Libyan Teachers' Beliefs about Teaching English as a Foreign Language at Preparatory and Secondary Schools: Teaching Methodology, Curriculum and Professional Development

Entessar Moammer Mohammed Alshibany

A thesis submitted to the University of Huddersfield in partial fulfilment of the requirements

for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Huddersfield

School of Education and Professional Development

November, 2017

Copyright statement

i.   The author of this thesis owns any copyright in it (the "Copyright") and she has given The University of Huddersfield the right to use such copyright for any administrative, promotional, educational and/or teaching purposes.

ii. Copies of this thesis, either in full or in extracts, may be made only in accordance with the regulations of the University Library. Details of these regulations may be obtained from the Librarian. This page must form part of any such copies made.

iii. The ownership of any patents, designs, trademarks and any and all other intellectual property rights except for the Copyright (the "Intellectual Property Rights") and any reproductions of copyright works, for example graphs and tables ("Reproductions"), which may be described in this thesis, may not be owned by the author and may be owned by third parties. Such Intellectual Property Rights and Reproductions cannot and must not be made available for use without the prior written permission of the owner(s) of the relevant Intellectual Property Rights and/or Reproductions

Dedication

To the Soul of my Late Beloved Son: Kalifah

To my Treasured Country: Wounded Libya

To All Teachers of All Subjects and at All Educational Levels

Acknowledgements

Abstract

This thesis aims to develop an understanding and explanation about what Libyan teachers think and believe about teaching English. It examines how they regard themselves as English language teachers, addresses their beliefs about classroom practices and the current curriculum, and what might be regarded as professionalism within the Libyan educational context. This interpretive qualitative case study was conducted in the southern part of Libya and involved fifteen teachers of English from seven public schools who were purposively chosen and then observed and interviewed to generate data. Four inspectors and the head of a university English department were also interviewed to elucidate the wider context.

This research adopted Ajzen's (2005) Planned Behaviour Theory (PBT) and Desimone's (2009) model of professional development as a theoretical base for the study. PBT underpinned an exploration and explanation of teachers' beliefs, taking into consideration a variety of motivational factors. The way teachers' intentions acclimatised to certain practices were analysed with regard to the three main determinants of PBT: behavioural, normative and control beliefs. Desimone's model of professional development then was implemented as a relevant basis to explore the change required with respect to teachers' current practices and their professional development in an evolving context such as Libya.

The findings of this research confirm that Libyan teachers' pedagogical practices are largely traditional. However, it also demonstrates that this occurs, in some cases, despite initial teacher training, since there were those participants who had had a pre-service background in teaching methodologies but, nevertheless, still adopted a traditional role once in the classroom. Significant factors which influenced this were: firstly, a lack of alignment between the Libyan assessment system and the principles of the English curriculum; secondly, an inconsistency between the official inspection regime and the principles of the current curriculum; thirdly, inadequacy in initial training and in any subsequent continued professional development (CPD). The Libyan inspection regime itself also displayed inconsistencies owing to inspectors' incongruent views about what constitutes effective teaching in Libyan English language classrooms.

Moreover, the research findings regarding teachers' beliefs, as they emerged from the data and were interpreted under the main aspects of PBT, suggest that the participant teachers hold a range of beliefs which influence their practices. Those beliefs were formed in various ways initially as a result of background factors: their previous preparatory and secondary school experiences as language learners, and then advice from inspectors and other colleagues. However, significantly, the Libyan public examining system encouraged them to teach to the test and define success solely in

terms of assessment while defining their concept of professionalism exclusively as years of teaching experience.

This thesis reveals then a lack of alignment between the Libyan English curriculum and its assessment. It also indicates that professionalism in Libyan education is conceived as years of experience rather than as pedagogical knowledge and understanding, and that, currently, there are few opportunities either through pre-service training or continued professional development for that to change.

Table of Contents

Chapter Six: Data Analysis
Analysis One: Teachers' Classroom Practices

Analysis Two: Beliefs as the informal foundation of Individuals' Intentions and Behaviours

Chapter Seven: Analysis
Analysis Three: Professionalism in the Libyan Context and Desimone's Theoretical Framework as a Chance to develop

Analysis Four: Desimone's Model of Professional Development and the Libyan Context

Chapter Eight: Conclusions and Recommendations

List of Tables

List of Figures

Figure 1: Map of Libya

Figure2: The Planned Behaviour Theory (Ajzen, 2005, p.118)

Figure 3: Beliefs as the informational Foundation of Intentions and Behaviour (Ajzen, 2005, p.126)

Figure 4: Desimone (2009) Professional Development Model

Figure 5: The role of the background factors in the PBT (Ajzen, 2005, p.135)

Figure 6: Research Methodology

Figure7: The Methodological Levels (Morrison and Scott, 2007, p.86)

List of Abbreviations

CELTA   Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults

CHE   Committee of Higher Education

CLT   Communicative Language Teaching

CPD   Continuous Professional Development

EFL   English as a foreign language

ELT   English language teaching

ESL   English as a second language

EVT   Expectancy Value Theory

FL   Foreign language

GPCE   The Libyan General People's Committee of Education

GTM   Grammar Translation Method

ICDL   International Computer Driving Licence

ICT   Information and Communication Technology

L1   First language

L2   Second language

MoE   Ministry of Education

PD   Professional Development

PBT   Planned Behaviour Theory

RAT   Reasoned Action Theory

SL   Second language

TL   Target Language

ZPD   Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Libya has recently experienced fundamental political and social changes. After the 2011 civil war, Libya is a changed and changing society. Major reforms are expected to take place longer term within the country's ideological, social and economic structures. Although at the present time, Libya is still in turmoil, suffering instability; a power vacuum with no authority in full control; a lack of security and of the basic services such as medicine, electricity; and with fuel also being almost non-existent in most of its cities and towns, there are still, however, some developmental movements trying to rationalise the current situation. The education sector, for instance, is one of the main areas for development. Educational reforms, it was noted by the Libyan National Conference Members on the 22nd of March 2013 in a televised formal session on the Libya Awalