparently a representation of the interpretive (dialectical approach) perspective on socialization (Zeichner, 1980) which views socialization as a continuous process. However, the kind of knowledge, beliefs or assumptions beginner teachers have or bring to their workplace might be contradictory to the process of socialization. Such obstacles can be of potential hindrance. It seems that this point receives less attention in researching teacher socialization. Having provided brief definitions of socialization, it seems important to gain insights of teacher socialization, focusing on the most relevant literature.

3.7 Teacher socialization

Socialization is considered to begin when individuals have decided to become teachers and continues when those teachers enter a school. By joining a school, discontinuities

between their university study and the realities of school life emerge (Etheridge, 1989). Socialization plays a critical role in teachers' experiences -the on-going development process (Bullough & Baughman, 1993 ; Staton & Hunt, 1992 ; Zeichner & Gore, 1990; Kagan, 1992). During these experiences, many beginner teachers acquire or learn the knowledge, skills, values and norms of both the teaching profession and their community (Cherubini, 2009). Beginner teachers often describe socialization as the most important event and experiences they have gained. Others generally believe that this stage may help them reconstruct their lives to become successful teachers. Researchers such as Zeichner & Gore (1989), Zeichner & Tabachnick, (1985) and Kuzmic (1994) recommend beginner teachers to be exposed to all types of socialization that will facilitate their integration into the norms of the school from all dimensions. Therefore, professional socialization assists the individual to learn the process and acquire the knowledge and skills of their own professional roles (McGowan & Hart, 1990, cited by Cherubini, 2009).

Similarly, beginner teachers need organizational socialization as well as classroom socialization (Kelchermans & Ballet, 2002). For instance, Kuzmic concludes that,

without some basic understanding of the organizational life of schools however, beginning teachers may be ill-equipped to deal with the problems and difficulties they encounter or develop the political tactics and teaching strategies needed to resist and challenge the pressures to conform, many of which stem from the institutional characteristics of schools as bureaucratic organizations (1994, p. 24).

Beginner teachers need different types of socialization that will equip them with sufficient knowledge to enable them to teach effectively, to participate co-operatively

with all agents involved in the teaching-learning process and to accommodate themselves for the long term. Hence Kuzmic (1994) and Rust (1994) consider organizational socialization as an interactive and interpretative process between the beginner teachers as newcomers and at the same time the context by which they will be influenced; by teachers in their turn affect the context in which they are socialized (Kelchermans & Ballet, 2002). Beginner teachers seem to build their personal and philosophical frameworks from their conception of themselves as teachers (Cole & Knowles, 1993) through this stage. Their success or failure in gaining sufficient socialization of this type may contribute to a decision either to continue teaching or to quit.

3.7.1 Stages of Socialization

During the socialization stage, beginner teachers may go through two stages of development. The first stage of socialization can be described as survival and mastery (Farrell, 2003) which Huberman (1993) describes as 'survival and discovery'. At this stage, beginner teachers' main concerns seem to be directed towards their survival as teachers after they have experienced the reality of teaching and been exposed to a variety of shocks. They tend to focus their attention on controlling their classes and what they intend to teach. Huberman extends this stage to include establishment of relationships with colleagues, administration and perceived preparedness towards teaching as a profession (ibid). It may continue for the whole of the first year characterized by dramatic events. During this stage, a fairly large number of beginner teachers may achieve or fail to establish a renewed identity (Bullough, 1987).

Furthermore, Hansen (1995) adds that socialization may possibly occur during the teaching practice process when a considerable number of beginner teachers find themselves involved in authentic situations for the first time. However, Rayan refers to informal socialization as 'fantasy' may start right from the stage that an individual has seriously decided to become a teacher or be involved in components of teacher preparation and continue to the first two years of teaching (1986 cited by Bullough,

1987). This can be considered as formal socialization when almost all teachers find themselves going through this towards teaching as a profession (Bullough, 1987). It can apparently be unconscious and personal and psychological factors may play effective roles in facilitating or hindering the process. Individuality may play an influential role in the ability and extent of being socialized (ibid).

Concerning second language teacher socialization stages, studies conducted by Richards & Pennington (1998) Sabar (2004), Scherff (2008), Hays (2008b) and Farrell (2008b) are considered as the most recent and might be the only studies of second language beginner teachers available in the literature in relation to beginner teacher socialization. These studies have used different terminologies to describe the phases teachers of English go through during socialization stages. For instance, Richards & Pennington (1998) studied first year teachers of an English reorientation programme in Hong Kong. They identified four phases: *pre-teaching concerns, survival phase, teaching situation concerns and concerns about students*. In the first phase, Richards & Pennington (1998) argue that beginner teachers start understanding their new roles as teachers while in the second phase confronting the reality and determination to attain classroom control seem to be the targets. Then beginner teachers tend to transfer what they have learnt or known to their new teaching contexts hoping to gain more instructional mastery and stability. Subsequently, teachers tend to focus on fulfilling students' needs and the quality of their learning. Richards & Pennington (1998) conducted multiple case studies and collected their data by means of classroom observation, monthly meetings, and tape recording lessons. Meanwhile, Sabar's 2004 study categorized the phases as *fantasy, reality and adjustment*. (There are no definitions for the terms used to describe the phases of socialization). Data included in-depth interviews of forty-six beginner teachers in Israel. She compared the stages of socialization to immigrants' adjustment to a new country (Sabar, 2004). The third study is Scherff's (2008), which classified the phases as: *plot-exposition* (enthusiastic start), *rising action, climax, falling action and resolution*. The procedure followed in this study differentiates it from the others. Although she has used

case study research method and conducted interviews and email discussion, she only focused on the experiences of two teachers, who left the profession as a result of their inability to tackle the challenges. Farrell (2008b) also followed an interpretive approach in his case study in Singapore whereby he tracked the socialization and development of a new teacher called *Wee Jin*. Farrell (2008b) categorized the phases as *early idealism*, *shock from reality*, *quest to survive*, *recognizing difficulties*, *reaching a plateau* and *moving on*. Farrell indicates that beginner teachers at the first stage are “strongly identifying with their students but rejecting the image of what they perceive to be the older cynical teacher” (2008a, p. 3). In the second stage according to Farrell (2008b) teachers start reacting to their reality and attempting to manage their classes despite being overwhelmed by their new situations. In the *recognizing difficulties* phase, teachers’ awareness increases of their teaching situations and their limitations and doubt over what they can achieve. Moving to the next phase, beginner teachers start coping with teaching routines and developing a certain resistance to trial and error of implementation methods or approaches that might confuse their students; they tend to stabilize their routines. Then in the last phase teachers’ concerns are directed towards raising the better quality of students’ learning. Farrell (2008b) has followed qualitative rather than quantitative methodology to explore the changes and development from the beginner teacher’s perspectives. The data included the researcher’s field notes, written-up log, classroom observation, post-observation conference, and semi-structured interviews.

On the other hand, self-socialization is a type of socialization experienced by beginner teachers who are trained for professional isolation rather than a culture of collaboration according to De Lima (2003). In the absence of formal induction programmes and mentoring, beginner teachers in Thailand and other similar countries practise self-socialization a mechanism for coping with teaching (Hayes, 2008a). Hayes collected his data through a case study approach based on in-depth interviews with his participants. Self-socialization might be a personal strategy employed by individual teachers to cope

with the teaching burden. It tends to be based on trial and error and subject to improvement as teachers gain sufficient experience. Different factors overlap to make beginner teachers resort to these strategies (Hayes, 2008a). The success or failure of these strategies might be individual and context-bound. Self-socialization appears to be hidden in the process, although impacts can be noticed in teachers' behaviour in the classroom and in school in general.

In summary, in some contexts, including the context of the current study, a fairly considerable number of second language teachers just plunge into teaching, finding themselves relying on trial and error strategy. There seems to be a situation where such teachers find themselves obliged to socialize themselves if they want to pursue their career. This appears to happen in the absence of formal induction and socialization provision, as De Lima (2003) and Hayes (2008a) have mentioned.

Despite the various terminologies used to describe the socialization stages, they share similarities in their modes of categorization. To simplify these similarities, it is remarkable that these studies mutually agree that beginner teachers most often commence their working life with concepts of idealism with the intention and the desire to make a difference in their students' learning. This stage is commonly associated with fantasy and great enthusiasm even though the words used vary. The second stage is characterized by reality shock and obstacles affecting all aspects of teachers' lives. Thus, they start their quest for survival, once they begin to recognize and understand their complications. They initiate tolerating approaches to handle their burden. Moreover, these studies also agree that teachers might achieve this by the second half of the year, what Farrell (2008b) alternatively calls 'reaching the plateau'. Beginner teachers' attention can be directed towards students' achievements once they have control of students' learning, and planning managing class activities, in the 'moving on' phase.

The phases of socialization may be dissimilar, where English is taught as a foreign language in the current study. The educational systems, teacher education programmes and other social and cultural factors may contribute to this dissimilarity. It is observable that there seems to be a paucity of literature aimed at achieving a sufficient description of socialization of teachers in (foreign) second language education. In addition, the existing studies seem to be limited to a few specific contexts, which probably preclude them from generalizability.

3.7.2 Changes during the Socialization Process

Research conducted on teacher socialization has focused on the types of changes such as considering contextual constraints and making adjustments that might occur during this process (Kuzmic, 1994 ; Jordell, 1987 ; Etheridge, 1989 ; Zeichner & Gore, 1990). As a result of the serious problems such as class management and dealing with lack of knowledge identified by beginner teachers, significant shifts have been noticed in the beginner teachers' perspectives. Although these changes are described in different terms, they still indicate real shifts in those teachers' perceptions regarding teaching and teachers' identities (Blase, 1985 ; Bullough, 1987). For instance, Blase (1985) has identified significant changes that teachers in America experienced in his two intensive case studies. The study examined factors that contribute to teachers' change of attitudes and behaviours over time. The data were collected by means of interviews (structured and unstructured), a questionnaire, an observation and field notes. Blase (1985) claims that the changes experienced by teachers can be categorized as two core processes: humanization and rationalization. The first process is characterized by changes in attitudes and behaviours as a result of personal interactions with students. Beginner teachers are likely to develop knowledge of students that assists them to understand the students' problems, fears, insecurities and deficiencies. Consequently, teachers establish friendly rapport with their students, with shared moral, values and a sense of counselling. This stage represents a major shift in beginner teachers' perspectives. Furthermore, during the rationalization process, teachers' attitudes and behaviours are directed towards

instructing and managing classrooms (ibid); they become more concerned with survival than professional development (Cheng & Pang, 1997). Students' attitudes and behaviours in addition to administrative expectation and organizational policies were found to contribute to these changes. They concluded that the rationalization of instructional perspectives circulates around redesigning teaching methods and subject materials that assist teachers to accommodate themselves to meet the increasing demands and expectations of all involved in the teaching profession (ibid). Teachers experience a shift towards conservatism and authoritarianism.

Jordell's study reported the influences of other people who are in direct contact with the beginner teachers (e.g., colleagues, school authority in general, students and parents) (1987). He referred to these as contextual influences that impose effects on beginner teachers' behaviours, concepts and beliefs during their socialization. According to Jordell (1987), these influences can be categorized into three levels:

- The classroom level plays a major role in socializing teachers. Student-teacher interaction contributes to the success or failure of teachers' socialization since they have to operate multi-functionally to activate classroom interaction. They have to be instructors, motivators, counsellors and controllers at the same time. Participants in the studies by Hayes (2008a) and Zeichner & Tabachnick (1985) highlighted the significant role of students as support providers, who strengthen or modify the perspectives of beginner teachers and the socialization stages as a whole.
- Personal influences outside the classroom include all those with whom teachers interact. Obviously teachers have contacts with colleagues, administrators at the school as well as parents. However, Jordell (1987) emphasizes that colleagues are considered as a less important factor compared to classroom experience in the process of socializing beginner teachers. To the contrary, Farrell (2008b) asserts

the vital role colleagues play in offering the variety of support needed for surviving the first year. While emotional and professional support represents the priority of a quite large number of beginner teachers, both factors vary in their influence in the socialization process from one context to another.

- Structural influences include working conditions and the overall system of school. For instance, Zeichner & Tabachnick (1985) found that context can affect teachers' adaptation to the culture and traditions of their work places. Furthermore, this study examined the conditions that lead beginner teachers to abandon or maintain the teaching perspectives they brought to their teaching. The study revealed that the four participating beginner teachers went through some form of redefinition of accepted behaviour in schools. Two of the teachers achieved an adjustment to the dominant norms of their schools and learned to cope with the demands of the situation, although one complied negatively by becoming more bureaucratic in terms of the teacher role and more impersonal in terms of the student-teacher relationship.

Likewise, Kuzmic (1994) in his ethnographic case study explored how a teacher drew on images in her teaching in her first year and how this influenced her ability to understand her organizational context. He also discovered that the participant's empowered perspectives and images interfered with the way she reflected upon her teaching. She internalized the contextual constraints and related this to her lack of the required skills, which made her frustrated.

Reviewing the literature highlights the most important stages that beginner teachers go through. It pinpoints similarities and differences between teachers in other contexts and the teachers in the context of this study. This informed my understanding about teachers in my context and enhanced my awareness about their problems and their perceptions about teaching in a post-conflict Libya.

3.8 The Importance of Induction and Mentoring

In response to the increased understanding of beginner teachers' experiences, researchers, educators and policy makers have realized the necessity to provide those teachers with practical ways to tackle their problems and facilitate teaching. The concept of induction has emerged as "a systematic process embedded in a healthy school climate that meets new teachers' personal and professional needs" (Bickmore & Bickmore, 2010, 1006). Furthermore it can be considered as the start of the life-long professional learning that teachers are likely to need and as an illustration of previous teaching experiences teachers often bring to their work place (Carter & Francis, 2001). Additionally, it can be considered useful in planning initial teacher education programmes. Manley et al. summarize the major goals of induction programmes as they establish a collaborative professional team responsible for providing (formal, systematic and sustainable) assistance and support for the first year teacher, help the new teacher develop the skills and judgement that a successful teacher possesses, explore numerous teaching strategies, and provide in-service experiences for the mentors in the participating schools (1989, p.16-17).

Arends et al. (2000) add that induction programmes are intended to improve students' achievement through enhancing beginner teacher's performance. Likewise, Vonk (1995) and Wong (2004) believe that induction programmes aim to accommodate beginner teachers in their new duties and responsibilities of classroom work, accelerate their professional development and contribute to the development of their professional identities. Yet "it is through professional and personal development that teachers build character, maturity and other virtues in themselves and others, making their schools into moral communities" (Hargreaves, 2003, p. 48). To get to the stage of personal development, beginner teachers need support on how to go through the early stages successfully to begin their own development that presumably may last all their professional lives.

Induction programmes vary across countries in terms of components, duration, participants, extent of intensity and comprehensiveness. However, mentoring is regarded as the most common component according to Wong (2004). It seems that there is confusion and misuse of the words mentoring and induction. The two terms are not synonymous, yet they are often used incorrectly. Wong defines induction as a:

comprehensive, coherent, and sustained professional development process-that is organized by a school district to train, support, and retain new teachers and seamlessly progresses them into a lifelong learning program(me) (2004, p. 42).

Yet, mentoring is action taken by a mentor to help a beginner teacher to survive, not for continued professional learning that leads to becoming a qualified teacher (ibid). Mentoring is a component of the induction process. Mentors provide two types of support: (a) emotional support for effective development; and, (b) professional support for the cognitive development of teaching (ibid).

In some countries such as the context of this study, the mentor (called expert) is simply a veteran teacher assigned by a principal and the inspector of that specific subject. He or she is supposed to support and supervise teachers of particular subjects, especially the beginners. Experts usually have the job of being local inspectors and they work with inspectors and school principals as well. A mentor is supposed to be available to provide the variety of support that beginner teachers seek. It is therefore important that mentors have “explicit training in the stimulation of novice teachers to reflect on their actions in order to move them to higher levels of professional thinking” (Veenman et al., 1998, p. 6). Instead of attempting to provide beginner teachers with everything they need to know prior to the school year in terms of textbooks and any potential supplementary materials, successful induction practice entails providing essential information to beginner teachers

over a few years. It can help them become simultaneously students and contribute to their own professional development. It also allows them to “account for the diversity of pedagogical practices and ... cultivate opportunities to learn more and appreciate their own strengths and weaknesses” (Cherubini, 2007, p. 52).

Induction programmes for beginner teachers aim at supporting new teachers and assisting them in coping with their responsibilities as teachers. Those programmes are intended to provide opportunities for beginner teachers to learn how to become integrated in learning and how to develop the quality of teaching to improve student learning successfully. According to Serpeel & Bozeman (1999), beneficial induction programmes should have a well-designed, coherent structure that provides training on curriculum, effective teaching and management. They have structured mentoring that allows sustainable practice and a reduction of teaching load for both mentees and mentors that provides opportunities for beginner teachers to observe and be observed. They also provide an assessment that prioritizes supporting beginner teachers’ continuum of professional growth.

By providing induction programmes, beginner teachers are offered emotional and professional spaces that facilitate development of their teaching beyond their pre-service training (Chubbuk et al., 2001). Professional needs include knowledge, skills and strategies that yield successful teaching (Gold, 1996, cited by Bickmore & Bickmore, 2010) while personal needs involve raising confidence, positive self-esteem, self-reliance and tackling stress (Bickmore & Bickmore, 2010). Bickmore and Bickmore conducted mixed method research into the professional and personal needs embedded in induction programmes to beginner teachers of different subjects in America. They found in their survey and interviews those participants’ perceptions of the effectiveness of their induction were positive. In addition, the beginner teachers valued the component of the induction programme (2010).

Research has highlighted that induction programmes help beginner teachers to build positive attitudes towards teaching. They also achieve more continuity in the profession than those who have not experienced them (Varah, Theune & Parker, 1986 ; Henry, 1988). Induction represents a significant opportunity for beginner teachers to learn from more experienced colleagues who, in turn, benefit from the experience of having to communicate their beliefs about what constitutes good teaching in a friendly atmosphere.

However, despite the favourable account in literature, there are potential limitations which can have negative effects (Colley, 2000 ; Sundli, 2007). These drawbacks might be attributed to the fact that mentors “undertake this responsibility without any negotiation, training, teaching remission or enhancement” (Colley, 2002, p. 258). Some studies related the limitations to heavy workload that mentors bear which leads to difficulties in cooperating with their mentees (Maynard, 2000). As a result of this load, research has found that mentors may experience stress, insecurity and threat, since they are observed by mentees (Bullough, 2005).

Beginner teachers claimed that mentors failed to provide them with the required help (emotional) which may be related to the mentor’s inability to provide such support (Beck & Kosnick, 2000). Moreover, a considerable number of beginner teachers have expressed their worry over not being challenged by their mentors which may be attributed to lack of training and the reasons already mentioned above. Concerning the current study, induction is not included in any programmes before appointing new teachers. Teachers start teaching directly and are given a teaching load from their first coming to school. This situation might affect teachers’ experiences and perceptions about teaching in general. This will be explored later on. Therefore, the paucity of research and studies referring to second language teacher induction or mentoring programmes is quite remarkable. Furthermore, studies conducted on mentoring and its significant effects on beginner teacher included all subjects. However, there might be significant differences between mentoring in different schools and among separate disciplines.

3.9 Teacher Education and First Year Teaching Experience

This part deals with the issue of learning to teach and is connected with initial teacher education and initial teacher training (ITE), a widely disputed topic. It is a debate about how teachers are prepared for meeting the increasing demands and actual challenges of the teaching profession with all its complexities. Teachers are required to obtain sufficient education and effective training to equip them with a considerable amount of balanced knowledge required for teaching specific subject matter, for coping with students, colleagues and administrators. The type of knowledge required seems to be a controversial issue in terms of inclusion in teacher education and training programmes (Borg, 2003). The first part will discuss types of knowledge that teachers are supposed to need.

Teachers as students in the course of their education or training programmes are supposed to acquire the knowledge needed for teaching and coping with teaching as a profession. Issues of knowledge are central to discussion of the content of these programmes. For instance, Shulman (1987, p. 8) states that a knowledge base should include the following categories:

- Content knowledge
- General pedagogical knowledge, with special reference to those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that appear to transcend subject matter
- Curriculum knowledge, with a particular grasp of the materials and programs that serve as ‘tools of the trade’ for teachers
- Pedagogical content knowledge, that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding

- Knowledge of learners and their characteristics
- Knowledge of educational contexts, ranging from the working of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, to the character of communities and cultures; and
- Knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds.

Shulman (1986) argued that gaining knowledge is essential for effective teaching and that EFL teachers' knowledge and effectiveness are affected by their proficiency in the second (foreign) language and the degree of awareness the teacher has about the formal properties of the language. In practice, teachers draw upon many types of knowledge when making decisions in instructional planning relating to the materials to be covered or student management. Therefore, it is important to consider how the different components of teachers' knowledge are related to what they actually do in class. The literature dealing with this issue is presented in the following sections.

3.10 Types of Knowledge

Teachers need to have some kind of knowledge in addition to general knowledge, which will enable them to carry out teaching differently from non-teaching people.

3.10.1 Practical Knowledge

Learning to teach involves the development of interactive skills which enable teachers to resolve specific teaching incidents, creating their working theories of teaching in the process (Freeman & Richards, 1996). For instance, Carter states that, "practical knowledge refers broadly to the knowledge teachers have of classroom situations and the practical dilemmas they face in carrying out purposeful action in these settings" (1990, p. 299). Likewise, Elbaz considers the kind of knowledge that teachers hold and use is practical knowledge that is developed through formal learning and experience (1983).

Fenstermacher regards teachers' PK as the knowledge of teachers, not for teachers (1994). He argues that the PK is generated by teachers themselves as a result of their experiences and their reflections on these experiences. It usually guides them in their practices (Carter, 1990). Conversely, they might learn things that are not useful or valuable for teaching. For example, this might be seen in reliance on excessive translation of teaching FL which turns into a habit. PK refers to "the knowledge and insights that underlie teachers' actions in practice" (Verloop et al., 2001). Meanwhile, Zanting et al. consider PK as "an amalgam of all teachers' cognitions, such as declarative and procedural knowledge, beliefs, and values, which influences their preactive, interactive, and postactive teaching activities" (2001, p. 726) for long term involvement in teaching. It also includes "reasons underlying teaching, considerations, arguments, personal motives, and zeal" (ibid). As Mangubhai et al. note, "what teachers do in classrooms is largely shaped by this practical knowledge, a premise that is well established and widely accepted" (2004, p. 293).

Furthermore, Meijer et al. identify teachers' PK as "personal, related to context and content, often tacit, and based on (re-flection on) experience" (1999, p. 60). Likewise, Golombek (1998, p. 459) identifies other characteristics of this knowledge as it informs practice, guides teachers' sense-making processes, filters experiences so that teachers reconstruct them. It responds to the exigencies of teaching situation and informs practice by giving it a physical form. In this way, EFL teachers' personal PK shapes and is shaped by their understandings of teaching and learning that are constructed during their life. Some of this may be built prior to commencing teaching or involvement in the teacher education programme or training as Meijer et al. (1999) stated above.

Elbaz's (1981, 1983) conceptualization of teachers' PK was based on a case study of an English teacher. She classifies PK using four categories: content, orientations, structure, and cognitive style. According to Elbaz, the content of PK includes the things that teachers know about themselves, their students, their teaching contexts, and the subject

matter. The content of knowledge is acquired and re-enacted through various orientations and structure. There are five orientations of PK: situational, theoretical, personal, social, and experiential. It is the interaction of these five orientations that provides the venue for learning and directs teachers' work (Chen, 2005). The structure of PK includes practical principles, rules of practice, and image learning or acquisition. Elbaz believes that the teacher plays a role in "the implementation of new curricula, adapting and changing the materials which come his or her way" (1981, p. 43). Thus it includes the processes by which knowledge is acquired and put into practice to shape and direct the work of teaching (ibid).

Therefore, teachers have to learn and gain this knowledge formally and informally; that is, during their teaching education programmes or courses and through their practice of teaching. This issue raises questions about teacher preparation programmes, and whether they offer a sufficient amount of knowledge to candidates who become teachers. The other issue concerns those who commence teaching without having sufficient PK to enhance their teaching. It might be true that individuality plays a considerable role in establishing PK. However, having such knowledge might contribute to qualifying teachers.

For EFL teachers such as those in the context of this study, teacher education programmes are supposed to equip them with sufficient information to support their knowledge about the language and the teaching of it. This could be achieved through involving student-teachers in what is locally known as *Teaching Practice (TP)* (see 3.11), when they get opportunities to put into practice what they have learned theoretically at various institutions for many years, and to observe and evaluate others' teaching and get feedback from experienced teachers and colleagues.

3.10.2 Pedagogical Content knowledge (PCK)

The term PCK was first introduced into the discourse of teacher education by Lee Shulman. According to Shulman (1987), PCK represents the knowledge base for teaching which “lies at the intersection of content and pedagogy, in the capacity of a teacher to transform the content knowledge he or she possesses into forms that are pedagogically powerful”, and adaptive to students’ situations (1987, p. 15). Furthermore, PCK “represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners and presented for instruction”. “Pedagogical content knowledge is the category most likely to distinguish the understanding of the content specialist from that of the pedagogue” (1987, p. 8). He views PCK as what allows for the meaningful blending of content and pedagogy for teaching as teaching represents the transformation of content into pedagogical forms comprehensible to others. He argues that PCK “goes beyond knowledge of subject matter per-se to the dimension of subject matter knowledge for teaching” (Shulman, 1986) which teachers usually develop through actual teaching and establishment of experience and which accumulates over time. Shulman adds that teachers need to find the most useful forms of representation of the subject area's ideas, the most powerful analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations, and demonstrations. That is the ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to students of different levels and sometimes of different abilities. He thinks that a teacher must have what he calls “a veritable armamentarium of alternative forms of representation” that come from research or a matter of “wisdom of practice” (1986, p. 9).

Shulman demonstrates that the PCK of teachers represents interpretations and transformations of subject-matter knowledge in context in order to facilitate student learning, and he identifies several key elements of PCK;

- Knowledge of representations of subject matter (content knowledge)

- Understanding of students' conceptions of the subject and the learning and teaching implications that were associated with the specific subject matter
- General pedagogical knowledge (or teaching strategies) (1987, p. 15-16).

But the fact of involvement in teaching reveals that it is not easy to separate PCK pedagogical knowing from the activity of teaching “unless these two are considered simultaneously and as interdependent, knowledge becomes treated as a commodity that stands apart from practice” (Cobb & MacClain, 2001, p. 206 cited by Elabbar, 2011, p. 68).

In another context, Mishra & Koehler argue that:

“PCK exists at the intersection of content and pedagogy. Thus, it goes beyond a simple consideration of content and pedagogy in isolation from one another. PCK represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular aspects of subject matter are organized, adapted, and represented for instruction”(2006, p. 1021).

Having PCK also enables teachers to construct and understand the content and pedagogy of how particular aspects of subject matter are organized, adapted, and represented for delivery to students in various contexts and conditions.

In addition, Shulman acknowledges that “pedagogical content knowledge is of special interest because it identifies the distinctive bodies of knowledge for teaching” (1987, p. 8). He also argues that knowledge of subject matter and general pedagogical strategies, though necessary, are insufficient for capturing the knowledge that distinguishes good

teachers from their counterparts (ibid). In order to determine the complex ways in which teachers think about how particular content should be taught, he argues for PCK as the form of content knowledge that deals with a teaching process that includes the means of representing and formulating the subject matter to be comprehended by students (ibid). Teachers build understandings of how particular topics, problems, or issues encountered are organized, represented and adapted to the context in which they are involved and to students' interests and levels (Hashweh, 2005).

Likewise, Vonk classifies PCK as a sub-dimension of the PK teachers are required to have (1995). It represents “the distinctive kind of knowledge which teachers need to transform content knowledge to make it interesting and comprehensible to those they are teaching” (Brown & McIntyre, 1993, p. 7). This knowledge assists teachers in understanding students and acquiring the classroom management skills and teaching tactics that underpin professional knowledge. Such types of knowledge can be achieved or developed by practice in teaching. Having such knowledge “implies that teachers transform their knowledge of the subject matter into a form which makes it amenable to teaching and learning” (Borg, 2006a, p. 19). In this situation, beginner teachers are supposed to be given opportunities to transform their expertise into real teaching. This teaching is known as placement at school or teaching practice as it is known in many contexts, including that of the present study, to which I will refer in this part. Furthermore, the actual amount of PCK differentiates between experienced and beginner teachers at various levels (Gudmundsdottir & Shulman, 1987). Beginner teachers tend to develop this knowledge gradually as long as they get opportunities to be integrated into their classes, schools and with their colleagues and administrators in their first years. This kind of knowledge is subject to development during their career with appropriate training.

Beginner teachers tend to find themselves re-learning SK during their early years of teaching. They may have an elaborate academic background but, they might not be able

to translate their knowledge to their students despite having been successful in their studies. They go through a stage of re-framing their subject knowledge to help their students (Vonk, 1995).

3.10.3 Subject Matter Knowledge (content knowledge) SK

Equipping teachers with sufficient knowledge about the subject intended to be taught is considered as an essential component of teacher knowledge. For instance, Elbaz (1981) argues that SK and curriculum knowledge are fundamental aspects of teachers' knowledge. Furthermore, Shulman (1987) adds that SK represents understanding of the subject matter, its structures being organized by teachers in a different way from that of subject matter specialists. Likewise, Beijaard et al. state that for teaching purposes, knowledge of subject matter which represents the theoretical information about the subject, is just one of the parts of a teacher's professional knowledge base (2000). SK has three components: substantive knowledge, syntactic knowledge, and beliefs about teaching and learning. Substantive knowledge covers the discipline: the facts, ideas, and theories of a subject (Shulman, 1986) that facilitate elaboration, explanation and make it accessible to their students regardless of differences in context and subjects. Turner-Bisset (2001) illustrates that syntactic knowledge represents the means by which new knowledge is presented to students. Teachers' beliefs about the subject influence their choice and the way they apply it because they have their own assumptions which they bring to their classroom practices where such "knowledge and beliefs function as filters for interpreting new experiences, or selection from new information" (Verloop et al., 2001, p. 454).

This knowledge can be developed through formal and informal learning by student – teachers during courses of study in different institutions. In the case of EFL teachers, Norrish (1997) emphasizes that they need to be linguistically aware of the fundamentals of knowledge about language and aspects of language use. Mastery of this knowledge

enables teachers to teach the content of the curriculum at certain levels and be aware of the content of the next level (Hegarty, 2000). Without it, teachers and in particular EFL teachers will find themselves in an endless dilemma that might lead them to quit teaching. The situation of some NGTs in the context of this study can offer a real example of when the lack of SK was among the difficulties these teachers encountered. Moreover, their teacher education programme provided evidence of the importance of grasping this knowledge efficiently.

There has been much debate about what constitutes content knowledge for the second language teacher. For instance, Borg (2006b) found that the content of language teaching is more complex and varied than that of other subjects. Teachers are required to understand the subject matter thoroughly themselves first and then find means of transferring what they have learned to their students at different levels. In addition, the SK of the second language is hard to limit and define since everything is considered new to the students and the teacher's role is to facilitate transferring the huge amount of knowledge to their students. If the teacher himself or herself has not been equipped with the knowledge of that particular subject, he or she will be in a difficult situation in front of his or her students. As Shulman argues;

To teach is first to understand. We ask that the teacher comprehends critically a set of ideas to be taught. We expect teachers to understand what they teach and, when possible, to understand it in several ways. They should understand how a given idea relates to other ideas within the same subject area and to ideas in other subjects as well (1987, p. 14).

Shulman places 'comprehension' at the centre before starting teaching (ibid, p. 15). Based on this view, teachers should not only know the SK, but should also have the

ability to understand it from the perspective of their students and in different contexts. Therefore, teachers need to be equipped with practical as well as theoretical knowledge.

In reference to what Shulman and other researchers have stated, EFL teachers are supposed to be taught intensive materials about CK content and its subsequent knowledge; PCK during their teacher education programmes as a means to qualify them for teaching. Day (1993) claims that CK includes knowledge of SK that is represented in what EFL or ESL teachers teach, e.g. literary aspects of English language courses that include syntax, semantics, phonology and pragmatics. For instance, knowledge of language can be “conceptualized as content knowledge” (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000, p. 440) that EFL teachers are required to gain through traditional instruction. Likewise, EFL teachers need intensive awareness or what Andrews (2001) calls “language awareness” to refer to knowledge about language (SK) and of language (language proficiency). He argues that having language awareness involves a dimension of reflections upon knowledge of the SK and knowledge of language proficiency, which usually provides a basis for the tasks of planning and teaching. SK is of unlimited scope for EFL teachers. Thus Shulman asserts that “much, if not most, of the proposed knowledge base remains to be discovered, invented, and refined” (1987, p. 12) and includes the following aspects under the domain of content knowledge for EFL teachers:

The teacher of English should know English and American prose and poetry, written and spoken language use and comprehension, and grammar. In addition, he or she should be familiar with the critical literature that applies to particular novels or epics that are under discussion in class. Moreover, the teacher should understand alternative theories of interpretation and criticism, and how these might

relate to issues of curriculum and of teaching (ibid, p. 9).

Shulman's statement might be exaggerated in terms of EFL teacher preparation programmes. However, these programmes include not only SK, but also aspects of the language and its culture as embedded in reading, literature and literary studies (See tables. 3, 4). This may vary from one institution to another, yet it provides "language awareness" (Andrews, 2001).

In another domain, Troudi argues that teachers need to be aware of "not only the technical knowledge of language and the various discourses of the related fields, but the cultural and socio-political issues that come with teaching English" (2005, p. 119). He expands the knowledge to include the ever-changing role of English and its increasing effect in almost all fields of life. This can be a part of EFL teacher education (ibid). This study attempts to investigate the extent that EFL teachers are equipped with such knowledge as part of their ITE in various institutions and the impact of this knowledge on the formation of their experiences. This will be fully investigated later in the discussion in (7.6).

3.10.4 Pedagogical (practical) Knowledge (PK)

Teachers have to know the mechanism of transferring or reframing and practising the knowledge they have gained during their teacher education study or earlier to their students. Balanced PK is a crucial component of the knowledge of various "teaching strategies, beliefs and practices, regardless of the focus of the subject matter (how we teach); e.g., classroom management, motivation, decision making" (Day, 1993, p. 3-4). Furthermore, Borg argues that teachers' PK is included in a general framework of teacher cognition, explained as "what teachers know, believe, and think" (Borg, 2003, p. 81). It forms the goals, procedures and strategies that teachers employ in the classroom

(Mullock, 2006). PK differs from CK since the first involves communication between teachers and their students, whereas the second covers absorption of subject matter knowledge over a considerable period of time. Such knowledge is constructed as a result of formal learning (schooling) and by experience in using it. It can be absorbed when there is direct contact with the language (a form of informal learning-that is socially situated) (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Lave and Wenger pointed out that all learning in community is situated and comes as a result of practicing in the activities of that professional communities.

Researchers have found that teachers' PCK represents "specific conceptions and learning difficulties with respect to this particular content domain and representation and teaching strategies" (Verloop et al., 2001, p. 449). What can be noticed in EFL or ESL teacher education programmes is intensive concentration on CK that includes elements related to the language itself (Day, 1993), but it "fails to provide novices with adequate procedural knowledge of classrooms, adequate knowledge of pupils or the extended practice needed to acquire that knowledge or realistic view of teaching in its full classroom or school context" (Kagan, 1992, p. 162).

EFL teachers develop this knowledge over time; when they are students and when they are involved in teaching (Golombek, 1998) and (Verloop et al., 2001). Courses of teacher education programmes may contain subjects related to pedagogy and education. However, personal interest in teaching and training seems to play a vital role in developing and expanding this knowledge over time (Borg, 2003; Calderhead, 1987). The present study aimed at investigating teachers' perceptions in terms of their education and how they view themselves as EFL teachers in light of the sorts of knowledge they have and what they expect to have.

3.10.5 Knowledge of Self

Although it is an important category, Shulman (1986) unlike Elbaz (1983) did not include knowledge of self in his classification of knowledge. Kagan, however, emphasized the central role of this knowledge stating that “indeed without a strong image of self as a teacher, a novice may be doomed to flounder” (1992, p. 147). Hence teachers begin to use their growing knowledge to modify, adapt, and reconstruct their views of themselves as teachers. Moreover, Turner-Bisset (2001) believes that knowledge of self combines personal with professional knowledge because it affects teachers’ teaching practices as they often need to reflect on their ‘knowledge of self’. It is important to add the sense of identity. Turner-Bisset adds that “teaching is a profession in which the self is a crucial element, which demands a heavy investment of the self and in which the self in evaluation and reflection plays an important part” (2001, p. 16). Furthermore, Richards (1996) highlights that knowledge of self relates to the teacher’s personal and subjective philosophy of teaching and the teacher’s view of what comprises good teaching.

Black & Halliwell, moreover, argue that “Self-knowledge grows out of personal experience and can affect, even transform on going experience” (2000, p. 104). It assists teachers in looking for other possibilities and widens their imaginative capabilities to tackle problematic situations never before encountered (ibid). It seems that teachers develop this knowledge as they become more involved in teaching. Motivation within the profession also enhances it positively. In addition, courses of psychology, education and involvement in initial teacher training (ITE), and TP before starting actual teaching enhance self-awareness (Atay, 2007). Nevertheless, it develops over time; it should be one of the knowledge elements teachers have to gain for themselves through interest in teaching and its practice. As much as teachers become aware of themselves as qualified or unqualified, this reflects on their practice, development and identity as teachers. With reference to the literature surveyed, the present study attempts to investigate the types of

knowledge the teachers involved in this study had and its impact on their experiences and perceptions of themselves as EFL teachers. This will be fully explored later on in (7.11).

3.10.6 Teachers' Knowledge of Learners

Shulman (1987) referred to this knowledge as did other researchers such as Turner-Bisset (1999). In this context, teachers need to have some social and cognitive knowledge of their learners. Social knowledge includes knowing their age characteristics, their behaviour in the classroom and school, their interests, their social nature and any factors that might affect their achievement or failure, behaviour and the teacher-student relationship. Alternatively, cognitive knowledge of learners consists of two elements: teachers' knowledge of child development which informs their practice and their knowledge of a particular group of learners in a particular context and what they might know or understand. This entails knowledge about their individual needs which is essential for effective learning. Teachers often develop this knowledge from education programmes that include courses in psychology, educational psychology and other subjects related to this issue like the teachers in the current study. They also improve this knowledge through direct contact with learners through training before commencing actual teaching and then they redevelop/amend this knowledge when they engage in formal teaching. According to Shulman, (1987; 1986) and Turner-Bisset, (1999) teachers modify their instructions to cater for the various abilities of their students. This knowledge reflects the tactics teachers use with these students. Furthermore, it assists teachers to make sense of, and to assess, events in the classroom and the on-going stage of the lessons (Mayer & Marland, 1997).

Many EFL teachers in the Libyan setting are familiar with the context: students' levels, interests and other factors that might interfere with and affect their studies and achievement. They built this awareness from being students and members of the same society. They also speak the same language and share almost the same culture, values

and context. By involvement in TP (see 3. 12) and starting actual teaching, they refresh and widen this knowledge. Then through years of teaching, this knowledge develops more effectively and teachers become more capable of controlling students of different levels and abilities. In addition, in the Libyan context, the teacher preparation programme contributes to raising students' awareness of any social issues in relation to the learners in courses like psychology, educational psychology and teaching strategies and other subjects that might be taught in the Arabic language (see table 4, 5).

3.10.7 Teachers' Knowledge of the Curriculum

Knowledge of the curriculum is the knowledge from which teachers adapt those tools for teaching. Shulman (1986) elaborated that curricular knowledge is,

represented by the full range of programs designed for the teaching of particular subjects and topics at, a given level, the variety of instructional materials available in relation to those programs, and the set of characteristics that serve as both the indications and contraindications for the use of particular curriculum or program materials in particular circumstances (1986, p.10).

In addition, Shulman classified two dimensions of curricular knowledge that are of importance for teaching: "lateral" and "vertical" curriculum knowledge. Lateral knowledge relates to knowledge of the curriculum to issues discussed in other subject areas while vertical knowledge includes "familiarity with the topics and issues that have been and will be taught in the same subject area during the preceding and later years in school, and the materials that embody them" (ibid). It includes the materials and resources used for teaching a particular subject, its structure and sequence of presenting different learning materials.

Turner-Bisset (1999) proposed that teachers should be able to evaluate curricular materials critically. She argued that it was insufficient for teachers to just use and rely on approved materials without judging their actual appropriateness for their purposes or to their students' needs, interest and even culture sometimes. Awareness of curriculum knowledge familiarizes teachers with materials for teaching which are not necessarily available in assigned textbooks. They can manage themselves and find materials appropriate for particular students or contexts, for instance, differences in cultural concepts. In this case, knowledge of the curriculum helps teachers select materials according to certain criteria that serve the aim(s) of a certain topic. For instance, Harmer (2007) identifies the criteria that teachers might take into consideration in selecting appropriate materials related to the curriculum: practical considerations, layout and design, activities, skills, language type, subject, content, and guidance. Involvement in teaching different curricula contributes to widening teacher's knowledge about curricula in general and in the choice of specific materials for certain levels, abilities and contexts. It enables teachers to create their own materials and benefit from sources other than textbooks assigned by the educational authority and without deviating from the proposed aims. Such awareness of the various curricula enables some teachers, particularly those who are experienced, to evaluate them and amend mistakes without the need of notifications from inspectors or the unit of curriculum planning, as happens in Libya as demonstrated in this study.

EFL teacher education has long been focused on the subject matter of language teaching as the core and less on the socio-cultural processes of learning to teach (Freeman & Johnson, 1998) and (Johnson, 2000; cited by Yates & Muchisky, 2003). In another context, Lantolf particularly values developing language awareness in programmes for EFL teachers as the major component of knowledge. He suggests that they "need to reinvest in courses designed to enhance the depth and breadth of explicit knowledge of the target language of their graduates" (2009, p. 270). Types of knowledge teachers should know, are areas that should be included as professional knowledge in the

discipline. Issues related to the act of teaching should be conceptualized to assist in teachers' work in their classrooms without deemphasizing what teachers need to know about language and language acquisition (Yates & Muchisky, 2003).

In the Libyan context, EFL teachers in the basic education have access to textbooks assigned by the MoE. It is the responsibility of the teacher to use and benefit from any sources within the syllabi for each level as explored more fully later on. Here, personal knowledge plays a vital role in the choice and exploitation of materials to enhance the ultimate goal of the teacher and the curriculum. In general EFL teachers in the context of this study do not play any role in decision making about the curriculum at any stage in terms of designing, preparation and evaluation (Orafi, 2008). There is a special department of curricula concerned with design and preparation. This means teachers are unaware of the content of the curriculum, its objectives and the possibilities of improving it. EFL teachers complain about the intensity of the curriculum and the lack of time allotted to cover it in consideration of the semester system applied in the Libyan context. They also argue about the training that teachers need to have to apply such curricula properly as they were based on Communicative Language Teaching CLT. As a result of this situation, Orafi's study revealed that Libyan teachers "interpreted and implemented the curriculum according to beliefs which were not in line with the recommendations of the curriculum" (2008, p. 200). Moreover, he argued that teachers considered it to be beyond their abilities and understanding (ibid) because the new curriculum of English language (see. 2.7) for basic and secondary education was introduced "without consideration of teachers' prior experience, existing beliefs and the kinds of support teachers need to understand, accept and implement this curriculum as intended" (ibid, p.214).

The impact of the implementation of the new curriculum can be noticed in the inability of some teachers to use it effectively, or benefit from the supporting teacher's manual. Orafi's study also revealed that teachers' practices in classrooms in most of the cases he

investigated did not reflect the principles of the new curriculum. Practice was still teacher centred and Arabic is overused which contradicts one particular objective of implementing the new curriculum, namely that speaking in English becomes a regular activity for both teachers and students (Macfarlane, 2000). His study also revealed the gap between the objectives of the new curriculum and what teachers implemented in class in terms of emphasis on correction of grammatical and pronunciation mistakes. The teachers did not focus on practice in class and they ignored listening and speaking as skills (Orafi, 2008). The teaching of writing “deviated significantly from the approach suggested by the curriculum” (ibid, p. 214). This situation arises because there is a gap between what the teachers know and use in classroom and the new curriculum. In addition, it was implemented without training the teachers in its use and allowing them to gain experience of some of its inherent difficulties. This study aimed to listen to teachers’ views about their understanding of the curriculum and the impact of that on their experiences about teaching as explored more fully later on in (6.11.1) and (6.11.2).

The current study is different from Orafi’s study, as it attempts to investigate the experiences and perceptions of NGTs in the post-conflict Libya. It focuses on their challenges, the role of their teacher education programmes and their impact on the formation of their experiences and perceptions. In my study, CoP was the framework and operationalization of its elements assisted me to go so far to understand teachers’ perspectives and experiences in relation to the new curriculum. Orafi studied teachers’ belief and practice in relation to the implementation of the new curriculum. It investigated what the teachers did while they were implementing the new curricula and how their beliefs and other contextual factors shaped what they did. It provided significant insights into the process of educational innovations.

3.10.8 Knowledge of Educational Contexts

This type of knowledge includes knowledge of schools, classrooms and all settings where learning takes place (Shulman,1986 ; Rainbird et al., 2004), regardless of the

particular social areas. It has a significant impact on teachers' performance, and the contextual factors that affect development and classroom performance (Turner-Bisset, 1999). The educational context usually affects teacher's work and causes him or her to adopt varying roles (Fradd & Lee, 1998) to cope with colleagues, head teachers, and inspectors.

Teachers might tend to build this knowledge during different stages: both while they are students and later on when they become teachers. Such knowledge goes through changes and modification since teachers move from one stage to another and change from one status to another; that is, a student first and then a teacher. This study is an attempt to discover the extent to which the educational context contributes to developing a teacher's knowledge.

3.11 TP Experiences

Teacher preparation programmes usually consist of initial theoretical-based courses followed by school-based student teaching practice (TP) which lasts for different durations. Thus, the school-based TP experience has been seen as one of the most critical and essential components for preparing future teachers (Farrell, 2001 ; Johnson, 1996a). It is considered as a continuation of teacher learning that student teachers began at their training institution (Crookes, 2003 ; Darling-Hammond, 2006 ; Intrator, 2006). It provides the initial chance to try out and to improve the skills needed for effective pre-service teachers' instructional practice (Johnson, 1996a) that indicates their development and learning needs rather than demonstrating learning as the outcome of their courses (Zeichner, 1996). TP can be defined as "a setting designed for the task of learning a practice. In a context which approximates a practice world, students learn by doing, although their doing usually falls short of real world work" (Schon,1987, p. 23 cited by Wilson & L'Anson, 2006, p. 354). It is "a short term intensive opportunity for professional growth...In it, with institutional support and an extensive commitment of personal time and attention, teachers move forward in various aspects of their

professional lives" (Crookes, 2003, p. 20). It aims at preparing and providing student-teachers with practical, authentic experiences in classrooms of various levels that would facilitate long term teacher development (Schon, 1987, p. 37 cited by Wilson & L'Anson, 2006, p. 354). It provides a situated learning through engagement in teaching which may turn to become full participation and involves the construction of identity (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

The TP stage is a highly valued component of the teacher education programme (Farrell, 2001 ; Crookes, 2003 ; Richards & Crookes, 1988). It “provides teacher candidates with opportunities for inquiry, for trying and testing new ideas within collaborative relationships, and for talking about teaching and new ways” (Schulz, 2005, p. 148). This stage can be underpinned by the concept of ‘school based experiences’ in which student-teachers will be provided with supervised experiences that support them while they begin to realize the full scope of the teacher’s role (Tuli & File, 2009). To achieve effective training, a TP programme introduces the essential experiences; student-teachers have to be exposed to in their education regardless of the approach applied (Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005). It is a significant opportunity for student-teachers to acquire the practical skills and knowledge needed to be effective teachers (Richards, 1998). They may immerse themselves in the work situation, observe, absorb and ultimately imitate the teachers being observed, through “exposure to practices of experienced teachers” (Zeichner, 2006, p. 333) ; that is to interact, learn and develop in the workplace- situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991 ; Wenger, 1998). In this situation, there is an assumption that beginner teachers benefit from the expertise of the teachers being observed (Keogh et al., 2006). However, the view of teachers as experts is a debatable issue. It might not necessarily be the case that expert teachers do have the expertise that can classify them as legitimate models for a student teacher to imitate. The current study attempts to investigate the role of TP experiences in teacher education programme in the Libyan context and the views of teachers about it if there was any.

Researchers such as Segall (2002) and Zeichner (1996 ; 1999) cited in (Schulz, 2005) have consistently acknowledged that TP is the most valuable aspect of a teacher education programme. It is regarded as a complementary component of the course that fosters professional development among aspiring teachers (Keogh et al., 2006). The TP provides opportunities for student-teachers to make a critical link between theory and practice that takes them from an “idealised conception of teaching to the hard realities” (Lo, 1996, p. 41). Moreover, Ewart & Straw (2005), Richards & Crookes (1988), Huling (1998) and Farrell (2001) highly evaluate the TP experiences and find them to be a supportive path to development, learning, gaining practical and professional knowledge-through involvement in the teaching profession. Student-teachers can experience first-hand not only curricula, students, administrators, but also about the skills that help them reframe knowledge, and create their own perspectives on teaching and learning to teach effectively. Therefore, Schulz calls for an educative TP that helps student-teachers to understand the full scope of a teacher's role and “develop the capacity to learn from future experiences and to accomplish the central purpose of teaching, helping all pupils to learn” (Schulz, 2005, p. 149). This study attempts to investigate the extent to which the TP experiences are important to the Libyan teacher if there was one. Listening to the teachers’ views about it sheds the light on the role it played in preparing teachers who graduated from some institutions.

3.12 EFL teacher and TP experience

The TP experience plays a very crucial role in habituating and preparing a teacher for actual teaching in its real settings. At the same time, very little is written about EFL teachers’ perceptions of the TP experience and its value, how the teacher’s conceptions are shaped about teaching and about how EFL teachers teach (Johnson, 1996a). Even the limited research which has been done cannot be used to generalize the findings. It was carried out in one context, which is culturally specific and may not necessarily be transferable to other contexts such as Singapore (Farrell, 2008b), Thailand (Hays, 2008a) and Hong Kong (Richards & Pennington, 1998).

EFL teachers seem to find a gap between their conceptions of second language teaching and the TP experience (Johnson, 1996b). Johnson conducted a case study research that included one teacher, Maja. Johnson collected her data through interviews and additional notes collected through observations and post observation meetings. Furthermore, Johnson (1996b) noticed that student –teachers have a critical lack of knowledge about managing students when they begin their TP experiences. Johnson’s findings corresponded with those of previous studies that have tackled such an issue (Kagan, 1992; Weinstein, 1989). Thus, Johnson has recommended teacher education programmes that “put forth a realistic view of teaching that recognizes the realities of classroom life and adequately prepares pre-service teachers to cope with those realities” (Johnson, 1996a, p, 47). According to this view, EFL teachers are supposed to be equipped with classroom management knowledge, knowledge about students’ needs, interest, aptitudes, personalities and understanding of their own conceptions as teachers (ibid). This study aims to investigate the impact of TP experience if there was any on formation of the teachers’ experiences.

3.13 Significance of TP

Clark states that “if the literature and folklore of teacher education agree on one point, it is that the student teaching experience or practicum is important” (Clark, 1988, p. 1 cited by Farrell, 2001, p. 49). This quotation indicates the absolute significance of this stage for beginner teachers regardless of the subject of specialty and the contexts. It provides student teachers with the core support to commence teaching from different perspectives. Student-teachers themselves, according to Beck & Kosnik (2000), seek professional assistance. Emotional support will facilitate practice teaching and eliminates future challenges by creating intimate experiences. At the outset, the TP socializes student teachers into a teaching atmosphere and helps them grow as teachers in their own way (Farrell, 2001). Furthermore, through their qualitative research and by conducting interviews and a survey with student-teachers, Beck & Kosnik (2000) have found that

student-teachers need to be respected and treated as appointed teachers by their supervisors and peers. This led some educators to use the term ‘pre-service teacher’ or teacher candidate’ to avoid the lower status associated with student-teacher. The views of interviewees indicated the desire of the student-teachers to create flexible, cooperative relationships with their supervisors or associate teachers in terms of lesson planning, searching for resources and designing activities and exams. By such collaboration, those teachers find the comfort and support that can help them to develop strategies for effective learning as well as teaching. Student-teachers expressed their strong desire to get feedback that will help them improve their knowledge and practice. What was motivating the teachers’ replies was their interest in having supervisors that are knowledgeable in how to approach teaching effectively and who would therefore offer the constructive feedback that those teachers seek (ibid).

The TP experience may provide propositional knowledge that initial teacher education cannot offer and which beginner teachers apparently need. Zeichner regarded TP as a vital period for student-teachers to develop themselves rather than to demonstrate what they have learnt during college or institutes courses (1996). During TP experience, student-teachers go through a stage of reshaping and modifying their existing knowledge, beliefs, and practices rather than simply learning new theories (Johnson & Golombek, 2002 ; Johnson, 1994). Researchers have found overall that during and after TP experience student-teachers’ teaching skills improved and increased (Hascher et al., 2004).

The TP stage might however, represent terrifying experiences to some student-teachers. A large number of teachers may expect failure, a lack of acceptance by their mentors or supervisors, misunderstanding by their students and problems with classroom management and discipline (Hascher et al., 2004). Sometimes student-teachers are supervised by “classroom teachers [who] are generally not prepared for the responsibility of supervising a student teacher” (Richards & Crookes, 1988, p. 23). This situation might

cause problems between the teacher and student-teachers. Moreover, student teachers might pick up ideas that are inappropriate for their teaching and that might have an impact not only on them, but also on their students and their teaching, especially if no kind of subsequent training is available. For an EFL student-teacher, the TP experiences provide them with opportunities to “observe, and work with real students, teachers, and curriculum in natural settings” (Huling, 1998, p.1). They get involved in direct, supervised teaching experiences and indirect ones that include observing teachers (Farrell, 2001) or colleagues teaching. However, such experiences provide “limited exposure to the real world of TESOL” (Richards & Crookes, 1988, p. 22). Richards & Crookes conducted a survey of the MA programme in America in which student-teachers learn classroom management skills, lesson planning, awareness of teaching style and student-teacher interaction. Although the TP experiences may be short in duration, they are still remarkably critical to EFL teachers no matter how they are designed, and the best way to gain professional knowledge and expertise as teachers in their early stage (Hascher et al., 2004). The impact of TP in terms of changes in attitudes among student-teachers and their adoption of more beneficial stances towards students and curricula has been demonstrated by research (ibid). Hascher et al. collected their data from a questionnaire distributed to 150 student teachers in Bern University in Switzerland. In addition, they analyzed feedback from the mentor and the trainer, the TP report and a daily diary for student-teachers.

In another context, Johnson claims that the TP offers opportunities for student- teachers to refine their prior beliefs about second language teaching, learning and themselves as teachers (Johnson, 1994). Moreover, she elaborates that TP experience provides EFL teachers with alternative instructional practices and images of a teacher that help them to achieve shifts in their beliefs. Consequently, risk taking can occur during the TP experience if they have taken courses that support this. It seems now that Johnson suggests that a second language education course “must begin to put forth a view of second language teaching that recognizes the realities of classroom life and adequately

prepares the pre-service teacher to not only contend with but, eventually empower them to alter those realities” (1994, p. 451). Furthermore, she recommends that EFL TP experience should facilitate the encountering of alternative instructional practices that assist student teachers in constructing new conceptualizations of themselves as teachers (1994). She has formed such views upon the findings from her study of four EFL teachers by means of a written journal, open-ended interviews, videotaped lessons and observation carried out during the placement period.

There is limited research about TP experience in the field of EFL in other contexts where English is taught as a foreign language like the context of this study. Therefore, this study aims to explore the teachers’ experiences of the TP stage as part of teacher education programmes in different institutions that qualify their students to be EFL teachers if there was any. Listening to NGTs’ views and perception is another issue to be fully explored later on 6.17.2.1, 6.17.2.2.

3.14 Chapter Summary

To sum up, this part has discussed the main issues in relation to teacher early experiences, socialization and induction with reference to EFL teacher. In the second part, teacher education was introduced. It covered the types of knowledge teachers are supposed to be equipped with and TP experiences within the domain of EFL teaching. This review enabled me to spot the situation of the NGTs in the context of this study. It also pinpoints the gap in the teacher preparation programme in my context.

Chapter 4: The conceptual framework: Communities of Practice

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents situating learning; learning as becoming in communities of practice, henceforth CoP, and the dimensions of CoP. The following discussion of CoP has considerable relevance to my research as CoP can demonstrate how the beginner teachers learn, develop themselves and build their unique identities as EFL teachers. CoP as a theory is a tool that has assisted me in operationalizing its concepts to understand the data of this study. It is the means by which experiences of the NGTs can be understood.

4.2 Learning in situated learning theory (Learning as socially situated activity)

Lave and Wenger envisage learning as socially situated, focusing on “the structure of social practice rather than privileging the structure of pedagogy as the source of learning” (1991, p. 113). Hammersley believes that Lave and Wenger “emphasize that learning generally involves social participation in communities, and even more importantly that it amounts to the learner coming to behave in ways that are recognized as competent within a particular community” (2005, p. 6). Lave & Wenger describe learning as an “aspect of social practice, learning involves the whole person; it implies not only a relation to specific activities, but also a relation to social communities” (1991, p. 53). They add:

Learning only partly-and often incidentally- implies becoming able to be involved in new activities, to perform new tasks and functions, to master new understandings. Activities, tasks, functions, and understandings do not exist in isolation; they are part of broader systems of relations in which they have meaning. These systems of relations arise out of and are reproduced and developed within social communities, which are part of systems of relations among persons (ibid, p. 53).

Significant Learning is “what changes our ability to engage in practice, the understanding of why we engage in it, and the resources we have at our disposal to do so. ... Our experience and our membership inform each other, pull each other, and transform each other” (Wenger,1998, p. 95-96). Members create what is to be learned while learning. Thus, learning is embedded in practice, not outside it or prior to it.

The arguments built on the previous discussion have informed my understanding of how the NGTs of English in schools in post-conflict Libya can learn and build their identities as teachers and develop themselves as qualified teachers. Their situation is sensitive and one of the options for them seems to be situated learning within their communities. Potential opportunities for gaining more learning might be available to some of them but not to all. The country is still suffering the consequences of the on-going traumatic, bloody revolution, where military action has taken new paths somehow nearer to civil war in many parts of the country. There may be little possibility for these teachers to participate in any actual training courses sponsored by the MoE currently. Thus, the majority of those teachers are required to learn within their situations; their professional communities.

4.3 Learning as becoming

For Lave and Wenger (1991) learning is an on-going process rather than a series of acquisition events. It is “knowing how to be in practice”, rather than “knowing about practice” (Brown & Duguid, 2002, p.138) and this involves a process of identity development through participation in the practice of the community. Learners (teachers in the context of this study) come to know, learn new knowledge and skills, refine and reinforce what they have already learnt during their formal education through engagement in goal-directed activities (teaching English). They intend to learn, improve themselves to become qualified teachers. It is the aim of such learning to build a recognized personality. Learning and building identity are parallel. These views correspond with Wenger’s view (1998), that “Learning transforms who we are and what

we can do, it is an experience of identity. It is not just an accumulation of skills and information, but a process of becoming-to become a certain person or, conversely, to avoid becoming a certain person” (ibid, p. 215).

What these individual NGTs learn is shaped by the kinds of activities in which they engage, and also the types of interaction with social partners and sources that are afforded by the workplace. Therefore, they become integral parts of the social contexts or communities where they work and learn at the same time. Interaction and involvement through authentic participation in their communities are the means by which they learn, develop and build their identities as teachers of English.

Within CoP theorization, learning is conceived as a process of becoming a member of a certain community. This necessitates having the ability to communicate in the language of this community as “learning implies participation in the instructional activities” of the community (Sfard, 1998, p. 6). Such participation involves both taking part and being part and thus learning is viewed as becoming. Learners contribute to the formation of the community as well as its activities. Similarly, Colley et al. share with Lave & Wenger (1991) the view that it is the social participation that enables newcomers to learn from their experienced colleagues and this learning is “intimately bound up with the social context in which it is situated” (2003, p. 474-475). They add that becoming immersed in the social, cultural and emotional aspects of work are essential factors that influence learning, and building identity (becoming) (ibid). The learning culture changes them, just as they, in turn can contribute to change the culture through the types of knowledge, skills and values they bring to the workplace. Lave & Wenger consider CoP as the prime unit in creating such social practice. They state that;

a community of practice is an intrinsic condition for the existence of knowledge. ... Thus, participation in the cultural practice in which any knowledge exists

is an epistemological principle of learning. The social structure of this practice, its power relations, and its conditions for legitimacy define possibilities for learning (1991, p. 98).

For Libyan teachers, joining such a community is crucial in enabling them to learn from their own participation and from other colleagues' participation. They learn and at the same time they contribute to the continuity of the community by what they bring to it and through active participation. This learning assists them to form new identities as teachers. Thus, the community represents the context and the sources for learning and practice. In CoP, the focus is on social practice as the core of learning and becoming. Thus, Lave and Wenger (1991) stress the significance of belonging to a CoP, and of learning as a part of the process of becoming a full member. "The most fundamental point is that a CoP is not a synonym for a group, a team or any random collection of individuals" (McLoughin et al., 2008, p. 150). The key element is that participants share mutual engagement and reflection (ibid). Participants learn by engaging with each other, and contribute to the development of their communities. This happens through negotiating and the reification of meaning within the community.

4.4 Communities of Practice

Lave & Wenger define CoP as "a set of relations among persons, activity and world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities of practice" (1991, p. 98). Newcomers to a workplace practise the community activities and gradually become socialized with its routines, norms and regulations. They develop understandings of the language and what is appropriate and inappropriate in terms of behaviours within that community. Lave & Wenger posit that;

social communities are in part systems of relations among persons. The person is defined by as well as

defines these relations. Learning thus implies becoming a different person with respect to the possibilities enabled by these systems of relations. To ignore this aspect of learning is to overlook the fact that learning involves the construction of identities. ...identity, knowing and social membership entail one another (1991, p. 53).

Practice is central to the community wherein members build relationships and develop identities. In CoP “the focus on creating identity through membership of (a) community is thought to distinguish it as a social learning model” (Moule, 2006, p. 371). Likewise, Kirkup asserts that “individuals and collectivities are seen to create or perform their identities through learning” (2002, p. 182) in their communities which “are seen as having strong reciprocity and members are actively engaged in the negotiation of meaning” (ibid, p.187). Furthermore, Wenger (1998) goes on to suggest that communities are not necessarily homogeneous, but are composed of diverse individuals. However, through working together they make “engagement in practice possible and productive” (1998, p. 75). Disagreement and conflict can constitute a core characteristic of a shared practice and may support the existence of the community. Individuals will create their own identities that function within the community through mutual engagement, a sharing of practice. Issues of disagreement and conflict will be discussed later on in (4.4.3) in p. 100.

Wenger (1998) outlines three major components of CoP: mutual engagement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire which are the source of community coherence. These elements are of great importance and relevance to the current study and are therefore operationalized for analysis of the data. Thus, it is important to give a clear explanation of what each element means in relation to my research. The next sections discuss these

dimensions respectively. The outset deals with mutual engagement as a basic element of CoP and highlights its related parts.

In the context of this study, a working definition of CoP is a group of people-staff members (teachers) bound together by profession and interests in teaching English in mainstream education in both basic and secondary schools in Libya and who continually interact and negotiate issues of interest and relevance to all schools on a regular basis.

4.4.1 Mutual Engagement

Mutual engagement is the basis for establishing coherent relationships in the CoP. It exists because members engage in activities whose meaning they negotiate with each other on a regular basis (Wenger, 1998). This requires members to be involved in regular interaction in which they negotiate the meaning of practice within their community. This interaction might be manifested through formal or informal meetings which create engagement and actions to maintain the community. For teachers in the context of this study, issues such as discussion of the curriculum, exchange of books or lesson plan notebooks, exam preparation and marking may be keystones for negotiation and practice in the community. Other issues of social interest may stimulate extra interaction and act to maintain the community. Gradually this extends to include discussion about current social events.

The teachers might share mutual engagement as they engage in establishing relationships with their colleagues (teachers of English) and other teachers in schools. Such interactions might include sharing or exchange of course books, negotiating issues related to exams and having extra classes to make up missing time during the semester. They may participate in preparing midterm and final exams. They may also carry out marking of final exams together. These conditions might provide opportunities for continuous interaction that enhances the creation of relationships between the members that can work to the benefit of the community.

4.4.2 Enabling engagement

Being a member and included in the community's activities is necessary for enabling engagement. Within the physical environment of the community (school in the context of this study), this might include being present at meetings and other formal activities related to school norms as arranging an open day or a trip, issues connected with the curriculum, or even being involved in workplace gossip during break time. Such engagement defines belonging; knowing and understanding issues related to the community and yields full participation. Maintaining the coherence of the community requires work that might be less noticeable and done by one particular member, for instance, sharing breakfast, drinks, reading, exchanging magazines, newspaper together during breaks. This might be a voluntary act on the part of members as a means to enhance mutual relationships. The NGTs may approach experienced teachers to ask for help. In turn the more experienced teachers can help to create the appropriate atmosphere to start negotiating relevant issues with those teachers. The possible outcome might be increased engagement and development of understanding on both sides. However, the opposite might be the case when either side is reluctant to participate or prefers to remain apart as shall be seen.

4.4.3 Diversity and Partiality

According to Wenger's argument (1998) homogeneity is not a necessity for the continuity of the community; "what makes engagement in practice possible and productive is as much a matter of diversity as it is a matter of homogeneity" (1998, p. 75). Yet members' relationships enable them to influence each other's interaction within the community. They work together, meet regularly, and exchange information and opinions. However, participants still build their own identities that contribute to the mutual engagement and a shared practice. "Each participant in a community of practice finds a unique place and gains a unique identity, which is both further integrated and further defined in the course of engagement in practice" (ibid, p.75-76). Mutual engagement involves both our own competence as well as the competence of other

members in the community. "... this competence is experienced and manifested by members through their own engagement in practice" (Wenger, 1998, p.136). Participants are required to know how to give and receive help from others rather than to know everything by themselves. Contributions to the community are complementary with all participants playing their part.

Mutual engagement does not create homogeneity, but rather yields relations in the community. Moreover, disagreement, challenges and competitions can represent forms of participation that contributes to the development of the community (Wenger, 1998). However, disagreement, not in the sense interpreted by Lave & Wenger (1991) and Wenger (1998), might be coated with social and political values and views that entirely contradict with the norms of the community. Although this area is not sufficiently addressed by Lave & Wenger (1991) and Wenger (1998), it is of particular relevance to understanding the situation of newly appointed teachers in post-conflict Libyan schools. This issue will be discussed in detail later on in chapter 7.

4.5 Joint enterprise

Joint enterprise refers to "a process, not a static agreement. It produces relations of accountability that are not fixed constraints or norms" (Wenger, 1998, p. 82). It is not only sharing goals but also a negotiated enterprise that involves mutual accountability (ibid). Lack of homogeneity can be viewed as a productive part of the enterprise. Members bring their own ideas, views and skills that can sometimes enhance the enterprise. The enterprise is joint because it is communally negotiated; members negotiate all the conditions of CoP which shape their practice.

4.5.1 Accountability

Negotiating of a joint enterprise creates relations of mutual accountability. These relations of accountability include various issues and their counterparts. This mutual accountability makes members "feel concerned or unconcerned by what they are doing

and what is happening to them and around them, and under which they attempt, neglect, or refuse to make sense of events and to seek new meanings” (Wenger, 1998, p. 81). They have developed the sense of belonging to one particular community.

In the context of this study, this would require the NGTs to negotiate ways of working towards a communally agreed enterprise. This does not mean all the teachers must have the same view, but must negotiate their enterprise. Negotiating a joint enterprise manifests in relations of mutual accountability within the CoP (Wenger, 1998, p. 81). Negotiating a joint enterprise yields relations of mutual accountability among members covering all issues related to community affairs. Mutual accountability is the means by which “individuals, members feel concerned or unconcerned by what they are doing and what is happening to them and around them” (ibid).

In the context of this study, and as a result of the military actions and the political situation of the country, a sense of accountability among the NGT might be insufficient. Those teachers could be divided into two groups; one might prefer to isolate themselves because they are not interested in teaching and have accepted it as a temporary occupation. They might not look forward to becoming effective members of a community they joined unwillingly. The political and social consequences of that bloody conflict might still have their impacts on teachers’ experiences and lives. In addition, other factors such as age and experience might be behind such isolation. These will be explored later on in chapter seven.

4.6 Shared repertoire

Over time, a joint enterprise creates resources that initiate negotiation of meaning among members. The elements of the repertoire including routines, words, tools, jargon, ways of doing things, stories, gestures, symbols and actions that have been produced and adopted by one particular community over time and “have become part of its practice” (Wenger, 1998, p. 83). The repertoire includes the discourse of meaningful statements, styles used

by members to express their membership and identities (ibid). Members have access to this repertoire, become competent in it and able to use it appropriately.

CoP can exist and be a source of learning and building identity. However, some external and internal factors might interfere to hinder establishment of mutual engagement and therefore members would not be able to experience a joint enterprise or a shared repertoire. For instance, the internal problem that can be created by members who are unwilling to join the community for various reasons will be mentioned later. Age and experience can be other issues that impede NGTs' engagement in the community and sharing in the enterprise. Thus, they resort to self-isolation. Moreover, external factors can entail causing a rift into the community as a result of on-going social and political conflict. The impact of these will be discussed in detail in the findings chapter.

4.7 Identity

Building identity and learning are inseparable from issues of practice in CoP (Wenger, 1998) "Learning...implies becoming a different person (and) involves the construction of identity" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 53). Identity "is produced as a lived experience of participation in specific communities" (Wenger, 1998, p. 151) through membership which "translates into an identity as a form of competence" (Wenger, 1998, p. 153) that emanates as a result of negotiating the meanings of the experience of this membership of our community (Jewson, 2007). Wenger, meanwhile, states that "Participation in a community is the source of identity" (1998, p. 56). With reference to identity, the focus is on the person from a social perspective which expands beyond the realm of the CoP, "calling attention to broader processes of identification and social structure" (Wenger, 1998, p.145). This does not mean "denying individuality but viewing the very definition of individuality ...as part of the practice of specific communities" (ibid, p.146). The focus on identity includes "our ability and inability to shape the meanings that define our communities and our forms of belonging" (ibid).

4.7.1 Defining and maintaining identity

Discussion of identity is controversial as it might be connected with the context, the social and cultural views people have in relation to it. Here I refer to definitions that are of relevance to the situation of NGTs in the post-conflict Libyan context with all its complexities. Lave & Wenger define identity as “the way a person understands and views himself, and is viewed by others, a perception of self which is fairly constant” (1991, p. 81). For Wenger, identity is the “process of becoming a certain person or, conversely, to avoid becoming a certain person” (1998, p. 215). It includes one’s desire and ability or inability to belong (ibid).

Our identity includes the particularities we possess which, while not given by others, can be recognized by others (Lave & Wenger, 1991). It is defined as “a layering of events of participation and reification” informed by one’s experience and its social interpretation” (1998, p. 151). Then identity entails a progressive process subject to changes depending on the extent of participation and mutuality. It is “understood not as a fixed property, but as part of the lived complexity of a person’s project and their ways of being in those sites” (Clegg, 2008, p. 229). Through participation the NGTs’ identities change as they become increasingly recognized as belonging to and contributing to the CoP (Jawitz, 2009). Therefore, learning as participation “is the vehicle for the evolution of practices and the inclusion of newcomers and...the development and transformation of identities” (Wenger, 1998, p. 13). For this study, identity is defined as the way of being in the world in terms of the qualities one possesses and how one is recognized by others.

The NGTs in this study develop and change their identities during their participation (involvement in teaching) (Wenger, 1998). Hodkinson et al. (2008) consider learning through becoming and becoming through learning as a continuous process throughout life. These NGTs learn to be identified as particular persons having particular characteristics (Colley et al., 2003), which involves building their identity (Wenger,

1998) as EFL teachers. This is a significant stage because it involves moving from education to work and partially from the boundaries of their families to build their own identity as EFL teachers and Libyan females. They had to try to establish two integral aspects of their identity in post-conflict Libya. This might come from participation or nonparticipation depending on their views of belonging.

4.8 Chapter Summary

Lave and Wenger (1991) and Wenger's (1998) CoP was chosen as the theoretical framework of this study. It interprets learning as part of an on-going relationship between the individuals and their social context. It holds that learning affects NGTs both objectively through practice and subjectively through changes in their identities. This mutual engagement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire, would enable me to understand the situation of NGTs in post-conflict Libya in terms of constructing their experiences, achieving professional development and building their identities as EFL teachers. The literature review is used to underpin the research design and data generation approaches outlined in the next chapter, presented within a qualitative position that favours case study as a methodological approach.

Chapter 5: Research Methodology

5.1 Introduction

The section first discusses the rationale for the study, the general aims, and the research questions. The focus then turns to the selection of the overall research paradigm and the rationale behind this choice. Case study approach is discussed in terms of rationale, characteristics and potential limitations. Then the type of case studies will be clarified to enable the reader to understand the type of case study involved in the present research. Moreover, the sample of the study was described in detail. Methods of data generation will then be discussed in detail and the choice of each will be justified. Finally, issues related to ethical considerations will be discussed. In addition, the review of the literature also led me to consider workplace learning and more specifically, Lave and Wenger (1991) and Wenger's (1998) views of situated learning and CoP and their application in studying situations of beginner teachers in various contexts.

5.2 Aims of the study and research questions

The study aims to investigate the experiences, perspectives and challenges of NGTs of English in the Libyan context. It also aims at understanding the relationships between teacher education programmes and NGTs' early classroom experiences. Another aim is to include teachers' views of themselves as EFL teachers. In particular, the study is designed with a view to answer the following research questions:

RQ1-What are newly graduated EFL teachers' perceptions of their experiences during their first years of teaching in post-conflict Libya?

RQ2-How are EFL newly graduated teachers prepared for their teaching practice? What type of preparation is it? Who offers it if there is any?

RQ3- How do those teachers perceive the development of their knowledge, and identities as teachers of English?

5.3 Research Paradigm

Paradigms are “models or frameworks for observation and understanding which shape both what we see and how we understand it”. They are “the perspectives or ways of looking at reality” as they represent the “frames of references we use to organize our observation and reasoning” (Babbie, 2007, p. 11 cited by Hennink et al., 2011, p.11). They present world views that define the nature of the world (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Within particular paradigms, one can find different assumptions about the nature of reality, about the relationship between researchers and that being researched, about the role of values, about the language of research, and about the process of research (Creswell, 2007). The choice of a paradigm and the stance on each of these assumptions has practical implications for designing and conducting the research because the paradigm underpins the approach adopted and the methodology involved. The choice of the approach is determined by the nature of the research questions, and the preference of the researcher for that approach to provide a comprehensive interpretation of the phenomenon under research.

Choosing a qualitative approach to research is due to the fact “that the approach allows you (as a researcher) to identify issues from the perspective of your study participants, and understand the meanings and interpretations that they give to behaviour, events or objects,” (Hennink et al., 2011, p. 9). The aim here is to listen to the NGTs of English within their CoP, understand their experiences, the way they understand such experiences and how they have built these views about their communities according to their interpretations and meanings in post-conflict Libya. At the same time, qualitative research involves studying things in their natural settings, which offers opportunities to make sense or “interpret the phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, p. 4).

Literature on research differentiates between two major paradigms: positivist and interpretive (Hennink et al., 2011). The positivist paradigm is seen as the scientific approach to research that moulds the bases for natural sciences, experimental research and quantitative studies in social sciences. The positivist paradigm assumes that reality consists of facts and “researchers can observe and measure reality in an objective way with no influence of the researcher on the process of data collection” (ibid, p. 14). Thus, research assumes the separation of facts from any values. Within this paradigm, researchers frame their hypotheses from theoretical or statistical models, test them by collecting empirical data and then evaluate whether the evidence assist the hypotheses (ibid). However, the criticism raised against the positivist paradigm is its assumption about objective measurement of reality that separates the researcher from those researched. Moreover, it ignores the “ interactive and co-constructive nature of data collection with human beings ” and does not acknowledge “the contextual influences on people’s life, focussing only on capturing facts” (Hennink et al., 2011, p. 14). Reality is seen and measured (Sparkes, 1992) from only one dimension by the physical sciences bare of social dimensions which are not always based on logic. Human perceptions cannot be measured as physical facts and other associated values cannot be treated in isolation from their holders and context. Such values contribute to constructing people’s views and perceptions of reality.

To the contrary, the interpretive paradigm attempts to understand people’s lived experiences from the subjective perspectives of those people within their context rather than focusing on facts. Furthermore, the interpretive paradigm acknowledges “that reality is socially constructed as people’s experiences occur within social, cultural, historical or personal context” (Hennink et al., 2011, p. 15). In addition, Denscombe, asserts that reality is a “social creation, constructed in the minds of people and reinforced through their interaction with each other” (2002, p. 18). Therefore, perceptions of reality are subjective and multiple perspectives of reality can derive from this logic (Sparkes, 1992). Meanwhile, the background and values of the researcher has an influence on data

generation and interpretation. All these concerns are acknowledged by the interpretive approach. The interpretive approach acknowledges the subjectivity of the perspectives of the participants concerning their views of their world and the researcher's subjectivity concerning data generation and interpretation. The researcher's background, and emotions are considered as an integral part of data production within the interpretive approach (Hennink et al., 2011). The interpretive research paradigm is also known under different terms, including, naturalistic, constructivist, and qualitative (Robson, 2002). Therefore, the terms qualitative and interpretive will be used interchangeably in this study.

For this study, the positivist paradigm does not appear appropriate; there are no hypotheses to be tested or pure facts to be reconfirmed. Listening to people's experiences from their own meaningful perspectives and eliminating my values, background as a teacher and the social context at the outset would contradict the principles of this paradigm. Since the aim of the current study is to attain a thorough understanding of the overall experiences of NGTs of EFL in their first years of teaching in post-conflict Libya, the interpretive qualitative research appears to be an appropriate strategy for studying those experiences in detail and over time from the participants' own perspectives. Qualitative research involves "an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world...Qualitative researchers study things in their natural setting, attempting to make sense of, or interpret phenomena in terms of the meaning people bring to them" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003, p. 5). Likewise, I argue here that a number of principles of the qualitative paradigm are of relevance to the present study. First, the nature of the study involves exploring the participants' personal experiences as NGTs in order to interpret their subjective meanings of the topic and see the world through their lenses. Second the study took place in a natural setting in schools where those teachers have built their experiences. Adopting qualitative research methods helped me gain "deeper understanding of the social phenomena that would not be obtained from purely quantitative data" (Silverman, 2005, p. 10). It also the interpretive paradigm

acknowledges “that reality is socially constructed as people’s experiences occur within social, cultural, historical or personal context” (Hennink et al., 2011, p. 15). Therefore, by adopting this approach, the NGTs participating in this study were able to communicate and discuss their thoughts, perceptions and experiences freely. Their narratives provided clear pictures of their experiences of their world (communities) from their viewpoints. Moreover, this narrative enriched the understanding and interpretation of individual cases in that specific context and contributed to answering to the research questions. Consequently comparisons of what these teachers said and perceived of themselves as teachers of English can be compared with findings from previous studies. Such comparison might demonstrate similarities or differences or reveal new issues related to study of beginner teachers, in a new context-a post-conflict context. According to this approach, language played a vital role as it was the medium through which individual NGTs explained their own views of their own world. The study also focuses on the unique role played by the social context situation and its associated social and political conditions in formulating each teacher’s experience given that they had graduated from different institutions and taught in schools of different levels. In addition, the study concentrates on the effect of the on-going conflict on the formation of teachers’ identities, and their learning to develop themselves as qualified teachers in their CoP.

5.4 Research Approach

This study utilized a case study approach to investigate the experiences, and challenges faced by the NGTs, and their views of themselves as they build their identities as EFL teachers in post-conflict Libya. In the following section, I explain the rationale behind choosing case study as an approach and examine the main characteristics and limitations. I also give an account of the types of case study that have relevance to the current study.

5.5 Case study

Case study as a research strategy enables the researcher to obtain a thorough understanding of the participants’ perspectives and experiences in a natural context. Yin

considers case study research useful when “a how or why question is being asked about a contemporary set of events, over which the investigator has little or no control” (Yin, 2009, p. 13). Similarly, Rowley states that case study can offer insights that might not be achieved by other methods of inquiry. She claims that “Case studies are one approach that supports deeper and more detailed investigation of the type that is normally necessary to answer how and why questions” (2002, p. 17). Employing case study helps a researcher to “explain why certain outcomes might happen-more than just find out what those outcomes are” (Descombe, 2010, p. 53). This approach “provides an opportunity to study an aspect of a problem in some depth within a limited time” (Dhillion et al., 2008, p. 284).

Before going further, it is obviously important to clarify what case study research is and the extent to which it is capable of investigating the phenomenon of study. Scholars who have used and evaluated case study, have offered substantial definitions. For instance, Yin defines a case study as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (2009, p. 18). This definition emphasizes the strength of the case study as an approach and its ability to undertake an investigation into a phenomenon in its context rather than replicate the phenomenon in a laboratory or experimental setting in order to obtain a better understanding and a detailed description of that particular phenomenon. In another sense, Simons refers to case study as “in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives of the complexity and uniqueness of a particular project, policy, institution, programme or system in real life context” (2009, p. 21). Likewise, case study has been described as “a detailed examination of one setting, or a single subject, a single depository of documents, or one particular event” (Bogdan and Bicen, 2003, p. 54 cited by Berg, 2009, p. 317). Thus, the qualitative case study can be defined as an “intensive, holistic, description and analysis of a single entity, phenomenon, or social unit”. Meanwhile, “case studies are particularistic, descriptive,

and heuristic and rely heavily on inductive reasoning in handling multiple data sources” (Merriam, 1988, p. 16).

I argue that for methodological purposes, case study research is best defined as “an in-depth study of a single unit (a relatively bounded phenomenon) where the scholar's aim is to elucidate features of a larger class of similar phenomena” (Gerring, 2004, p. 341). In turn, and for the purpose of the current research, I define case study as an intensive study of one particular unit for obtaining a better understanding of a larger similar class in that specific context. The findings of one case might contribute to investigating other different contexts.

5.5.1 Rationale of case study

The rationale for choosing case study as a research strategy is to discover a phenomenon and understand it from the perspectives of those being studied. It also attempts to make significant contributions to the knowledge and to the practice of education. In addition, it aims to achieve “naturalistic generalization”, a quite different kind of generalization to that which is characteristic of science (Stake, 1995).

5.6 Distinctive Characteristics of Case Studies

Case study research enables the researcher to achieve a rich description of a complex social phenomenon embedded in a certain cultural context. It is commonly used in education and language teaching research (Bassegy, 1999 ; Merriam, 1988 ; Stake, 1995 ; Yin, 2003 ; Verschuren, 2003). Thus, the next section discusses in detail some characteristics of case study research that have encouraged its wide use among researchers and why I have selected it for this study.

5.6.1 Particularity

Case studies investigate the ‘particularization, not generalization’ of the case (Stake, 1995, p. 8), and usually entail studying a small number of participants thoroughly and in

depth. Such a study can reveal aspects of complex social phenomena in that particular context. The case is often precisely selected so that the researcher has maximum opportunity to understand the particular in depth, rather than to find out what is generally true of the many (Merriam, 1988). An important characteristic of case study research is that it provides access to participants' experiences from their own perspectives as they have lived them in their own contexts.

The first particularity of the present study is that it investigates the NG EFL teachers in a new context, post-conflict Libya. Second, this research investigates their experiences, perspectives from their own views in terms of learning and developing their identity within their CoP. Third, it may be considered the first study as it focuses on NGTs in general and the post- conflict context in particular in Libya where although the main military actions have finished, the political conflict is still on-going.

5.6.2 Complexity

Case studies generate “considerable depth” within the case (Hammersley et al., 2000, p. 3). This consequently offers rich, in-depth insights and holistic understanding of the participant(s) being studied. A massive amount of data can be collected that enable researchers to establish systematic correlations between behaviours and experiences and also to investigate potential changes over time. For the current study, the cases offered rich data about the teachers' experiences in post-conflict Libya and the factors that contributed to their formation which will be fully discussed later.

5.6.3 Contextualization

Case studies are ‘strong in reality’ (Adelman & Jenkins, 1977, p. 148). The phenomena are studied in their natural contexts, which are unique, dynamic and rich in information (Yin, 2003). Each context has specialty, its direct effects on the construction of beliefs, experiences and perceptions of its participants. However, such effects vary from one person to another because people are individuals. For the present study, the context

includes the schools and their component aspects and the individual's social context. The context plays a vital role in establishing relationships that contribute to formulating the experiences, perspectives, and beliefs of NGTs. They were studied in their natural context, namely their schools (natural context) (See chapter 1 for more detail about the study context).

5.6.4 Multiple sources of data

In case studies, multiple sources of data can be employed such as interviews and observations with questionnaires and documents, for instance, to provide different perspectives on the phenomena under investigation (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003 ; Merriam, 1988 ; Verschuren, 2003 ; Yin, 2003). This can be viewed as one of the strengths of the case study approach in that it “allows the researcher to use a variety of sources, a variety of types of data and a variety of research methods as part of the investigation” (Descombe, 2010, p. 54). Case study can be conducted by implementing almost any methods of research though the most popular, are qualitative methods (McNeill & Chapman, 2005). The present study employed interviews, observations, diaries and documents as sources of data. Such sources helped me to gather sufficient data to explore the phenomenon and enhanced and validated the study.

5.6.5 Flexible design

Case studies tend to employ flexible designs which are “neither time dependent nor constrained by method” (Simons, 2009, p. 23). They can be conducted in different lengths of time depending on the nature of the particular case to discover systematic connections among experiences, behaviours and relationships, and to explore related changes over time. Thus, the present study employed interviews, observations, researcher's diary and documents as sources of data. At the same time, interviews and observations were carried out at different times and stages of data generation, according to conditions permitting and the teachers' availability. Documents and diaries were collected depending on circumstances. I interviewed the head of the English language

inspection office, some inspectors of English language in Tripoli and the manager of the EDC based on their willingness to be interviewed at a certain time and place. The flexibility of the approach meant there was no obligation to start with a particular method of data generation and the researcher was hence under no extra pressure to “impose controls or to change circumstances” (Denscombe, 2010, p. 62). This allowed the researcher to generate the required data in a fairly comfortable way. Also, the participants were under no obligation regarding whether they were observed or interviewed first, in or outside the classroom.

5.7 Limitations of Case study

Although case study research has many positive characteristics and has been used in a range of study area of study, it has been criticized on the following basis.

5.7.1 Criticisms of case study research

Case research has been described as “sloppy” and following unsystematic procedures which result in biased views and lack of rigour in general. Yin (2009) claims however, that such lack of rigour can be avoided by using additional methods. Case study as a research approach is not intended to provide a generalizing conclusion. However, it is generalizable to “theoretical propositions and not to populations or universes” (Yin, 2009, p.15). In this sense, case studies are treated like experiments. Case studies can generate analytic generalization rather than statistical generalization (ibid). The goal of case study research is not the same as that of scientific experiment which calculates frequencies in order to make statistical generalization.

Case studies are also time-consuming. Massive amount of sometimes quite impenetrable data have to be waded through and processed and analysis of results takes a long time. Subjectivity is considered another major weakness of case study research. However, Simons (2009, p. 163) argues that “subjectivity is not something we can avoid whatever methods we adopt though it is more visible in qualitative inquiry where people, including

the researcher, are an inherent part of the case”. Moreover, she claims that research subjectivity can be decreased when you as a researcher “acknowledge its inherent subjectivity and concentrate on demonstrating how your values, predispositions and feelings impact upon research” (ibid).

5.8 Types of case studies

In the literature on case study research, the use of several types of case study can be observed. This variation in dichotomies can be related to particular interest within this type of research. Consideration of these different types allows the current study to be placed within the appropriate domain.

5.8.1 Exploratory

According to Yin (2003) an exploratory case study is a study which aims at identifying questions and propositions that can be explored in a subsequent study. The current study is exploratory since it aims to “investigate a little-understood phenomenon” (or a context) to “generate hypotheses for further research” (Marshall & Rossman, 1999, p. 33).

5.8.2 Instrumental

This type of case study aims to generate understanding of wider issues beyond the case investigated (Stake, 1995). The case chosen can be a typical case though unusual cases can demonstrate issues overlooked in the typical. The current study is instrumental since it aims at gaining useful insights concerning newly graduated EFL teachers in a new context, a post-conflict one. It is also an attempt to comprehend the relationship between their education and their actual practice from their own perspectives and the impact of the conflict on the construction of their experiences and perceptions.

The reason for the choice of a range of beginner teachers is to gain sufficient understanding of such teachers’ perspectives and experiences. These teachers may have graduated from different institutions and may have taken different education routes that

might affect their experiences, perceptions of teaching and being teachers of English in general. In this case, the number of teachers selected was able to demonstrate their understanding, experiences and perceptions in various ways. The data generated revealed comprehensive answers to R. Q.1, 2, 3. The findings would not have been affected if one teacher had withdrawn for any reasons. A single case study based on one individual would however, have been by no means sufficient to explain the experiences, perceptions of NGTs of EFL in the context of the study. A single case could only have offered an individual's personal account that could not have been claimed to represent the experiences of a group of teachers.

Concerning the involvement of experienced teachers in the current study, two were involved in the interview, representing basic education in both primary and preparatory school. One was formally appointed by the regional inspection office while the other one had been teaching for 35 years. They both worked in the same school. The duty of the experienced teachers is to supervise teachers in basic education who usually teach classes (5, 6, 7, 8, and 9), the primary and preparatory levels. They are supposed to provide teachers with support when it is questioned, visit teachers in classes, follow their work and offer advice requested to do so. They work as local inspectors though they are not authorized to submit reports to the inspection office. They might discuss issues related to the teachers under their supervision with the administration of the school, particularly the headteacher and the inspector. It was noticeable that not all schools have experienced teachers because of the shortage of teachers of English, particularly during this post-conflict time.

There were no expert teachers representing secondary school teachers because there is a lack of staff at this level. Another category consisted of inspectors in English language. Inspectors are originally EFL teachers and have knowledge of the curriculum at all stages. Inspection is carried out in almost the same way in all schools, regardless of the level. The last category included the manager of the Education Development Centre who

was interviewed regarding the role this centre has played in providing any type of support so far or any programmes that have already been scheduled. This centre is the organization responsible for arranging and conducting training for teachers, head teachers and administrative staff in educational departments on the level of the country. It was intended that the inspectors and the manager of the EDC would provide evidence of support in any documentary form which would be compared with respective evidence from the teachers.

5.8.3 Multiple case

Multiple case study (Yin, 2003) is also known as a collective case study (Stake, 1995) or a set of cases (Robson, 2002). The cases that constitute the study are considered individually. For this study, 11 cases representing teachers were investigated separately but within the same context (Libyan state run schools). Subsequent study of these cases might be carried out to anticipate potential similarities or differences that emerge from the individual cases. In the current study, studying a multiple case enabled me to generate a variety of views about NGTs within the area where the data generation process was carried out. It also provided me with opportunities to consider the impact of the situation of each case separately and within the group as a whole.

Qualitative case studies deploy a variety of data sources such as interviews, observations, documents and diaries. Relying on multiple data sources is a form of what (Denzin, 1970, p. 301 cited by Merriam, 1988, p. 69) refers to as ‘methodological triangulation’. Methodological triangulation is a type of triangulation that entails using a combination of dissimilar methods to explore the same case. The rationale for this strategy is that the strength of one method of data generation compensates for the weakness of another and this adds rigour, breadth, complexity, richness, and depth to any inquiry (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). In general the methodological triangulation approach is potentially invaluable in achieving the aim of this study. Applying multi methods can compensate for the inherent limitations of using one method in isolation. For this study,

methodological triangulation was achieved by combining interviews with observation of the teachers who participated in this study. Similarly, documents were collected after interviewing inspectors, the head of the inspection office and the manager of The EDC. Writing a diary was not generally favoured by the teachers. They were reluctant to do so although I confirmed anonymity and confidentiality all the time and what they would write would be used for this research only (see.5.17).

5.9 The study type

Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) regard the purpose of the study as a crucial step that formulates decisions on which methods to use at the different stages on the way to achieving the aims of the study. Furthermore, Marshall & Rossman categorize the purposes of research into: exploratory, explanatory, descriptive and emancipatory (1999). An exploratory study aims to “investigate a little-understood phenomenon (or a situation) to gain insight or to “generate hypotheses for further research” (1999, p. 33). Explanatory research is usually concerned with explaining causal relationships between different aspects of a particular phenomenon, whilst descriptive study focuses on documenting and portraying an accurate profile of a situation or a topic. Finally, emancipatory is concerned with the goal of creating opportunities and engaging in a social action (ibid).

Based on the classification provided above, the present study seeks to explore the perspectives and experiences of the NGTs of English in their first years of teaching in post- conflict Libya. Gaining deep understanding of the topic from the participants' point of view can be categorized as exploratory study. In this type of research, the researcher is concerned with investigating a situation where little information or nothing is available or known about the phenomenon in question. He or she is also concerned with identifying important categories of meaning for the participants and how these categories are related to each other. The NGTs' subjective perceptions of their typical experiences of teaching in their first years would be explored in a new context-the Libyan setting as a

post-conflict context. It would also consider the possible effect of various contextual factors on those experiences as Marshall & Rossman (1999) assert that exploratory research assumes the value of context and setting, and searches for a deeper understanding of the participants' lived experiences of the phenomenon.

The study can also be classified as descriptive since the situation; the associated factors that contribute to the formulation of the phenomenon in the study would be covered in a detailed account. The descriptive element assists in the explanation of the perceptions and experiences of the NGTs in the context of this study. Thus, the study can fall under the two categories classified above by Marshall & Rossman (1999). At the same time, this study can be considered as an instrumental case study that aims at generating wider issues of the investigated phenomenon (Stake, 1995). Thus, it seems that it can be classified as exploratory, descriptive and instrumental case study with the boundaries being difficult to assign.

5.10 Case Study and Beginner teacher research

The literature is quite rich concerning teacher education in general. However, EFL teacher education is less researched (Johnson, 1996a). Moreover, there is a paucity of research into EFL beginner teacher experiences and issues related to their education (ibid).

With reference to previous research on EFL teachers and beginner teacher studies, case study appears to be the most preferred approach, with both single and multiple case approaches being widely adopted. For instance, Farrell (2008a) utilized an interpretive case study approach; a single case of Wee Jin in Singapore. Farrell traced the socialization and development of this teacher during his first year, generating data from field notes, a participant log, observations, semi structured interviews and a teacher's journal. The findings of this study demonstrate that beginner teachers go through different stages characterized by difficulties that reflect on teachers' practice in their

working place. Similarly, Farrell (2003) in another piece of research, investigated the early challenges facing beginner teachers, through studying the earliest period of Wee Jin's socialization in his first year. The same data procedures were used again: semi structured interviews, observations and writing journal entry. This qualitative case study has shed more light on the experiences of EFL teachers and revealed the gap between teacher education and the actual teaching experiences of Wee Jin. Farrell utilized a qualitative case study to explore the socialization process of one trainee teacher during his practice teaching. The findings of this study emphasized the lack of support and communication that affects both the teaching and personal experiences of pre-service teachers. Farrell's studies investigated second language teachers in Singapore and this may highlight the experiences of beginning teachers in similar contexts. Yet there are other factors that can interfere and play crucial roles in constructing other teachers' experiences and perspectives concerning socialization and the practice teaching stages. However, a qualitative case study approach seems to be the dominant approach in exploring beginning teachers' experiences and perspectives regardless of diversity of contexts.

5.11 Sampling

The sample refers to the NGTs selected to participate in the study. The selection of the purposive sample was based on the purpose of the study; that is the NGTs of English. A purposive sample represents the "people who are uniquely able to be informative because they are ... privileged witnesses to an event" (Maxwell, 2012, p. 97). Each year, a limited number of teachers were employed within one secretariat of education, distributed in different schools at both basic and secondary levels in that particular region. Thus, a purposive sample was used to find answers to the research questions from the views of the participants regardless of the diversity of their roles. The use of a questionnaire, as a core method of data generation was not considered appropriate since the essential aim was to listen to the views of the NGTs regarding their experiences and perspectives of themselves as EFL teachers in the post-conflict Libyan context.

Purposeful or judgement sampling, a type of non-probability sampling, is the most common sampling technique utilized in case study research and emerged as a practical option for the current study. It is a feature of qualitative research and the sample tends to be small. The logic and power of choosing this sampling “derive from the emphasis on in-depth understanding” that it offers (Patton, 2002, p. 46). The researcher actively selects the most productive sample to answer the research questions based on the typicality or qualities the sample possesses (Tongco, 2007). A purposive sample “yields insights and in depth understanding rather than seeking empirical generalization” (Patton, 2002, p. 230).

The sample of this study consisted of five groups of participants. The first group included 5 NGTs of English in their first years of teaching at basic education levels; representing teachers teaching classes 5, 6,7,8,9, of students’ aged from 10 to 15 years, in both primary and preparatory schools. The second group consisted of 6 secondary teachers of different specialties depending on their availability in the assigned schools within the secretariat of education in the selected region. The third group comprised the most experienced teachers- expert teachers at basic education and secondary school levels. The fourth group consisted of three headteachers. The fifth group included managers (inspectors of the English language, the head of the inspection office of the English language, and the manager of the EDC) in Tripoli. The teachers of English were assigned from one secretariat of education in Tripoli. Therefore, they are characterized as being all Libyan teachers, rather than foreigner teachers. They are graduates from faculty of arts, college of education and teacher training institutes, appointed recently for teaching in state run schools and expert teachers contacted according to their availability.

The rationale behind this choice is that the sample needed to include teachers who had graduated from different institutions. These teachers also represented the types of teachers employed in state run schools. They might have been taught different subjects during their studies and this might have affected their teaching experiences and how they

viewed themselves as EFL teachers. They may have been employed at different time and taught at different levels and had different teaching loads that contributed to their framing of their views and experiences. Moreover, they were in four schools within a secretariat of education in Tripoli. The context can have an influence on teachers' perceptions (R.q.1.2.3).

To answer research R.q.3, I needed to look for teachers who could provide support in various forms. The first group included the most experienced teachers at basic education and secondary school levels in the researcher's home region, part of Tripoli. This has already been mentioned earlier. The aim was to investigate their potential role in providing any type of formal or informal support to this category of teachers. They were interviewed once to explore their views and the extent to which they saw themselves as supporting their new colleagues at different stages. They were also asked about the extent of the NGTs' willingness to seek support from their experienced colleagues within their CoP.

Likewise, the aim of interviewing the managers (the inspectors of English language and the manager of the EDC) was to demonstrate their roles in contributing to any training programmes or any kind of support that had already been supplied. They were asked about the possibility of offering any new programmes, if none were available so far, and the way such categories of teachers would be assisted, with the country in a transitional period and still suffering serious impact of the conflict. In this study, the aim was to gain in depth understanding of the experiences of the EFL NGTs, and the challenges, viewed from their perspectives, in a post-conflict context.

The NGTs were interviewed three times: at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of the semester. The aim behind this procedure was to trace these teachers' perspectives on their development and new experiences deriving from being involved in teaching for the first time. However, the expert teachers, the inspectors of English language teaching, the

headteachers and the manager of the EDC were interviewed only once. The aim of interviewing this group was to gain useful insights about their roles in providing any sort of support to the NGTs during their first year at least. The interview with the manager of the EDC focused on the types of training programmes that had been provided for EFL teachers and the extent to which the centre intended to provide any future support to those categories of teachers. I asked the officials in the EDC to provide me with any documents in terms of programmes already conducted in teacher education or the teacher training field, as such documents could enhance and validate the findings of this study.

5.12 The setting

Marshall & Rossman suggest that a natural research setting is where access is possible; “there is a high probability that a rich mix of processes, people, programs, interactions, and structures of interest are present”; the researcher is likely to establish a trusting rapport with the participants in the study; and “data quality and credibility of the study are reasonably assured” (1999, p. 69).

Burgess (1984) maintains that the researcher should choose a site with the optimal conditions for the fulfillment of the research, such as willingness of the participants to cooperate, ease of access to them and the logistics required to complete the research and if possible where contacts are already established. All these mentioned criteria should be met in this region.

Thus the research was based in a secretariat of education in Tripoli. It is in charge of the educational services in one of the main areas in Tripoli. Each secretariat includes inspection, finance, assessment and measurement and administration departments that provide a variety of educational services. The main reason for the choice of this place was the convenience of accessibility. Furthermore, I am familiar with the context since I worked in this area as a lecturer and a teacher trainer for almost six years and still have good relationships with some of the teachers and inspectors of English. There are many

schools providing basic education and secondary of different specialties. The task of finding a fairly large number of NGTs in this region at that time represented another issue in this research. However, my familiarity with this region would help me a great deal in gaining access to the required people and the resources necessary to conduct my research. However, access to school was not easy for me because of the situation in the country as a result of the bloody conflict (see vignettes 1 & 2 in 6.13.1 & 6.13.2). The choice of schools was also governed by avoiding risk as much as possible as security was a major issue.

5.13 Methods of data generation

According to what has been stated above and based on the nature of the research, the present study aims to obtain detailed description and narrative of the participants about their experiences, perspectives and building their identities as qualified EFL teachers in post-conflict Libya. The qualitative features of this study necessitated employing specific methods that would provide in depth insights of the participants' experiences and perspectives from their own views.

In order to address the research questions of the current study, four main data generation instruments were used: (a) semi-structured interviews (b) observation (non-participant), (c) researcher's diary or journal, (d) documents. The choice of these methods of data generation is based on intensive review of other researchers' studies in the field of second language teacher education (Johnson, 1996a ; 1996b ; 1999), (Freeman & Richards, 1996) particularly, beginner teachers' experiences throughout their first year and pre-service teaching stage such as (Farrell, 2008a ; 2008b ; 2003), and (Urmston & Pennington, 2008). Reviewing the literature and previous studies on EFL teacher education widened my knowledge and thinking on the work had been done on EFL teacher education, and specifically, beginner teachers' experiences in other contexts relatively similar to my context. From this intensive review, the methods described above were identified as appropriate for answering the questions raised by this study.

The following table lists the data sources and methods used to answer the research questions:

Table 6 Data Generating Methods

Research questions	Data sources and methods
RQ1-What are newly graduated EFL teachers' perceptions of their experiences during their first years of teaching in post-conflict Libya?	-interviews with newly graduated EFL teachers -classroom observations
RQ2-How are EFL newly graduated teachers prepared for their teaching practice? What type of preparation is it? Who offers it if there is any?	Interviewing: 1-NGTs 2-Expert teachers 3-Manager of the EDC 4-Inspectors of English 5-Headteachers 6-Documents analysis
RQ3-How do those teachers perceive the development of their knowledge, and identities as teachers of English?	1-Interview NGTs

The next sections focus on the major methods that were used and justification of the applications of these specific tools. First, there is a detailed discussion of interviews as one of the basic methods implemented in the present study.

5.14 Interviews

An interview is “ more than just a conversation” (Denscombe, 2007, p. 173) aiming at obtaining a special kind of information about the phenomenon or context investigated, which is not usually associated with casual conversation. Furthermore, Patton argues that,

We interview people to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe. ...We cannot observe feelings, thoughts, and intention. We cannot observe behaviors that took place at some previous point in time. We cannot observe situations that preclude the presence of an observer. We cannot observe how people have organized meanings they attach to the world and what goes on in the world. We have to ask people questions about those things. The purpose of interviewing, then is to allow us to enter into the other's perspective (Paton, 2002, p. 340-341).

Qualitative research relies quite extensively on in-depth interviewing (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). It is considered as the main data-generating device with regard to social studies. It is also seen as one of the most powerful ways of understanding human beings (Fontana & Frey, 2005). According to Kvale & Brinkmann "knowledge is produced socially in the interaction of interviewer and interviewee" in a qualitative research interview (2009, p. 82). The choice of interviews as a significant method of data generation in this study is based on Kvale & Brinkmann's argument that:

...interviews are particularly well-suited for studying people's understanding of the meanings in their lived world, describing their experiences and self-understanding, and clarifying and elaborating their own perspectives on their lived world (2009, p. 116).

Interviews by nature have a higher response rate than questionnaires because respondents become more involved and, hence, motivated to talk and more data can be elicited. They can be straightforward individual interviews or conducted with focus group. They are also used in conjunction with other tools for generating data to obtain triangulation.

5.14.1 Strengths of interviews

Utilizing interviews as a data generation method has a number of advantages (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). One of its advantages is that it might allow greater depth as a research technique compared with other methods of data generation. Moreover, the presence of both the interviewer and interviewee may make participants feel more involved and motivated. Interviews might also be effective in handling more difficult and open-ended questions. In addition, the presence of the interviewer might make immediate follow up and clarification possible.

The most important feature of the interview is “permitting us to see that which is not ordinarily on view and examine that which is often looked at but seldom seen” that is such as feelings, thoughts, experiences and intentions (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. vii). Observing and picking up nonverbal cues enables the researcher to add dimensions to the verbal data, a feature of interviews that cannot be obtained by employing other methods, like questionnaires or tests. Interview as a data generation tool is of “great flexibility; which can be adapted to suit a wide variety of research situations” (Punch, 2014, p. 145) in terms of the capability to change the lines of inquiry to follow up interesting responses made by the participants and it therefore allows exploration of unpredictable themes that might emerge during the process.

5.14.2 Limitations of interview

Despite all the advantages mentioned above, interviews have some inherent drawbacks. Marshall & Rossman (1999) and Denzin (1989) among other scholars have discussed the deficiencies of interviews. They argue that interviews may cost more than other data

generation methods in terms of expense and time to be accomplished. Interviews are time consuming during all four stages: preparation, actual interviewing, transcription and analysis of the results respectively (Mason, 2002 ; Robson, 2002). Another drawback is the risk of subjectivity and bias on the part of the interviewer. The possibility of respondents' giving untruthful answers or being unwilling to share all that the researcher hopes to investigate is considered another disadvantage.

To reduce untruthfulness among interviewees, interviews were conducted more than once and at different stages of the study. In addition, interview data for the different categories of interviewees were compared; data for graduates of faculty of education, for instance, were compared with those from the higher institutes. Meanwhile, data generated from interviewees were compared with observational data and data obtained from the inspector of English with data from the manager of the EDC. I also used the transcripts of subjects the students studied at the faculty of arts or education or the higher institutes of teacher training as a source of evidence.

5.14.3 Semi-structured interviews

In semi-structured interviews some suggested questions and themes or issues to be covered are prepared in advance. Wording and order of questions can be modified depending on the interviewer's consideration of what is more appropriate to the participant and the situation. Modifications may also be made to build on specific answers given or stories told by the participants (Kavle & Brinkmann, 2009). The flexibility of this type allows the researcher to operate as a moderator or facilitator to provide guidance to participants, and direction whenever needed, to pursue emergent issues, to probe a topic, and engage in a deep conversation (Simons, 2009). Such conversations create informality and friendliness that "equalize the relationship between the interviewer and the interviewees" (ibid, p. 44). As a result, the established rapport encourages the participants to "talk freely in ways that can reveal the distinctiveness and complexity of their perspectives" that the researcher seeks (Hammersley, 2008, p. 24).

Semi structured interviews offer opportunities to interviewees to expand their answers. Thus, an interviewer is “free to build a conversation within a particular subject area, to word questions, spontaneously, and to establish a conversational style but with the focus on particular subject that has been predetermined” (Patton, 2002, p. 343). Using prompts and probing questions helps the interviewee to “keep talking on a matter at hand, to complete an idea, fill in a missing piece, or request clarification of what was said” (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 137). By these techniques, the interviewer can elicit more details without diverting from the main topic. Interviews yield massive amounts of rich data. Moreover, they can be conducted with individuals or focus groups in a relatively informal style. In general, semi-structured interviews are widely used in qualitative research. Using probes helps the researchers to expand the questions and the flow of the interviewing. Rich data can be elicited.

For my study, the use of the semi-structured interview is vital, firstly because of its flexibility. Although questions are suggested on a number of themes, it still offers openness to change and modification of the sequence, wording and form of questions in response to a specific answer given by a participant (Kavle & Brinkmann, 2009). This may encourage the NGTs to offer meaningful thoughts and perspectives more freely and willingly than would be feasible by another method which constitutes a second advantage. Thirdly, providing explanations when needed to clarify meanings ensures the provision of relevant information and increases the interviewee’s interest in giving insights into the topic of the study. Fourthly, semi-structured interviews strike a balance in control between the interviewer and interviewee since the interviewees are given the opportunity to negotiate, add their own comments and points of view which enriches the interview and improves its flow. Fifthly, the flexibility of questioning creates a rapport between interviewer and interviewees and consequently they find a space to talk freely and reveal issues that might not be accessible with structured interview, for instance.

The interviews were conducted in Arabic since the aim was obtaining meaningful thoughts from the NG FEL teachers. Discussions involving the personal experiences of the participants in this study were facilitated by using Arabic as the medium of communication. The participants were not hindered by having to speak English in front of the researcher. Moreover, this procedure supported the participants in freely communicating their ideas, and this removed the barrier between interviewer and interviewees to a certain extent. Additional notes were taken during or after each interview and recorded in a field work notebook for further use and referencing. The interviews were recorded, taking more than one copy and saved in different files for further use. Later on, transcription and transliteration were carried out as soon as possible.

For this study structured interview was not an appropriate technique for exploring the NGTs' experiences, or their perspectives in post-conflict Libya. The rigidity of the questions and the limited involvement of the researcher represent hurdles that prevent clarification or rewording of the questions or using probes. In addition, interviewees might not understand the questions or deviate from the topic or the expected answers. There is no means to deeply investigate their experiences, belief in themselves and their views on building their identities. Also, unstructured interview was not employed because there were certain themes that needed to be covered at particular stages of the data generation processes. The time was limited and the interviewees were working in four schools.

5.14.4 Focus group interviews

A focus interview is a carefully planned interview with a small group of people who have similar backgrounds through the interaction between the participants (Patton, 2002; Robson, 2002). The researchers often organize questioning systematically with several interviewees at once rather than just one. They can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured, face to face or by telephone depending on the determined purposes and the

form of information sought. They are “inexpensive, data-rich, flexible, stimulating, recall-aiding, cumulative and elaborative” (Punch, 2014, p. 147). They are useful in collecting information on a range of opinions from participants. Moreover, they can be used with other data collection techniques to establish triangulation (Fontana & Frey, 2005).

Among the advantages of focus group interview is the flexibility that allows information to be gathered from a group in a relatively short time. Participants have the opportunity to listen to others participating with them and react to what they hear and make “additional comments beyond their own original responses” (Patton, 2002, p. 386). Moreover, the researcher can gain better understanding of how the group interact and draw a conclusion on the topic (Berg, 2009). However, the quality of data is influenced by the ability of the researcher to motivate and moderate. Dominance of one interviewee “may overpower and steer the group’s responses” (ibid, p. 126) if the researcher does not pay close attention to the discussion. The data of focus group lack the depth of information obtained from long semi structured interviews, for example.

Using focus groups entails several limitations. The first limitation is that interviewees who realize that their opinion is a minority view may not wish to speak and thereby risk negative reactions from the group (Patton, 2002). The number of questions that can be asked may have to be restricted to no more than ten major questions in a one hour-session (ibid), to give all participants the opportunity to have their turn. Since a focus group interview relies on group interactions and dynamics, it is not uncommon during such interviews for conflicts to arise among personalities or for power struggle or for conflicts of status to occur within the group (Robson, 2002). Therefore, the role of the moderator is very crucial since conducting the focus group interview requires a considerable group process skill beyond simply asking questions (ibid). During the interview, the researcher has two tasks that of the moderator to regulate the discussion to keep it focused on the topic, and that of the facilitator to help the interview run smoothly.

Thus, it may be difficult for the researcher to trace each participant and record additional notes. Selection of a focus group is difficult because the researcher is unlikely to find a group that share a similar background, and this is another issue.

For the current study, a focus group interview happened incidentally. It was not planned to conduct a focus group with the inspectors and the head of the general inspection office. They were in the same office at first and then moved to the inspectors' head office where other heads of inspection for other subjects were based. It was socially and culturally unacceptable to ask them to be interviewed individually, particularly for the first time and with a female interviewer as they all were men. There were four interviewees: the head of general inspection of English language, and the head of inspection of English language for Tripoli, and two inspectors. Later on, two inspectors of other subjects took a small part in the first interview. On two different occasions, the head of general inspection and the head of the Tripoli inspection office were interviewed separately. Yet it was difficult to interview them without interruptions (see.5.26). I carried out the interview with those of English language, but I could not stop the other from commenting on general issues.

It was however, almost impossible to conduct a focus group with the teachers participating in this study for a number of reasons. First, they were females and ten of them were still single. I could not invite them to join other teachers in other schools for social and cultural restriction. The situation was not secure at that time. Second, they arrive at and leave school at certain times and their fathers bring and pick them up. Thirdly, the situation was not secure as the impact of the conflict was still on-going (see vignettes, 1, 2-6.13.1, 6.13.2). At the same time and from ethical and social consideration, it was not feasible to ask female teachers to go to other schools to take part in an interview with other teachers, on the one hand. On the other hand, the authorities in these schools would not let me carry out such a procedure at that sensitive time. From a

social point of view, I was unable to interview teachers in their houses or somewhere else or call them to my house for the reasons mentioned above.

5.15 Observations

Observations have been used alongside other techniques of data generation such as interviews and journals in the study of language teacher education (Borg, 2006a). It is a method that can be conducted in the classroom, staffroom, and the school in general. Observation can be defined as a research method “that enables researchers to systematically observe and record people’s behaviour, actions and interactions” and “obtain a detailed description of social settings or events in order to situate people’s behaviour within their own social-cultural context” (Hennink et al., 2011, p. 170). Observation involves watching people's actions, recording them and then analysing and interpreting what has been observed (Robson, 2002). Gathering live data from naturally occurring social situations is the distinctive feature of observation. Observations are opportunities to collect data as it occurs in its naturalistic setting, allowing researchers to discover things that the participant may not want to talk about in an interview, for instance (Denscombe, 2010). From an epistemological position, Robson (2002) maintains that observation seems to be the most appropriate technique for getting at 'real life' in the real world; directly observing people's behaviours and actions in the natural settings where they are happening "permits a lack of artificiality which is all too rare with other techniques" (ibid, p. 311). This unique feature of observation gives the researcher the potential to access valid, authentic data through the use of immediate awareness or direct cognition, which cannot be possible using mediated or inferential methods. Furthermore, (Patton, 2002) maintains that direct observation enables the observer to understand more and capture the contexts where the human interaction occurs. Another advantage is that observation provides the researcher with the chance to note things that may routinely escape notice among people in the setting as they are too familiar with the context, and may take certain things for granted, not questioning their impact on the situation (ibid). By observing, the researcher is in a position to form “a comprehensive

picture of the site” (Simon, 2009, p. 55) that cannot be obtained by just speaking to the participants in that particular site. The data obtained are “first hand” (Atkinson & Hammersley, 1994).

Certainly, there are several limitations inherent in using observations for data generation. The most widely discussed is reactivity or the extent to which an observer affects the 'naturalness' of the observed situation (Robson, 2002). Regardless of how sensitively observations are made, people feel self-conscious and anxious when being observed, especially if it is part of evaluation (Patton, 2002). Because of this, they behave differently under these conditions than they would do under normal circumstances without the presence of the observer. As was mentioned in the previous section, generating direct data on people's actions is one of the main advantages of observation; however, it can also be one of the biggest disadvantages. That is because the observer only sees the overt actions and has no way of accessing the thoughts, feelings and intentions of the people, which are the motives behind any behaviour. Actions are only the tip of the iceberg, and emotions and the thoughts constitute the submerged part. Therefore, the researcher needs to know the motives behind the behaviour to be able to understand it fully. In this study, the use of interviews after the classroom observations was a way of accessing teachers' thoughts and motives behind their teaching practices. On the one hand, this space allowed them to articulate their experiences and concerns. On the other hand, the researcher gained more explanation and interpretation of the participants' views. It was an opportunity for more clarification for both the researcher and those researched.

According to the degree of the researcher's immersion in the setting of the research, observation is divided into four main types along a continuum ranging from complete observer “a fly on the wall” to complete participant observation (Mason, 2002, p. 92). In the complete observer situation, the observer is not actively involved in what is being observed and does not interfere with what is going in the setting. The role of the observer

is only to observe record and interpret events later on. The second type is the observer as participant, which involves the observer being actively involved in what is being observed, which gives him or her opportunity to have an insider's perspective of the event but without trying to actively influence the interactions or the behaviours of the observees. Another type of observation mentioned by Robson (2002, p. 317) is the participant as an observer in which the observer establishes close relationships with the members of the group and gets their trust so that he or she can maintain the dual role of researcher and participant by participating in activities and asking them to explain some aspects of what is going on. These different types of observations have different consequences for the level of obtrusiveness or unobtrusiveness involved in the data collection (Punch, 1998, p. 188). It refers to the extent to which the researcher intrudes into the situation during data generation, which in turn influences the level of reactivity in the observation or participant observation data.

In this study, the researcher took the role of a complete observer to reduce the reactivity aspect of the observation by minimizing her intrusion in the setting. The researcher did not want to interfere with the interaction patterns of the observees but to focus on noticing and recording what was going on rather than participating. Data obtained from observation should serve as supplementary to substantiate information generated by means of interviews (Robson, 2011). The observed incidents provided the research with a rich description of the NG EFL teachers in their early days of actual teaching. "Observation offers another way of capturing the experience of those who are less articulate" (Simons, 2009, p. 55) for one reason or another.

The observations were unstructured which gave the observer the flexibility in gathering information and how to record it (Robson, 2002). The main concern was to understand the natural setting and the representations of the meanings of the actors within that setting. Such observations yield opportunities to the researcher to generate questions related to that observed situation or behaviour. These questions could be used in follow

up interviews in which the researcher and the participants could discuss the rationales of those situations or behaviour.

5.15.1 The role of the observer

During the data collection process I tried to be friendly without becoming a friend. I offered my emotional and academic support whenever contacted. Difference in age, position and experience might have been a barrier somehow because of the social and cultural constraints. Some of the teachers were my former students at university or the teacher training institute. Some know me as a staff member of these two institutions. I needed to adopt a friendly approach to establish rapport and reciprocity between us. This process deepened my understanding of those teachers' experiences, perceptions and interactions within their CoP in that sensitive period. At the same time, I tried to keep to my role as a researcher as much as possible. Notes were taken during and after the actual observation and after each observation I discussed points that had come to my notice and gained clarification from the observees. They sometimes asked me for help and I offered it willingly whenever possible.

Nevertheless, one may argue that this relationship had an impact on my role as a researcher and the data obtained. The claim can be raised that those teachers were keen to convince me and the others that they were qualified teachers who deserve to be supported. If they asked for help, it would be in a humble, limited and random way. They struggled hard to avoid showing their weaknesses to me and probably to their colleagues. The situation was full of tension because of the conflict and its consequences. Without establishing rapport and patience, I was unlikely to have access to teachers and managers. However, their reserve was almost always evident and I was obliged to repeat the questions and requests many times. While interviewing teachers, I tried to avoid questions about hot issues of specific relevance to the conflict (see.5.26).

However, I did not get a chance to observe the teachers while they were being supervised by the inspectors and the headteachers. I was not allowed by the inspector and the justification given was that it was undesirable to confuse the teacher with the presence of, the supervisor and the researcher at the same time. In the case of the headteachers, they were busy preparing for the national election at the time of data generation and I could not attend any of their supervision visits. I asked some of the NGTs whether they had been visited by the headteachers or their assistants and they confirmed that they had not received any visits until about the end of the second semester.

5.16 The researcher's diary

A reflexive journal (diary) is “a kind of diary in which the investigator on a daily basis or as needed, records a variety of information about self and method” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 327). This diary provides information about the researcher as “human instrument”. It also offers data about the “methodological decision made and the reasons for making them” (ibid). Such a diary may include the daily agenda of the study, a personal diary of what happens and any speculation about insights researchers collect and record of any methodological decisions and their rationales (ibid). In relation to this study, I kept my own diary to record what happened and any potential methodological decisions I might make. This helped me to check every step I made and decide what I might need to do next. It contained a detailed chronological record of the events observed and participants interviewed, to put it in another way, a continuous description of the situations observed, and persons interviewed and “field notes of non-verbal communication as often tone of voice and facial expression (which) can convey more than words” (Dhillon, 2013, p. 739). Keeping my diary enabled me to “make my experiences, opinions, thoughts, and feelings visible and an acknowledged part of the research design, data generation, analysis, and interpretation process” (Ortlipp, 2008, p. 703).

For this study, I had hoped to collect the teachers' diaries but they were not willing to do that. The conflict exacerbated the reserve which dominated the situation and created obsessive suspicion that might make the NGTs think that what they wrote might be used against them (see vignettes 1, 2 in 6.13.1, 6.13.2). I repeatedly confirmed the anonymity and confidentiality every time we met. They were anxious not to hand anything in of a personal nature and I respected their situations.

5.17 Documents

The words “documents” and “records” are often used interchangeably and refer to “any written or recorded statement prepared by or for an individual organization for the purpose of attesting to an event or providing an accounting” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 277). Documents are characterized by being “stable” and “can be reviewed repeatedly”. They are not created as a result of the case study (Yin, 2009, p. 102). They provide substantial support for interpretation of interview and observational data that enhance the study with evidence. Therefore, Yin argues that “because of their overall value, documents play an explicit role in any data collection in doing case studies” (ibid).

The study attempted to find out the type of support that might be provided to newly EFL teachers by the inspection offices and the EDC. Visiting the organizations responsible for this issue would enable me to obtain the answers to my questions. Documents in any forms would be evidence of the availability or unavailability of any type of training at various stages of teacher education. They are about the plans or programmes for training the NGTs of English. Obtaining such documents would enhance the data collected from other methods. For this study, getting such documents was not easy because the political situation was unstable and these organizations were undergoing reconstruction and change at that time. Reserve was again apparent, even when I requested to look at old reports or programmes. With difficulty I obtained a copy of the intended programme for teacher training planned by the EDC. The inspection office handed me un-updated copies

of their old reports because a new one would be prepared by the end of the academic year.

5.18 The Piloting Stage

5.18.1 Procedures of the Pilot Study

I conducted the pilot study in Huddersfield in September 2010. The aims of the pilot study were to: test the methods to be used for the data collection; identify any potential technical or contextual problems or factors that would impact the data collection process; get a first-hand experience of conducting interviews and modify the research questions based on the results of the pilot stage.

The research design was aimed to investigate the NGTs' experiences in their first years of commencing actual teaching from their own perspectives in post-conflict Libya. Therefore, the two participants of the pilot study were taken from almost the same target population intended for the main study. The plan was to interview the two students doing an MA in TESOL at the University of Huddersfield who had been teaching for almost two semesters. It was impossible to carry out a pilot study in Libya because the conflict was at its peak and there were no schools open that time. At the same time, there were no new graduated teachers appointed at that time. The possibility of getting a permit was in doubt, in addition to the possible risk associated with travelling.

5.18.2 Experience gained from the Pilot Study

The piloting stage was beneficial because I gained first-hand experience in setting up a research study and dealing with fieldwork in terms of gaining access to the participants, getting their consent, and dealing with unexpected events in the field during the process. It also gave me the opportunity to test the interview schedules, which resulted in the modification of some questions based on the responses of the participants. These responses helped me refine the interviews and divide the questions into sub-themes that I

wanted to explore further during the main study. In the revised interview schedules, I also included additional prompt questions that I used to focus on and guide the interviewing process. I familiarized myself with the process involved in carrying out a research interview. This was helpful as I was able to modify my questioning strategies for the main study later on. From the pilot study, I perceived that an optimal time for the conducting interviews would be from 45 minutes to 1 hour because after that participants tend to get impatient and usually no new information can be obtained from them. I then had to consider the use of strategies and prompts to ensure that the participants did not deviate from the focus of the questions and start speaking about irrelevant subjects during the allotted time. I was able to test the quality of the recordings and sort out any technical problems with my audio recorder. For the main study I used a digital recorder that allowed me to transfer audio files to the computer without the need to use specialised software. I realized the difficulties associated with translation and transcription. These difficulties were connected to the quality and clarity of the recorded material, the time needed to transcribe each interview, for instance, as I had to transcribe all the interviews in the study. This stage indicated the importance of starting to transcribe interviews during data generation processes. Carrying out transcription enabled me to thoroughly understand the data, the distinctiveness of each interviewee and retrieval of what they said.

5.19 Ethical considerations

The British Educational Research Association's Revised Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research BERA (2011), which deals with gaining informed voluntary consent of participants, informed the ethical decisions taken into consideration during the research for this thesis. All the participants who took part in interviews or focus groups were informed about the study at the beginning of the data generation process. They were informed verbally of their right to withdraw from the research at any time, though none did, and their identities were anonymised both in terms of secure storage of data relating to them and within this writing. They received no incentive to take part and I am very

grateful for their cooperation. Dealing with the issues of access and acceptance, informed consent, anonymity of participants and confidentiality in manner that conformed to BERA Guideline (2011) was a priority in this study. Getting participants' acceptance and protecting them from any possible mental or emotional harm were the main concerns (Fontana & Frey, 2005 ; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009 ; Marshall & Rossman, 1999 ; Patton, 2002).

5.19.1 Access and Acceptance

Access and acceptance is an important issue that needs to be tackled in the initial stages of the research. It refers to the researcher gaining access to the site of the study and being accepted by the organization to conduct the field work required. The researcher usually needs an official permission from the authorities concerned. For this study, an official letter was obtained from the University of Huddersfield to be handed to the Libyan Embassy in London, which was forward to The Higher Education in Tripoli which in turns issued an authorized letter to take to the secretariat of education in the region where the research was conducted. This secretariat of education was responsible for the schools within the region and issued me with a letter to deliver to the schools where the study was conducted. The same letter was delivered to the Education Development centre and the inspection office.

5.19.2 Informed consent

Informed consent is consent received from the participant after he/she has been carefully and truthfully informed about the nature and the purpose of the research (Christians, 2008 ; Fontana & Frey, 2005). The researcher is obliged to explain the research processes thoroughly and the data he or she intends to collect and their explicit aims. For this study, and before the beginning of this research, the required information about the research was provided to the participants to seek their formal agreement to take part in the study. Their verbal consent was first proved when they accepted participating in the research. They were also notified that they were free to withdraw from the research at any point. If

I handed them any consent to write, I think they would not have participated that time because of the tension and the reserve exacerbated by the conflict.

5.19.3 Confidentiality

This consideration deals with protecting the participant's right to privacy by promising confidentiality at the beginning of the research to "gain trust and encourages participants to speak openly and honestly" (Simons, 2009, p. 106). It involves disguising the identity of participants to ensure that their privacy and anonymity are protected (Patton, 2002). The participants of the present study were assured that they will remain anonymous and that reporting the findings will not include their identification by names. Their names will also remain anonymous to ministry officials in the region. The participants were also informed that the data gathered will only be used for the purpose of the research and will not affect their status by any means. I also assured the participants that the study does not aim to judge them in any sense. I stopped recording upon their request and did not include any of the issues discussed separately in the notes or the interview transcription. I also respected their views when they referred to the conflict, the teachers and the administration and when they had that silence or reserve. I kept the recorded materials and my notes in files for each participant with anonymous names. I gave no detail about the participants to head teachers and the inspectors.

5.19.4 Protection from harm

This consideration refers to protecting participants from any harm including physical, emotional or any other type of harm (Babbie, 1998 ; Fontana & Frey, 2005). The researcher of this study considered all the possible consequences of the study on the participants. For instance, I did not refer to the teachers' problems in front of other teachers, inspectors and headteachers. I avoided interviews in the last class to let them leave on time. Making appointment was based on mutual agreement of the teachers and the researcher. At the same time, attempts were made to avoid the effect of the researcher as an authority. I gave them my contact detail for any possible help. For

social and cultural restriction, I did not ask them to be interviewed with other teachers in other schools or places. Moreover, the participants were assured that the information provided would only be used for research purposes and no elements of data collected will be handed to any officials in educational offices under any conditions.

5.20 Stages of Data Analysis

5.20.1 Introduction

Marshall and Rossman classify data analysis as “ the process of bringing order, structure, and interpretation to the mass of collected data” for a study (1999, p. 150). That process involves immersion in the data that leads to understanding and interpretation (Hennink et al., 2011). It is a series of techniques that “involves moving back and forth between concrete bits of data and abstract concepts, between inductive and deductive reasoning, between description and interpretation” (Merriam, 1988, p.147). Data analysis is not a self-contained phase in its own right that one can start after the data generation is completed. It is an non-linear process because it requires the researcher to go back and forth to the original data and the coding process, searching for new codes, testing or refining existing ones (Merriam, 1988). The researcher continually moves between the stages of the research in an iterative process.

At this early stage-of data analysis, I aimed at identifying emerging patterns and themes, and allocating meanings or interpreting these patterns according to the research questions. The nature of the qualitative data that is usually collected over a period of time requires starting this process simultaneously with the data generation. This helped reduce the problem of data overload, offered the researcher the opportunity to become more familiar with the data, and classified significant themes that can be explored further in the remaining time of data generation. I used thematic analysis as the analytic procedure to interpret the data of this study. For instance, Braun & Clarke (2006, p. 79), define thematic analysis as

a method for identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns (themes) within the data. It minimally organizes and describes your data set in (rich) detail. However, frequently, it goes further than this and interprets various aspects of the research topic.

Furthermore, Boyatzis adds that thematic analysis is the process “for encoding qualitative information” (1998, p. 4). In this sense a theme is “ a pattern found in the information that at minimum describes and organizes the possible observations and at maximum interprets aspects of the phenomenon” (ibid). Themes may be generated from the data or theory and prior research. In the data analysis process of this study, I followed the guidelines set by Braun & Clarke (2006, p. 87) : the six phases of thematic analysis procedure presented in the following table. I worked on the first four phases interchangeably going back and forth with reference to the research questions. This helped me to select the themes and then identify the codes. The next part highlights the phases of carrying out the thematic analysis.

1-Familiarizing yourself with your data:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas.
2-Generating initial codes:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coding interesting features of the data in a systemic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code.
3-Searching for themes:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.
4-Reviewing themes:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (level 1) and the entire data set (level2), generating a thematic ‘map’ of the analysis.
5-Defining and naming themes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
6-Producing the report	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis

Table 7 Phases of Thematic Analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 87)

5.20.2 Familiarizing yourself with the Data

The first stage of data analysis began with transcription of the interviews with teachers, expert teachers, headteachers, inspection office and The EDC manager. It started directly after carrying out the first interview with the NGTs. From the outset, I decided to transcribe all recorded interviews and not rely on making summaries of the interviews. During the early stage of data analysis, I concentrated on the process of translation, interpretation and getting the exact meaning of the interviewees’ words. Since I transcribed all interviews myself, this assisted me in gaining a thorough grasp of my data. I also subsequently discussed what I transcribed with my supervisor.

The process of translating the interviews in English was not without challenges, both on theoretical and practical sides. On the theoretical side, I had to make the decision whether to apply 'literal' or 'free' translation. "A literal translation (i.e. translating word-by-word) could perhaps be seen as doing more justice to what participants have said and 'make one's readers understand the foreign mentality better'" (Hoing, 1997, p.17 cited by Birbili, 2000). However, Birbili states that using literal translation may hinder understanding because it can reduce the readability of the text (2000). For the purpose of this study, I decided to employ free translation to achieve the aim of conveying the essence of the NGTs' experiences and views in a clear and easily readable way. I did not translate word by word or literally. Instead, I translated the meaning in Arabic language into the meaning in English language to achieve equivalence in meanings between the two languages as much as possible. Sometimes, some ideas, concepts and expressions could not be translated exactly from Arabic to English language because the exact meaning or equivalence did not exist in English and in some cases there was contradiction between valuing meaning and the desire to obtain equivalence, and this represented a real challenge to me as a researcher. Therefore, I used what is known as 'transliteration', which is "a process of replacing or complementing the words or meanings of one language with meanings of another" because "the exact equivalence or exact meaning might not exist" (Regmi et al., 2010, p. 18). I translated the meaning not the exact words. At the same time I also tried to be as faithful to my own principles and values and to their original intent as possible. On the practical side, I did not encounter a lot of problems concerning the linguistic and the grammatical aspects because I did not intend to achieve exact equivalence of the Libyan Arabic dialect between the original and the translated text. For achieving an appropriate translation, sometimes I checked a bilingual dictionary and online translators in which I found various suggestions or options, and then used the one that best conveyed the teacher's meaning as I understood it. This assisted me when I started the analysis because the participants meant certain ideas behind using certain words in answering the questions. Without being aware of the actual meaning in the Libyan dialect, the meaning of the exact words would not be the

meaning the participants intend to convey. For instance, they say no, there was limited integration. The 'no; here does not have negative meaning; it has the opposite. I translated in a way that was more trustworthy. I reviewed the translation more than once to be sure of achieving the most accurate meaning, and highlighted some chunks as important.

Transcribing the interviews (40) was time consuming, but this allowed me to become more immersed in the data. Listening to the interviews mentally transported me back to the situations where these interviews were conducted. This reminded me of the context of the interviewees and all the events. Listening, reading and re-reading the transcripts repeatedly familiarized me with the data. I also started writing general notes and comments about initial thoughts and interesting issues that were emerging from the data on the margins. All these strategies assisted me in selecting the themes, codes and sub-codes later on.

5.21 Generating Initial Codes

Codes refer to “the most basic segment, or element, of the raw data or information that can be assessed in a meaningful way regarding the phenomenon” (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 63). They usually are attached to chunks of words, phrases, sentences or whole paragraphs, connected or unconnected to a specific setting. They can take the form of a straightforward category label or a more complex one, for example, a metaphor (Boyatzis, 1998 ; Mile & Huberman, 1994). What is important in assigning a code to a segment of raw data is that this segment should be meaningful in relation to the phenomenon under study. I employed the constant comparison method for developing and refining the codes.

According to Denscombe, a constant comparison involves “comparing and contrasting new codes, categories and concepts as they emerge-constantly seeking to check out against existing versions” (2007, P. 99). Thus in this way the researcher never loses sight

of the data, or moves the analysis too far away from the focus of the research (ibid). This process requires reading and rereading the data and the codes to look for similarities and differences in the interviews, combining existing codes into categories or adding new codes to accommodate for new pieces of information until all the data is saturated. For this study, similar codes were grouped in categories from which concepts or themes could be derived and discussed in relation to the research questions. In this respect, Creswell (2007, P. 148) identifies the main steps of the coding process as follows:

central steps in coding data (reducing the data into meaningful segments and assigning names for the segments), combining the codes into broader categories or themes, and displaying and making comparisons in the data graphs, tables, and charts. These are the core elements of qualitative data analysis.

Then I had to select the ‘units of analysis’ which refers to the basic text unit that contains an idea relevant to the research question(s) (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009). A qualitative researcher usually chunks his or her data based on whether they represent distinctive, meaningful pieces that contain an issue of interest to the researcher (ibid). Thus, any length of text such as a word, a phrase, sentence or sentences or a paragraph can be classified as a code.

For coding, I went through all the interview transcripts, assigning codes to chunks of data that were relevant to the general topics that I wanted to investigate in the study. Then I combined some codes that carried the same idea. They were all highlighted. At this stage I wrote the codes in the margins and later I transferred them to categories for coding tables. The codes and subsequent sub-code for this topic are as follows:

Table 8 Codes and Subcodes (R.Q.1)

<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Mutual engagement<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Dealing with the inspector○ Seeking opportunities to learn○ No integration (Age barrier)• Joint enterprise<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ No integration(Age barrier)• Shared repertoire<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Hesitate to ask for help○ Self-socialization○ Loneliness○ Fear of former teachers or experienced colleagues & headteachers○ Unaware of expert teacher• Joint enterprise<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ No care○ Follow teachers& give advice○ Relation with colleagues○ Support from teachers of English○ Expert teacher support• Independence & Identity<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Independence & Identity• Challenges with pedagogical knowledge<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Dealing with students○ Challenges with teaching methods• Challenge-with subject matter knowledge• No interest in Teaching • Unsecure situation• False view about teaching• Lack of confidence• Wrong choice

The original broad theme was mainly based on the review of research on the significant experiences of beginner teachers mentioned in the Chapter 3 (literature review).

For R.Q.2, I carried out the same process as with R.Q.1 and identified these codes:

Table 9 codes for R.Q.2

- Pedagogical courses of benefit
 - Teaching methodology
 - Teaching skills
 - Insufficient courses
- No relevance to current situation
 - Syllabi or contents
- Courses Not studied
 - Teaching(methodology)
Knowledge
- Not practiced
 - Teaching Practice
- Colleagues' help
 - Lesson planning
 - Attending or observing
 - Emotional support
- Expert teacher's help
 - Lesson planning
 - Dealing with students
 - Follow teachers
 - Give advice
- Headteacher's help
 - Dealing with parents
 - Encouraging
 - Having community
- Inspection's help
 - Listening to teachers' complain

- Teacher development
 - Gaining a new qualification
 - Having training
 - Care for female teachers
 - Gradual immersion in teaching
 - Self -monitoring
 - No care

The original broad theme was mainly based on the review of research on teachers' perceptions of their development as covered in Chapter 3 (literature review).

Table 10 codes for R.Q.3

- Knowledge and beliefs about themselves
- Areas of development
 - Subject matter knowledge
 - Pedagogical knowledge
- Building identity

Although it took much time to carry out the coding, the immersion in the data helped me in understanding and assigning the themes, codes and sub-codes.

5.21.1 Searching for Themes

This stage involves reading and rereading the codes generated in the previous step. My immersion in the data enabled me to identify significant recurring broader patterns or themes rather than codes. Searching for themes

involves sorting the different codes into potential themes, and collating all the relevant coded extracts

within the identified themes. Essentially, you are starting to analyse your codes and consider how different codes may combine to form an overarching theme (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 89).

This stage entailed thinking about the relationships between the different codes, themes, and sub-codes and re-arranging and organizing the coded chunks according to the new understanding of my framework. The main themes were based on the essential elements of CoP (Wenger, 1998). Grouping of the relevant code chunks under the corresponding themes assisted me to see the broader sense of the data and how the different parts fit into this framework. At the end of this stage, I had “a collection of candidate themes, and sub-themes, and all extracts of data that have been coded in relation to them” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 90).

I started the data analysis with one major theme that I was interested in exploring. It is related to RQ1-What are newly graduated EFL teachers’ perceptions of their experiences during their first years of teaching in post-conflict Libya? The first coding stage resulted in the forming of an initial analysis framework for the research question N.1

5.22 Reviewing Themes

After developing the themes, the next process was evaluating and refining the emergent codes and sub-codes and exploring them through the data. Considering Braun and Clarke’s advice (2006, p. 91), two main principles were taken into consideration during this refinement process. First, I acknowledged that “data within themes should cohere together meaningfully, while there should be clear and identifiable distinctions between themes”, or what Patton (1990) calls -internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity. During this stage, I followed the two levels identified by Braun & Clarke (2006, p. 91-92). For the first level, I reviewed the extracts of coded data under each theme to evaluate their coherence and ensure that they formed a meaningful unit of analysis, adding some

and excluding others. The second level involved going back and reading the entire data set to judge whether the selected themes captured the contours of the data. In the second level, I looked for new data segments to code or ways to re-code old ones in line with my refined understanding of the themes and sub-codes boundaries and properties.

5.23 Defining and Naming Themes

In the fifth step of the analysis, the aim is to “define and further refine the themes you will represent for your analysis, and analyse the data within them” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 92). This was done by determining the essence of each of the themes and aspect(s) of data that each theme captures. I reread, organized and reorganized the coded data and their collated illustrative extracts into a coherent and consistent ‘story’ identifying the significance of each extract in relation to the aim of the study and the research questions. As for naming the themes, Braun & Clarke advise that names should be “concise, punchy, and immediately give the reader a sense of what the theme is about” (ibid, p. 93). By the end of this stage, I had a coding scheme that consisted of four main themes and, fifteen codes and sub-codes as illustrated above.

5.24 Trustworthiness of the study

5.24.1 Introduction

Trustworthiness as Guba & Lincoln (2005, p. 196) have stated, represents the “Goodness or quality criteria” of constructivism. Trustworthiness refers to issues of "how truth will be determined, how it will be communicated ... and how error will be detected and corrected" (Erlandson et al., 1993, 29). Likewise, Lincoln & Guba (1985, p. 290) claim that trustworthiness is simply related to:

how can an inquirer persuade his or her audiences
(including self) that the findings of an inquiry are
worth paying attention to, worth taking account of?

What arguments can be, what criteria invoked, what questions asked, that would be persuasive on this mounted issue?

They have noted that trustworthiness criteria can be operationalized through different strategies and considerations. Meanwhile Denzin & Lincoln (2005, p. 24) have been more specific in tackling the quality criteria of constructivism, stating that: “credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability replace the usual positivist criteria of internal and external validity, reliability and objectivity”. Below is a table of the criteria and their corresponding naturalistic inquiry.

Conventional terms	Naturalistic terms
internal validity	credibility
external validity	transferability
reliability	dependability
objectivity	confirmability

Figure 3 Criteria for judging the quality of quantitative versus qualitative research

Introducing rigorous procedures into each phase of the inquiry will “improve the trustworthiness” (Gobo, 2008, p. 363). To decrease threats to trustworthiness, a qualitative researcher has to employ a variety of strategies that assist him or her to “describe research findings in a way that authentically represents the meanings as described by the participants” (Lietz et al., 2006, 444). At the same time, qualitative researchers need to document all the procedures and the steps they go through in conducting their case studies (Yin, 2009). In this study, to address each of these criteria, and thereby to ensure the trustworthiness of the results, these four common criteria were used for evaluating the research results: credibility, transferability, dependability, and

confirmability (Erlandson et al., 1993 ; Lincoln & Guba, 1985) were applied. As a researcher, I took these trustworthiness strategies into consideration at the different stages of my study by focusing on triangulation and thick description, as discussed more fully below.

5.24.2 Credibility

Credibility refers to a researcher's ability to demonstrate that the views presented in the research report are those of the participants (Erlandson et al., 1993). Credibility needs to be established with the individuals and groups as sources of research data. In order to do this, Lincoln & Guba have proposed techniques including prolonged engagement, persistent observation, triangulation, referential adequacy, peer debriefing, and member checks to help researchers achieve this goal (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The next section discusses some of these techniques that are relevant to this study.

5.24.3 Prolonged engagement

Prolonged engagement enables researchers to be aware of the culture of the social setting and thereby helps in "testing for misinformation introduced by distortion" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 301), on the side of researchers or participants. Prolonged engagement assists a researcher to overcome distortion based on his or her own a priori ideas. Distortions may also be introduced by participants, often unintentionally. Researchers are advised to question misinformation whether this is deliberate or unintended and the procedure to take to mitigate the problem (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Prolonged engagement offers an opportunity for the researcher to build trust and develop a rapport with the participants (Erlandson et al., 1993) and for the latter to become more open in their interactions (Lietz et al., 2006).

Concerning the present study, I was in contact with the NGTs for almost the whole period of data generation. This engagement entailed contact with these teachers in

classrooms, in staffrooms and in their schools in general through conducting observation and interviews.

5.24.4 Persistent observation

Persistent observation aims to “identify those characteristics and elements in the situation that are most relevant to the problem or issue being pursued and focusing on them in detail” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 304). This process provides depth to research. Then it is the role of researchers to concentrate on what is of relevance and eliminate the irrelevant. They “continuously engage in tentative labelling of what are taken as salient factors and then exploring them in detail ” (ibid). Additionally, they provide detailed description of any exploration carried out. Nevertheless, persistent observation has the drawback of “going native” that happens as a result of premature closure based on the participants’ request (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Concerning the present study, I observed the NGTs in classrooms, staff rooms and in their schools in general. This observation assisted me in gaining clear understanding about them and eliminated any a priori ideas. The observation data added substantial interpretation of their thoughts.

5.24.5 Triangulation

Triangulation is a technique applied to ensure that interpretation and findings are credible. It supports credibility by using different or multiple sources and types of data and can combine both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Triangulation is considered as “one of the great strengths of case studies as compared with other methods in that evidence can be collected from multiple sources”(Rowley, 2002, p. 23). It is a means of strengthening the trustworthiness of qualitative case study research as it aims at providing deep understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005 ; Stake, 2005). For instance, Stake believes that triangulation in qualitative research “has been generally considered a process of using multiple perceptions to clarify meaning” (2005, p. 454). Triangulation may yield somewhat different results, which is not considered as a weakness of the credibility of the result,

“but rather as offering opportunities for deeper insight into the relationship between inquiring approach and the phenomenon under study” (Patton, 2002, p. 284).

Concerning this case study research, triangulation entailed “adding richness to the description and providing verification of the significance of issues through different methods and sources” (Simons, 2009). It was attained by combining interviews, observations, a purposive sample, and documents. These methods yielded rich data that enhanced each other in the first place and to allow sufficiently deep understanding, interpretations and insight on the topic.

5.24.6 Transferability

Transferability is concerned the extent to which the findings of a study may be generalizable to other similar contexts (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this case, a researcher provides sufficient information to determine the applicability of the findings to another situation. It refers to concerns about generalizability that tends to be associated with quantitative research. Transferability is “a process in which the reader of the research uses information about the particular instance that has been studied to arrive at a judgement about how far it would apply to other comparable instances” (Denscombe, 2010, p. 301). In order to address transferability, a researcher “attempts to describe in great details the interrelationships and intricacies of the context being studied” (Erlandson et al., 1993, p. 32). Erlandson et al. recommend using the following techniques: thick description, purposive sampling and maintaining a reflexive journal (1993, p. 133), to support transferability.

In this study, the sample was purposive and it consisted of eleven NGTs who were recently appointed. The data generated from the last teacher told me little that was new about the phenomenon under scrutiny. This marked the point of data saturation (Mason, 2002) and interviewing new teachers would not have added any new information about the perceptions and experiences of NGTs. Through all the study, I kept referring to the

participants' experiences and the impact of the conflict on the Libyan context. Description of the processes of data generation was provided and all the associated incidents. The notes I generated during the interviews, observations and the visits I made to all places assisted my understanding of the whole situation and made me feel as if all the events were live.

5.24.7 Thick description

A researcher collects and reports sufficient detailed descriptions of data to allow judgment to be made about transferability (Erlandson et al., 1993). This thick description brings the reader to the context described and contains insights gained by direct experience. It is "a way to characterise the distinctiveness of qualitative research in terms of both process and product" (Hammersley, 2008, p. 52). Such detailed descriptions make the phenomenon clear to readers and assist researchers in interpretation.

For this study, I have provided a detailed description of each step and I have tried to mentally transport the reader to the context where the participants lived and constructed their experience. It also enables the readers to envisage the complexity of the situation (see the vignettes 6.13.1, 6.13.2).

5.24.8 Purposive sampling

Transferability depends on provision of sufficient description. Naturalistic research attempts to "maximize the range of specific information that can be obtained from and about that context" (Erlandson et al., 1993, p. 13). This requires using a purposive sampling which aims at obtaining typical and divergent data (ibid). Details about the sample of this study were provided earlier in (5.11).

5.24.9 Reflexive journal

A reflexive journal is “a kind of diary in which the investigator on a daily basis or as needed, records a variety of information about self and method” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 327). This journal provides information about the researcher as “human instrument”. It also offers data about the “methodological decisions made and the reasons for making them” (ibid). Such a journal may include the daily agenda of the study, a personal diary of what happened and any speculation about insights researchers collect and record of any methodological decisions and their rationales (ibid). In relation to this study, as described in section 5.17. I kept my own diary, recorded what happened and any potential methodological decisions I might need to take. Checking my notes reminded me of the minor details I had written down during the data generation of this study. The images associated with the notes took me back to the time, people and actions of the data generation processes.

5.24.10 Dependability

Dependability is concerned with the researcher’s responsibility for making certain that the findings of the study can be repeated with the same or similar participants (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This procedure helps to achieve consistency criteria. Reliability establishment depends on “replication, of the same methods to the same participants under the same condition which yields similar measurements” (Erlandson et al., 1993). Consistency is visualized in terms of dependability, which embraces stability and tractability. Dependability can be communicated by means of a dependability audit.

To achieve this (audit) a researcher needs to “keep a fairly detailed record of the process of the research decisions” (Denscombe, 2010, p. 300), what Yin also (2003) identifies as detailed descriptions of the steps followed in the case study. To ensure dependability in my study, I have taken great care to give a thick description of the entire research process in a way that makes it possible to be conducted in a similar context. I have explained the

different stages in detail to ensure a thorough understanding of my context, the rationale based on literature review, the data generation and analysis. I have also explained the operationalization of CoP, elaborately supported with actual quotations from the participants (see Chapter Four), as appropriate. I have also referred to the possible limitations.

5.24.11 Confirmability

Confirmability refers to the degree to which researchers present findings that are the product of the research rather than the researcher's biases (Erlandson et al., 1993). Guba & Lincoln (1989, p. 243 cited by Erlandson et al., 1993) argue that "data can be tracked to their sources, and that the logic used to assemble the interpretations into structurally coherent and corroborating wholes is both explicit and implicit". Confirmability can be communicated by a confirmability audit which is concerned with the processes used in the study that enable external readers to make judgment about the findings of the study in terms of the conclusions, interpretations and any expected recommendations. Confirmability enhances transferability since there is no transferability if there is no credibility available. This can be achieved by triangulation (already mentioned) and keeping a reflexive journal. Below, there is a table of describing techniques that will be used for establishing trustworthiness.

As the aim of my research is to tackle the experiences and perceptions of the NGTs in post-conflict Tripoli, it is necessary to ensure their perspectives to emerge during the study and thus the research "reflect(s) the thoughts, feelings and experiences of the people who participate in our research" (Lietz et al., 2006, 144). The operationalization and discussion of the findings of the study consider the NGTs' experiences and perspectives as the unifying or overarching theme connecting all the arguments as will be highlighted in the following two chapters.

Criterion	Technique
Credibility	(1) activities in the field that increase the probability of high credibility (a) prolonged engagement (b) persistent observation (c) triangulation (sources, methods)
Transferability	(2) thick description
Confirmability	(3) the reflexive journal

Figure 4 Summary of Techniques for Establishing Trustworthiness in this study

5.25 My position as a single female researcher in post-conflict Libya

How I positioned myself, as a researcher, a former trainer and a senior lecturer or both, is relevant to my research. I tried to be, as Fontana and Frey (2000, p. 652) advise, “flexible, objective, emphatic, persuasive, [and] a good listener”.

I tried to introduce myself as a Libyan female researcher conducting research in post-conflict Libya. This was not easy to be accepted everywhere with the same understanding and feasibility. One of the reasons was the direct impact of that traumatic political and military conflict. As this is the situation and due to social and cultural restriction, as a single female, leave being a researcher behind now; I had to be more than patient to achieve my objectives.

My first contact with such constraints and a restriction was when I went to the Higher Education, the organization that is responsible for postgraduate studies, financial and

administrative affairs such as issuing sponsorship letters, field work letters, tracking students studying abroad and others. The authorized letter issued by this organization would enable me to have access to schools in the area where I live. As usual I needed some recommendations there to facilitate the process for me. I put that into consideration and got phone contacts ready. I went to the office of the archive where there was a lady whose phone number I already had. I took all documents with me anticipating that they might not receive the letter from the Libyan Cultural Attaché yet and my guess was right. However, the lady in the archive took my letter and other documents and promised to get things ready as early as possible. I had to wait, listen, and watch and not to comment. Nothing was done that day and they told me that the person in charge of signing the letter had gone out and was unlikely to come back. I left the place and asked that lady to follow the process and let me know.

After three days, I phoned the lady and she told me to bring another copy and come to submit it to the office in charge of issuing letters for field work. This time I decided to stay till I got the letter. The lady took me upstairs to the assistant of the person who checked my request and documents and decided to issue the letter of the places where I was supposed to go and send another to The Libyan Cultural Attaché in London as required. I sat in that office for more than three hours waiting, watching and being observed by others respectively. And finally the man told all who were waiting for their documents that Dr x had gone out and was unlikely to come back again. He told us to come the following Monday or Tuesday because the organization did not work on the Anniversary of 17th February Revolution and up to the end of the week. During that tedious waiting I read some theses and I did housework.

I was upset and did not know what to do. My sisters told me not to waste the time and suggested that my brother could speak to one of his friends in the local council of the region and get such a letter that would enable me to have access to schools in the area.

He contacted him and let me explain the objective of the letter and the nature of my research in brief. He promised to do his best.

Nothing I could do, but only be patient. The following Tuesday I went to the Higher Education and intended not to leave the office till I got the letter. I went up and found out that it was not prepared yet. I asked the man there to help me and insisted on having it today. He went to another office and came again asking me to whom it should be directed. I told him the places from which I intended to generate data and finally we agreed to leave it open so I could use it everywhere without restriction. He said it might be ready today if the manager did not leave early for another place. That time, I took permission from that man, sat and tolerated the argument and the observation of the attendants, comers and leavers in that office till the closing time but I could not get the letter. The man told me I could come the next day and would find it ready or send my brother to pick it up. I could not complain or shout like many other attendants because of just being a female! The next day my brother collected the letter from the Higher Education. Surprisingly they gave me only a month for data generation. I decided to start with the letter I had just got.

The next day I went with my sister to The White School, the nearest school to my house. She introduced me to the headteacher who welcomed me warmly and asked me to check the letter first. I understood that it was the system and therefore, I gave it to her and explained briefly the nature of my research and what I would like to do with teachers and her as well. She kindly agreed and called one of her assistants to help me. Everything went well, I got the timetable of the teachers and I met, Nawal, the first teacher in my sample. I also gave her a brief account of the nature of my research and the objectives. She agreed to be observed, interviewed and cooperative as well. On the same day, I invested the time between the second to the fourth period and went to the next school, The Beam of Knowledge, which was only 5 minutes' walk from the first school. I did the same thing again and got the same reply, since both headteachers of the two schools were

sisters. I got the timetable of two new teachers recently appointed to that school, but only one was newly graduated. I could not see her and at the same time I promised to visit Nawal, in her class in the fifth period. I was happy because I started what I came for. Now I had two newly appointed teachers and I still needed more. The next day, I visited Tripoli Castle, the third school and did the same thing; got names and timetables of three newly appointed teachers who I met only two of them that day and did the same as what I did the two other teachers I met before.

I went to Al-Manahal School which was somehow far. It was the first period so I could find all teachers and the headteacher. I knew the place but not the head teacher's office and so I asked about him and I quickly found him. I told him about the nature of my research and he asked me whether I had a formal letter from the MoE or the local secretariat of education in the region. I showed him the letter issued by The Higher Education but he insisted that the letter should be issued by the secretariat of education of the area where the school is located. He tried to help me and gave me a name of a person in the office to contact. Luckily the office was only ten minutes' walk from the school. Without any hesitation, I went to the secretariat of education and looked for that person and I told him that the headteacher of the school sent me to you. At first he said that there were instructions that anything should be issued by the MoE. I told him what I exactly would do with teachers and that I would not interrupt anybody. I also told him that we were not in the old system to restrict research by finding silly excuses to inhabit researchers. He seemed to consider my situation and his colleague's recommendation as well. Then he went out and came back with the same letter which had been signed and had notes written on it. I thanked him and went back to the school, and showed the letter to the headteacher and promised to make copies of it and hand him one, of course. He told me to go to the social workers' office and ask them to help me. There I sat about three hours in a very cold room without meeting new teachers. Then I went to the staff room where I checked the timetable and asked the teachers in charge to let me see the new teachers of English. The whole day was hectic for me. Luckily one of the teachers

was my former student. She welcomed me and asked whether I needed any help. She thought I was an inspector. I told her the aim of my visit and soon she referred to a teacher as a new one. I introduced myself to that teacher and told her what I would do with them all. She agreed, gave me her time table and left to her classes. I spent a week waiting for teachers, asking the possibility of joining the study. Then time came to start class observation with each individually and after it we met together, discussed what I had observed and after that we carried out the first interview. I did the same procedures with all the newly appointed teachers in this study. After each observation, I wrote my notes so that nothing could be missing. I divided the days between the four schools I went to. Now I had ten newly appointed teachers. I observed, and interviewed them all once almost in the middle of the first semester. Observation was easy while looking for a quiet place for carrying out interviews was difficult. Many times teachers let me down and they did not come to the school and did not phone me in advance or apologize for missing the appointment especially in Al-Manahal School and Tripoli Castle. However, matters went well with, Nawal, and Ghada the first two teachers. In all cases, patience and tenacity was the means by which I overcame stress.

Sitting in staffrooms in the schools I went to, gave me a lot of ideas about teachers' life in school, the kind of relationships they had and the effect of the conflict on them. This did not prevent me from asking and looking at EFL teachers and the sort of relationships they had. I searched for the expert teachers in all schools I visited. In The Beam of Knowledge I found two teachers as the eldest teachers among all teachers in the schools I went to. Two of them were chosen as expert teachers in their schools. I started asking about those till I got the chance and met the first teacher Miss Star. We talked together about different issues mainly related to teaching English and about my study. Then we arranged an appointment to conduct the interview because she was about to be on leave for three months. She was on time and I interviewed her in the social workers' office. She was a very quiet, confident and hard-worker lady. The interview went well and she promised to help if I asked her. She told me about her other colleague, Samer another

expert teacher who would substitute her while she would be away. I put that in my mind and planned to meet her.

The experience with the inspection office was very different; the head of the inspection office of English in Libya and the head of Tripoli inspection office were my former colleagues. They welcomed me warmly and expressed their deep desire to help me with everything without even referring to presenting any authorized letters. On my turn, I explained to them the nature of my research and what I would do with them and the teachers. They did not mind being interviewed and so I carried out the first focus interview with three of them together and it was like a friendly chat and there was no restriction; we could not even close the door or asked the others to leave or keep silent. As a single Libyan female and due to the social restriction, I neither dared to ask such thing nor wanted them to take a bad impression about me. Furthermore, I could not prevent other officials from interrupting our conversation or switching off mobiles. On their turn, they did not introduce me to other inspectors or invited me to cup of tea or coffee. They knew I would not expect this and from a social point of view, as a single female and as a matter of respect, I did not have to drink or have food with men and in front of them. I asked them to have access to some documents of their work relating to teachers' programmes and their reports to The MoE and The EDC. They promised to offer what they could to help me. I visited them three times and in each I carried out an interview with a group of them including female inspectors.

However my visit to The EDC was also different. I was not allowed to enter without clarifying my reasons to whom I was coming and for what reasons I needed them. I told the security that I needed to meet the manager of the centre or his direct assistant. He told me the manager was not available and he took me to an office in which I met a lady who was the head of the planning department. She welcomed me and introduced herself as a political activist. I gave her a brief account about my research and what I intended to do. She told me that the centre was almost new and they had lost all their documents and

records during the war, the place itself was occupied by a group of rebels and it would be an institute for teaching religious sciences as it was very long ago. I was sent upstairs looking for a name given to me. He gave me an old booklet about some activities and training done by the institute a few years ago. I left the centre after I got that lady's phone number. Unfortunately, I went to the centre many times and each time, I could not have a chance to meet the manager. His assistant was clever in finding excuses for me, and I had to be patient. Then I made a serious decision; I had to be courageous and decided to meet the manager by any means because there were no guarantees that his assistant would phone me and let me know when the manager would be available. I told that assistant that I would not leave the place till I meet the manager and I sat there. He saw how determined I was and told me I may wait a lot. I told him it would be fine. I saw the manager on TV because he was a political activist and presented programmes on radio and TV as well. Then the manager came and his assistant dashed to the office to go out and told me to enter and only for a short time. I greeted him without shaking hands as usual. He told me to sit. I started by introducing myself and gave a brief account about my research in a very formal manner and so did he. Although I asked him a few questions, we were interrupted many times and each comer looked at me suspiciously. They interrupted me and asked about other issues. I could not do the same because I did not want them to say what woman she was or raise other questions. At the end, I asked him about some evidence represented in documents. He sent me to the planning department. I went in a hurry to meet the lady again who sent me to the training and rehabilitation department where they welcomed me, but insisted on having a legal letter signed by the manager himself because they argued that these were legal documents of the centre. I ran down quickly to catch the manager before leaving at least. I urged the assistant to get it signed by his manager. I told him I needed it because I would be travelling soon. Fortunately he was kind and took the letter and returned it signed, smiling this time. I went running up again hoping they were still there as they promised. I did not classify or read everything thoroughly. I collected what was related to teacher development and training programmes the centre intended to make. Surprisingly, the

man in charge was my cousin's former student at university who photocopied some of the documents for me. It was a very exhausting day, but at least I achieved what I wanted to get. I got home very late very thirsty and hungry to find my family worried waiting for me.

Interviewing females in general were easier than their counterparts. For instance, I interviewed one headteacher in a flexible way. To the contrary, the one headteacher wasn't willing to be interviewed formally but agreed to have a chat without recording which I understood its social interpretation to him, other administrators and teachers respectively. I tried with him more than three times and his instant answer was that he was very busy. As a single female, I could not urge him to be interviewed. In accordance with my tenacity, he told the afternoon headteacher to be interviewed instead of him without informing me. Again from social and cultural view, I was not in a position to refuse or complain. To my surprise, this headteacher dashed the office where I was interviewing a teacher telling me he was ready for the interview. I just told him I needed to finish with her and then I would see what to be done.

To sum up, my status as a researcher was affected by my social status as a single female belonging to a conservative family. I had to keep this whenever I went and tolerate others' stare and sometimes gossip. I had done my best to have access to the places and people patiently because there was nothing to be done particularly at that sensitive transitional period.

5.26 Chapter Summary

In this chapter I have outlined and discussed the methodological underpinnings and the design of the study. First, the aims of the study and the research questions were presented followed by discussion of the research paradigm and qualitative research approach. It also provided a detailed account about case study, the various types and their limitations. This was followed by a description of the sample. The research methods applied in this

study were described in details. Regarding data analysis, I followed the steps explained by Braun and Clarke (2006) which guided me through the lengthy process. Ensuring the trustworthiness of the study entailed addressing the concepts of credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability. In addition, I have explained issues related to ethical considerations of acceptance and access, informed consent, avoidance of harm, anonymity, and confidentiality of participants. Finally my experience as a female researcher shed the light on an important stage of this research.

Chapter 6: Data Analysis 1

Operationalization of Communities of Practice

6.1 Introduction

Communities of Practice, as a social theory of learning, is the conceptual framework upon which the research is based. This theory sees practice as central to the community, and through it people establish relationships and build identities. The three dimensions of communities of practice, described by Wenger (1998) as mutual engagement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire, are operationalized to understand the data of the current research. This operationalization focused on addressing research questions, one & three which sought to consider the essential elements of a CoP. This chapter presents evidence from teachers' interviews, and my diary and occasionally observational data are used to substantiate the analysis.

In looking for differences and similarities between the theory and the path followed by NGTs, who make up the sample of this study, I needed to identify potential essential elements. First, there should be a professional community, a workplace as a socio-cultural environment that stimulates those teachers in the current situation of the country to learn and develop themselves (Handley et al., 2006 ; White, 2010) as qualified teachers. According to situated learning theory, (Lave & Wenger, 1991) the NGTs on joining their communities of practice start from the legitimate peripheral participation stage. They have to go through stages till they become full members. Through participation in the various activities of the community, they learn its norm. They receive support from their experienced colleagues within the communities. Wenger (1998) suggests that becoming a full participant in a community of practice is based on three requirements: mutual engagement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire. Conceptualization of Wenger's theory (1998) enabled me to operationalize the elements of community to interpret the data of this study by tracing the extent to which CoP was

experienced by the NGTs, old colleagues and the expert teachers. The aim was to link CoP to the learning outcomes of individual teachers within the community. Mutual engagement is the starting point in the process of operationalization.

6.2 Mutual engagement

Mutual engagement is considered as the basis for establishing relationships necessary to the existence of the CoP. Members (teachers) tend to engage, work together, build relationships and develop a meaning of practice through negotiation. This can be manifested in exchanging textbooks, workbooks, lesson planning notebooks, dictionaries and exam papers as the most important activities in which teachers collaborate together. They may extend this collaboration to include preparing a lesson, explaining an item or a part of a lesson or a complete lesson to a certain level. This varies from one teacher to another and from one school to another as well.

One of the means of achieving mutual engagement is to gain competence in the community language. When these teachers participate in the enterprise of their community of practice, they know how to engage with other teachers and understand the language of the community. This competence is lived or practised and contributes to forming individuals identity “we know who we are by what is familiar, understandable, usable, negotiable” (Wenger, 1998, p. 153).

6.2.1 Seeking Opportunities to Learn within the Community

Some NGTs from my sample voiced experiences in the early days of their professional life that demonstrated features of community of practice theory as explained by Wenger (1998). For instance, they did not experience the TP stage while they were studying at university and higher institutes. I will show later in this chapter that my data suggest that some NGTs from my sample lacked PK in aspects such as lesson planning and student management. This would have enabled them to overcome some of their daily negative experiences of teaching. Without having mutual engagement, they would be unable to

teach effectively or become integrated into their community. The data show that Shd, Eve, Jory and Sarah (Al-Manahal School) went to their colleagues seeking their help in lesson planning, student management and explanation. Shd, for example, remembered how her colleagues supported her when she began teaching in this school,

Shd: They helped and showed me their lesson plan and how to deal with students and things like these (1).

And Eve in the same school explained how she got help from the expert teacher in her first few days in school,

Eve: Dough asked me general questions and she told me that I can come and ask her for help at any time. We talked together for a while and I asked her about lesson planning too (1).

Respectively, Jory in the same school summarized how her colleagues helped her,

The data show later in this part that both Hay and Sarah, Jory, Sam and Eve's colleagues also received help from their colleagues or of the experienced teacher whenever they asked. They also stated that without it, it would be difficult for them to manage themselves, especially with the intense syllabus they were required to cover. This support enhanced the mutual engagement and the integration of those NGTs. Such support reduced the tension and encouraged them to get involved and interact with other EFL experienced teachers in school (Fuller & Unwin, 1998). Moreover, Shd asked Zainyh, another teacher, to observe her in class to see how she explained things and interacted with the students.

Shd: I attended teacher Zainyh's class. I liked teacher Zainyh, once she laughed with them and once she explains to them. They all participated with her (3).

Zainyh welcomed her and understood that Shd (Al-Manahal School) had the intention to learn and develop herself as a teacher. Through such mutual engagement, the teachers, regardless of whether they were beginners or experienced, contributed to the development of their relationships as members in the same community. The intention of Shd to learn and the interest of Zainyh to help her yielded that accountability on both sides. Moreover, Shd observed Eve in order to learn what she could from her colleague.

Shd: I attended two or three classes with Eve. I have noticed that she is strict and she does not joke with them, she does not laugh with them, there is nothing... This is something I liked about her... I liked something she has which I do not have; being serious all the time (2).

Although she liked the way Eve interacted in class, she did not like being serious all the time,

Shd: It is good and it is a bad thing, the good thing is that I am controlling them, but the bad thing is that they do not find fun in learning (3).

She learnt how a teacher can control her class and make them interactive by observing her colleagues. For Shd, learning about class management would be difficult and might take a long time without the opportunities offered to her by her colleagues. This mutual engagement supported her to address her lack of such PK as mentioned earlier.

Nawal (The White School) was motivated to learn. She wanted to know how the more experienced teacher conducted the lessons in terms of the timing of the class, the lesson itself, what facilities were available in class, the general atmosphere of the class, the abilities of the students and what she brought to support her to teach that lesson. Therefore, she thought it was insufficient to get a lesson plan notebook or acquire a detailed explanation from an expert teacher or a colleague without observing her in actual teaching. She went and attended classes with Asiya. She commented:

Nawal: Asiya invited me to come and attend a class with her and benefit in terms of her explanation and communication with students (1).

That observation provided her with key points to tackle certain teaching techniques such as conducting a lesson with that particular class as mentioned above. She knew the lesson planning notebook could not provide her with such information because sometimes a lesson plan might look ideal, but when it comes to application, it might for one reason or another be completely impractical in a particular class. In addition, she experienced real teaching. Such collaboration supported the development of relationships with colleagues and increased mutual engagement among members of the community. What Nawal gained was an understanding of situated aspects of teaching that might not be gained from textbooks or detailed explanations. This engendered the integration and growth of relationships among members that enhanced mutual engagement and development of the community. Shd and Nawal learnt from doing and interacting with a range of more experienced colleagues through their collaborative ways of working in their professional community (Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2004). They consciously looked for improvements within their professional community.

Sha (Tripoli Castle), like many of the NGTs in this sample, was committed to improving her pronunciation and lesson planning. She considered such help as essential for her, especially in her early days at school. In this way, she could build relationships with colleagues and learn from what the workplace offered to her.

Sha: Eh, she teaches me pronunciation, checks my lesson planning notebook, and checks my questions before handing them to the exam committee (3).

The interest in learning and self-improvement tends to be personally focused, stimulated by motivation and interest in the profession itself and related to the particular teacher who, like many of the NGTs, is seeking opportunities to learn and thereby develop

herself as a qualified teacher. Rab, like Shd and Nawal, voiced her interest in learning from a colleague, who offered her that opportunity:

Rab: I asked Miss Amani if I could go to the class and I told her I want to observe her teaching and dealing with the students. I wanted to invest in this and benefit from her as much as possible (1).

These teachers, in light of their current situation of having undergone no TP stage, training or any preparation programmes before commencing teaching would be unlikely to learn, improve and develop themselves as qualified teachers if they were not supported by their communities. Through mutual engagement facilitated by their communities, they would avoid being frustrated and marginalized.

Evidence from an interview with Eve (Al-Manahal School) where I discussed with her the idea of having a meeting with other teachers of English and discussing issues of accountability that affect all teachers suggested that there is a risk of isolation or marginalisation.

Eve: The only thing I think of is my syllabus and to teach it and my classes. It is ok up to this time (2).

What I inferred from this statement is that she does not look forward to being integrated in her community, with teachers of English and other teachers in her school. She had marginalized herself, thereby affecting the prospects for mutual engagement. According to Wenger (1998), a member like Eve, for instance, would not go through the stages required to become an effective member. The consequence would be isolation or marginalisation and failure to join the community (Fuller et al., 2005). Wenger (1998) referred to marginalisation, but he did not explain thoroughly or elaborate the potential underlying causes.

Mutual engagement was promoted through collaboration in the form of mutual understanding between the inspector of English and some NGTs in Al-Manahal School in particular. As demonstrated in the literature, many newly graduated teachers encounter very serious problems in their first few months which might in some cases have an impact on their decision whether to continue or quit teaching (Farrell, 2008 ; Veenman, 1984). Evidence from my data suggests that the lack of PK and SK constitute the most important gaps in terms of the types of knowledge Sam, Sarah, Eve and Jory (Al-Manahal School) needed most at the beginning of their professional life to direct them on the appropriate path. It appears to be the perception of those teachers that inspectors are basically teachers who should offer their academic support to NGTs without even being asked for it. The data suggest that they perceive inspectors as not fulfilling what they are supposed to offer to NGTs as part of their roles, particularly in terms of early supervision visits (see Sam and Jory below). We can see that the lack of mutual engagement inhibits information of relationships and mutual understanding between them.

Mutual engagement is lacking and some NGTs, particularly in (Al-Manahal School), seemed to be frustrated by what they experienced from the inspector. For instance, Jory, who had never taught before and who expected to receive support from the inspector, found the situation to be different from what she anticipated. She was disappointed by what she heard from the inspector.

Jory: She (inspector) shouted with a loud voice and why and how and you and how and how. I told her this is my first time and you come here to give me advice not to shout at me in the corridor. She made noise in the corridor as if she was saying I have been teaching for twenty years and every time she comes she finds me in this way. I changed the impression I have formed about her the first time. I do not like her (2).

Lack of mutual engagement prevented the growth of relationships between the inspector and teachers. To the contrary, it deepened the gap to the extent that it created images of “fear” associated with inspectors as expressed by Jory.

Sam (Al-Manahal School) provides another example of a teacher, who bitterly articulated what she felt after the inspector’s visit,

Sam: I thought that she (inspector) would give me advice because it is my first year of teaching as I do not know what inspectors do. But when she came to class, she asked me why I don’t use teaching aids in class (2).

In a similar vein, Sarah, a teacher in the same school, expressed her feelings,

Sarah: She (inspector) came at the beginning when I first came here; it was about a week or ten days from my first arrival. She was not satisfied with me, smiling sarcastically; she did not like me at all. She came ten days after my arrival. When she came; I did not have a lesson planning notebook. She sat for five minutes. I knew she was not satisfied (2).

Evidence from the reports of NGTs such as Sarah and her colleagues in Al-Manahal School suggests that they did not have sufficient information about what inspectors do when visiting teachers as Sam stated above. Such lack of awareness might be related to not having undergone the TP stage or induction. It is also can be related to their lack of PK, mentioned earlier. What they knew came from their observational experience as students.

Shd (Al-Manahal School) similarly articulated her dissatisfaction with the inspector’s behaviour. She had never thought that the inspector would behave in this hostile manner.

Shd: Bad impression about the inspector! The inspector shouted at the students and did not give me any advice. She only criticized me. The inspector is supposed to be quieter than this, more understanding than this (2).

The lack of mutual (understanding) engagement between the inspector and the teachers in Al-Manahal School was remarkable. The inspector of this school might have a particular kind of personality or lacks the experience of a senior inspector as she did not let me accompany her when she was supervising one of the teachers. She also stated that she had 110 teachers to follow and this large number might affect her relationships with teachers. Evidence from the data above indicates the sensitivity of some NGTs about the inspector's evaluation (see Shd and Sarah above). It also shows the lack of awareness of the inspector's job on the side of teachers in that school.

It can be noticed that the four extracts came from Al-Manahal School, where Sam, Shd, Eve, Jory, Sarah and Hay the EFL teachers taught secondary school curricula of different specializations. These curricula represent serious challenges for teachers in general and particularly for NGTs who had neither experienced the TP stage nor studied teaching related subjects during their time at university or a higher institute. It was the perception of NGTs that some inspectors had forgotten this fact and assumed that all teachers were aware of their roles as inspectors. On the other side, the lack of mutual engagement appears to be related to the teachers' lack of PK or their assumption that getting everything was ready in their hands (see Jory and Sam) above. Evidence from the data later on in this part suggests that the challenges they encountered are related to their lack of PK and SK. For instance, Sarah taught engineering, which she found difficult because she lacked the necessary subject information "engineering is strange for me; I have not studied it (2)".

The situation of Sam was even more difficult for her; teaching writing to students of English specialization. She considered this a great challenge to her in her first year of teaching.

Sam: I feel I am not qualified for it (writing). I am not to the standard of teaching it, especially at this time (1).

Eve complained of having to learn and understand a great amount of new vocabulary and terms related to engineering, and basic sciences, before explaining them to her students.

Eve: I have found some vocabulary that I can't find in the dictionary which I understand from the contexts. If I don't prepare my lessons in advance, I will not be able to understand and explain them to my students. Some engineering terms can't be found even in the dictionary. I don't know them in Arabic either (1).

Evidence from the data suggests that teachers like Sam, Eve, Sarah and Shd (Al-Manahal) would not be able to cope with all the difficulties they encounter during their first year without mutual engagement with their colleagues in the same community and their support in terms of planning and explaining aspects of lessons. They looked for help from both NGTs and experienced colleagues. What they learn in the workplace might compensate for what they did not learn during their previous studies and which might not be available in textbooks and the teacher's manuals. This is evidenced by the teachers like Sarah, Shd, Eve went to their colleagues seeking their help. They also attended classes with each other (the situation of Shd and Eve).

However, the situation was different in the Beam of Knowledge School; the inspector visited Ghada unexpectedly, but Ghada stated that she controlled herself and did not panic and unlike the teachers mentioned above was not disappointed. The inspector

herself advised Ghada to avoid using the mother tongue, Arabic, and instead to rely on simple English. Ghada comments;

Ghada: I said to myself, don't panic and calm down and be as normal as possible, and what does it matter if she is an inspector. I said, give your lesson as usual and carry on as usual. She came in and she sat at the back of the class and took my lesson plan notebook, my personal information and the date of my appointment here to this school. She gave me a brief idea of lesson planning. I told her about my notebook, but she told me she was not satisfied with it. She has a special form of planning and I do remember that I have heard that this inspector is new and she has a special way of planning not as you want. I told her that I would like to know this because I am a new teacher and have the desire to learn. I am happy to find someone who leads me, helps me and knows about the whole program, and lesson planning. She told me she was not going to evaluate me that time because I was a new teacher and she signed my lesson plan notebook (1).

It is Ghada's perception that the inspector in her school seemed to want to establish relationships with the teachers. This created a mutual understanding between the teacher and the inspector, manifested in the forms reduction in tension and the teacher seeking help from the inspector. The inspector seemed to be more aware of the NGTs' situations and therefore she did not consider her first visit as evaluative, thereby giving the teachers the opportunity to amend things and follow the new instructions more easily. The difference might also be related to the syllabi taught in that school where Ghada taught preparatory curricula, a fairly basic level in comparison to what Sam, Jory, Eve and Sarah (Al-Manahal School) taught. In addition, my observations of Ghada in class suggest that she was competent in general in terms of her interaction with the students, her control of the class and her teaching. The discussion with her also indicated general awareness of her syllabus. She spoke to me clearly and confidently and she was willing

to be observed three times. She was committed to improving herself and benefiting from others' experience. She showed me the test she had prepared and asked for any necessary corrections and advice. What I noticed corresponded with what Star (expert teacher in the Beam of Knowledge) reported: "She is more capable of teaching" and the inspector's report.

6.2.2 Limitation of integration

Evidence of mutual engagement between teachers as colleagues was relatively limited in all the schools included in this study. This can be related to lack of integration that was exacerbated by the conflict in Libya, the situation and culture. Evidence from my observational data suggests that people were very cautious in interacting with each other and regarded each other with suspicion. Both the conflict and the social and cultural situation contributed to hindering the development of mutual engagement.

6.3 The impact of the conflict

The data for this study were generated during a very difficult time for Libya. Although actual conflict had ended in a large part of the country, instances of violence were still occurring in places loyal to the old regime. People were still in shock from that traumatic political and military conflict, of which signs could be seen everywhere I went in terms of destruction and the sorrow that masked the faces of those who had lost members of their family, relatives, friends and neighbours. Although a large number of the population expressed their happiness at the change, diversity emerged in terms of their loyalty, opinions and the values or attitudes of the party to which they belong consequently creating reserve and suspicion among people, even within the same family. This atmosphere was pervasive and this reserve caused many of the teachers I met to be reluctant to discuss political issues in the course of their daily interaction. I observed that some teachers avoided sitting in the staff room where they would be in a situation of confrontation with teachers who might have different loyalties to theirs. On my part, I avoided discussing political issues with any of the people I contacted. What can be

inferred is that the conflict and its consequences contributed to a lack of mutual engagement. This was not only the situation with NGTs but also was the case with all the teachers I met. I always felt that each teacher I spoke to was thinking: which side are you on?

At the time of data generation, political tension was at its peak. What I observed clearly indicates that many teachers were reserved in their contact with each other. Divisions between those who supported the revolution and who remained loyal to the old regime hindered development of mutual engagement to a very large extent. The conflicting political views resulting from the bloody military conflict hindered mutual engagement and the consequences of this affected other elements of communities of practice theorised by Wenger (1998).

6.4 Age barrier

Age was another factor that hindered mutual engagement of some NGTs in this sample. From social and cultural perspectives, young people have to respect their elders in terms of interacting with them and even more in the way of asking for help. The culture here plays a significant role in establishing relationships among members of the same community. Under the umbrella of respect, younger members may not sit or chat or eat meals with older members even on social occasions. Such restriction on relationships does not promote the development mutual engagement. To the contrary, it results in a lack of it to the extent that teachers like Amall (Tripoli Castle) would not sit in the staff room (see Amall below). The NGTs had to show respect for older and experienced teachers as some of these colleagues were their former teachers. For instance, Amall confirmed that the age barrier limited communication,

Amall: There is an age barrier [her emphasis] which affects to the relation with colleagues (3).

Nawal (The White School) expressed the same view as she was the youngest teacher in the school.

Eve: The difference in ages makes the communication more formal. Therefore, I do not deepen my relationship [her emphasis] with many of them... (3)

The data suggests that age hindered formation of relationships and consequently affected the mutual engagement of those teachers and created opportunities for misunderstanding. This suggests as Wenger (1998) stated, age can be a basic barrier to achievement of CoP. Rab (Tripoli Castle), for example used age difference as an excuse for keeping their relations formal.

Rab: They are not my age [her emphasis] and I do not know them and my relations are all formal in curriculum and teaching. Concerning other teachers in the school in general, my relations with them all are formal; no more than greeting (2).

Amall, a teacher in the same school, also considered age as a barrier and preferred to interact just with the NGTs. What can also be inferred is they might have experienced hard times during the conflict which had its impact on them to the extent that they became unwilling to integrate. They might perceive integration as an intrusion into other's privacy. Evidence from my observation suggests that they had limited contacts even with NGTs, which might relate to their personality; possibly they were less sociable or they might have experienced a lack of responses from their colleagues. This lack of communication might also relate to schism between supporters of the new and the old regimes. Moreover, it was noticeable with both Amall and Rab (Tripoli Castle) that they would come on time, go to class and then leave the school. I also had to wait or search for them when we had appointments. The observation data suggest that they limited their mutual engagement upon their own decisions. This would make it difficult for them to achieve an advantage of the community cited by Lave & Wenger and Wenger (1991 ;

1998) namely, people successfully learn without the help of formal education (Hughes, 2007).

This view of the age barrier may have pushed teachers like Eve and Sam (Al-Manahal School) to resort to self-socialization (De Lima, 2003) and to isolate themselves from other members of the community. They might not be interested in integration. They might also be escaping from other social burdens. Their possible marginalization is suggested in the statements below:

Eve: I felt that I was a stranger because they are older than me and they know each other well (1).

Sam: Because I know no one there, I felt that the place is strange and I know no one so I went home (1).

My observation of Eve and Sam was that they were seriously dissatisfied with their situation as teachers and wanted to leave the professions.

Eve: My ambition is more than this; I do not want to spend my life in teaching only. I think I want to do something. Honestly, it does not (go with) me (fit) as a profession (2).

Likewise, Sam stated repeatedly, “Teaching isn’t my interest at all”. The data suggest that both Eve and Sam’s attitudes towards teaching might be affected by their previous ideas about teachers and the social status of a teacher as a person who works hard but is paid little. They perceived themselves as ambitious and teaching as a hindrance. Moreover, if these NGTs did not find the appropriate conditions for mutual engagement, they might experience isolation and, like Sam (Al-Manahal School) prefer to leave the place.

Moreover, Eve (Al-Manahal School) became hesitant and avoided asking others' help. She did not find an encouraging atmosphere that would stimulate her interaction and reduce her hesitation. Eve said:

Eve: Sometimes I want to ask and then I say who says that the students understand from this teacher (2).

What I observed indicated that she might not have that much experience on how to engage with colleagues. Hesitation might be related to her personality, difference in age or experience or the anxiety of asking. She might have doubt about her colleagues' qualification and capabilities. On the other hand, the expert and experienced colleagues might assume she did not need their help at all. What can be inferred is that the community did not encourage her to integrate, to learn and contribute to the development of the community.

6.5 Lack of Confidence

Lack confidence may have compelled some NGTs in the sample to avoid contact with expert and experienced colleagues, particularly if they know that person's background. That was what Sarah reported:

Sarah: I was worried to meet my former teachers and head teacher and my school. I was somehow frightened (1).

This comment indicates Sarah's anxiety because she had known those teachers when she was a student and thought that they might still think of her as when she was less competent or had less experience. The data suggest that her perception of herself made her less confident in front of her former teachers. She might also have had an uncomfortable experience with any of the teachers. Such perceptions hindered her integration, mutual engagement and the possibility of her to learn and build her identity

as a qualified teacher. Integration and going through stages of peripheral participation to full membership in joining CoP might not be easy for Sarah (Wenger, 1998).

Sam and Shd's (Al-Manahal School) feeling of isolation lead them being unaware of the expert teachers and their roles. The school's administration also contributed in this respect by failing to notify the NGTs about the expert teachers' roles. Some of the teachers even reported they did not know there was an expert.

*Sam: This is my first time I hear about her from you.
I have not heard about the experienced teacher.
Honestly, I have not looked for her and I do not
know her (3).*

My contact with two expert teachers, suggested that they seemed to assume that those new teachers were not in need of help and that if they did need help, they would ask for it. Meanwhile, the NGTs' perception (Shd and Sam) was that the expert teachers would provide them with the necessary support without being asked. One of the expert teachers at the Beam of Knowledge School did report meeting one of the NGTs and offering her the help she was looking for.

*Star: Eh. A teacher has come to me almost every
day up to yesterday and she asked me to look at her
lesson plan notebook.*

However, the expert teachers had their own teaching load and supervision of other teachers was an additional duty that was unpaid. Other schools did not have expert teachers as many died during that bloody conflict or abandoned teaching, joined the troops or had taken jobs other than teaching. Hence the role of expert teachers tended to be underestimated.

6.6 Summary of mutual engagement

The NGTs' experiences and other evidence from the data suggest that they tried to engage with the expert teacher colleagues available in some schools. The extent of mutual engagement varied from one school to another because of the culturally and socially rooted age barrier and the social and political tension that was apparent in all sectors of life as a result of the conflict. This affected the formation of CoP.

6.7 Joint enterprise

Joint enterprise is represented in the process of maintaining the existence of the CoP. It involves negotiating goals and maintaining mutual accountability within the community (Wenger, 1998). For this sample, this includes creating chances for negotiating issues of relevance to the community such as having meetings before exams, discussing exam rules in terms of questions, marking and invigilation. In such cases, teachers can bring ideas, opinions and views or new techniques, perceptions that might be useful to the community. Such input can be made by NGTs, older colleagues or expert teachers as they are all members of the same community. Actions and decisions negotiated within the community in term of class and syllabi distributions; that is, by experienced teachers taking more responsibility than their NGT colleagues. In this way experienced teachers can support other colleagues and maintain good relations among members. However, some NGTs such as Eve (below), felt that such support was limited and she expressed her view explicitly:

Eve: There are many things in school, I expected them to tell us about these things and to do others, but they let us ask and we are supposed to know the answers by ourselves, like exam papers; I expected them to tell us what to write for instance at the top of the page, types of questions and they tell us how the questions could be. I do not know who; maybe the inspector or the expert teacher or the administrators. I expected them to guide us about

questions and what to include and how the paper should be (2).

The data suggest that Eve wanted to know everything about her community. This can be attributed to her willingness to establish accountability to her community and develop a sense of belonging. However, she perceived accountability of her colleagues, expert teachers and the administration in general to be somewhat limited. On the contrary, it appears she held them accountable but feels they did not live up to their responsibility.

Similarly, Sarah (Al-Manahal School) had looked forward to receiving care and attention from the school administration, inspector and her colleagues respectively as when she started teaching, she did not know whether what she was doing was right.

Sarah: From the first day I have come here, nobody knows what I have done and what I have not done and where I have reached and where I have not reached (2).

Neither Sarah nor Eve experienced accountability of their community. However, the accountability is not only the responsibility of others, such as the school administrators and the experienced and expert teachers; some NGTs did not seem to have any interest in initiating it themselves. For instance, I observed that Amall (Tripoli Castle), Eve and Sam (Al-Manahal School) contributed little to school activities reporting that they devoted themselves to giving their lessons.

Eve: The only thing I think of is my syllabus and to teach it and my classes (2).

Amall: I am a teacher of English, so I am restricted to teaching more than offering service. I am devoted to teaching more than... [Participating in school activities] (2)

By failing to contribute to activities of their community they also failed to learn accountability. Their lack of cooperation could however be related to their traumatic experiences during the conflict.

The discussion reveals how some NGTs in this sample negotiated the enterprise of the community. They anticipated the accountability of their experienced colleagues as a means to offer support, get engaged, develop their own accountability and they attempted to build their unique identity within their community. Meanwhile, the lack of accountability reported by some might be due to the fact that they were appointed at a very critical time; the country was going through a transitional period and the establishment of new political parties creates a kind of loss of confidence and suspicion. Joint enterprise as envisaged by (Wenger, 1998) would be unlikely to flourish in a context where such a conflict, in its social and political manifestations, is in progress.

The headteachers however, expressed their accountability in the forms of following the new teachers and giving them advice, as Kate (The White School headteacher) confirms:

Kate: I also gave the teachers some ideas on how to help the pupils by giving them enough time because people have different capabilities.

Moreover, Maher (Al-Manahal School head teacher) paid some supervision visits to some NGTs. He considered the support they need.

Maher: I supervised some (teachers) and I went to some in classes and saw their situations and asked some about their methods and how they are doing in the curriculum and dealing with students.

This is evidence that the school administration showed accountability by attempting to support new teachers in their development. Similarly, the expert teachers tried to offer as

much help as they could to some NGTs even though it was voluntary and in addition to their load of teaching, As Star, an expert teacher in the Beam of Knowledge, explained:

Star: I observed a teacher and she spent the whole period in reading. I told her it is unreasonable to spend the whole period reading. They were slow and behind what should be covered at this time. I also brought a grammar book and showed it to her and asked her to get one like it.

Star and Samer were the only expert teachers I interviewed who showed interest in helping NGTs if contacted. They offered their academic support to the teachers in general, whenever they were asked, though they reported that they did not receive any training. They depended on their experience as teachers. However, expert teachers were not available in all schools because of the shortage of teachers of English in the last few years.

Some NGTs, such as Eve and Jory (Al-Manahal School) acknowledged receiving emotional and academic support from their colleagues in general, teachers of English and the expert teachers as the statements below show. The data suggest the existence of what could be considered as a joint enterprise where teachers shared common issues together, such as the need for support in certain situations like those described by Jory and Eve.

Jory: I told them that I was frightened to the extent that I couldn't go to class. Miss Amall tried to make me calm down and she told me that this is only the first time and later on everything will be fine and you will overcome any obstacles. She told me to be firm and go to classes and don't show or tell them that you are a new teacher (1)

Eve: They helped me in many things, for instance, when I came here for the first time, I asked to see their lesson planning notebooks to see how to

prepare lessons. Whatever I asked they replied to my questions; they have not said no. I have asked them about the curriculum and they have helped me (2).

Hay: They are good, but teacher Dough is the best. She helps and she gives everything to you in detail.

The evidence from Hay indicated that the sense of accountability shown by Dough encouraged Hay to contact her and for help. Dough's accountability contributed to Hay's involvement in teaching, reducing her anxiety and helping her to overcome the difficulties of the syllabi. What Hay and Dough did corresponds with Wenger's view (1998) that with mutual engagement and accountability, members gain full membership of the CoP and build their unique identity as teachers. The NGTs in this sample needed to ask for help without being too sensitive about issues such as age, lack of confidence or political affiliations. Nawal (The White School) commented,

Nawal: If there is some work, I myself ignore age even if she is older than me. It is a duty. If I feel I am losing my right because of this idea. I will speak out with her even if she is older than me within the limits of respect and collegiality (3).

Nawal's action suggests that she intended to strengthen her relationships, become integrated with other colleagues within the limits of respect. Colleagues welcomed her interaction with appreciation and offered her the help or advice she sought. Similarly, Jory (Al-Manahal School) experienced that accountability from her former teachers:

Jory: I have good impressions about teachers. They all welcomed me; they were very cooperative because some were my teachers and they know me well (1).

It is noteworthy that NGTs' "early experience is often characterised by isolation and lack of control over practice" (Orr, 2012, p. 51). Therefore, they are wary of asking for others'

help at the beginning of their early stages of their professional life because they do not want to show signs of weakness. Some of these teachers may experience alienation (Orr, 2012) to cover their lack of confidence in themselves and their incompetence. Others may be over-confident and not wish to seek help. Rab (Tripoli Castle) represented one of the NGTs in the sample who were over-confident.

Rab: There was nothing I can ask the other teacher about (2).

However, Sha (Tripoli Castle) experienced nepotism of the community represented in her mother's friends and strong relationships with other teachers that helped her to establish good relationships with members regardless of the age barrier. She experienced their accountability as manifested in their concern about what she was doing. They knew her as she used to come to this school and her mother worked there.

Sha: I chat with them and there is no gap between us. They told me that we have to chat together and I do not consider myself as young. They ask me about what I teach that day, how the students behave, they tell me how to deal with them, how I can call parents and deal with them, concentrate on correction, check notes books whenever you have spare time (1).

Sha might be considered an exceptional case in terms of her views of the age barrier and the establishment of mutual engagement in her community because she did not notice that they looked at her as younger than them as or less experienced than them. Such collaboration encouraged Sha to interact with them, benefit from their experience. My observation data suggest that Sha's interest to join teaching in this school, her familiarity with the staff, their nepotism and the school atmosphere helped her to establish her position in the school among her colleagues and students to the extent that the assessment committee asked her to join them even though she was recently appointed. The outcome would be as Wenger (1998) argued she developed herself as qualified teacher.

The accountability of colleagues teaching the same subject assisted some of the NGTs in this sample in gaining the essential information they needed to cope with the new situation, teaching burden and the difficulties often encountered at the very early stages of their professional life: what Lave & Wenger (1991) identify as legitimate peripheral participation and the learning opportunities afforded by the traditional route (Billett, 2006). Eve (Al-Manahal School) described how she benefited from her colleagues in terms of lesson planning, how to prepare, and about the syllabi she had to cover that semester. Nawal, meanwhile, was luckier than some of other the teachers as she was the only newly appointed teacher in her school. Her colleague was very accountable and cooperative as Nawal acknowledged,

Nawal: I met teacher Asiya who is an expert teacher of English. She showed me how to make my lesson planning notebook, the steps I follow to plan a lesson. Then the second day I brought a lesson planning notebook showed it to her and the method and asked her whether I was correct or mistaken and she corrected my mistakes and she told me it was good. To be fair, she was very cooperative with me (1).

Teacher Asiya has helped me the most, as a teacher of English. She helped first of all with lesson planning, secondly in marks division and what to put under each and what not to do and she attended a class with me. I came early and I had spare time, she invited me to come and attend a class with her and benefit in terms of her explanation and communication with students. She helped me the most (2).

Asiya fulfilled her role and accountability towards Nawal by giving her the chance to attend classes and observe her in actual teaching as she had not undertaken the TP while studying. She offered Nawal opportunities for the traditional route of learning at the workplace (Billett, 2006). Both Asiya and Nawal established good relationships that

helped them to negotiate issues of interest together. This cooperation helped Nawal to overcome some of her difficulties to which she referred above. Likewise, Rab (Tripoli Castle) and Sarah (Al-Manahal School) respectively confirmed learning from their colleagues in the statements below.

Rab: I asked Miss Amall if I could go to her class and I told her I want to observe her teaching and dealing with the students. I wanted to invest in this and benefit from her as possible (1).

Sarah: Yeha, Bushra gave me a lot of her time; she sat with me and looked at the syllabus and told me that she has taught it before. She gave me an idea about the questions (2).

Nawal (The White School), Rab (Tripoli Castle) and Sarah (Al-Manahal) did not have any training or induction prior to commencing actual teaching. Consulting their colleagues was the means of overcoming this lack. The accountability of their colleagues encouraged them to seek their help and these teachers' understanding created mutual engagement. Both Rab and Sarah looked for mutual understanding and accountability in their colleagues. They in their turn might adopt the same supportive approach when new teachers join the school.

Rab explained how useful she found attending classes with her colleagues.

Rab: I attended the workbook activities and saw how she carried out the exercises with the students. I saw how she asked them and how she has elicited them to practise and made them active (1).

Almost all the teachers I interviewed understood that what they learned was “sufficiently new to challenge them” (Eraut et al., 2004, p. 12). They acknowledged their receipt of support from their colleagues in general, EFL teachers and the expert teachers whenever they sought it. Although the political situation was sensitive at the data generation stage,

the accountability of teachers was evident. Opportunities for learning and making progress at the workplace were available to almost all of the teachers. It is a matter of who initiates such learning. Nawal, and Rab, Sarah were examples of those teachers who took the first step.

6.8 Summary of Joint Enterprise

Schools are the optimum environment for the teachers in the sample for negotiation, through the immediacy of face-to-face interactions. The NGTs, expert teachers and administration involved in the study demonstrated limited negotiation of the community's affairs, the accountability of the experienced members towards other members particularly the NGTs. However, mutual accountability varied between the NGTs and their colleagues as a whole, teachers of English, and the expert teachers. Some NGTs might not conceive that learning is a process of becoming a member of a certain community as they had little involvement in the social, cultural and emotional aspects of work which are factors that influence learning, and building identity (Colley et al., 2003). It is also difficult to exclude the rift that has crept into the community as a result of the on-going conflict which affects all sectors of life.

6.9 Shared repertoire

A joint enterprise creates resources that initiate negotiation of meaning among members over time. Community members (teachers) share routines, words, tools, jargon, ways of planning lessons, stories, gestures, symbols and actions that have been produced and adopted over time and "have become part of its practice" (Wenger, 1998, p. 83). Through practice, members gain access to this repertoire, become competent in it and are able to use it appropriately, and develop their identities. Members are required to have ways of doing and approaching things that are shared among them. This enables them to acquire particular skills and knowledge that give them a sense of joint enterprise and identity. Over time members' status in a CoP starts to differ; some people become core members, and some peripheral members. "The basis of this variation lies in how

successfully an individual has acquired the shared repertoire, or assimilated the goal (s) of the joint enterprise, or established patterns of engagement with other members” (Holmes & Meterhoff, 1999, p. 176). Variation of members becomes possible when they develop such a repertoire.

Sha (Tripoli Castle), for instance, knew how to develop a shared repertoire and established her own patterns of engagement regardless of age difference. She began asking other teachers for their help with issues of shared concern: correcting pronunciation and checking lesson plan notebooks. Moreover, she welcomed their invitation to join the unit of assessment unit. She also looked for extra classes as a means to prove her accountability and gain more experience:

Sha: I often ask teacher Mariam, who is in charge of teachers' daily attendance to tell me when there are absent teachers so that I can find extra periods and give additional lessons to my classes (1).

She felt the importance of the community and therefore, she was using available opportunities to learn and improve herself.

Eve (Al-Manahal School), however, was unwilling to seek other colleagues' help. This hesitance might be related to the on-going conflict or to her personality. She might fear the others' response, particularly at that time. All these reasons might affect Eve's accountability towards her community. What can be inferred is that Eve could not develop that shared repertoire and therefore she could not benefit from a community. Meanwhile, Sam, (Al-Manahal School) was frustrated by not getting what she sought from others,

Sam: I have asked one of the teachers, but I have understood that she was reluctant; she was not satisfied. Everything comes unwillingly I do not like it (3).

From my observations in the classrooms and staff room, I noticed that tension contaminated the atmosphere to the extent that I avoided discussion on certain topics to avoid losing the opportunities of contacts and accessing data. Therefore, sometimes, I made excuses for teachers who were struggling to maintain their tenure and possibly to build their unique identities in spite of the situation at that time. They were appointed with contracts yet they did not know their rights and their duties. They had not been paid for about two years and they did not know what the future would be like. All these reasons might put these teachers under severe tension that lessened their interest in being active members of their communities and conceiving their advantages as viewed by Wenger (1998). It is paradoxical to anticipate that these teachers would become integrated, have mutual engagement and accountability in light of what they have experienced.

6.10 Summary of shared repertoire

It is postulated that shared repertoire was not sufficiently developed. This issue made accessing evidence of community routines, language and means of working difficult. Again the impact of the conflict is evident in all sectors of life. Teachers were part of this society and therefore, the disruption and cracks were brought into the professional communities and affected their construction.

6.11 Significant Experiences

This part is of relevance to research question N.1 as it deals with the NGTs significant experiences during their first few early years. NGTs in the sample experienced various challenges during teaching. One of the most significant challenges was the lack of PK and SK. Almost all the teachers included in this sample were concerned about this issue and perceived it as a major barrier to achieving professional qualification and collaboration with their colleagues. In addition, lack of interest in teaching and having false views will be discussed respectively.

6.11.1 Lack of Pedagogical knowledge

PCK is a form of knowledge that, includes both PK and SK and relates to “the way of representing and formulating the subject that makes it comprehensible to others” (Shulman, 1986, p. 9). It is the knowledge that teachers need to know about how to convey certain information to their students. It also “ includes an understanding of what makes the learning of specific topics easy or difficult: the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the learning of those most frequently taught topics and lessons” (ibid). All the teachers interviewed expressed their concern about dealing with students; particularly those who taught at secondary level (see 7.2). For instance, Sarah, Jory and Shd (Al-Manahal School) were not confident in their abilities to handle students at secondary school level.

Concerning these teachers, my observation suggests that they lacked the techniques to transfer the information to their students. They also lacked both the awareness and confidence on how to deal with students at the secondary level. More significantly, they were not sufficiently familiar with secondary school syllabi. I also observed a high level of variation and specialization in secondary curricula. This confused NGTs such as Shd (Al-Manahal School) and rendered them unable to decide which methods would suit their students as Shd articulates below:

Shd: Each time someone tells me something different about how to deal with them. Some tell me to make friends with them while others advise me to be strict with them so they will respect me. Everyone advises me differently that is why I am always confused about how to deal with them (1).

Furthermore, my observation suggests that those teachers did not have sufficient information about teaching methodology (see the teachers’ profiles). Some of them did not study this at university (Shd, Jory, Eve, Sam and Ghada) while the graduates of a teacher training institute or college of education (Sarah, Sha, Amall and Hay, Rab and

Nawal) received very limited introductory theoretical information and had not undertaken the TP. They were involved in teaching without any training or induction and some of them such as Amall, Sha and Rab (Tripoli Castle) had spent about seven years at home waiting for employment in teaching. When they started teaching, they applied what they knew and taught as they were taught. Then they began to encounter serious problems in terms of teaching methodology such as the choice of the most appropriate teaching method or technique to convey the objectives of that particular lesson or unit. Some of them confirmed their lack of such information on teaching. Eve (Al-Manahal School), for instance, considered teaching as an uninteresting profession because she lacked the necessary technique to explain things:

Eve: One of the things that make me uninterested in education is that I do not know methods of explanation (2).

I observed that she was unable to keep the class occupied while explaining comparison of city and country life. She only paid attention to the student reading the text and left the others chatting. At the same time, she had no use teaching aids to hold the students' attention.

Similar comments can be applied to Jory (Al-Manahal School). She was teaching a reading text about the possibility of life on other planets. She started asking the students the meaning of scientific vocabulary completely new to them. The students showed no interest and were not involved in any interaction with her. She did not think of how to exemplify this vocabulary by means of teaching aids (class observation-1). In the interview, after the class, she reported how she had felt when the students failed to answer her questions in front of the inspector when she asked them the meanings of certain words without a prior explanation. The inspector responded harshly, though Jory did not accept the hard criticism. My observation suggests that her problems might be derived from the weakness of her English.

Shd (Al-Manahal School) had a consistent fear of transferring information. This might be related to her unawareness of the right or appropriate method of teaching that might work with one class, but might not be suitable with the others. It can also be related to her having studies at university, where she was taught nothing of relevance to teaching (see. Shd's profile).

What can be inferred is that many of the teachers had a low level of PK as indicated by Shd, Eve and Jory above. These teachers were aware of their lack of such knowledge which made them underestimate themselves and might have made them look incompetent in their colleagues and students' eyes and that may have restricted them from becoming involved with other teachers.

6.11.2 Lack of subject matter knowledge SK

The most significant challenge is teachers' lack of subject matter knowledge. Many of the NGTs in this study articulated their concern over their lack of such essential knowledge, which they attributed to the curricula studied at either university or teacher training institutes.

In addition, some teachers were involved in teaching secondary school curricula which can be identified as a type of English for specific purposes. They had to teach different specializations such as engineering, economics, life sciences, basic sciences, and English. Unfortunately, EFL teachers in the Libyan context are not academically prepared to teach such curricula and even the experienced teachers find difficulties in teaching them. Certainly those teachers who complained about the intensity and difficulty of the curricula were mainly in secondary schools. They did not receive any preparation, training or induction that might support them at least at the early stages. They were also required to cover certain units at a specific time each semester.

Hay: Certainly it is difficult to teach third year secondary school. It is not easy; they must understand and you have to complete the curriculum. You wonder whether you will be able to complete it or not. It is a must, it is compulsory to complete it.

Almost all the teachers interviewed in secondary school had the same problem; consequently, many of them would prefer to work in the basic education sector.

Jory: If I would teach, I would teach primary or preparatory school. I thought that it would be difficult to teach secondary students because students in secondary schools are very near in their age to mine. I wouldn't find the integration I look for in teaching not the respect (1).

When you come to this curriculum, you find it a hurdle. You understand it, but how to transfer it to students (2).

As these teachers did not have sufficient knowledge of the language, the situation became worse when they encountered problems essentially connected with the language itself. Then they realized where the gap in their knowledge was. Nawal (The White School) demonstrated her main problem, pronunciation,

Nawal: It is not like what I notice now, when I want to read a word, I find myself mistaken. I know this situation and how it is pronounced. I feel I have less [knowledge] in phonetics (2).

I feel I do not have sufficient knowledge, such as books about phonetic and things like these, words and their pronunciation. When I say or do something wrong, I find myself angry with myself because of committing such mistakes. It is not the place and time for such mistakes (3).

They tried to manage themselves individually depending on their own interest and the support available to them through direct communication with their colleagues and the expert teachers. Rab described her method:

Rab: I have worked hard and with effort and after I have met you, I check Al-Wafi the dictionary if I find a difficult word and check grammar books and expand explanations (2).

Meanwhile some looked at the curricula and the syllabi and compared them with what they had learnt and their ability in teaching. This led Sam (Al-Manahal School) to underestimate her ability to teach writing to second year English Specialization.

Sam: It is still early for me. I feel writing is bigger than my ability now (1).

Likewise, Sarah (Al-Manahal School) expressed a similar fear:

Sarah: Engineering is strange for me; I have not studied it (2).

Certainly, I was afraid of the curriculum, especially of engineering because I know nothing about it; I have not studied it and I have been told it contains a lot of technical terms of specialization (3).

Lack of PK, knowledge about language and knowledge of language were experienced by those teachers. They struggled to cover the gap which is a very difficult task in the absence of training in their current situation.

Sha: What is difficult for me is that they do not give them grammar in the syllabus and I do not know how to give it to them. It [grammar] is not included in the syllabus (2).

Sha (Tripoli Castle) could not identify the parts of the unit that were mainly grammar practice. What I inferred our discussion is that she wanted items labelled as grammar as is done in some books, such as The New Headway, a very common series for teaching the language at many levels. Lack of language knowledge caused her anxiety because she could not identify the grammatical parts, though she taught primary students –absolute beginners. What can be inferred is her lack of SK and PK respectively. Meanwhile, the inspector’s report about Shd, Sam, Jory and Eve (Al-Manahal School) suggests that they lack PK in terms of lesson preparation and carrying it out in class.

6.11.3 No interest in teaching

Some other teachers in the sample had no interest in teaching. They came into teaching because they had spent a considerable time (two to seven years) waiting for employment, in the government sector in particular. When the appointment of teachers was announced, many took this chance, hoping to find alternatives later. The data suggest that they accepted it as a source of temporary financial independence (see 7.10). Hay (Al-Manahal School) voiced her disillusion with teaching as follows:

Hay: I hate the word teacher. I have never liked being a teacher. I do not like to be called a teacher at all.

Jory (Al-Manahal School) summarised her dissatisfaction with the education system itself, the administration, the demands of the profession and student management, particularly at secondary level:

Jory: I think teaching is a terrible career from all sides; from the educational system in Libya. The administration is difficult to understand. Students are difficult to handle, especially those at the secondary level. It is difficult to cope with teaching in terms of lesson planning, preparing exams and

carrying out the correction and explaining lessons as routine (1).

Social restrictions force females to accept certain professions. Libyan conservative families often perceive teaching as the most convenient career in terms of limited integration with males, and specified times for going out and leaving the family. They also regard it as a major source of financial support and a means to secure life for females (see 2.10).

Sam: I didn't like it (being appointed as a teacher) at all. It was uninteresting news. My family did. I have never liked it (1).

In situations like these, for many Libyan females teaching represents a means by which they can participate in activities, enjoy life and build their identity. What Jory stated below, was exactly my own situation when I was her age and in her situation.

Jory: for me, I don't go out a lot. I often stay at home. If I go, I go to my limited number of friends who are relatives as well. I don't have many relations and I don't go out a lot. I don't have meals in that place or tea in the other one. For me work will give opportunities to communicate with people and how to deal with people (1).

It is then a matter of decision whether to accept the job or stay at home or get married, which sometimes might not change the situation. The choice is often not made by the teacher; but by the family, particularly the father or the husband.

6.11.4 False view about Teaching

Having a false or unclear view about teaching may be behind some teachers' Lack of awareness of what constitutes teaching and can be related to the lack of PK mentioned

above (see 6.14.1). It also reflects the stereotypical view in society that teaching is an accessible job that everyone can do as Eve (Al-Manahal School) stated below.

Eve: I have thought that teaching is easy and everyone can do it. But I have found it difficult and may be more difficult than other fields. It requires hard work at home and in school, theoretical and practical since you study and teach (3).

It was the shock and the frustration that many teachers experienced as they suddenly became involved in what they thought as an easy job. The impact varied from one teacher to another. Adaptation also depended on the intention of that teacher to tolerate the consequences of her choice.

Hay: I thought that a teacher does not work hard; he only gives his lessons and goes. This was our view as students. We used to say, they are a few words he will say them and then he approaches the door to leave, we study many curricula.

Similarly, Rab (Tripoli Castle) did not hide her surprise, although she was trying to adapt herself to the new situation and accept teaching as a permanent career as her family had decided.

Rab: Frankly speaking, I thought that a teacher's job was easier than being a student, but I have found it more difficult; it is a responsibility and an effort (2).

It isn't my great desire to teach. I have studied and learned the language to work as a translator in a bank or a company one day, but my father has rejected working in any other place except teaching (2).

The situation of those teachers derived from their lack of PK (see 6.14.1) and experience of teaching, as they had not undertaken the TP. Their dissatisfaction with teaching might also be affected by socio-cultural views in terms of the status of teacher, the pay, promotions and privilege. This pre-existed the conflict, yet it might be exacerbated by it.

6.11.5 Summary of significant experiences

The discussion about beginner teachers does not differ from that of their colleagues elsewhere in the world. The most significant experiences could be the lack of pedagogical and subject knowledge as essential knowledge with which teachers should be equipped at different institutions they attend. The transcripts of these teachers revealed an obvious lack of necessary training in some of these institutions. Social and political factors might however strongly contribute to such significant experiences in the context of this study where females are forced to accept teaching as a profession without consideration of their interest and suitability for such a career. This could be one of the most significant experiences in distinguishing Libyan female teachers from other teachers in the west, for instance.

6.12 Data Analysis 2: Teacher Education

6.12.1 Introduction

In order to answer the research question; how are EFL newly graduated teachers prepared for their teaching practice? What type of preparation is it? Who offers it if there is any? Certain points require thorough discussion. The first part of the following discussion includes: teacher education programmes undertaken by the sample which includes graduates of arts, graduate of education, graduates of arts in English and it entails teacher training programme (TP). The second part covers those who contribute to teacher training at different stages. Contributors of (to) teacher training programme are: the expert teacher, the inspector and the EDC.

6.12.2 Teacher preparation programmes at university

The first group included graduates of arts from universities who were awarded a BA in English language. They studied the subjects (table.11). The subjects of the study were distributed in a four year system and varied in terms of the time devoted to each subject; with a minimum of 2 hours per week. Their university transcripts make clear that they did not study anything related to teaching and pedagogy. What they studied was connected with learning the language itself and did not qualify them to be teachers.

Table 11 Subjects taught in English at university and the time spent

Subjects	Total Hours	Year1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4
Reading comprehension	4	2	2		
Grammar	4	2	2		
Writing	4	2	2		
Conversation	4	2	2		
Phonetics	6		2	2	2
Literature	6		2	2	2
Translations	6		2	2	2
Varieties	4			2	2
Literary criticism	2				2
Applied linguistics	4			2	2
Theoretical linguistics	4			2	2
Constructive analysis	2				2
Creative Writing	4			2	2
Grammatical structures	4			2	2
Oral practice	4			2	2

Therefore, it does not appear that their programmes of study included having any TP, see (table.11) above. These teachers were working in one of two schools; Ghada (Beam of

Knowledge School), Jory, Sam and, Shd (Al-Manahal School). Some of them particularly those appointed to the secondary schools with specializations were shocked to discover the differences between what they had studied at university and the contents of the syllabi of the curricula. For instance, Sam found difficulties in teaching writing to students of the English language specialization.

They also had to deal with the students' difficulties in responding to the subject itself. Sam (Al-Manahal School) for instance, might have perceived that what she had studied would be exactly the same as the material she would be teaching and that was why she was anxious.

Sam: When I come to the courses taught to secondary students, I mean the textbooks; I find them completely different and have no relations with what I have been taught at university (1).

What can be inferred is that Sam did not have the chances to develop and learn slowly through legitimate peripheral participation (Wenger, 1998) within the community. Her views corresponded with Wenger's notion of legitimate peripheral participation:

Sam: I should not be there. If I take teaching gradually from primary to preparatory and then secondary schools, in this case, I will gain experience that enables me to teach effectively (1).

What can be speculated is that what they had experienced might not be considered as CoP as envisaged by Wenger (1998) as these NGTs did not have the chance or the time to experience this development.

Jory, a teacher in the same school, thought that the inspector should play a major role in helping teachers, especially newly appointed teachers like her.

Jory: she (the inspector) should guide the teacher, helps the teacher as much as he/she can help because he/she has experience; a teacher is not the same as or inspector; he/she can help him or her to explain; what to give and what not to give (2).

Jory thought the inspector's role was to advise her as a newly appointed teacher. She had no idea of the inspector's actual role and was upset when the inspector criticised her in class for using Arabic.

Jory: she (the inspector) criticized me; she came to me after two days of my coming here. I wrote the new words and I asked them about their meaning she told not to ask them about the meaning of this word (2).

Jory's comments indicate that her lack of awareness of the inspector's job could be related to her teaching preparation programme. She had neither studied anything related to pedagogy nor had any training prior to commencing actual teaching. It might also show that she did not have that integration in her CoP yet as she was newly appointed when the inspector visited her. It was also the lack of mutual engagement between the inspector and the teacher, although they did not belong to the same on-going community.

My observation also indicated that the impact of the on-going conflict was clear in establishing relationships among members in the same community and within the school itself; everyone seemed to be busy with her own work and avoided contacts with others as much as possible. Jory was aware of that:

Jory: I thought there is a staff room where I can sit and chat and there are some who bring breakfast and eat together, do you understand, I have not found such atmosphere (2).

This was in the staff room and even among the NGTs themselves. Jory herself stated that some of the NGTs did not have that meaningful relationship with her which she related to having different modes.

Jory: I feel they have made a group since they have come here and when I come to them, they are together talking. I do not know, when I want to chat with them, something usual, it is not....It is that they do not accept me, I do not know, maybe they do not want me to join the group and I do... One of them was with me at university; we do not know each other but I know she was with me at university. Maybe their moods do not fit me (3).

Jory was religiously conservative compared to Eve, Sam and Shd in terms of the uniforms she was wearing (the Jubah-that is long clothes worn by female Muslims) which they did not wear. This might affect the relationship between members sometimes. My observation did not have any evidence of her belonging to any Islamic groups and why the other NGTs lacked the integration. It might be having different personalities.

The second group included Eve, a graduate of college of education who had studied similar subjects as the first group but only for three years. These are the subjects she studied (see table. 12) below.

Table 12 Subjects taught in English at the college of education, and time spent

Subjects	Total Hours	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
Reading comprehension	8	2	4	2
Grammar	8	4	4	2
Writing	10	4	4	2
Syntax	2			2
Conversation	8	2	4	2
Phonetics	4		2	2
Literature	2	2	2	
Translations	4		2	2
Poetry	2			2
Research Methods	2		2	
Linguistics	2		2	
Applied linguistics	2			2
The play	2			2
Varieties	2			2
Project writing	2			2

Examining her university transcript, which had details of the courses she had studied, it is clear that her situation was similar to that of the first group in terms of preparation. She did not study any courses related to pedagogy or teaching or receive any training as part of her preparation for teaching. In addition, Eve's courses lasted only three years, which reduced her exposure to the language, her interaction with her colleagues of study and her presence in the academic atmosphere which might limit her knowledge of the language itself. This might partially explain her unawareness of what to do and what she should do in her job as a teacher.

6.12.3 Teacher preparation programme at Teacher Training institutions

The third group was the graduates of arts in English. They are grouped in this way because they graduated from institutions that qualify their students to be teachers of various subjects, including English. Students are taught different subjects for four years, aiming at preparing them to be teachers. This group is divided into two sub groups.

1. The higher institute group included Amall, Rab, Sha (Tripoli Castle), Hay and Sarah (Al-Manahal school) who studied these subjects (See table 13 below).

Table 13 Subjects taught in English and time spent at the higher institute for teacher training

Subjects	Total Hours	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4
Reading comprehension	8	2	2	2	2
Grammar	8	2	2	2	2
Writing	8	2	2	2	2
Conversation Practice	8	2	2	2	2
Language Laboratory	2	2			
Phonetics	2		2		
Literary Reading	4			2	2
Teaching Methodology	2			2	
Teaching Practice	4			2	2
Research Methods	2		2		
Introduction to linguistics	2				2
Instructional Strategies	2				2

2. The teacher training college group included Nawal (The White School). She studied similar subjects (See table. 14) below.

Table 14 Subjects taught in English at teacher training college and time spent

Subjects	Total Hours	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4
Reading comprehension	8	2	2	2	2
Grammar	8	4	4	2	2
Writing	4	2	2		
Conversation	8	2	2	2	
Phonetics	4		2	2	
Literature	2	2	2		
Advanced writing	4			2	2
Advanced Conversation	2			2	2
Instructional strategies	2				2
Applied linguistics				2	2
Advanced reading				2	2
Advanced Writing				2	2
Varieties	2				2
Introduction to International literature	2				2
Grammatical Structure					2
Project writing	2				2

Examining the teachers' transcripts from these institutions, it is clear that they all studied subjects of great relevance to teaching, such as Teaching Methodology, Instructional

Strategies, and Teaching Practice. However, the higher institute group had studied Language laboratory and Literary Reading which, the teacher training college group had not. Similarly, the teacher training college graduates had studied Varieties and Introduction to International Literature. Graduates of these institutions also stated that the subjects had limited content. For instance, Rab (Tripoli Castle) was dissatisfied with what she studied in the institute and considered it as “insufficient”. Furthermore, some subjects were taught in Arabic such as Teaching Aids, General Teaching Methodology although they were supposed to be in English as these students were in the department of English. Studying some subjects in Arabic limited their exposure to the language which they needed and might reduce the value of the subject itself for the students in the long term. Moreover, some NGTs such as Sarah (Al-Manahal school) attributed the difficulties encountered to the courses of her teaching preparation programme.

Sarah: We studied four years, but we have not taken intensive syllabi (2).

Similarly, Nawal (The White School) stated that what she had studied did not qualify her to teach effectively. For instance, she was not satisfied with the course of phonetics which she had studied during her third and fourth years in the college.

Nawal: Issues I feel I do not have sufficient knowledge, such as books about phonetics (phonology) and things like words and their pronunciation (3).

Nawal indicated that although she studied phonology (phonetics) for two years, it did not help her to improve her pronunciation. She also asserted that she needed to find a way to improve her phonetic knowledge as she did not want to be put in a stressful situation in front of her students.

Examining the transcripts of the graduates from both institutions, it can be clearly seen that the subjects related to teaching and especially those taught in English were limited; Teaching Methodology, Instructional Strategies, Teaching Practice compared with other subjects relating to the language itself and the Arabic subjects. They studied them only in their third and fourth years for two hours weekly. What can be inferred from the discussion with the teachers in this category is that the contents of the subjects, and the connection with teaching English as part of their teacher training programme were insufficient for preparing them to teach English at different stages.

These NGTs were suddenly involved in teaching without having any preparation or refreshing training. They did not have the opportunity to experience the theoretical knowledge that they gained during their study before they were involved in actual teaching. In addition, some of them, including Rab, Amall, and Sha spent about seven years waiting for employment in mainstream education (see table. 1). Sha and Amall stated that they had begun to forget the language because they did not use it at home or in any other contexts. The next section deals with teacher training programmes before and after graduation.

6.12.4 Teaching practice programme (TP)

A practice teaching experience can be considered as the stage of socialization “into all aspects of the teaching profession both inside and outside the classroom” (Farrell, 2008c, p. 226). Moreover, Collinson et al. (2009) view it as an induction into the profession. It also can provide student-teachers with the initial chance to try out and to improve the skills needed for effective pre-service teachers’ instructional practice (Johnson,1996a; Richards & Crooks, 1988). Student-teachers have “opportunities for inquiry, trying and testing new ideas within collaborative relationships” (Schulz, 2005, p.148). They have access to considerable "exposure to practices of experienced teachers" (Zeichner, 1996, p. 333). They could gain propositional knowledge that might not be included in initial teacher education. Johnson (1994) claims that this stage offers opportunities to student-

teachers to refine their prior beliefs about second language teaching, learning and about themselves as teachers.

Despite the importance of the teaching practice experience, it is noticeable that only graduates of institutes for teacher training studied it theoretically without having practice and in the fourth year only (see table.4). Tutors gave their students tips for lesson preparation or managing students in class as Sha (Tripoli Castle) stated.

Sha: They (tutors) gave us the way on how to deal with students in class; how to explain, but this is only theoretical not practical (2).

The student teachers did not take the teaching practice, a part of the practical stage in their teacher education programme though it was still included in their transcripts (see tables, 12, 13 and, 14). One of the reasons for stopping it was related to the implementation of the semester system in basic and secondary school education as Abedo, the head of the inspection stated. The semester lasts 16 weeks during which are the mid and final exams. Therefore, it might not be a surprise that some NGTs encountered serious problems in their early stages of teaching as they had not experienced teaching before commencing a job in which they were obliged to handle syllabi of diverse specializations and difficulties. Thus, unfamiliarity with the norms of schools and having unrealistic expectations might be common among NGTs, which might be related to their teacher preparation programme. Furthermore, none of the NGTs had received training or any refreshing courses. Some of them graduated seven years ago, including Sha, Amal and Rab (Tripoli Castle) and Hay and Sarah (Al-Manahal school) and had to wait for employment in mainstream education. There was restriction on employment in general and of new teacher in particular; something normal few years ago. They forgot what they had learnt, as Sarah stated,

Sarah: I do not want to forget the language I have learnt (1).

Those teachers did not have opportunities to practise their language and gradually started losing it. Therefore, when they were appointed in different schools, they realized the gap between what they had known and the current curricula taught, particularly in secondary schools. They were employed because of the shortage of teachers due to the fact, as the head of inspection reported, that few teachers employed in the last few years in the old regime.

6.13 The impact of the conflict

Although the military actions had stopped in many parts of the country, there were still some other un-liberated places occupied by Al-Qaddafi's supporters. The country had started a transitional stage and people woke up from that dreadful massacre to resume their lives, aiming at healing the wounds, and removing the destruction everywhere. Yet the reality was shocking. A new conflict has disintegrated the Libyan society for the first time, manifested in the establishment of many parties and militias of diverse ideologies as main partners in the new political situation. While many people are optimistic and think things will get better, others are very pessimistic about the future. This stage may be considered transitional, but no one can predict its end and the potential consequences. The next sections shed light on two issues of relevance to the study: reserve among teachers and the transitional stage.

As a result of that traumatic bloody conflict, those teachers did not experience the apprenticeship and the legitimate peripheral participation stage as described by (Wenger, 1998) to know what constituted teaching. They also did not have the time to integrate in their community to overcome some of the problems. They did not have that meaningful contact with the experienced colleagues to benefit from their experience. The extent of the conflict effects was noticeable not only on the NGTs but also on their experienced

colleagues who seemed to be busy only in their affairs as Jory (Al-Manahal School stated:

Jory: I have felt that everyone in a direction; everyone is in a position; you do not feel that the school works together; everyone is in a position; everyone in a direction. They do not have one word; you do not feel they are a school together (2).

My observation indicates that what Jory felt was that lack of harmony in the community which was the direct result of the conflict on the members. Each became reserved expecting the others having opposing belonging. Such feeling hindered the integration to the extent that some NGTs did not know the expert teacher in their school such as Shd, Sam and Sarah as they stated earlier.

6.13.1 Vignette 1: Reserve

One of the issues that puzzled me the first few days was that people were on their guard. People were guarded in everything they said and I noticed suspicion whenever I went. Many become guarded when hot issues, particularly, political or of relevance to certain militias, were under debate.

There were instances when I sat waiting in the staff rooms in the schools included in this study where I saw teachers sitting without saying a word. They would often stand in the corridor or the front yard. Once I asked two of them why they did not sit in the staffroom and relax. They stated that they wanted to avoid clashes with other teachers when certain political hot subjects were discussed. In The Beam of Knowledge School, some teachers and one expert teacher stated that such political debates had forced the former headteacher to leave the school because she was attacked by some teachers. They considered her as a foe as she was a supporter of the old regime. They did not consider

what she had done for the school while she was a headteacher although “she was a good person” as Samer the expert teacher stated.

Teachers’ reserve included also the way they dealt with inspectors and administration. Teachers guarded themselves to the extent that they did not complain to the head of English language inspection during visiting to discuss their problems Ahmed; the head of Tripoli inspection office stated that:

Ahmed: I went to a school today and I talked with teachers and asked them if they have any notes about inspectors and their behaviours with you. We try to help and even school administrations are cautious. I told them I was not coming to evaluate them or investigate them. I told them if there is a gap we try to amend it and the treatment should be good. Some are still cautious (focus group).

What can be inferred was that the reserve of teachers might be due to the impact of the conflict. Those teachers could not find a connective community to support them. Some of the NGTs were not aware of their rights to complain and many were appointed on temporary contracts. They were not sure whether they would stay in their schools or would be discharged. Some of them might have experienced hard situations when they have voiced their views. Thus, they avoided complaining to protect themselves. The head of the inspection interpreted it as “courtesy” because he was in a better situation than those teachers. They were too reserved to complain about the inspector or the headteacher because they perceived that their complaints would be heard about by the inspector or the headteacher. They also thought of what might happen in the future if those they complained about found out. Although they might be from different CoP, mutual engagement and the integration were missed and reserve was the one used safe guard.

I remember going to the EDC (Educational Development Centre) and being determined to meet the manager by any means because there were no guarantees that I would get an appointment. I went to the centre many times but could not meet him. His assistant was clever in finding excuses, and I had to be patient. That time I told him that I would not leave the place till I meet the manager. He saw how serious I was and told me I might wait a long time. I told him it would be fine. Then the manager came and his assistant told me to enter. The manager welcomed me, but without shaking hands as (he might be religiously conservative) and expressed his interest in my research after hearing the brief account I presented. People interrupted us many times, which the assistant could have avoided; however, I carried out the interview without fear. Every comer looked at me suspiciously, which frightened me most of the time. I knew he was so busy. Therefore, I asked him a few questions and for evidence represented in documents of the plans for teacher training. He sent me to the planning department. The reserve included the employees in the department of training where they welcomed me, but insisted on having a legal letter signed by the manager himself in order to issue me with a copy of the centre plans for training. That day was the hardest as I left late.

Going to the inspection office was encouraging in terms of the people I met there; they were inspectors, heads of inspection offices and general heads of inspection on the level of the whole country. They looked at me in the same way: suspicious. The inspectors showed reserve too, although some of them knew me as a former colleague. It was difficult to get some documents referring to the activities conducted by the inspection office. I had to ask and go there many times. I had also to repeat the questions many times. Everyone seemed to think I might use what they said or what I might get as evidence against them. I could remember noticing that in their eyes and the messages they exchanged together. However, I had to be patient and came more than once and made myself act as if I noticed nothing.

6.13.2 Vignette: 2 -The transitional Stage

By the end of 2011, and with the killing of Colonel Muammar Al-Qaddafi and the fleeing of the remains of his supporters, and some of his family, people started to wake up from that traumatic massacre. They realized the horrified consequences of that bloody war, mass destruction and the number of dead and missing people. Sorrow was the master of the situation everywhere and the mourning of orphans and widowers and those who lost loved ones had echoes everywhere. Photos of these martyrs were posted in many places. Although the military actions had stopped in large areas of the country, some of the last supporters of the old regime were still taking shelter in places outside Tripoli.

Those militias that participated in the war started to prove their existence and find positions in the country's political structure. Not satisfied with eradicating the dictator and his regime, they wanted be partners in the authority for which they fought without looking at the civilians' needs. Regarding the political situation, new parties have been established and started attracting members of the Libyan public who have experienced this for the first time. The conflict has transferred to include political and military arenas when each party has its militia and supporters. This has led to enormous schism and the emergence of some extremist groups. Instead of paying attention to how to improve the economic and social situations of the country in general, the conflict has become the main issues of disputes among members of newly established parties. The civilians have found themselves attracted to advertisement, slogans and calls raised by each party separately, which has led the country to more tribal and ideological conflict. Those who do not belong to any of these parties and entities might be considered as proponents of Al-Qaddafi and be subject to isolation from political life, threat of killing, kidnapping and torture. Situations like these have made many opponents flee the country and among them journalists, doctors and academic staff, professional engineers and physicians. They sought their safety far from their country.

I experienced the period before the election and saw how diverse people were in their loyalties. I realized that I would not be able to generate my data and have access to the teachers if I showed signs of disagreement with those loyal to different parties and militias. I remember being stopped by a militia one day. They asked me why I was going to that place and coming in that direction. My answer was I did not know that this way is closed. The gunmen looked at me suspiciously, whispered to each other and said,

Don't come this way again and because you do not seem to be from the Ousted, go now.

I was terribly scared, but I went on to the second place where first I met some gunmen again. They asked me why I came to this place and what I wanted to do. That time I was familiar with the place and directly I answered them. I wrote my name and waited in the reception. Yet they kept me there till a gunman came again to let me in. The first thing I did was to have some water. When my family knew about that, they warned me and insisted on avoiding contact with the gunmen.

While interviewing the participants, I avoided talking about the opponents or proponents of any of the parties or criticizing any of them either. That reserve was the uniform worn by many of them, which I understood later through following the news and what was going in the country back home. I understand now why some teachers, such as Nawal, were very reserved; her people had to flee their town for about two years. Other people did not want to show their belonging to any of the existing parties or were afraid of being supporters of the old regime; this situation made me ask myself very many questions. I experienced what these people thought of me; what they thought of my research at that time and why the people became the way they were at that time.

6.14 The expert teacher support

The expert teachers offer academic support for teachers, according to the subjects taught in schools (primary, preparatory and secondary) in mainstream education. The inspection office choice of expert teachers was based upon their teaching experience, the reports of the inspector and the headteachers as the head of the inspection office-English language stated. Two expert teachers were interviewed in The Beam of knowledge School. They were graduates of an intermediate institute for teacher training; a type of institutes that qualified teachers after studying for four years. They were employed in 1976 before adoption of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) Approach in the late 1980s. Therefore, they might lack the awareness of that approach in terms of the techniques applied in teaching and the curricula used as the head inspector of English language stated. They also did not receive any training on how to supervise teachers and what they did was based on their long experience and expertise of teaching.

Both teachers expressed their interest to support any teachers seeking their help. For instance, Star, one of the expert teachers explained to a teacher in the same school how to use teaching aids in particular using real objects in class. She knew the teacher did not know about using teaching aids because the inspector had recommended using them to save time and avoid translation when she visited her in class. The teacher did not understand what the inspector said till she mentioned that to Star. The expert teacher noticed the weakness of a teacher in grammar when she supervised her in class and in the tutorial. Therefore Star recommended obtaining a grammar book to use as a source for teaching and improving her grammatical knowledge respectively. Likewise, Star and Samer, another expert teacher, were aware that some NGTs were not familiar with teaching and had not studied subjects related to teaching or been through the TP stage. Samer summarized what she did with some new teachers:

Samer: We help them in preparing their lessons; in the lessons themselves. Before a teacher goes to

class or one day before, she comes to me, we look at the lesson together, show her how to explain it, how to deal with the children.

The expert teachers' effort was a result of their expertise and their interest to help the NGTs though they had never taken any training in coaching student-teachers or any language refresher courses during their professional life as they stated. Therefore, they were not completely aware of the new curricula implemented in secondary schools and as Abedo, the head of English language inspection stated were "far from the new curricula". Moreover, their supervision of teachers was additional to their teaching loads and was not included in their payment. Expert teachers were not available in other schools which might suggest the lack of importance given to them at that time. Moreover, the shortage of EFL teachers led the inspection office to reduce the number of expert teachers in many places to cover the shortage of teachers which was related to the restriction on employing new teachers for the last few years. Furthermore, some teachers left teaching after the conflict and joined other professions as the head of inspection stated. The urgent need for EFL teachers obliged the inspection office to reconsider giving the expert teacher teaching loads and reduce their roles respectively. There was a shortage in EFL teachers on the level of the country which was heightened by the conflict. What might be inferred from what the head of the inspection stated concerning the expert teacher indicates that those teachers were limited in number and covering classes with teachers were the priority at that time.

6.15 The Inspection Office

Considering the partners in carrying out any teacher preparation programme, it is important to refer to the role of the inspection office. Inspectors are the educational authority responsible for monitoring teachers' performance, providing them with help and support (Orafi, 2008). They also appraise teachers and submit reports on them. They organise examinations on the level of the country such as secondary school diploma and collaborate with other organization in MoE to carry out training and other things. For

instance, when many teachers of English specialization began to have problems with teaching pronunciation, Abedo, the head of English language inspection made a suggestion as he stated;

Abedo: We chose two teachers of English from every school and send them to the specialists on this subject [pronunciation] at university and give them training on pronunciation and its teaching”.

The training aimed at assisting teachers of that subject. That was a temporary solution in the absence of training. In recognition of the inspection office to the defect in teacher preparation and in the absence of any training at that time and due to the urgent need to employ NGTs, they designed a lesson plan notebook distributed free to all schools to help teachers carrying planning easily particularly those new ones. Furthermore, they distributed models of planned lessons as guidance respectively. Ahmed, the head of Tripoli inspection office clarified what they did.

Ahmed: This year we have made two copies of how to prepare a lesson and distributed it to inspectors and we told them to fix this in the inspector’s record book in every school and discuss with teachers their ideas and try in this way to be more organized.

The inspection office also contributed to the preparation of teachers by suggesting courses to EFL teachers and NGTs in particular. They prepared the contents for the teachers’ training programme, and suggestions on the criteria of selecting and distributing the teachers according to the levels they teach and submitted them to The EDC as Ahmed explained. The general head of English Inspection office of Libya and the head of Tripoli English language inspection submitted their suggestions and views in terms of teachers; training, contents and requirements. To supervise teaching English, the head of Tripoli inspection office made daily visits to schools listening to teachers’ complaints, suggestions and requests. He noticed that many teachers were guarded and

did not cooperate with the inspector. Teachers' guardedness has already been mentioned in (Vignette. 6.13.2). It might be related to the situation of the country at that time. The contribution of the inspection office was limited to providing suggestions that "stayed in the drawers" as Abedo, the general head of the inspection office stated. What can be inferred is that teachers' training programme was not the decision of the inspection office. They send their suggestion and recommendation to the educational authority for application. They also receive instructions from the MoE and the EDC.

6.16 The Education Development Centre (EDC)

The teacher preparation programme included training that could be held at various stages. The EDC is the organization in charge of conducting various types of training. Although the situation was not stable, the centre made plans to train all EFL teachers in Libya and qualify them gradually to become CELTA holders. Having CELTA (Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults) qualifies EFL teachers to teach all levels efficiently. This process can be considered as recognition of the status of teaching English in the country. The manager of the centre stated in an interview.

Majed: We have received a very difficult legacy and the most difficult in this legacy is the low level of education, teachers do not feel confident and the improper status of teachers which is related to accumulations for a period of forty years.

The plan for training teachers was drawn up with cooperation from the British Council and The MoE.

Majed: Therefore we have gone to The English, for the English language. We have gone to the English since it is their mother language and therefore, they will help us in teacher development. We had an

agreement with them to start with CELTA programme.

Teacher development was the target of the centre and suggestions were submitted to the MoE. The training will be in the country because of the large number of teachers and will start with habituating of EFL teachers, which will be held nationally. Moreover, many of the teachers will have training courses to prepare them to get to the level of participating in CELTA. This will be done with the agreement with the British Council. Later on CELTA holders will be given chances to go on advanced tours to participate in conferences, workshops and seminars abroad. It was the security situation that delayed the training as he stated. However, late in 2012 short training courses started and the intended category included teachers of class 5 and 6 in different training centres all over the country as a starting stage. Furthermore, the centre intends to have “on-site” in-service training which will be continuous processes that include all teachers. The whole plan of training EFL teachers might be ambitious in light of the current situation of the country yet it was a clear plan to involve those teachers in continuous training with the hope of improving teaching and EFL teachers.

6.17 Data Analysis 3: Teacher Development and Identity

6.17.1 Introduction

During all interviews with the NGTs in the sample of this study while looking for the answers to this question; how do those teachers perceive the development of their knowledge, and identities as teachers of English? I found that they perceived developing themselves as an essential aim that needed to be initiated immediately, relating it to their current situations, because many of them graduated from an institution that did not qualify its graduates to be EFL teachers and they did not have enough information about teaching and pedagogy. They also related their difficulties at that time to their lack of such knowledge and the lack of SK, especially those who were teaching (secondary school) of specializations. Their perceptions of this lack emerged as they began teaching and encountering secondary school curricula specifically. They were appointed at a

critical time, directly after the conflict stopped in a large part of the country and the possibilities of having training were unlikely because the country was going through a transitional period. Each teacher considered her-self-development her own responsibility according to her needs. They did not anticipate having training courses including EFL teachers sponsored by any organization at that transitional period.

6.17.2 Perception of teacher development (Teachers' perception of themselves)

When discussing how the participants perceived themselves as EFL teachers, two of them explicitly viewed themselves as unqualified teachers, while the others (9 teachers) considered themselves as beginners who still needed more in terms of the language itself and teaching it efficiently, yet they did not state that clearly. Remarkably, all of them related their views to their teacher preparation programmes from one side and the lack of any training after their graduation and before beginning of actual teaching from the other side.

6.17.2.1 Perception as being unqualified

For instance, in the first group, Amall (Tripoli Castle), and Sam (The Al-Manahal School) thought that they are unqualified teachers expressing that explicitly.

Sam: I feel I am not qualified for it. I am not to the standard of teaching, especially at this time. I don't know why (1).

Amall: I am not a qualified teacher. I still lack a lot in grammar in conversation, a lot (3).

What can be inferred from what Amall and Sam stated is that they were experiencing a lack of confidence in themselves as teachers of English as they encountered serious difficulties in teaching. For instance, Amall stated that,

Amall: First of all, the teacher book is difficult and confusing, I need to translate every word to

understand what I should do if I really understand what I translate. Translating every word is time consuming. I have tried it, explanation and explanation. I think handling the course book depends on how you understand it and finding techniques that facilitate explaining the materials intended to be presented in each class (1).

The inference that can be made here indicates that Amall encountered problems in dealing with the teacher book because she found it confusing and she could not rely on her translation of what she should do. Therefore, she thought of depending on her own effort to explain the lessons. Although she was teaching class 5, a very basic level, she found difficulties which can be related to her weak English, and that was why she resorted to the translation with which the inspector was dissatisfied, as she herself stated.

Amall: She (the inspector) was not satisfied because I wrote a structure in Arabic. She gave me a note that I have to use English in everything (2).

She did not have the techniques to manage the subjects and the students.

Amall: (The) students are highly motivated and this annoys me. I do not know how to handle them. I start the word and they quickly say it before I finish (2).

She did not have any training on how to teach like her other colleagues, teachers of English in Libya. She forgot a lot of information as a result of having to wait for employment in the public sector for about seven years. She forgot a lot of what she learned because she did not use it. She graduated in 2005 and then stayed at home doing housework.

Amall: I stayed (at home) for a long time without studying or work. I follow English only on TV. I do not study; I forgot a lot of information (3).

And this made her reluctant to seek other's help which will be discussed below. She referred to herself as a teacher who had to build her experience gradually and that was why she accepted teaching class 5.

Amall: When I have the ability to teach class 7, 8 and 9, I will teach them. I won't risk myself and my students and teach anything (1).

What Amall stated refers to her lack of confidence in herself as a teacher. She also could not find colleagues who could support her and reduce such feelings. This might be connected with the conflict and its impact on the whole life of the Libyan people. People might avoid contact with others, presumably thinking they might be from the opposing political grouping.

Sam (The Al-Manahal School) also perceived herself as unqualified. This might be related to the intensity of the subject of teaching and to her dissatisfaction with being a teacher, as she stated that many times. All these affected her view of herself.

Sam: I do not like teaching. It is not in my thinking. Teaching isn't my interest at all and first of all. I know if you are uninterested in your job, you won't be faithful to it (1).

Sam's situation is similar to Amall's; she could not experience the CoP features as it was theorized by Wenger (1998). What can be speculated is that there was not that integration and mutual engagement as described by Wenger which might support her to improve her

view of herself by overcoming some of the difficulties she encountered and managing the syllabi she was teaching. The situation was stressful and everyone concentrated on their own work. The conflict at the national level and its consequences contributed to the lack of homogeneity among colleagues. The social perception of not showing the weakness to other people, especially of the same profession exacerbated the lack of community feeling. The overlapping of the perception and the obstruction of the presence of CoP enforced some of the NGTs, such as Sam, Shd, (The Al-Manahal school), to think of taking private courses as a means of teacher development, while Eve, Sarah, Sha, Ghada, Rab, Hay and Jory might have been financially unable to manage courses at that time and were waiting for The MoE to arrange programmes.

Amall (Tripoli Castle), blamed lack of PK and SK for her perceived lack of qualification mentioned earlier. She had also graduated a few years before and she had forgotten what she had learned without practice, as she stated above, all of which increased her anxiety about being unqualified. There were no other ways to practise what she learned as the majority of the Libyan people do not use English in daily contacts. My observation of Amall indicated her lack of teaching knowledge as well as the SK. The observation also indicated her reluctance to ask and look for help from colleagues as she was unconvinced of their level of competence.

Amall: Because we are Libyans we are not convinced by each other's teaching. Sometimes I say, why do I have to go to her? Is she better than me? (3)

This suggests that Amall's perception was that other graduates from the same institute were of the same level and therefore there was no need to seek their help. She thought they did not have much more information than she did. She perceived seeking her colleagues' help as a sign of weakness and underestimate of herself as she stated above. Moreover, the conflict might have led Amall to consider some of her colleagues as

opponents. Thus, if there was anything to be done, according to Amall and the other NGTs, then it was down to the MoE, as the official source of help. It should be responsible for training and the issue of certificates. Amall and the other participants thought of their development as an essential need.

Amall: Older colleagues will speak with us on the surface because they have their own colleagues. She will deal with me in a formal way (3).

What can be inferred is that Amall experienced situations when her colleagues spoke with her in a very formal discouraging manner. Moreover, these teachers did not have that mutual engagement, shared repertoire and joint enterprise as exemplified by Wenger (1998) because that traumatic conflict has precluded the formation of community. This might be the situation of Amall when she could not find that encouraging atmosphere to seek her colleagues' help. As a newcomer, she might bring the values and motives conflicting with those of her colleagues. Again the conflict exacerbated the tension and weakened the mutual engagement among teachers, not only in the same school but also within the same specialization. Such conditions worked together and made Amall reluctant to ask and she preferred to consider courses as a means for training, learning and self-development.

Amall: I look for, how to improve myself through the curriculum and outside it. I think of having courses if I get time and money for these (3).

Hay (The Al-Manahal School) wanted to be qualified as she stated in her own words. She was given third year secondary school students who were supposed to have a secondary school diploma or certificate, as a national exam that qualifies students to study at university and higher institutes based on their grades. Thus, she had to complete the syllabi. Those teachers of third year might be visited by inspectors or head inspectors or the administration of the school more than once. She experienced situations when she

taught secondary school curricula and valued what she had in terms of SK and PK. She assessed the situation and found that self-dependence might be the only solution at that time.

Hay: I depend on myself, I study, I take courses. I have training courses. I want to develop myself. I do not care what others say.

Hay was different from Sam, Jory, Eve, and Sarah, her colleagues in the same school because she had not spent the time (seven years) at home waiting for an employment in the public sector (see Hay's profile). She was in a better situation; her family did not force her to stay at home like her colleagues. She invested the time in "working and learning" as she stated.

Hay: I have studied and taught.

It was her need to be qualified that encouraged her to take language courses after graduation. Such courses supported her when she applied for work in a private school and the public sector respectively. Although she experienced hard times while teaching in the private school, she was convinced that it was worth it to gain experience. She did not think of seeking colleagues' advice and support because of her intention not to let the others view her weakness, which was a socially based view as was mentioned above. She wanted to be professional; in her words "a teacher, you can depend on" qualified in the Libyan sense. She had a great desire to develop herself, yet she could not satisfy it because the country was going through a transition stage and nothing was stable. Similarly, having advanced private courses was not affordable to everyone. She understood the importance of being qualified and what it might add to her identity as a teacher of English. This would give her opportunities to work in many places, expand her linguistic, and PK in addition to improve her financial situation. She realized that

building such identity as a professional teacher is building her identity as Hay the Libyan female (see identity below).

6.17.2.2 Teachers' perceptions as being beginners

The second group represents the teachers who identified themselves as beginners. Sha (Tripoli Castle) believed that she was still a beginner even though she had taught for two semesters. She was appointed as a teacher after staying at home for about six years after qualifying and had had no prior preparation, training or induction at that critical time.

My observation of Sha in class and when interviewing her, indicated that, she perceived herself as a beginner who wanted to gain experience quickly. I noticed how she worked and interacted with the students in class. She walked around the class checking the students' books, workbooks, correcting and helping those who were weak as much as possible. She invested the time in class working with her students. She also looked for any individual student having a problem and tried to help him or her.

Sha: Sometimes if they do not have a teacher and are free, I give the other [students] dictation on the board and I do the lessons with a [student having a problem], for instance, alphabet, numbers. Thanks God, she has started participating in class since last week before that she did not participate at all (2).

Sha was also developing herself by depending on experienced teachers' help and working hard. Her mother's presence in school and her friendship with some of the teachers supported Sha to ask and receive their encouragement.

Sha: I went to see teacher Khaleda and Amani who showed me a lot of things and what to teach and do and how to deal with students in class (1).

I take a lesson before my lesson [Khaleda explained to her the lesson before she taught it]. I went to her for two days and then I did not look for her. She asked me why I did not come to her anymore. I told her it is enough I can manage myself (2).

She stayed all day because she had to wait for her mother to take her home. This enabled Sha to mix with those teachers. She observed some teachers, and searched the Internet to check some information about what she was teaching.

Sha: I also go to class six and see their teachers and attend classes with teacher Amani sometimes and see how she teaches her curriculum. I also attend classes with teacher Amani and Nejwa and observe them and see how they handle the curriculum. I also search the Internet and see how the questions are presented and review my question based on this (3).

It was her intention to improve herself that helped her to achieve that. She had stayed at home for a long time without a job and she experienced being on the margin and what not having a job means. When she started teaching, she looked for a means to establish her identity as a Libyan female first and be identified a person with certain characteristics and not only getting money.

Sha: I think getting a job is not only earning money, but it is also self-achievement (1).

She went to the teacher responsible for the daily supervision and asked her to notify her whenever a teacher was absent so she would give a lesson especially to the classes she was teaching. It was her enthusiasm and condition that supported her.

Sha: I often ask teacher Mariam, who is in charge of teachers' daily attendance to tell me whenever there are absent teachers so that I can find extra period and give additional lessons to my classes (1).

Comparing Amall and Sam with Sha, teachers in the same school, one could find out the differences in terms of self-confidence, the interest to learn and develop herself and the extent of integration. One also could not ignore the support Sha received from her mother's colleagues as she stated above. What can be speculated is that Sha benefited from her abilities of integration, interest and the nepotism of her mother. To the contrary, Amall and Sam resorted to isolate themselves to avoid the tension or protect themselves from being devalued by the other teachers. They could not integrate or have that mutual engagement to learn and establish fruitful relationships with other teachers. What can be inferred is that the ability of integration might be facilitated by other factors like Sha's case where her mother's presence supported her. Also the interest to build mutual relationships might be an individual feature for some people such as Sam and Amall who might be atypical.

Meanwhile, Sam (Al-Manahal School) viewed herself as unqualified because of the difficulties she encountered in teaching and intensity of the subject, teaching writing to English specialization students. She was confused by the students' weak level and how she would work to improve them and finish the syllabi of the semester.

Sam: I asked them what they were doing in writing. What they told me was the material that looks like reading. They don't write at all. I was astonished because these are English specialized students and they have to focus at least on the last part of the lesson which is basically for writing. It seems that this part has never been given the necessary importance (1).

All that made her convinced that she was an unqualified teacher as she compared what she had studied at university with the curricula she had to cover. Her lack of PK and Sk promoted her perception of herself as an unqualified teacher. Therefore, Sam considered self-development as an essential requirement that she had to start immediately. She thought;

Sam: I should be capable of it (teaching) or I have to be far from it (2).

She thought of developing herself by joining courses to improve her subject knowledge as soon as she got paid and without waiting for the MoE to arrange them. She found out that she had to work for that herself.

Sam: I have to depend on myself first. I do not have to wait for the education [any of the agencies that cooperate with the Ministry of Education to conduct any training programmes] to call me for a course. I do not want to stay on the same level. I want to develop myself to improve my performance and build my identity. I want to improve myself. When I stand in front of the students, I stand with confidence; I have something to offer to them. I do not feel that my mind is empty. I do not want to feel that I have nothing to offer. My words are very poor. If I have my own money, there is no reason to prevent me from paying for improving myself (3).

Sam's statement indicates her intention to develop herself, in the language and teaching the language first. Second, she wanted to build her identity and again this can be inferred as her perception of having her own identity which enables her to make her own decisions. Third, she did not find that atmosphere to support her. Fourth, she understood what she needed to know and the means by which to achieve this. Fifth, she had decided what to do but as yet she could not as she was not being paid. She also wanted to have

her own identity, the financial independence that enables her to decide how to improve herself as an EFL teacher and have Sam's identity, the Libyan female.

Other participants such as Ghada (the Beam of Knowledge), Sarah, Eve, Jory, Shd (Al-Manahal School), and Nawal (the White School) perceived themselves as beginner teachers who needed to learn more and constantly develop themselves in their career. It was their perception, not to state explicitly that they were unqualified as Sam (the Manahal School) and Amall (Tripoli Castle) had done. They were concerned that the researcher might understand that as a sign of weakness as they were employed on temporary contracts. They might think that this would affect their chances to be transferred to permanent contracts. They knew that the researcher would contact the administration of the school, the inspectors and the inspection office. Although confidentiality and neutrality were confirmed to them right from the first day of the data generation process, those teachers did not perceive that. What can also be inferred, suggests that the political situation and that tension created by that horrific conflict affected the relations between the people to the extent that they suspected the other side. I noticed that in the way they spoke with me and spotted that in their eyes, something I was scared of most of the time. Nonetheless, they all expressed their great interest to develop themselves in terms of the PK teachers had to acquire. They related their lack of such types of knowledge which they associated with their teacher preparation programmes. For instance, Ghada (The Beam of Knowledge) was satisfied with what she already knew and the content of the syllabus she was teaching at that time, yet she still wanted to learn more about teaching:

Ghada: I feel I still need more [to learn] to tackle teaching properly (2).

What can be inferred is her lack of teaching techniques, which was related to her studies as she did not have any preparation or training programmes before being involved in

teaching. The situation of Ghada was similar to her colleagues, graduates of colleges of arts such as Sam, Jory, Shed and Eve (Al-Manahal School). However, they were appointed to secondary school, which had different specializations and syllabi as mentioned in (see the teachers' profiles). Ghada was luckier than them as she taught secondary curricula in the private sector for a semester. This might suggest she had got rid of the early shock of teaching and familiarized her with the teaching atmosphere. My observation of her shows that she was confident in class and conducted the lesson properly. This also might be related to her general level, which can be seen in her grade (see Ghada's profile). The inspector also reported that Ghada was very good in terms of preparation of the lesson intellectually and the written form, although she recommended her to avoid using Arabic in class.

Likewise, graduates of the teacher training college and higher institutes for teacher training perceived what they had studied as insufficient and they thought of improving and developing themselves in the subject knowledge as well as pedagogical knowledge. Rab (Tripoli Castle) a graduate of a higher institute for teacher training, for instance, thought that what she learned was insufficient and did not qualify her to be a good teacher. Thus, she thought that she had to learn more about specific knowledge related to the language itself.

Rab: I am satisfied with it (teacher education programme), but it is insufficient (2).

She considered what she studied in the institute as insufficient to qualify teachers to teach different curricula of many levels.

Rab: Honestly, I consider myself as insufficient in grammar and if I find a course, I will join it (3).

All these made her believe that it was her responsibility to know and improve herself by having courses either sponsored by The MoE or self-paid. She did not think of her colleagues as a main potential source of learning and improvement. This might be related to her lack of confidence in her colleagues' levels as Amall stated earlier. This might also be related to experiencing situations of lacking her colleagues' accountability. The limitation of integration and the barrier created by the tension of that time as a result of the bloody conflict made Rab and some other NGTs in the schools included in the study look forward to developing themselves individually. Their attitude to professional development was positive despite the sensitive situation of the whole country at that time. However, the observation showed that they did not refer to their colleagues as one option for developing themselves. The situation at that time may have contributed to the establishment of such opinions.

In addition, Rab had formal relationships with colleagues which did not exceed usual the greetings.

Rab: Clearly my relation with teachers of English is formal, a relation to work only (3).

What I inferred from what Rab and some other NGTs stated indicated the limits of integration and the lack of harmony between teachers as colleagues of the same subject. It was not only between the experienced teachers, but also their newly appointed ones. Even the NGTs themselves did not have that mutual engagement and that shared repertoire as Amall stated. Rab herself did not have that accountability towards her new colleagues, Sha and Amall. My observation of her showed that she used to come on time and leave on time without meeting or greeting them, as they stated. She was concerned for her work and commitment to the private school. I used to wait to interview her at the front of the class so she would not leave without seeing me. Amall also stated that Rab did not care about her relationships with her and Sha. This suggests that the newcomers might bring values that might not fit with the norms of their colleagues and stand as a

barrier that hinders integration. They might not have tolerated their colleagues because of having diverse political views regarding the conflicts and its consequences on life in general. This would affect the relationships with each other. Wenger's theory anticipates that the newcomers like Amall and Rab would easily integrate. Yet the reality in the context of this study reveals that not only the old timers might not accept the newcomers, but also the newcomers might bring discrepant values and views. The integration and moving from peripheral participation to full members was not easy and accessible as theorised by Wenger (1998).

To sum up, the NGTs perceived themselves as beginners needing to learn and develop themselves continuously to cope with teaching and the very many curricula. Because of the conflict and its impacts on the people's life, they thought autonomously of means to develop themselves without reference to their community of teachers.

6.18 Perception of Development

How the teachers perceive the idea of development was another issue connected with perceiving themselves as EFL teachers. All of the NGTs considered it essential regardless of the way each one expressed it. The rationale behind focusing on developing themselves was that if they were well equipped with the SK, they would be in a better position to impart this knowledge to their students.

Nawal: As a teacher, you have to do your best to develop yourself through all your life. I always look forward to development of myself. Sometimes training courses are arranged for teachers. I really look forward to joining them at any time. Teachers benefit from such training at different stages in their professional life (3).

Nawal (The White School) viewed her development as something gradual and to happen in different stages. She did not mention who could offer the training or development. She did not refer to the community as a source which indicated that she did not experience the mutual engagement that would help her achieve the training one could get in the CoP. Nawal's perception had its social roots which can be summarized as; I do not have to show my weakness to those of the same speciality, and we graduated from the same institute, so what advantages do others have that are different from mine, why I have to ask them their help; who says they know better than I do.

Shd (Al-Manahal School) did not differ from her group in terms of her view of the necessity of developing herself. She also did not consider her colleagues as the most accessible source at that time particularly. She was aware that the possibility of having any training was unlikely due to the unstable conditions at that time. Again she might have the same view, although she had stated how she benefited from her colleagues which might be exceptional in comparison to what the other teachers had experienced.

Shd: Developing myself is something very important. I would like to learn more so I know how to explain, how to prepare the lesson (3).

Shd was like her colleagues in terms of the interest to develop herself as she perceived that as important and why she wanted that. Like other teachers in her school in particular, teachers of secondary school, Shd realized the need for more awareness of both the language and how to teach it. This came as a result of real experience of teaching. It is also remarkable that none of the teachers had mentioned learning from their colleagues through mutual engagement and shared repertoire, or gaining experience that formal courses might not offer.

Sarah (Al- Manahal School) is another example of those teachers.

Sarah: I will improve my language and myself. I will improve my knowledge and awareness about the curriculum I am teaching now. It will increase my confidence, performance and even how to prepare without struggling hard as I have a good background about it. Certainly it will be easier for me as I am well aware of it (3).

The viewpoint of the NGTs indicates that development can only be achieved by having courses; formal learning that was either sponsored by the MoE or self-paid. It seems that none of the NGTs thought of the community as essential source of learning. They did not experience the existence of the community or its academic and emotional support for them. To illustrate this, when Nawal (The White School) was asked who could provide the training or any professional development courses, she stated:

Nawal: Certainly the Ministry of Education.

She identified only the MoE not a colleague or any other group who might help her gain development even for the long term. What I inferred from this is that Nawal and her colleagues had not experienced a CoP in terms of Lave & Wenger (1991) and Wenger's (1998) theorization.

All of NGTs were enthusiastic to develop themselves, yet managing these courses or training was conditioned by availability of money.

Nawal: If the financial support is good, I am keen to join any of them. It is not a problem at all.

Eve: Wallahi [By the name of God] I care for money, but courses are the best thing and the best are more expensive (3).

Development cultivated through mutual engagement with colleagues was limited to the lowest extent. This could be related to the circumstances at that time and the impact of the conflict on the entire society. They experienced hard situations when they began teaching and discovered the gap between what they had studied and the reality of teaching, the intensity and the difficulties of some syllabi particularly those of secondary schools. The tension created by the conflict facilitated formulating views similar to what the NGTs stated earlier. Each sought solutions to her problems autonomously without thinking of the group. They all positively looked forward to developing themselves with focus on the language and its teaching. They might have expressed that in various ways, yet the goal was the same. This social perception was exacerbated by the conflict and became a matter of lacking confidence in colleagues' support. This issue is dealt with in detail in the next section.

6.19 Areas of Development

Development, as perceived by the NGTs, included knowledge related to the language and teaching. Some of them thought of joining courses to develop themselves in the language itself or teaching and pedagogy respectively. Because of the instability of the situation at that time and the absence of any programmes for training teachers before being employed, they thought of courses held at private language centres. Eve (Al-Manahal School), for instance, looked forward to improving her language skills.

Eve: Since I have learnt English, I would like to have good English in terms of language in all sides; conversation, writing, reading of course (3).

The interest in joining language courses might come as a result of lacking sufficient SK. Some NGTs such as Sam, Eve, Shd, Hay and Sarah taught secondary school curricula of different specializations. They realized that what they had studied could not satisfy their current situation. Thus, they all looked forward to developing themselves in the SK first because they did not have opportunities to practise what they learned which made their linguistic knowledge almost dormant. Therefore, during the interviews they rarely referred to their colleagues' support. The accumulation of the social and political problems compelled those teachers to find their own methods and means of development, according to each individual's condition.

6.20 Defining and maintaining identities

Identity is an important issue in studying teachers' professional development, as learning to teach "involves not only discovering more about the skills and knowledge of language teaching but also what it means to be a language teacher"(Richards, 2010, p.110). Dealing with identity is not separable from issues of learning and practice, community, and meaning. "Issues of identity are an integral aspect of a social theory of learning" . Identity is central to learning through social practice. It is a sense of belonging, a sense of membership, a sense of full participation that Lave & Wenger (1991, p. 53) call "becoming a kind of person". Meaning is derived within a system of relations that are developed within a specific social community, a specific culture of practice. Participation within a CoP is considered as a 'source of identity' (Wenger, 1998, p. 56). During participation teachers' identities change and develop as they are increasingly recognized as belonging to and contributing to their CoP. Learning as participation helps the "development and the transformation of identities" (ibid, p. 13).

Learning develops an evolving membership and an evolving identity in which identity, knowing and social membership necessitate one another (Wenger, 1998). The argument to be mentioned here is that learning and identity seem to be one stage that is "learning through becoming and becoming through learning" throughout life (Hodkinson et al.,

2008, p. 41). One learns to become one particular person as Colley et al. call it “becoming” (2003) ; that is, establishing an identity.

6.20.1 Defining identity

Referring to identity is part of the research question which is closely related to development as perceived by the NGTs in this study. Identity is a debatable concept as it might be related to context, social and cultural views. This section deals with definitions that are of relevance based on the situation of the NGTs in the post-conflict Libyan context with all its complexities.

For instance, Lave & Wenger define identity as "the way a person understands and views himself, and is viewed by others, a perception of self which is fairly constant" (1991, p. 81). For Wenger, learning is viewed as the “process of becoming a certain person or, conversely, to avoid becoming a certain person” (1998, p. 215). The focus on identity includes participation and non-participation, inclusion and exclusion as “our identity includes our ability and our inability to shape the meanings that define our communities and our forms of belonging” (ibid, p. 215).

One’s identity includes the particularities one possesses not given by others but can be recognized by others. Identity can be defined as “a layering of events of participation and reification by which our experience and its social interpretation inform each other” (1998, p. 151). For this study, a workable definition is **that identity is the way of being in the world in terms of the qualities one possesses and as recognized by others. For the participants in this study, identity includes both being identified as teachers and Libyan females which are inseparable and in harmony with one another.** For instance, Sha (Tripoli Castle) considered being employed as a self-achievement, which involved being identified as a female of certain qualities among her family and the society in which she was living. She meant her identity as she viewed it, which might not be the way her parents thought of it and making her own decisions and not having things

decided for her. However, she connected that with having financial independence. Such views show how important was this side in achieving identity which might be the situation of a large number of Libyan females.

The situation of Eve (Al-Manahal School) might be similar to Sha but it was wider than Sha's case. Eve had moved to a stage of decision-making which was completely new to promote her identity as a teacher and a Libyan female from social and psychological perspectives. What she states below demonstrated the changes that happened and allowed her to make decisions and be identified as a new Eve.

*Eve: When I was a student, I was dependent on my family; they did everything. Now I have to do everything, look for everything [things related to her such as travelling, managing herself in school...]
(3).*

Eve started the first step of building her identity as a woman and teacher as she intended. She decided to look for a school far from her home Although the situation was hard for her at the beginning, she started finding transport, the common and nearest bus stops as she stated. This might seem something basic if looked at from a western culture point of view, but in the Libyan context and at the time of data generation, coming from a far place; 35 kilometres from her district, to teach four days a week was a courageous decision from Eve. It indicated her intention to build her identity despite the difficulties and the exposure to danger. The change to make her own decisions and bear her own responsibility was the sense of building identity. She did not totally depend on her family support to manage her own affairs to a certain extent like before. She felt she had taken the first step of establishing her new identity; to be known to other people as Eve the new teacher with specific features who is financially independent in a society where financial independence gives its holder a special status as a recognized female figure. This status

can open opportunities of participating in other political and social activities respectively. She struggles for more than financial independence; it is having meaningful life.

Jory, from the same school, considered employment as the means by which she would get to know the world and build her own identity not only as a qualified teacher, but as a Libyan female.

Jory: For me work will give me opportunities to communicate with people and how to deal with people (and) I want to build my identity (1).

Like (other participants) Jory viewed employment as the means to establish her identity as a female and a teacher as well. Through contact with other teachers in her school, she would establish her personality as Jory with all her characteristics by which she would be known among colleagues, friends and relatives, her family and the social context outside school. Through work, she would be able to know what is going on in the society, learn, develop and entertain herself. In the Libyan society and for many females including the researcher, being employed means the window through which one sees the other world, the source of communication and entertainment. Given the cultural context where Jory lives, she might articulate the reality of many Libyan females. She might be a symbolic representation of those in her age and situation.

For all the teachers interviewed, building identities was associated with having financial independence. Some of them such as Sha, Amall, Sarah, waited for employment, while others like Rab, Ghada, Hay and Eve tried different routes with which they were not satisfied. Thus, when the security of tenure came with the new regime, they accepted it enthusiastically. Although they were employed, they could still not get what they had needed for many years; that is, being paid. They were still unable to feel financially independent in a way that would change their lives by giving them some freedom from dependence on their families; that is crucial to their identity. Without payment it may be

difficult for these teachers to integrate and be involved in a community of other teachers. What the data also suggests is that they were in a position to learn and develop themselves when they were not sure of being paid and whether they would stay in the profession. Some of them were financially in need and they accepted teaching, although they were not interested in it. Such a situation might affect their views towards teaching, belonging to their community if there was one and their social context. For Libyan females financial independence, means having a special personality, even within the same family, to their husbands, and in the eyes of others. Therefore, many such as Sam, Eve and Shd accepted teaching and considered it as a temporary stage, which might facilitate other options for joining other occupations.

Rab worked with the private sector, but she did not find comfort or safety because she was under threat and dismissal all the time. In addition she had heavy load of teaching and low payment.

Rab: The private sector abused us a lot; 24 classes per week with very little outcome [in terms of payment] in addition to cutting of payment even with a permit. They treated me badly (1).

She tried to put up with the private sector to fulfil a kind of financial independence and sense of identity. When she was employed in the public sector, the situation changed; she was guaranteed a secure place and future, a source of happiness and comfort not only to herself, but also to her family, especially her father. She waited for employment in the public sector for 7 years.

Rab: For the first time I have tears of happiness. I have heard of tears of happiness but I have never had them before. My dream was to be employed in the public sector (1).

Rab's joining the teaching professional was the first stage of building a significant identity. Her status as a teacher became different not only in her family, but also in the society. She would not be that daughter or woman who is a burden and needed financial support. By being financially independent, she secured her life, established her identity and contributed to the budget of her family. Such conditions created the proper atmosphere for Rab to build her identity as Rab the teacher and the Libyan female. She stated that she intended to develop herself improve her language if she got her salary.

Building identity not only covers the financial side, but also the academic side as perceived by some of the NGTs. When they became qualified, they would be identified as qualified by their colleagues, inspectors, administrators and students respectively. They also would be in positions to find other jobs and, have opportunities to build their identity and improve themselves academically and financially as teachers. This is what concerns Nawal (the White School). It is another kind of becoming, like that of Wenger (1998). It is becoming independent Libyan females without belonging to CoP

Nawal: The most difficult and the biggest challenge is to prove myself in the school (2).

What Nawal experienced indicated that the NGTs struggled to achieve what they looked for: that being identified as qualified teacher, to do what she referred to as "prove myself in the school" that is "becoming" as Colley et al. (2003) call it. She found it challenging as she might not get the support from her colleagues which would enable her fulfil this aim. It was remarkable that none of them referred to the support from her colleagues, the inspector or the administration. My observations also showed no attention was paid to their professional community, which means the community itself did not play a particular role in their consideration. It seems that building identities from the perceptions of the NGTs was something individual and the role of the community was

not a consideration to any of them. It might be the conflict that made each person think autonomously and avoid the others who might be from the opposition.

6.21 Chapter Summary

To sum up, in answering the research question; How do those teachers perceive the development of their knowledge, and identities as teachers of English?, the NGTs viewed themselves as beginners and some perceived themselves as unqualified when they experienced teaching for the first time and considered the subjects taught and the context of teaching. The impact of the political conflict contributed to the preclusion of the CoP, limitation of integration, which led them to search for means to develop themselves so they could be in the positions to continue as teachers and establish their identities as EF teachers and Libyan independent females respectively. This was remarkable in all the school participated in the study. The environment suitable for the formation of CoP was unlikely in a context monitored by the conflict.

Chapter 7: Discussion and findings

7.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the key findings of the research. The themes that were identified through the analysis of the data in the previous chapters are discussed in relation to the aims of the study and the available literature on the experiences of the NGTs of EFL in post-conflict Libya. To reiterate, the study was designed to explore first year EFL teachers' experience in the Libyan context. Specifically, it was undertaken to accomplish four main aims:

- To investigate the experiences, perspectives and challenges of NGTs of EFL in the Libyan context.
- To understand the relationship between teacher education programmes and their early classroom experiences in formulating those experiences.
- To explore the teachers' views of themselves as EFL teachers.
- To understand their perceptions of building their identities.

Accordingly, this chapter is divided into three main sections; the first part (RQ1) is a discussion on the significant experiences of these teachers and what made them formulate such experiences through practice within the concept of CoP. In the second section, I explore issues relating to their teacher preparation programme and its influence on their teacher learning and teaching experiences during their first years of teaching (RQ2). The last section tackles teachers' perceptions of development and building identity. The discussion considers the operationalization of CoP to interpret the data.

7.2 The significant experiences

Exploring the NGTs' experiences of the sample, evidence from the data suggests that three major factors influenced the existence of the community and achievement of its functions as theorized by Lave & Wenger and Wenger (1998). These are the conflict, the culture and personal situations. Their impacts hindered the formation of the professional community and its elements as viewed by Wenger (1998), yet the conflict with all its consequences were the most powerful in that respect. Furthermore, the consequences of conflict contributed to the exacerbation of the social and the cultural impacts. In terms of that traumatic conflict, it created that schism between colleagues which represents an actual model of what has happened to the whole society, where people found themselves obliged to be loyal to one group or party for the first time after decades of dictatorship. It is not only the belonging, but also regarding the opposite side as foes. In this case, it was the diversity of loyalty, opinions, values and attitudes of the party they belong to other than the values of their professional communities that emerged consequently, creating reserve and suspicion among people even within the same family. Therefore, mutual engagement between colleagues was extremely limited.

7.3 Limitation of integration

The lack of integration as a result of age barrier has its social and cultural perspectives. From social perspectives, young people have to respect the older ones in terms of communication with them and even more in the formality needed when seeking support. The culture plays a significant role in establishing relationships among members of the same community in the Libyan context. Younger members may not sit, share other experienced members' discussions or meals even on social occasions, under the umbrella of respect. Such restricted relations inhibit mutual engagement. Consequently, teachers like Sam, Shd (Al-Manahal School), Amall (Tripoli Castle) did not sit in the staff room. Moreover, teachers like, Amall, and Rab (Tripoli Castle), and Nawal (The White School) reported that age represented a barrier that reduced mutual understanding, which had an

impacts on mutual engagement and consequently on learning and development respectively. Reviewing the literature, there was no reference to age barrier in studies of early experiences of beginner teachers in Veenman (1984), Richards & Pennington (1998) and Farrell (2008a). What the data from my study revealed was that while such factors existed before the conflict, the conflict exacerbated them. This condition limited the opportunities to learn, participate and gain improvement in terms of knowledge or professional development. Moreover, the chances to learn and communicate with other colleagues were connected with social relationships, such as the case of Sha (Tripoli Castle) whose mother's relationships with her friends, Sha's colleagues-teachers of English- enabled her to learn and improve herself despite the age barrier. The data also suggest that teachers such as Sam and Eve isolated themselves from other colleagues, what De Lima (2003) identified as minimal contact that leads to isolation. Such isolation limited the opportunities to contact and consequently to participate and learn as a feature of CoP according to Wenger (1998).

7.4 Opportunities to learn within the community

The participants had limited engagement with their colleagues in general and EFL teachers in particular at the time of data generation. This engagement differed from one school to the other yet it was limited in general. What the data revealed is that some factors hindered the opportunities for participation and learning. As mentioned above, the conflict and its direct effects on the whole life of the Libyan people created a horrific schism which is politically, ideologically and socially rooted. The scene outside the school was transmitted to schools spontaneously and tension could be felt everywhere.

This tension meant many teachers preferred not to tackle political issues in their daily interaction, which hindered mutual understanding among colleagues, the inspector and the administration. They kept the relationships at the minimal level as described by De Lima (2003). They did not exceed the formal form of greeting in some cases. The

observation of some NGTS and other teachers revealed that some teachers avoided sitting in the staff room in order not to be in confrontation with other teachers who might have different affiliations to theirs. What can be inferred is that the conflict and its consequences contributed to the lack of mutual engagement among colleagues. It was not only the situation of NGTs, but also the case of all teachers. Instead of mutual engagement, reserve became more common among the teachers in general, especially when political or social issues were tackled in discussion or debates (see 6.13.1). That reserve hindered the mutual understanding, the shared repertoire and the joint enterprise as elements that encourage a CoP as theorized by Wenger (1998).

The social side represented in the reserve was apparent in terms of seeking support. Some NGTs considered seeking colleagues' help as a sign of weakness that might affect their academic situations as teachers who were under a trial stage as they were employed on temporary contracts (see Q-3-1). For instance, Amall (Tripoli Castle), Sam and Hay (Al-Manahal School) were reluctant to ask for help and perceived that as a lack of confidence and devaluing of themselves in front of colleagues and other administrative staff. Moreover, other teachers shared the same view although they did not explicitly voice it. It was social perceptions among the NGTs that prevented them from seeking the expert teacher and other colleagues' help.

In the literature, Veenman (1984) and Frye (1988) referred to problems with colleagues and administration of the school which might be related to the age barrier as mentioned earlier. What was remarkable in this study was the formality of relationships between the NGTs, their colleagues, the inspector and the school administration. The data show that such formality was related to the tension created by the conflict and some social perspectives, particularly related to how Libyan females view relationships with administration, as Rab and Amall (Tripoli Castle), Jory and Sarah (Al-Manahal School) reported. The relationships did not exceed common greeting. In addition, from social and cultural points of view, their contact with males was restricted.

7.5 Lack of Confidence

One significant feature of the participants in this study was their lack of confidence. It might be related to their lack of PK and SK which in turn related to their teacher preparation programmes. The data show that some NGTs were not prepared for becoming qualified teachers, such as Ghada (the Beam of Knowledge), Sam, Shd, Eve and Jory (The Manahal School). They were involved in teaching without having any training or induction. Studies by Richards & Pennington (1998); Tarone & Allwright (2005) have revealed the gap between the academic course contents in language teacher preparation programmes and the real challenges the NGTs encountered in the language classroom. The NGTs were obliged to cover the prescribed syllabus within the time allocated and to deal with weak students during their first years as Richards and Pennington (1998) reported. However, those teachers did not find the professional community as it is conceived by Wenger (1998) that would support them to reduce their lack of confidence.

A lack of interest in teaching seemed also to increase the feeling of lacking confidence. It might be surprising to find someone involved in a profession who has no interest such as Sam (Al-Manahal School), and her colleagues, Shd and Eve in the same school. It was the social and cultural restriction that pressurized females in the context of this study to accept certain jobs according to their family's decision (see 6.7.3 and 6.7.4). Such action hinders identity building and makes females subservient to their families' decisions instead of being their own decision makers.

The data also revealed that the NGTs included in the study encountered serious difficulties that might significantly relate to their teaching preparation programmes. Teachers like, Ghada (the Beam of Knowledge), Sam, Eve, Jory and Shd (Al-Manahal School) were not qualified as teachers. They did not study any subjects of relevance to pedagogy and had not gone through the TP stage while they were studying at their

colleges. Moreover, they were employed without any prior training or induction. Some of these teachers spent a considerable time (about seven years) waiting for employment in the public sector, such as Sha and Amall, and a few, such as Rab, Hay, started working in the private sector after they had become desperate for an opportunity in the education sector. Even those who graduated from teacher training institutes or colleges of education demonstrated their lack of SK and PK, yet it was mainly those teachers at secondary level, in (Al-Manahal School) who reported their challenges with the curricula. This does not mean that the teachers in the other three schools were adequately prepared to teach secondary curricula. They were fortunate to start with basic education (class 5-9), yet they had their problems that might be related to their lack of knowledge in pedagogy and the language itself. Reviewing the transcripts of these teachers' qualifications, it was remarkable how little time was devoted to the SK, the subjects of relevance to teaching in the higher institute and the college for teacher training. Moreover, they lacked training after graduation and before commencing actual teaching. Likewise, the inspectors' reports of five teachers on the sample referred to the essential issues of great importance in terms of pedagogy and in specific terms what teachers have to do such as the mental and written preparation of the lesson, following students' work, correction, avoiding using the native language, and using teaching aids in the classroom. The comments were in the reports about Ghada, Jory, Sam, Sarah, and Shd. Because of the political and social situations that time, however, some of the NGTs were not visited by the inspectors up to the time of the end of the second semester.

7.6 Teacher Preparation Programme (RQ2)

7.6.1 Introduction

The main aim of this study, as I stated in Chapter Two was to investigate the experiences of NGTs during their early years in post-conflict Libya. However, the aim of this question looks beyond the conflict to the teachers' preparation and investigates the type of teacher preparation programme they had and its contribution to the formation of some

of their experiences. Accordingly, this part is divided into three main sections. The first part is a discussion of the teacher education programmes which include the types of knowledge with which student teachers are supposed to be equipped according to the Libyan teacher preparation programme as planned by the MoE. The TP stage is considered another step in EFL teacher preparation. It offers training, socialization, mentoring and induction before the actual involvement in teaching. My main assumption in this discussion is that students who would become teachers are supposed to have received teacher education that offers adequate socialization, induction or mentoring during their stages of the teacher preparation programme. If all the teachers had gone through such processes, this might have reduced some of their difficulties, particularly those in secondary school, i.e. 6 teachers. For instance, Sam, in the Al-Manahal secondary school stated:

Sam: I think new teachers should have been given courses before commencing actual teaching at least they should know how to teach, especially those who graduated from universities. They haven't studied or known anything about teaching. They studied only subjects of specialization (1).

Sam referred to her situation, although she reported the case of most NGTs from university. She explained:

Sam: Honestly, all newly graduated teachers aren't qualified to teach secondary levels. Their levels don't qualify them to teach secondary students of different specialization (1).

Sam referred to all NGTs instead of referring to herself only. This is a matter of saying it is not me alone in this category; there are many others which might be right. The head of inspection, Ahmed, confirmed the situation of Sam and many other NGTs concluding that they have difficulties in teaching secondary school English designed for specific purposes.

Ahmed: The second problem of university graduates from departments of English, of course, English specialization; of course, the curricula of English in secondary school of specialization subjects that are in the main subjects such as economic, life sciences, social sciences in all fields, we have found they have difficulties in dealing with the information for specific purposes.

My interpretation of what Ahmed, the head of inspection in Tripoli, mentioned demonstrates the situations of secondary school teachers and at the same time indicates that there were solutions available at that time. An adequate preparation programme would enhance their situations when they start teaching and yield opportunities for them to become integrated and learn. Through establishing relationships and mutual engagement, they could improve themselves and build their unique identities as EFL teachers as the ultimate goal of learning as anticipated by Wenger (1998).

The participants can be divided into two groups in terms of their teacher preparation programme, the types of knowledge they gained based on this programme and the training and practice they had. Evidence comes from their transcripts of what they had studied at different institutions. The arts group included 5 graduates. The graduates of teacher training and college group consisted of 6 teachers: 5 graduates of teacher training institutes and 1 of a college for teacher training. This division included those who had formal teacher preparation, including pedagogy, and those who did not. The programme of study might contribute to the formation of the NGTs' experiences and perceptions.

7.7 Graduates of Arts

The first group of teachers included 5 graduates of arts from two different universities and who were BA holders in English language (see tables 2 and 3 in 2.9 2.9.1). The teachers were distributed in two schools: Ghada (The Beam of Knowledge) and, Jory,

Sam, Shed and Eve (Al-Manahal School). They studied similar programmes in terms of their preparation regardless the institutions. Evidence from their university transcripts demonstrated that they had not studied anything related to teaching and pedagogy or had any TP and training as part of their preparation for teaching (See table. 2 in 2.9). Therefore, graduates of these colleges are not formally qualified to be teachers as they do not hold a teaching qualification. They also did not receive or participate in any training or induction before starting teaching. They are not formally qualified to be teachers; however, they are often involved in teaching, particularly females, which has already been mentioned in section 1.6.

It was noticeable that some NGTs from this group such as Sam, Eve, Jory, and Shd who were particularly appointed to secondary schools of specializations in Al-Manahal School encountered serious problems related to PK, the base of teaching (Shulman, 1987) in general (see 3.10.1). Sam and Eve, for instance, followed the method their teacher used to do with them when they were students.

Sam: This semester and the first week I said to myself, I have to choose a student whose level is good and choose another weak student and let them work together. This method was used with us long ago; our teacher made us a group sometimes up to six students and we used to work on two topics (2).

Eve stated that she was confused and decided to draw on her own teachers' actions, how she had been taught;

Eve: I went back to my memories and remembered all my best teachers and how they taught me in particular during university education, but what I have thought of my university learning will not be easy to be applied here in secondary level. I have also noticed that I taught them like university students. Then I understood that I have to change

my method with them gradually and I amend my teaching as well (1).

Neither Sam nor Eve knew what methods to use. Then they tried to draw on their former teachers at secondary school and university and see how effective the methods were. What they experienced indicates their lack of teaching knowledge which might be a common feature among beginner teachers, but might not be to the extent being experienced by Eve, Sam, Jory, the teachers in this study.

In addition, Sam reported that teaching writing was bigger than her ability as she taught students of English specialization where the focus is on all the skills. My observations of her showed that she was confused at that time as she lacked the techniques to teach her subject and engage the students in writing. The inspector also notified her on using teaching aids as a means to facilitate her work, but Sam did not know what teaching aids are and how to use them either. She was surprised.

Sam: I was surprised what teaching aids I can use for that lesson. I was describing a house and she said, "why I didn't bring a picture of a house" (1).

Sam did not experience teaching before and did not have the PK that enabled her to easily teach writing and simply engage the students in it by using a teaching aid. Since she did not study anything related to teaching and she did not have any training, she thought of teaching writing as some bigger than her ability. She also thought that she was not qualified to teach writing to specialist students at that time. Sam was not interested in teaching and this might be behind her respective anxiety. As she lacked the teaching knowledge, she was surprised to discover the gap between what she studied and the reality of what she was going to teach:

Sam: When I come to the courses taught to secondary students, I mean the textbooks; I find

them completely different and have no relation with what I have been taught at university (1).

Sam's situation corresponded with the findings of Farrell's study (Farrell, 2008b) conducted in Singapore. Farrell's study revealed the conflict beginner teachers encountered in terms of what they wanted to teach and what was required to teach according to the regulation of the assigned syllabi and the examination system. They also struggled with the teaching approach, whether to be a more learner-centred or more teacher-centred. Farrell conducted his case study, which included one teacher, Wee Jin. Farrell observed Wee's classes and interviewed him many times during his first year. The study revealed that Wee encountered a number of complications. One of them was connected with what "to teach in terms of course content" (Farrell, 2008a, p. 47-48) and the requirement of the curriculum assigned by the education authority. This is similar to what the teachers in this sample encountered; they were required to teach assigned units for each semester. For instance, Sam found her students unable to write short sentences. She was confused whether to teach the students how to write and start from the beginning. On the other hand, she was obliged to cover the assigned materials. However, there are important differences; Wee Jin had a postgraduate diploma that qualified him to be a teacher in secondary school, whereas the teachers in the arts group were BA holders in English language only. English was taught as a second language whereas English in my context is taught as a foreign language. Wee Jin graduated from an institute that qualifies its graduates to be teachers. The teachers of this sample graduated from different institutes and some do not prepare students to be teachers.

I also observed Jory in a hard situation; she could not start explaining a lesson about the solar system to second year students. She began asking them the meaning of new vocabulary related to the text. The students were silent while some did not pay any attention. She lacked the techniques to attract the students' attention. In addition, she also did not think of using any aids to help her. All this was related to her unawareness of teaching and particularly the lack of PK. The only thing she used was the direct

translation about which the inspector notified her. During the post class interview, she stated that she did not know how to start and she was confused whether to start reading or asking about the meaning of the vocabulary. She also referred to the difficulties she had in understanding the vocabulary in the text and finding of means to make the students understand and interact with her. Jory's situation was common of beginner teacher but arguably not to the extent I have observed. Sam and Jory lacked the means by which they "transform their knowledge of the subject matter into a form which makes it amenable to teaching and learning" (Borg, 2006a, p. 19). The inspector reported their lack of their intellectual preparation of their lessons. Such lack of knowledge contributed to their anxiety and the formation of their experiences of teaching in their early years, which might affect their decision whether to continue or quit teaching.

Eve and Shd, teachers in the arts group, had a challenge concerning how to deal with students. In addition, Eve was worried about the curriculum and how to cover it, as she stated. Both Eve and Shd resorted to translation as a means to help the students understand the materials they were studying, something criticized by the inspector. This also indicates their lack of PK which "goes beyond knowledge of subject matter per-se to the dimension of subject matter knowledge for teaching" (Shulman, 1986, p. 9). The fourth teacher in the Arts graduates did not complain because she taught class 7, a very basic one, yet she used translation and respectively was noticed by the inspector and the expert teacher. She reported that she still needed to learn more about how to deal with the students, planning and improving herself as a teacher. Veenman (1984) referred to lacking such knowledge as something usual among beginner teachers. However, the situation of the arts group, in particular, Sam and Jory and Eve, and Shd was serious as they were not formally qualified to be teachers and did not hold a teaching qualification. Furthermore, they were obliged to teach different specializations among which were teaching engineering, basic science and English. The syllabi are kinds of English for specific purposes and represent challenges for the teachers, particularly the NGTs.

By going back to their comments during the interviews and the observational data, it was apparent that the teachers mentioned above did not have that PK that could support them at their early stage. They might have looked for it at that time, but the tension was still at its peak and they could not experience the CoP and its essential features as visualized by Wenger (1998). They could not find that mutual engagement and experience their colleagues' accountability that would enable them to find responses to their inquiries. The tension created by the conflict contributed to increasing the gaps among colleagues in school. Therefore, my interpretation of my observation indicates that interaction was limited. Many teachers came to classes and left as soon as they finished. Others stayed away from the staff room to avoid confrontation.

It is the situation in the Libyan context that teachers are involved in teaching without prior preparation or training. This might be related to the shortage of staff and the social restriction that enforces some females to become teachers as it is a socially accepted job (see 1. 6) although they were not prepared to be teachers. Such a situation exacerbates teachers' suffering and hinders their integration, development and learning. It pre-exists the conflict and there was no evidence to suggest its relationship with the conflict. However, the conflict exacerbates their suffering and anxiety by precluding the formation of CoP and widening the gaps between colleagues.

7.8 Graduates of teacher training colleges

The second group consisted of Amal, Rab, Sha (Tripoli Castle), Hay and Sarah (Al-Manahal School) and Nawal, (The White School). They graduated from two institutions for teacher training, had been awarded BAs and were supposed to be involved in teaching English at different levels of school. They studied similar subjects, some of which were of relevance to teaching and pedagogy, regardless of the institutions (see table 3 and 4). Examining the teachers' transcripts from these institutions, it is clear that they studied similar subjects of great relevance to teaching such as Teaching Methodology, Instructional Strategies, Teaching Practice (see table 4 and 5 in 2.9.1).

However, they did not have any TP or training as part of their teacher preparation programme that would enable them to perceive realistic views of teaching and recognize the realities of classroom life (Johnson, 1996a). Examining their transcripts also indicated that their study was mainly connected with learning the language itself more than teaching it (see tables 3 and 4). The time allotted to learning the language, that is the subject matter was relatively insufficient and did not seem to qualify them to teach specialized secondary school curricula of specializations, a kind of English for specific purposes, as all the groups argued. For instance, Sarah (Al-Manahal School) commented;

Sarah: The curriculum is intensive, a lot of things I have not studied broadly and more than what I studied. There are a lot of terms which we don't know. There should be an intensive and dense programme. I do not know where the mistake was but I feel the lack of something (3).

Rab also referred to the lack of content in her studies at the institute, which contributed to her lack of SK. She stated,

Rab: I had never been taught at the institute topic such as the prefix and the suffix. I have not taken these when I was at the institute. I have not known them (3).

Sarah (The Al-Manahal School) Rab, Amall (Tripoli Castle) complained about what they studied and how it was insufficient compared to university programme in terms of CK about the language itself. They also complained about studying some subjects in Arabic such as political orientation, statistics, which they thought were not useful to them and affected the time allocated to the main subjects in English (see table 3 and 4). However, Nawal and Sha in this group did not complain about the subjects they were teaching because they were teaching basic education curricula to clauses 5 and 7 while Amall, Sarah and Hay complained about the subjects they taught. For instance, Sarah as stated

above, found the secondary school syllabi very intensive and containing a lot of information of engineering, which she had never known about and she had not studied anything related to them. Likewise, Hay was obliged to teach third year students who had to take the national exam of secondary school diploma.

Hay: Certainly it [the syllabus] is difficult to teach third year secondary school. It is not easy; they must understand and you have to complete the curriculum (syllabi). You wonder whether you will be able to complete it or not.

Although she was appointed at the beginning of the second semester, she had to cover the syllabi and be sure that they understood everything. She was under pressure and fear from this. Based on my observation and the interview data, my interpretation suggests that Sarah and Hay had difficulties in teaching secondary school curricula. The head inspector of Tripoli inspection office also referred to that.

Ahmed: The second problem many teachers suffer from [secondary school curricula] and have led some [teachers] to evade teaching in secondary schools. They had bewilderment [confusion] at the beginning in the first years and now it has become less as they have adjusted themselves and gained experience and they try to correct their information from an engineer, a chemist, an economist and so on so they can deal with this specialist subject and this is a problem.

Amall in particular argued that what she studied was insufficient and she did not gain much during her studies:

Amall: I wanted to learn the language. What I have learnt is insufficient (3).

From the interviews, I noticed that they compared what they studied with what university graduates did. They perceived this as being insufficient. They might be right as they were awarded the same degree and would be involved in teaching where they experienced what they think of as “the gap”.

However, from the observation, it can be interpreted that Amall had problems with SK, PK and confidence in herself. She did prepare her lesson and she was unable to benefit from the teacher’s book as she stated:

Amall: the teacher book is difficult and confusing, I need to translate every word to understand what I should do if I really understand what I translate. Translating every word is time consuming. I have tried it, explanation and explanation (1).

The inspector also reported her dissatisfaction with her performance in class as she relied on translation most of the time, although she taught class five, very basic level. She did not think of using simple teaching aids instead of translation and as a means to engage the students. Furthermore, and based on my observation, she finished her classes early and she did not know to engage the students in different activities which can be interpreted as a lack of knowledge: SK, and PK. The teachers were not adequately prepared to teach all levels. The contents of the courses they studied at university or institutes might not have equipped them with sufficient knowledge for teaching. What was mentioned illustrated the extent of the teachers’ lack of knowledge they had and the contribution of their teacher preparation programmes.

What is noticeable is that those teachers, both the arts graduates and those from teacher training institutes and colleges, could not find that cooperating atmosphere that supported them to overcome some of their problems. They were appointed at the time when although the main military actions had stopped in many parts of the country, the political

conflict still continued. That situation has created massive tension that hardened their situations. Teachers in schools were concerned about their own affairs and they had that reserve which I noticed in their behaviour, in their way of speaking and the messages on their faces.

In terms of training both groups had the same situation, they did not have the TP stage as part of their teaching preparation programme or any training during their studies or before starting teaching; a common feature of the Libyan situation. This has no relation to the conflict. It is the paradox that teacher training colleges and institutes still have TP as a main subject in the transcript of their graduates whereas students have not experienced it practically for a long time. The NGTs in the second group had it theoretically represented in notes and tips the tutors gave to students (see 5. 2.3).

7.9 My comments on the main complaints

It terms of support and training it was common among the participants that they were not aware of the role of the expert teachers available in some schools. Sam is such example of them:

*Sam: This is my first time I hear about her from you.
I heard about the most experienced teacher.
Honestly, I have not looked for her and I do not
know her (2).*

It was surprising that all the NGTs had no idea about the expert teacher. Many reasons stood behind such unawareness. The conflict might be the significant factor that hindered communication.

The expert teachers were not available in all schools because of the shortage of teachers of English. There had not been many newly appointed teachers for the last few years. In addition, some teachers quit teaching and started new careers as a result of the conflict.

The expert teachers themselves were involved in teaching and they had their workloads. From my interviews, the expert teachers stated that their supervision was based on their expertise and their interest to help their colleagues, although they had never taken any training in coaching student-teachers or any language refresher courses during their professional life, as Star and Samer stated. The head of the inspection office referred to their potential unawareness of the new curricula as some expert teachers graduated very long ago, before adoption of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and thus, they did not assign new ones, giving priority to providing classes with teachers of English at the time. The other issue is the socially perceived view that considers seeking others' help as a sign of weakness; Amall referred to that (see 6.5). Thus, Amall, Sam, Eve, Jory, Sarah, Rab and Ghada did not go and seek their colleagues' help or look for the expert teachers. The expert teacher themselves did not introduce themselves to the NGTs, which might be related to the view that the one who needs help has to look for it; a socially constructed view in the Libyan context. The NGTs in their turn might assume that the expert teacher would come to them willingly offering her academic support even without their seeking it. My observation indicated that the expert and the experienced teachers would do this if the NGTs had first expressed their interest in her support.

It was remarkable that all the participants considered developing themselves as their own affair. They all had developed autonomization, which was exacerbated by the conflict. Therefore, the NGTs did not refer to their colleagues in school or the expert or experienced teachers if they were available. This is not surprising as these teachers could not find that community that assisted them. They did not experience the community or find that accountability from their colleagues. They struggled in their early days; something common among teachers. Moreover, that atmosphere compelled them to autonomization as a means, which illustrates the sensitivity of the situation. Thus, they referred to self-dependence in terms of developing themselves, which was manifested in joining private courses that enable them to prove their language in general. Some expressed their great interest in developing themselves, yet the private courses were not

affordable to all. They stated that as soon as they got paid they would look for them. Sam, for instance, decided to join a course and she intended not to wait for the MoE to arrange some.

It was also noticeable that all the NGTs had the intention to get any training offered by the MoE or any other organisations. Firstly, my interpretation of their intention indicates that they perceived their lack of SK and PK as mentioned earlier once they experienced the reality of teaching. Secondly, eight of them could not afford to pay for private courses, particularly, that of relevance to teaching. Thirdly, they might worry about losing their jobs if any reports were to be presented to the education authority. At the time of data generation, there was no evidence of any training as the country was still recovering from the consequences of the military actions. The aim at that time was to resume study by any means. However, the EDC had an ambitious plan to train all EFL teachers and enable them to become CLTA holders as part of complete professional development.

7.10 Teacher Development

RQ3- How do those teachers perceive the development of their knowledge, and identities as teachers of English?

7.10.1 Introduction

It was noticeable that all the participants of this study perceived developing themselves as a very crucial issue, and one which was the individual's own responsibility. This can be interpreted as their realization that they were not adequately prepared to teach the new curriculum, especially those in secondary school such as Eve, Jory, Hay, Sam, Sarah and Shd. They encountered serious difficulties with teaching of great relevance to SK and PK. The situation of Sam and teaching writing to specialist students, Jory and Amall and their continuous use of translation might be evidence of such difficulties. They might worry about losing their position in school if reports were to be submitted to the

education authority determining their levels. They had the interest to develop themselves, especially those interested in teaching such as Rab, Sha and Sarah and Nawal.

7.11 Teachers' perceptions of themselves

According to their perceptions and identification of themselves, the teachers were divided into three groups: unqualified, beginner and looking forward to be qualified. For first category, who thought of themselves as unqualified, this indicated their lack of confidence as EFL teachers as well as their lack of SK (Elbaz, 1981) and PK which represents the knowledge base for teaching (Shulman, 1987). Their lack might be related to their teaching preparation programme or their individual weak level of English.

In the first group, for instance, Sam (Al-Manahal School) found herself appointed to a secondary school and teaching writing and grammar to a second year specialist group (See Sam's profile). She started late and was shocked by her students' weak level.

Sam: I was shocked that they are unable to write an introduction, the main body and the closing part. This means I have to start from the beginning to teach them how to write (3).

She was confused as she did not study subjects relating to teaching (see Sam's profile).

Sam: I wondered how I was going to teach them in addition to my lack of teaching knowledge or teaching methods because I haven't studied anything relating to teaching methodology (1).

Amall (Tripoli Castle) was similar to Sam, but with a difference; she graduated from a teacher training institute. She lacked confidence in her English ability.

Amall: I am not a qualified teacher. I still lack a lot in grammar in conversation, a lot (1).

What Amall mentioned indicated that she had problems with her English as she tried to understand the teacher's book through translation, however she did not find it useful. This can indicate her lack of SK as categorized by Shulman (1987). She also overused translation, although she was teaching class 5 a very beginner level, which can be taught without translation or just using very simple teaching aids. Something remarkable about Amall was that she spent 7 years waiting for employment in the state sector, which might have contributed to the loss of her capacity in English, and motivation in teaching. Then suddenly she was involved in teaching without any training or induction. She also confirmed that she did not work hard,

Amall: This difficulty comes from what I say, lack of effort on my side (2).

As a result of that, she was convinced of her inability to teach other classes at that time. Therefore, she preferred not to risk herself and her students. She did not accept teaching other levels hoping to improve herself gradually. She also asserted that she came to teach and went home to carry out housework. This might be a reflection of her lack of interest or her family's restrictions, which limited her time to classes only. There were no opportunities to communicate with other teachers.

Amall: I come to school to teach and go home to find something different. At home, they say to me, you have classes at 11, leave at 11. Come back in so... time, no later (2).

There was no time devoted to improving herself or seeking colleagues' support. It might be related to the tension and the insecure situation at that time. She also understood that

the age barrier hindered the mutual understanding. She perceived the idea sensitively; if you were a beginner, you knew less than the experienced.

Amall: There are still some (teachers) in the school who still have the view in terms of age difference; you are younger than me... (2).

Amall also experienced situations when her colleagues dealt with her in a way as if they were annoyed by her questions: which inhibited her and led her to avoid asking them.

Amall: I do not ask Rab. Rab is very formal; I do not have much contact with her. I feel Sara is closer to me (2).

Another indicator of Amall's lack of confidence in her English was her view that she would not ask colleagues with the same qualification and who graduated from the institution in which she studied. She might have had that fear of losing her position as a teacher, if other teachers knew her difficulties. Thus, she limited her contact with them. This might be a socially based view, but it might be strengthened by the conflict.

Hay (Al-Manahal School) in the second category who considered themselves as beginners, but did not voice that explicitly. She looked forward to being a qualified EFL teacher with a unique identity. Working with the private sector raised her awareness of what it meant to be qualified; the option of work, and security from the threat of expulsion at any time.

Hay: In the private sector, you cannot ensure your rights and at any moment they dismiss you.

With a good qualification, she would not be in a position of having to accept employers that she did not like. She realized the importance of being qualified and this can be

interpreted as that she perceived herself as less qualified although she did not state that explicitly. Thus, she took language courses to improve her language and become a more qualified teacher. Furthermore, Hay might have had a hidden fear of losing her position like Amall above.

The last category included those teachers who perceived themselves as actual beginners in terms of experience. For instance, Jory, Eve and Shd used translation because they lacked the means by which they could explain their lessons in English. For instance, Ghada referred to that.

Ghada: She (the inspector) told me there is no need to translate these words in Arabic since these words can be demonstrated by using realia or visual aids. She insists on using English as much as possible and avoiding Arabic as much as possible (1).

Ghada was convinced that she did not have expertise, although she taught for a short period with the private sector.

Ghada: lesson planning, I need to organize it; by following a new pattern. In general, I feel I still need more to tackle teaching properly (1).

What Ghada mentioned is related to the lack of PK; something common among beginner teachers everywhere. Lesson planning had been a completely new activity for her because she did not study subjects relating to planning (see Ghada's profile appendix 2).

Sarah, however, who graduated from a teacher training institute, did not have a lesson plan notebook when the inspector visited her.

Sarah: I had not had a lesson plan notebook because I have not known how to plan my lessons up to now. I do not know how to prepare my lesson and

I have not found someone who could help me in this issue (1).

Sarah did not know how to plan a lesson because she did not study any materials related to that. She also did not have the TP stage that would have familiarized her with it. From that can be anticipated that she did not study or get training on lesson planning. She also tried to seek her colleagues' help.

Sarah: I have asked the new teachers who have been appointed recently like me, but I have found them in the same situation and they are suffering from the same problem. They do not know the method; some have started while others have not done it yet. Some take notes and ideas from the teacher's book while some asked former teachers and they provide them with notes. Since we teach different curriculum, our planning is different (1).

However, she asked an experienced teacher.

Sarah: I have asked Miss Khdeja, but she gave me an idea; an introduction, new words to introduce or a new structure to be practiced and the questions to be asked to students and that is all. What you are going to do in class has to be written in the notebook.

Sarah might not know the main processes of planning and that was why she found the experienced teacher's explanation insufficient although the expert teacher showed her her notebook. She looked for a detailed plan which the experienced teacher did not offer her. This can be related to the reasons mentioned earlier.

7.12 Perception of training and development

From the interviews, all the participants had positive attitudes towards training and development. This can be interpreted in relation to the points mentioned above. In

addition, they had expectation that the new regime of the post-conflict would pay a great attention to reform education in general and offer adequate training to teachers.

Teachers like Nawal (The White School) perceived a gradual professional development through continuous training as the means of keeping in contact with development, in teaching and awareness with the curricula. Likewise, Rab (Tripoli Castle) looked forward to having courses which would help her improve her language and develop her as a qualified teacher. On the other side, Shd and Sarah (Al-Manahal School) focused on instant development because they were struggling with challenging issues at that time such as PK, CK and lack of confidence (see discussion R.Q.3).

Noticeably all the participants considered developing themselves as an individual concern that had to be autonomously achieved depending on the financial situations. Such a view can be interpreted as some teachers, such as Jory (Al-Manahal school) not finding conditions which might support any potential training. None of her colleagues showed any sign of support and she was instantly handed her teaching load, although she asked them to let her have a week to observe some teachers.

Jory: I told them that I was frightened to the extent that I couldn't go to class. It was my first day as a teacher. I told them that I wouldn't like to have classes these days till I get used to the school and teaching atmosphere. This would give me the opportunity to see teachers and ask them how they prepare lessons and handle teaching issues (1).

Whereas Amall, Rab (Tripoli Castle), Sam and Sarah (Al-Manahal school), meanwhile, did not experience colleagues' accountability at that time. They sought their help, but they could not receive an encouraging reply. They did not experience a CoP. They did not feel their colleagues concerns about "what they are doing and what is happening to

them and around them” (Wenger, 1998, p. 81) at that time when they were in their urgent need. Rab summarized that situation.

Rab: I went once with Miss Amani, but I have felt that they reject the idea of observing them completely. Honestly, I do not know, but I feel that each wants to be free in teaching her class. I remember at the beginning when I came asking them to see their ways of teaching (3).

The teachers’ reaction and response made Rab and Sam reluctant to re-ask any other teachers. Such a situation hindered establishment of mutual understanding. They found that their colleagues were not interested in what Wenger identifies as “negotiating a joint enterprise” and sharing their “mutual engagement” (1998, p. 73).

Sam: I have asked one of the teachers, but I have understood that she was reluctant; she was not satisfied. Anything comes unwillingly I do not like it (3).

Furthermore, Rab asked to observe a colleague, but she understood that their interest was only to hand her the class without caring about her request. Situations like these contributed to deepening the gap of age and experience between the NGTs and their colleagues. Cooperation and the growth of accountability would be difficult to achieve.

Rab: She (Amani) told me that it is not important and each has to go to her class. I have noticed that their major concern was to get rid of the classes (3).

Sam and Rab’s experiences suggest that it is just as important for the experienced colleagues to feel confidence in those below them. When left to themselves, Rab and Sam would have indecision and stress, which, demotivated them rather than assisted their integration. This supports the view of Hodkinson et al. (2008) that if the learning

atmosphere is not supportive and tension exists in the working place, the possibility of effective learning became minimal. This might also lead Sam and Eve to isolate themselves from their group, a consequence identified by De Lima as “trained for isolation” (2003). Thus, one suspects that incidents like these compelled Sam, Rab, Eve, Shd to move to more solitary practice. They thought of joining general courses as a means to improve their language in general. It was the tension created by the conflict that spoiled the relationships between colleagues and formality was the master of the situation. The conflict has diminished the collegial relationships and each was concerned with her own welfare. Accountability as theorized by Wenger (1998) was not existent.

The social perception; not revealing one’s weakness to others played a specific role in the formation of their views which pre-existed the conflict, but it might be exacerbated by it. Therefore, they considered the education authority as the reliable sponsor of training which is secure, authorized and socially accepted. In addition, joining courses depending on their financial situation was another option. It is noteworthy they did not refer to colleagues as members in a community of teachers for instance, because they did not find that community to rely on.

7.13 Identity construction

The participants’ view about developing themselves as EFL teachers went along with their view of developing their identity as Libyan females. As Wenger (1998) indicates, that identity is not separable from learning and becoming. Lave and Wenger (1991) also consider learning not confined to performing certain activities within a community, but also involves the construction of identity. For the NGTs building identity includes both being identified as teachers and Libyan females which are inseparable and in harmony with one another. They were looking to becoming certain people as Wenger (1998) demonstrates.

In the community the acquisition of knowledge as a product of participation is “answered in terms of identity formation” (Fuller, 2007, p. 19). Hodkinson et al. think of learning as becoming and becoming through learning (2008, p. 41). An individual is constantly exposed to opportunities to learn according to the different circumstances and therefore, building identity is a growing process. The situation of Sam, Eve, Jory, Shd and Hay (Al-Manahal School) elaborated their view of building their identity from a distinctive perspective. For instance, they looked forward to becoming different people corresponding with Wenger’s view. In their schools, they learned various issues that helped them build their identity in diverse ways. Sam, Eve, Shd (Al-Manahal School) were not interested in teaching and they did not plan to stay in it. Then they might not develop that sense of belonging to their current profession, although they were still learning and building their identity. They did not have the intention of belonging, though they wanted to develop themselves and become different people (see. 6.18 and 6.18.1). They struggled for becoming and that was why Sam, Eve, Shd and Ghada accepted teaching as a profession, despite their reluctance, however, it was not necessarily belonging. It was some new position which is divergent from belonging in Wenger’s theorization. Applying Wenger’s ideas in an Arabic context, I found a different understanding of belonging. It emerges as a need to prove one’s being identified as a female having certain characteristics and gives her sense to life. It might diminish marginalization or eradicate it completely in some cases. Thus, these Libyan females insisted upon being employed because it provides meaningful life. It is noteworthy that the NGTs had a new identity shaped out of the borders constructed by the family. This was manifested in an intention to be financially independent, as Sam and Shd (Al-Manahal School) identified. Shd rubbed her fingers together in a symbolic way referring to money while Sam expressed that clearly.

*Sam: I want to be financially independent,
financially responsible for myself (3).*

There is another type of becoming as Eve stated below which is considered essential to Libyan females; something might be seen as common if looked at from a western view. This corresponds with Wenger's view of becoming a different person (1998) and "being recognized as a certain "kind of person," in a given context" is what she meant by identity (Gee, 2000, p. 99).

Eve: When I was a student, I was dependent on my family; they do everything for me. Now I have to do everything, look for it (3).

As a result of this, Eve moved slowly towards becoming a new Eve, who was responsible for herself, a partial independence, which would enable her to know and experience the world with her own thoughts. Her identity would grow out of her family restriction, which was considered an achievement not only for Eve, but to all the participants. They were struggling for becoming in the Libyan sense which is similar to Wenger's view.

Shd, Amall, Hay, Sha, Jory did not differ from Sam in their consideration of becoming financially independent. This is a social view which regards financial independence as a form of becoming a different person, a view which does not correspond totally with Wenger's (1998) view of becoming as part of learning.

Jory: First I want to build my identity. Finally the financial side will make me self-dependent. It is ok; I am not in need to money at the present time, but I don't know what might happen (1).

Amall: I wanted to work to get money. Money completes this [self-achievement] without money we can't do anything and can't live (1).

They did not refer to belonging to a professional CoP because they did not experience it with all its essential features as demonstrated by Wenger (1998). They may have an expectation of it in their workplace as Jory stated,

Jory: I used to give my class and go home. My impression is not like this; I thought there is a staff room where I can sit and chat and there are some who bring breakfast and eat together, do you understand! I have not found such atmosphere (2).

Jory's expectation was to find colleagues who would share certain issues together such as talking about personal or professional affairs of relevance to their teaching, dealing with social situations as usual. However, she noticed the difference.

Jory: I have felt that everyone is in a different direction; everyone is in a position; you do not feel that the school works together; everyone is in a position; everyone in a direction. You do not feel they are a school together (2).

Such an atmosphere did not encourage Jory, Sam, Shd to stay longer in school. They gave their classes and went home. Learning events and forms of participation became limited and so was the integration. Therefore, those teachers did not experience CoP. They did not refer to belonging to it as it did not exist. When asked, they demonstrated individuality as mentioned above. The focus on identity includes both participation and non-participation, inclusion and exclusion as "our identity includes our ability and our inability to shape the meanings that define our communities and our forms of belonging" (Wenger, 1998, p. 145). They were building their identity but did not find a community in which they participate or not. They did not experience its existence with its essential features as envisaged by Wenger yet their becoming was active.

On the other side, Sha and Jory, were determined to build their identity as Libyan females first and as a self-achievement. For instance, Sha had spent about seven years waiting for employment doing housework only. She felt the importance of being identified as teacher Sha which was different from Sha alone. She felt marginalized without work and perceived teaching as becoming another Sha who struggled hard to achieve.

Sha: I think getting a job is not only earning money, but it is also self-achievement (1).

For Jory, teaching enabled her to become financially self-dependent as a means to secure the future. It was also the source of entertainment, the window through which she knew, and observed the world around her.

Jory: For me work will give me opportunities to communicate with people and how to deal with people (1).

Jory and Sha's perception of building identity might mirror the situation of a large number of Libyan females. Hay, meanwhile, focused on the qualification by having other certificates that demonstrate her competence, which is becoming as a means to build her identity. She looked for another becoming, being a competent in the language which would add other qualities to her as a Libyan female. As a competent teacher, she can get other jobs anywhere. However, she did not refer to any community for the reasons already mentioned above.

Hodkinson & Hodkinson (2008) comment that movement into a new profession is not a smooth process, something confirmed by the findings of this study. The transition was influenced by the trilogy; conflict and the social and personal situation which varied from one teacher to another. Therefore, the linear trajectory from novice to full participants as suggested by Lave & Wenger (1991) was not easy for the participants of this study. Some

would militate to reach full participation while others would not do as they did not think of teaching as their permanent career. Certainly the identity and values of the NGTs developed, but they learned new things which may also be a factor in their identity change (Orr, 2009). There is evidence that what they were learning was not useful because some such as Sam and Eve learned isolation (De Lima, 2003). They did not have any intention to become integrated.

To sum up the discussion of how the NGTs perceived the development of their knowledge and their identities as EFL teachers, I noticed their interest in developing themselves autonomously which indicates their understanding of the context and how to cope with the changes that are currently happening. Building their identities as Libyan females was their concern; another change which may affect their identity construction. It is noteworthy that no reference to their professional community was included in their views of developing themselves and constructing their identities. The reasons that might stand behind their view is the conflict with all its all political and social sides that precluded the existence of CoP as theorized by Wenger (1998).

7.14 A critique of CoP conceptualization

7.14.1 Introduction

Although CoP as theory has taken me so far and greatly aided my analysis and understanding of my data, I find it is necessary to shed light on the criticism raised against situated learning and CoP by many researchers. I have selected particular areas of criticism that are of relevance to my research; antagonism and building identity (becoming). There are other critiques of CoP which I have chosen not to deal with here because I do not want to repeat what may be irrelevant to my study, such as applying some ideas of CoP in companies. I preferred to add my own critique that comes from my own understanding of (the) theory following its implication in the post- conflict Libya.

7.14.2 Antagonism and the community

I use the term antagonism to differentiate from the term conflict which I have applied to the recent Libyan context. Sometimes antagonism sneaks into the communities; members bring it and the rift un-deliberately. It starts eroding the structure of the professional community. It is heightened by political, military, social or cultural sources. For instance, in the context of this study, the political and the social situation has drastically changed after the bloody conflict that hit the society leading to massive schism. The loyalty has become to the militia, the ideology, the party, and the tribe. All these affect the relationships of the entire society. With regard to the existence of a professional CoP, what was happening in schools mirrored what was going in the society. For instance, some teachers within my sample had conflicting political views as a result of the conflict. It seems difficult to have mutual engagement if there is none, like the situation of some teachers in my context. The traumatic political and social conflicts were brought to the communities did not finish with the end of the military actions which ended after the killing of the tyrant Gaddafi, the defeat of his troops and the fleeing of his loyalists. Moreover, the impacts of the deadly military actions flourish more when people tend to express their intention to join a diversity of political parties or associations or express their attitudes towards the opposite sides. These potential members of the community would not effectively interact and participate in the community activities. They may be excluded or marginalized or they may leave the community entirely (Colley et al., 2007) when they could not tolerate the situation. They may also be behind preventing the newcomers to join the community. In situations like these, developing identity and belonging are questioned. The existence of such antagonism within a CoP is not easy to overcome. People have become protective of themselves and they protect those who they know; a matter of having tribal, political and social loyalty. In this case one asks whether there a professional CoP can exist. If there are any, do such members participant in community activities? Do they learn, develop identity, have mutual engagement, joint enterprise and share accountability? The data revealed that the antagonism precluded the

formation of a CoP completely and this may continue for decades because of the social and cultural perspectives associated with antagonism.

Arguably Lave and Wenger (1991) and Wenger (1998), did not put into consideration that antagonism can exist and preclude the development of a professional community. This is simply because Wenger's theorization was based on western values which are divergent from the Libyan and Middle Eastern ones where the trilogy of the political and social personal values merges to enrich antagonism. Wenger only made the conflict simple and limited it to certain areas that would not affect the development of a professional community.

7.14.3 Other sources of conflict

In terms of participation in CoP, Wenger acknowledges that “a community of practice is neither a haven of togetherness nor an island of intimacy insulated from political and social relations. Disagreement, challenges, and competition can all be forms of participation” (1998, p. 77). Arguably a community may experience a form of conflict, competition and opposition rather than agreement. Individuals belonging to different communities may bring different values, views, skills and knowledge which may contradict with the norms of the community and stimulate such forms. However, the theory does not devote analysis, interpretation of the origins, forms or effects of the conflict (Jewson, 2007). To the contrary, Wenger assumes “that a degree of innovation and creativity in their activities that contrasts with the dead hand of bureaucracy ” (ibid, p. 72) while he warns of possible “negative effects” (1998, p. 85), but with no elaboration about the source and the impacts. This view opens a debate of the nature, sources and the extent of conflict in the broadest sense. Wenger has only identified one systemic source of tension; generational struggle: issues of how age, that is the tension between the newcomers and the old timers (1998). Certainly age as a barrier might be a source of tension when it is exacerbated by social and cultural factors. For instance, some of the NGTs found age to be a strong barrier that hindered their integration and lead

some of them to isolation, as has been discussed. Amall, Rab (Tripoli Castle), Nawal (The White School) and Shd (Al-Manahal School) meant that age played a role in communication. They thought that if you were young and new, the relationships were limited and of formal status. Such conditions widened the gap and hindered the mutual engagement and led some to isolate themselves. I argue here that Lave & Wenger (1991) and Wenger (1998) did not anticipate the effect of age simply because they did not visualize its cultural and social roots. They conceived it from a western view, which is not applicable in Middle Eastern contexts like the context of this study where the trilogy of culture and social or personal perspectives work together.

Neither Lave & Wenger (1991) nor Wenger (1998) anticipate that nepotism might be a factor that hinders or facilitates the professional community. This might be related to the conceptualization of situated learning and community of practice which comes from western values and views; something does not exist in the west. In a Middle Eastern country nepotism can hinder or facilitate mutual engagement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire. It is exacerbated by the antagonism to the furthest extent. Nepotism is one of the issues that facilitated the integration, learning and development of Sha in Tripoli Castle. She received support; academic and emotional support from her mother's friends. Such support enhanced Sha's situation compared to her colleague Amall who could not access it simply because she did not know any of the teachers. Rab in the same school did not find encouragement from her colleagues to attend classes with them to observe how they would carry out the lesson, a contradictory situation in the same school (see discussion R.Q.3). The role of nepotism, a social loyalty perspective is still active in the context of this study.

Wenger (1998) does not anticipate that the conflict might be between the newcomers themselves and the old timers themselves when ideology, political and tribal loyalty lead any participation. Some teachers did not sit in the staffroom trying to avoid the

confrontation between teachers of different loyalty (see 6.17): the conflict and its consequences.

7.14.4 A new view of becoming

Wenger (1998) connected learning with becoming, the belonging to a particular profession or a professional community. Building identity is “developing sense of belonging to a community of practice defined by distinctive social characteristics of mutual engagement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire” (Jewson, 2007, p. 70). It “consists of negotiating the meanings of our experience of membership in social communities” (Wenger, 1998, p. 145). Wenger also argues that becoming entails “viewing the very definition of individuality as something that is part of the practice of specific communities” (ibid, p.146). One’s identity “is produced as a lived experience of participation in specific communities” (ibid, p. 151). Membership of a community of practice “translates into an identity as a form of competence” (ibid, p. 153). What Wenger theorizes about identity construction is applicable when there is a CoP and actual participation. Participants develop a sense of belonging as a product of their learning and experiencing the richness of CoP through engagement.

The social and cultural constraints pressurize females to be in certain jobs or professions and make them appear to be practitioners in their communities. The sense of suitability for a certain type of work for females is socially and culturally constructed. Sam, Hay Eve, Rab and Ghada and Shd did not choose teaching as a profession, yet they accepted it. Females in such situations may not identify with the community and they wait for an opportunity to get another job other than teaching. Arguably, they have no concern with what happens to the community because they had not had the sense of belonging to it. For all the NGTs as Libyan females, becoming includes both being identified as EF teachers and Libyan females which are inseparable and in harmony with one another. They were seeking to become certain people, having partial independence which varies from one case to another yet it does not necessarily include belonging. The two forms of

belonging are different from that of Wenger. The teachers did refer to belonging simply because there was no community to which they could belong. They could not experience it as theorized by Wenger. They were becoming and recognized as Sam, Eve, Shd and the others who had certain characteristics. They struggled for building their identities out of their family's frames which is different from Wenger's view of becoming. They accepted teaching as a temporary profession though many were not interested in. They know what it adds to them in a society that tends to frame females in terms of work and independence. For instance, Sam would be Sam an EFL teacher and other associated features socially identified. I argue that becoming in the Libyan sense and for females means life, freedom, and dignity which all constitute identity in a non-western society. It opens a window to them to make decision, participate in social and may be political activities.

It might be understood as something common and easy, if one takes a bus from one city to another for his or her job, but it means a lot to a Libyan female like Eve who commuted at that insecure time. The tenacity of Eve to be recognized as Eve as she wanted to be not as her family would, is another form of identity beyond that of the theory. It is also the tenacity of all the NGTs to wait for their payment which was late. They did not quit or stop coming although they were aware of the situation. They struggled hard to be recognized as EFL teachers as part of their identity. Therefore they had to continue to fulfill the other part; become financially independent, autonomous and have a different life which is beyond simply having payback; it is about the sense of identity.

In order to achieve this becoming a different person, not necessarily a teacher for example, Rab, Ghada, Hay and Shd accepted working within the private sector with a minimal wage, full teaching load and being under threat of dismissal at any time. They considered that as a stage to be accepted and identified as EFL teachers which would allow them to have a better chance somewhere although the country was in war. That

was a courageous decision of establishing themselves. Furthermore, they planned to have courses as a means to developing themselves as EFL teachers and did not rely on the potential courses sponsored by MoE. They would sacrifice in order to achieve their major goal, building identity.

7.14.5 Chapter Summary

In this chapter I discussed the finding of this study. The discussion started by presenting the main points covered in this part. This included the significant experiences of the teachers and the reasons behind them. The contribution of the conflict in formation of these experiences was apparent. Issues of training and development revealed the link between the NGTs' experiences and teacher preparation programme. Identity formation was viewed differently from how Wenger (1998) viewed it. The last part dealt with a critique of CoP as a theory of learning. This critique deals with different ideas that have not been considered before and have emerged as a result of operationalization of CoP in a Middle Easter country involved in a trilogy of conflict of political, social or cultural and personal dimensions.

Chapter 8: Conclusion and Recommendations

8.1 Introduction

This chapter draws together conclusions and implications of this research. It starts by presenting a brief overview of the research aim and the methodology employed for the data generation. Then a summary of the main findings is provided. Finally, the limitations of the study are discussed together with recommendations for further research.

8.2 Summary of the Main Findings

The purpose of study was to investigate the experience of eleven NGTs of English as a foreign language in their first year of teaching in the post-conflict Libyan context. Of a particular interest, was exploring the factors that shaped their experiences and the adequacy of support that they received in the transition to the actual teaching in Libyan state run schools. The study was interested in obtaining a deep understanding of the NGTs' perspectives about how they perceived their involvement in teaching and the way they viewed themselves as qualified EFL teachers. It went further to investigate their views of professional development and constructing their identity as teachers and Libyan females with reference to the impact of the conflict on the formation of these views.

My data collection procedures were informed by the conceptualization of communities of practice right from the beginning of this study. Nevertheless, the fact that the conceptualization of CoP in Wenger's sense does not really exist yet I was looking for that and it helped me to make that decision. The main findings of this study have shown that those first years' experiences were difficult and complex processes influenced by a great number of factors related to the context such as the conflict, teachers' own characteristics, such as their level of English and their interest in teaching. The results also highlighted that the teaching preparation programmes and the types of study at the institutions, contributed to shaping their experiences and perceptions of teaching,

learning developing themselves and constructing their identity. It was evident that the conceptualization of communities of practice was precluded by the conflict. The NGTs did not have opportunities of learning and benefiting from the richness of its features: mutual engagement, shared repertoire and joint enterprise to learn and develop themselves as qualified teachers. It was evident on creating opportunities of learning and development.

The NGTs' problems seem to be the result of the discrepancies between what they studied at their institutions and the demands of teaching at different levels, particularly at secondary schools. For instance, graduates of teacher training institutes were dissatisfied with the adequacy of preparation they received in teacher training institute and the absence of training whereas other graduates of faculty of arts and the college of education found no relationships between what they studied and what they were experiencing at that time.

By operationalizing CoP conceptualization that has allowed me to interpret my data to suggest that there are no meaningful communities. There are no meaningful interactions because of the conflict, and the social restriction. The on-going trilogy of the conflict of its three sides: the political, the social and the personal precluded the existence of conceptualization of CoP and the possibilities of learning and development beyond formal training and qualifications reached the lowest extent. The NGTs' reserve and the social construction of their values and their roles hindered the opportunities for learning and development. CoP as a conceptualization might be successful in other contexts, for instance, western ones because the conflict with its trilogy mentioned above did not exist. In situations like the NGTs in the Libyan context, I do not expect them to develop a lot of knowledge and build their identity as qualified EFL teachers just as being involved in teaching. Furthermore, some of them would be marginalized and isolated from their colleagues (De Lima, 2003). They could not afford having specialist courses because of their cost and accessibility all in terms of time and destination.

8.3 Contribution to Knowledge

The study is a contribution to knowledge as it explored the experiences and perspectives of a sample of newly graduated Libyan teachers of English in post-conflict Libya. This is the first study conducted in this post-conflict context to include this category of teachers. I applied communities of practice as the conceptual framework and operationalized its elements to analyze my data and this approach is also new in studying teachers' experiences. The findings of this study reveal that the conflict precluded the development of communities of practice and therefore these teachers had limited opportunities for learning and developing themselves. The application of Wenger's communities of practice theory to a novel context; the unique context of post conflict- Libya with all its political, cultural and social complexity is a significant contribution to the knowledge. My unique position as a researcher who is culturally, linguistically and professionally an insider to the context of the research illustrates my immersion in the context transferring a clear picture of conflict and the extent its effects. This insider position gave me unique opportunities to magnify the instants of the participants and decode their verbal and physical responses. An outsider to the cultural context may not be able to decode guarded responses or hints of the participants in different occasions.

8.4 Limitation of the study

The study was significant as it provided data about the experiences and perceptions of the NGTs of English as a foreign language in the Libyan context which is considered the first study to investigate the factors contributing to these experiences in a post-conflict country. However, the study is not without limitations, for instance, the sample of this study included 4 schools in the one of the largest education offices in great Tripoli. The results of this investigation may not be an accurate representation of the experiences of the other cohorts of the NGTs in Libya or other contexts. That is because, as was emphasized throughout the thesis, the context plays a crucial role in constructing the teachers' experiences. As no two contexts are exactly identical, findings obtained in one context may not necessary be true for the other schools in other contexts. Secondly, with

reference to the first point is the notion of the generalizability of the findings from the present study. As was discussed in the methodology chapter (section 5.5.8), qualitative research generates rich and comprehensive data about the case study under investigation, but the generalizability of these results to other case studies can be very inapplicable as each context has its particularity and this is another limitation. The main research methods used to generate the data of this study are semi-structured; focus group interviews, observation and documents which have some limitations associated with their use for data generation purposes (see section 5.12.2., 5.12.4 & 5. 13), and the data generated from semi-structured focus group interviews, observation are completely self-reported which can affect the reliability of the data. In addition, the data generated for this study was based on experiences and building identity which are on-going processes that the NGTs started when they first joined the schools, institutes and colleges and which continue to be modified throughout their life. However, the research was based in a post-conflict context investigating a particular group of teachers while some of the themes that I have found may exist elsewhere; I am not claiming that it can be generalized. Nevertheless, the detailed rich description of the research processes, data generation and its triangulation validate the analysis presented in this thesis and make it possible for other researchers' judgments. The final limitation was related to the conflict and its impact on life in general. The data of this study were generated directly after the conventional conflict stopped in many parts in the country while it was in progress on other parts. The possibility of getting access to schools and teachers was not easy (see Vignettes, 1, 2 6.13.1, 6.13.2). The security of the place was another issue which impeded generating the data easily and put me at risk many times. Due to the drastic change and the transitional period the country is in, it was difficult to have access to any documents. This required me to contact many people based on personal contacts to facilitate access to old documents while new ones were not available at the time of generating the data of this study.

8.5 Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the above discussion of the limitations of the study, the next section presents a number of suggestions for further research in post-conflict situations and, mainly, teacher education. Experiences of beginner teachers need to be investigated thoroughly in order to understand the impact of the conflict on their formation and to provide them with the appropriate professional development. For the educational authority in Libya, similar research needs to be conducted in other parts of the country so as to obtain a comprehensive picture of various experiences and perceptions of newly graduated teachers in general and EFL teachers in particular. For training and teacher professional development, formal learning in the form of actual courses sponsored by MoE should be the means by which these teachers can learn, improve and develop their identity as qualified EFL teachers in light of limitation of professional communities. Teaching practice has to be considered in terms of its importance, length and what it provides to beginner teachers. Induction and in-service-training programmes need to be accessible to those teachers to help them overcome their problems and gain training and development that will assist them in their professional life. The educational authority also has to reform and re-evaluate teacher preparation programmes in order to qualify teachers to be able to teach various stages in light of the reform of curricula of diverse levels. This can include courses that qualify teachers to teach specialised courses such as those of secondary school. Encouraging teachers to join courses would enhance teacher development and making them available to all teachers to contribute to their training. Promotion and reward to the expert teachers would encourage them to provide the newly appointed teachers with the required support in the workplace. Cooperation between the expert teachers and the inspectors would reflect on the relationships with the teachers. Inspectors need training and professional development that enables them to mentor teachers adequately. Administrative staff needs to be included in training in order to contribute to teacher development.

This is a very different thesis from what I intended to write. When I left Libya in 2010, it was a stable country although of autocracy. Now the country is in turmoil. The writing of this thesis is not only analyzing that, but it reflects that (see 5.26, 6.31.1 and 6.31.2). Nevertheless I hope one day within the new Libya, some of the recommendations I have made will be implemented for the improvement of teaching and teacher education which was my first intention.

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Appendix 1-School Description and Teacher's profile

The White School

The White School is an elementary school of mixed gender at the centre of the education authority of the area. The school in general had a good reputation for its administration, teachers' qualifications and the quality of teaching so that many people from different parts of Tripoli and even outside it preferred to teach their children in it. It has a large staff; almost 98 % were Libyan female teachers.

The school is a large, composed of three floors and teaches for two periods; morning from 8:30 am to 1 pm and from 1 to 5 pm. On the first floor, there are offices, the staff room, the library, the computer lab, the laboratory, the art room, the canteen, the secretary, the assessment unit, the small theatre and other rooms. The classes are on the second and the third floors. Students have to use the steps on the right or the left sides of the wings. The classes are big, but are dim because of the bars on the windows. This made the students crowded in front and the middle of the class. It was difficult to see the board from the back. There were some charts on the walls, although they were old.

The staff room was a fairly small room, partially furnished. Some teachers sat there while others chose other places or just came on time and left straight after teaching. There were expert teachers of almost all the subjects. They were very experienced and many were awarded by the inspection office. They supervised teachers routinely and offered their academic help without being paid for it.

The school had a headmistress, a secretarial team and two male teachers as assistants. The headmistress is a quiet former Islamic education teacher and she was a political activist during the conflict as she stated. She was very understanding and cooperative woman who worked with her colleagues as a team. She was the first headmistress who

welcomed me before getting a permit letter from the education office. She was interested to be interviewed, although she was busy in the preparation of the first national election.

The school had different activity groups that carried out activities with teachers and students' participation. This included participation in local competitions on the level of the school and on the level of the education offices in Tripoli and on the level of the country every year. It was awarded some prizes for participating in some activities. In addition, it arranged local picnics to many places both for students and teachers.

Teacher's profile

Nawal

Nawal was born in 1987 in a suburb of the capital. Her father is a head of assessment and measurement department in a school in the capital and her mother is a housewife. She graduated from College of Education, University of Tripoli (See table 5).

I observed that Nawal was a serious, hard-working teacher who was motivated to learn, know more and improve herself, which came from her great interest in the profession as she informed me and attending classes with the expert teacher in her school. She was quiet while sitting in the staffroom and dealing with students in class. She was committed to her work and was very punctual in terms getting ready to class, coming for interviewing. She phoned me when she was unable to come to school one day. She was also cooperative, and satisfied to be interviewed and observed more than once. She taught class 5 primary school students and was given 15 periods (a period is 45 minutes) a week though she was recently appointed. I heard some of her colleagues' comments appreciating what she was doing.

Appendix 2: School Description and Teacher's profile

The Beam of Knowledge School

This school is big and just two minutes from The White school. It is a preparatory school for mixed gender. It also has a good reputation for its teachers' qualification and the quality of teaching. The staff were all females whereas the administrators included females and two male assistants.

It consists of three floors; the offices, labs, the library, the staffroom, the theatre and other rooms were on the first floors whereas classrooms are on the second and the third ones. There are also two yards; in front and at the back of the school. The school is big, clean, bright, well maintained and had a lot of facilities in terms of the whiteboards, the labs, the library and the availability of textbooks and the local radio station. The first floor was full of paintings, charts and posters made by teachers of different subjects. There was a door keeper who did not let anyone in or out without a permit. The secretary, the social workers and the unit of assessment and measurement had their offices where they carried out their work quietly. The staff room is one of the busiest rooms in the school. It is on the left corner from the main door not far from the headteacher's office and opposite to the administrator's office. It is big, bright and well-furnished. There were some lockers for teachers too. Although it was a big place, many teachers did not sit in it deliberately. Discussions sometimes turned into a confrontation because of the diversity of loyalty to the various groups involved in the conflict.

It was one of the schools within the area where there were two expert teachers of English. There were other expert teachers of other subjects. They fulfilled their duty willingly, although it was not included in their monthly payment. I interviewed both of them and they expressed their interest to support the teachers regardless of being new or experienced.

The headteacher is a political activist who is busy most of the time. Although she had been employed recently, she paid a lot of attention to everything in the school with the assistance of other administrators. She received visitors of different purposes and dealt with them equally. I met her twice, but I could not interview her because she was involved in the preparation for the national election. She was the sister of another headteacher. The school participates in local activities and competitions on the level of the education office and had records and won prizes.

Teacher's profiles

Ghada

Ghada was born in 1987 in the capital. She lives in an area mostly inhabited by many people coming from different parts of the country. She is the eldest daughter of her family. Her father is an engineer and her mother is a housewife. She studied primary, preparatory and secondary schools in her area. She had secondary school diploma- life sciences, yet she studied English in a college. She was awarded a BA in English (See table. 2).

She is a friendly, hardworking lady who is ambitious to gain more information and improve herself. Though teaching was not her interest at the beginning of her professional life, she accepted the reality; being employed as a teacher, according to her father's choice who perceived teaching as a suitable profession for females for the long term as many of the Libyan people perceive it. I observed that she was willing to learn from others, collaborate with those who are competent in their area. Her level of English was good (see table. 12) which gave her confidence in her ability to learn and develop herself. This was also what the inspector's report and what the expert teacher said, she is capable of teaching. She was very cooperative, clear and honest during interviewing and teaching. She was punctual; in terms of giving classes and coming to interviews. She looked forward to improving her skills by means of language courses or any training sponsored by MoE.

Appendix 3: School Description and Teacher's profile

Tripoli Castle

Tripoli Castle is a mixed gender, primary and preparatory school. It is large but a relatively old one and consisted of three floors like the previous schools. It is located in a fairly high social area in terms of education, wealth and types of housing, although its students come from diverse background. It is dim, especially on the first floor because of the dark paint in the main corridor. There are classes on all the floors, some are only for boys and some are for girls only and this was mainly in the preparatory stage. The school has two periods; morning and afternoon like The White School. The majority of staff was Libyan female teachers in addition to a few male teachers. The school had a headteacher, his first assistant was a male and the secretarial team were females. There were some substitute teachers who had assigned different duties.

The school has offices, labs, an art room, a staff room, a sports room and some other rooms and units. The staff room was occupied by non-teaching staff while the actual teachers sat in many places according to their groups. It was a small room with a few chairs and two tables; somehow dirty. I rarely saw any of the teachers of English sitting there.

There were many teachers of different subjects whom I could not know. Teachers of English were many, but I could not see them all. I was in contact with three newly graduated teachers.

The headteacher was newly assigned in this position. He had a diploma in Arabic language and Islamic Education and was a former teacher. He was one of the rebels during the conflict as he stated. He was very cooperative, understanding and supportive.

The school arranges various activities for teachers with the students' participation like, sports, arts, reciting The Holy Quran on the school level and within on the level of Tripoli. It was awarded some prizes. It also arranges picnics for students and teachers at the end of the semester.

Teacher's Profile

Amall

Amall is a 27 years old single teacher. She lives in Tripoli not far from her school. She had a secondary general school diploma, -the literary section. She joined a teacher training institute in 2001 and graduated in 2005 (see table.4). She taught class 5, very Basic English. The syllabus consisted of a student's book, a workbook and the teacher's handbook. Although, it is very basic English, she had serious problems related to pedagogical knowledge and subject matter knowledge, such as depending on translation most of the time. During observations, she did not use any teaching aids or any facilities to enhance her performance and activate the students. This was not only the observation of the researcher but also the inspector's comments.

She was not interested in improving herself yet she was aware that it is her only option for her to be financially independent and the means by which she can build her own identity as she stated during the interviews. She was not ambitious or motivated to learn, improve herself or build her identity outside the borders assigned by her family. She believes that teaching is the only activity that gives meaning to her life.

Rab

Rab is 28 years old and lives in Tripoli within the education authority of her area. She belongs to a big family. She had a general secondary school diploma-literary section. She was awarded a BA in English from a teacher training institute with a grade of good in 2005. She started teaching class 9-the last stage of the basic education system because she gained considerable experience in the private sector before being appointed in the public sector. She was confident in her ability to teach it and she was encouraged by her relatives' help.

She was almost busy all the time; teaching in the public sector, fulfilling her duty in the private sector and her family commitments. Therefore, she came on time and left the school straight after teaching to fulfill her other commitments. She did not have enough time to be integrated with her colleagues in general and the newly appointed teachers respectively. Therefore, her interaction was limited and she defended that she did not need much help at this stage, something that might be attributed to her family conservativeness.

She was a confident, clear and a very understanding teacher who was aware of what she needed at that time. She put limits to her engagement at that time, which was based on age and experience. She considered them as barriers that inhabited her involvement with other colleagues. Her self-confidence might be another barrier that hindered her integration even with the newly appointed ones.

What I noticed about her was her over-confidence at this stage, which might isolate her from creating a network with colleagues in general. She was highly motivated and interested in teaching, learning and professional development. Her competence enabled her to cope with teaching and the general atmosphere of teaching at that time.

Sha

Sha is 30 years old, a single teacher. She lives in a nearby small town to the capital. She had a general secondary school diploma-literary section. She joined a teacher training institute in 2000 and awarded a BA in English (see table. 12). She perceived getting a job as the means of getting financial source and self-achievement.

She differed from all her colleagues in the sample; she was very familiar with her school and some staff as her mother was an experienced teacher in it. She used to come to it while she was still studying. The nepotism of her mother helped her to get integrated with her colleagues, got their academic and emotional support.

She was interested in teaching and she planned to improve herself, learn more, to compensate the lack she had by seeking colleagues' help whenever she found the opportunity. She made herself immersed in teaching by taking extra classes which gave her experience and involvement. She did not put age barriers and experience as hurdles to gain more involvement with colleagues. That made her distinctive from her colleagues.

I noticed her firmness with her students which one cannot anticipate compared with her quietness. She was cooperative, clear and very understanding while carrying out observation and interviews.

Appendix 4: School Description and Teacher's profile

The Al-Manahal School

This school was a secondary school for girls teaching different specializations such as engineering, basic sciences, life sciences, social sciences, English specialization and economics. It is located in a highly populated area mainly inhabited by middle class people; in terms of type and house area, education, wealth and occupations. It is a metropolitan area where dwellers come from many parts of Libya. It is about 35 years old and consists of three floors constructed in U shape like many schools in Libya. The headteacher's office on the left while the social worker's office, the library and the staffroom were on the right corridor on the first floor. There were labs on the second and the third floors and others outside the main building.

The staff room was fairly small and dark in comparison to a big school like that with a large number of teachers. It was partially furnished with a few old uncomfortable seats for sitting and some of them were broken. There was an announcement board and the timetable on the wall. Teachers came to sign and only a few sat for a while. For teaching English, teaching facilities were not available in terms of language labs or any other listening materials or teaching aids.

The classes are big, bright and almost full with desks, but many were broken. There were old charts, posters and posters about the conflict when the school and the other school next to this one were used as a camp during the conflict. It in general needed maintenance because of the damage during the conflict.

The headteacher was a newly appointed in this position. He was busy all the time to the extent I could not get an opportunity to interview him. He was understanding and supportive with new teachers. His assistants were cooperative and tried to keep the discipline in the school.

Teacher's Profile

Eve

Eve is 24 years old teacher. She lives in a small town about 35 kilometres to the west of Tripoli. She had a secondary school diploma in English Language. She studied English at college of arts- for 3 years and was awarded a BA in 2010 (see table. 3).

As she was not familiar with this school and area, she was always quiet and not completely integrated with her other colleagues. Being less sociable, made her serious, conservative even in her smiling or chatting with students or colleagues. She is ambitious and she saw herself better in another profession other than teaching. She accepted it tentatively to be financially independent and as a means to build a network that introduces her to other people. She was not keen on teaching and would rather do something else. She was courageous as she commuted four times a week from a relatively distant place in order to teach in that sensitive time, which indicated her great intention to build her identity as she would like. This made her distinctive from her colleagues. What I appreciated most was her self-confidence.

Jory

Jory is 24 years old. She lives in the area of her school. She had a secondary school diploma of medical sciences, yet she joined Department of English-College of Arts, University of Tripoli in 2006 and was awarded a BA in English in 2010. She was conservative herself, which was opposite to her newly graduated colleagues in terms of appearance-wearing Jubaha (a kind of clothes worn by religious females) all the time.

Jory was distinctive from her other colleagues in the sample in terms of her views about teaching and life in general which reflected her conservatism even in her interaction with them. She was confused, worried and she lacked the confidence to encounter the reality

of lacking pedagogical knowledge and subject matter knowledge which made her too much sensitive to the inspector's comments.

Jory was clear and honest, although I interviewed and observed her in her first few days. She was cooperative and she welcomed my questions. She was not so ambitious though she looked forward to improve herself and build her identity as a teacher and a Libyan female. Her plan does not extend beyond what her family had planned for her; be a teacher and that is all. Therefore, she was satisfied with this decision and tried to cope with it willingly.

Hay

Hay is a 28 years old teacher. She lives in Tripoli. She had a general secondary school diploma (the old system of literary and scientific sections). She joined a higher institute for teacher training-department of English in 2001 and awarded a BA in 2005 (see table. 12). She did not spend the time waiting for employment in the government sector like many other teachers in her situation, but she took some language courses to improve her language and herself in general and manage herself financially. Then she started teaching in the private sector before starting teaching in the government sector, although teaching was not in her interest.

Hay was appointed at the beginning of the second semester and was given third year students who would take their secondary school diploma (see table. 1). She was a quiet, patient, optimistic teacher, but not ambitious. She was clear, confident and welcomed criticism. She was cooperative and very understanding while being interviewed yet she was cautious, which might be related to the situation of the country at that time as almost all the people were.

Sam

Sam is 24 years old and had a secondary school diploma in English specialization. She joined Department of English-College of Arts-University of Tripoli in 2005 and graduated in 2009 (see table. 2).

From my observation, she was quiet, pessimistic and desperate as she joined teaching reluctantly. She was ambitious and she looked forward to improving her language, and establishing her own identity as a Libyan female who is financially independent. She perceived teaching as a hard job, and full of responsibility. She was aware of her lack of teaching knowledge or teaching methods and lacks the ability to teach secondary school of English specialization at that time. She taught writing and grammar to second year English specialization (see table. 12).

Sam was clear, cooperative and patient yet she stated that she did not tolerate being criticized by the inspector when she visited her. What I observed was her unwillingness to be involved with her colleagues in general, at least at that time.

Sarah

Sarah is 27 years old, and a mother of two children. She was the only married teacher among her NGTs of English in her school. She had a secondary school diploma (the old system of literary and scientific sections). She studied English at a higher institute for teacher training and was awarded a BA in English Language (See table. 12). She was somehow different from her other NGTs colleagues because she perceived a job as a means to be in contact with the language, practise and improve it as a priority, build her identity as a wife and as a Libyan female who wanted to be financially independent.

She was once a former student in her school. She was luckier than her other colleagues as she took a language course in the UK when she accompanied her husband during his

study in the UK too. This course helped her to improve her language in general and raised her awareness of teaching.

Sarah was confident of herself; however, she was anxious about teaching secondary school curricula of different specializations. She graduated from an institute of teacher training yet she did not experience teaching in a real context. She was a quiet, cooperative and a very understanding teacher, but she could not fully satisfy the inspector in her first visit that reflected negatively which I noticed when she I interviewed her.

Shd

Shd is a 24 years old, single and lives in Tripoli. She had a secondary school diploma in English specialization. She College of Arts –University of Tripoli in 2006 and graduated in 2010 (see table.12). She started working in a private company of construction before the conflict started. As soon as the conflict partially stopped and schools resumed, she applied and was employed in a secondary school within the area where she lives. Although she was not interested in teaching, she considered it as a transitional period till she finds another job with different advantages other than teaching. She was also aware of her lack of pedagogical and subject matter (see table-2) and tried to compensate this by intensive preparation of her class and having language courses. What I observed that she was confident in herself and being punctual in terms of coming to class and the appointment.

Table 15 Teachers distribution and qualification

Name	Age	Secondary diploma	Place of graduation	Year of grad	Qualification	Grade %	Training/ courses	Teaching Load	Teaching Experience
Amall	28	general	institute	2005	BA	Pass 62%	No	8	One semester
Eve	24	English	Arts	2010	BA	Very good 82%	No	10	One semester
Ghada	24	Life sciences	Arts	2010	BA	Very good 79%	No	8	One semester
Hay	28	general	institute	2005	BA	Pass 55%	3	9	One year
Jory	24	Medical	Arts	2010	BA	Pass 66%	No	8	One semester
Nawal	24	English	college	2010	BA	Very good 84%	No	12	One semester
Rab	28	general	institute	2005	BA	Good 66%	No	8	One year
Sam	24	English	Arts	2009	BA	Pass 58%	No	8	One semester
Sarah		27	institute		BA	Pass 58%	No		One semester
Sha	30	general	institute	2009	BA	Pass 58%	No	8	One semester
Shd	24	English	Arts	2009	BA	Pass 58%	No	8	One semester

Appendix 5- Questions for Interview 1

What were your expectations of becoming a teacher?

Why didn't you want to be a teacher?

What do you mean by the conditions enforced me to accept this "be a teacher"?

You finally have accepted the reality, responding to your family's will or the social demands?

Whose will has its effect on your choice your father or mother?

Now tell me what have done when you submitted your documents and wanted to be a teacher. What were your impressions then?

When you heard that you were accepted as a teacher. How did you receive the news?

Now you have submitted your documents and you have been accepted, tell me what was your thought the night before coming to the school?

What did you wear for that day? Why so?

Who came with you? Why?

How was the headteacher's meeting?

Have you taken your time table that day?

Haven't you thought of working in the private sector?

Why do not you encourage anyone to work with the private sector?

How did you find the staff room?

Have you introduced yourself or someone else introduced you to them?

Were you satisfied with the school?

When you left the school, what have you told your family? What has your mother said to you? What was their reaction?

Has the former teacher given you the books?

Tell us about going to the class for the first time.

How did you find the classes?

How was the whiteboard?

You have been shocked by the students' behaviour, haven't you?

What have you said to yourself that day?

How did you plan your first lesson?

Have you spoken to any of your English colleagues?

Haven't you felt that you are in need to see your colleagues-teachers of English?

You have told me that the inspector visited you today; please tell me how the visit was?

Did you know she will visit you? What are your impressions?

How was the inspector's visit to you?

If she comes again, you will not be afraid of her, will you? Why?

What have you expected inspectors do before coming to teaching?

Have the headteacher come to you in class?

What was your reaction to her visit? What view came to your mind? What ideas have you made about her?

After one semester, describe your relation with the students? teachers? administration?

Explain how your relation, improved or changed.

Would like courses arranged by the educational authority or you manage them yourself?

Why?

Appendix 6: Questions for Interview 2

How do you find yourself after one semester of teaching?

How do you find teaching as a profession after one complete semester of teaching?

In the school, what else you do in addition to your class teaching?

Have you tried to integrate in the school and see what activities and other programmes are arranged?

After teaching for a semester, before you joining teaching, you have certain views in your mind for instance about teachers, the administration, curriculum, students, the school as a place; your views about teaching in general? Some things are similar to what is in your mind while others are different from the views you have already had, tell me about things that are similar in your minds and things which are different in detail?

Why do you think the atmosphere is not available?

Is there an age barrier between you and them?

Now after one semester, have you found what represents a type of challenge, issues in teaching as your new profession?

What do you attribute this to regardless experience in teaching? Do you attribute this to another thing that makes you confused to ask or read?

How have you found that all the subjects you studied at university? Are not they useful in teaching?

What courses you benefited from them; they have relation with teaching?

Let us say not your weakness the problems you are encountering now, do you relate them to what the programme you have studied or to something else?

What is about the curriculum?

After one semester of teaching, are you satisfied with yourself as a teacher?

When you came to school as a beginner new teacher, certainly there are some people who have helped you.

Have you asked the expert teacher and the most experienced teachers? How was her reaction?

When you went to her have you put a barrier in mind that she was my teacher and now you are her colleague and not her former student.

Now in regard to other teachers of English, have you asked any of them that you would like to attend classes with her?

Have you suggested that all teachers of English can meet together; old or new and discuss issues related to curriculum?

Why do you put the negative assumption first?

Appendix 7: Questions for Interview 3

Now it is the second semester, what changes or development have you noticed in yourself, about teaching and your professional life as a teacher?

Have your views about teaching changed or still the same? Why?

After finishing the first semester, have your thoughts of teaching changes or still the same?

In what way or direction do you feel there is change in your thoughts concerning teaching in general?

Aren't there any other areas that have developed or improved somehow?

Who do you think, in this long period; about two semesters, have supported you to achieve this change? May be there is one or more than one.

Who else has supported you, the support might be concrete or insubstantial any support which is not necessary to be in the curriculum.

How your relationships changed or developed with the headteacher, the administrators, other teachers, teachers of English, the expert teacher and the students? You can start with the students. How do you notice any change or development?

Do you think age differences impede the development in your relationships with your colleagues? I mean this difference limits the relationship.

Do you think that these teachers are strict to this big gap or you yourself cannot overcome it? Or they themselves do not allow you to overcome this gap?

Concerning teachers of English, how has the relation changed or developed?

What about the expert teacher? How is your relation with her?

Who or what contributes to achieve this change or development in your all relations with the headteacher or other teachers or teachers of English or students and administrators?

Now, after about two semesters, I want you to tell me how do you view yourself as a teacher of English?

How do you develop yourself?

What issues do you want to develop in yourself? You believe that no one is perfect. What issues you think you are in need to change or develop or delete from your programme of teaching? And why do you want to change or develop them?

You said awareness; do you think awareness is sufficient? For instance, if you have problems in pronunciation, you bring many books about pronunciation, do you benefit from books only?

What are about other methods of developing or improving teachers?

Who do you think can arrange and conduct such training?

You believe that teacher development or improvement is not the teacher's affairs. Why is it?

Have you tried to create your own teaching aid? I mean you make your teaching aid?

One part of teacher development comes as a contribution of the teacher herself. Why are you looking forward to changing and development?

One of viewpoints is that changes come on the side of a teacher first of all, comment on this.

Appendix 8: An example of observation notes (1)

School: Tripoli Castle

Teacher: Jory

Date: 1.3.2012

Time: 12-12.45

Topic: Life on other Planets

Class: Basic Sciences 2

The class is large bright but cold; some side windows cannot be closed. There are some drawers fixed on the wall next to the white board. There are some at the back as well. There are some old charts having slogan written in red.

- Twenty-two secondary school female students are present in class, seated in about three columns and three rows, all of them facing the front.
- Thereafter, she greets the class (good afternoon), the students respond (good afternoon teacher).
- I greet the students then sit at the back of the class, on an empty desk.
- Then she opens her book and starts reading the text and asking about the meaning of the new words. A few students give meaning in Arabic.
- She turns to the white board and writes the new words of the lesson.
- She miss pronounce many of the words and misspell some words.
- She does not use any teaching aids or other facilities. She does not draw the solar system on the board to help the students understand the new words
- The students listen to her questions without responding to any of them.
- Some learners are opening pages of their books searching for translations without focusing on what was happening while some are not engaging at all.
- The teacher asks the students to prepare the lesson at home.
- The students rely on translation.
- Time finishes without covering explanation of the text and its new words.
- End of the lesson

Appendix 9: An example of observation notes (1)

School: Tripoli Castle

Teacher: Amall

Date: 3.3.2012

Time: 12-12.45

Topic: Unit 2-lesson 1

Class 5/3

The class is large, bright and clean. There are four rows of desks and 32 students; composed of boys and girls primary school. There are some old posters written in Arabic on the wall.

- The teacher greets the students and they respond.
- She writes the date(in Arabic) the new words(colours)
- She handed test papers of another teacher and the class becomes noisy and she tries to control them.
- The students start to ask for translation.
- She used coloured pencils to review the colours and they reply in Arabic.
- She mispronounces Black, is it a black?
- She waists time in giving marks out of 20.
- The class is active, but the teacher has not prepared the lesson well and how to divide the time.
- The class becomes nosier and the teacher does nothing.

Appendix 10: An example of observation notes (2)

School: The White School

Teacher: Nawal

Date: 7.3.2012

Time: 12-12.45

Topic: Singular & plural

Class -5/1

The class is large bright, but not dirty. There are three rows of 19 desks and 30 students- boys and girls- primary school.

- The teacher writes singular words followed by plural ones.
- She makes choral repetition referring to *a when there is singular noun and crosses it out when changing into plural.*
- The teacher corrects students' pronunciation and does not translate.
- The teacher makes the class active by making group repetition.
- The teacher uses short form of to be and ask students to do the same individually repeating the same sentence.
- The teacher checks the students' notebooks makes correction whenever necessary.
- The teacher encourages the students saying well done, good, and excellent.

Appendix 11: An example of observation notes (3)

School: Al-Manahal

Teacher: Eve

Date: 7.7.2012

Time: 10.-10.45

Topic: Unit 7-lesson 1

Class –Basic sciences-2

The class is large bright, but untidy. There are three rows of desks and 24 female students- secondary school.

- The teacher comes on time, cleans the board and writes the date and title of the lesson; Plant and animal cells.
- The teacher does not review or make an introduction of the new lesson.
- The teacher explains in Arabic the differences between animal and plant cell.
- The teacher explains the photosynthesis process in Arabic depending on the diagram in the book.
- The teacher does not have a big diagram or a chart to demonstrate photosynthesis process
- The teacher asks the students what is photosynthesis and the students reply in Arabic.
- The teacher asks for an individual reading and she pays attention to that particular student.
- The teacher writes a definition of photosynthesis and corrects pronunciation.
- The students are unwilling to read or correct their pronunciation mistakes.
- The teacher is confident in her ability and she does her best to make the students understand the lesson.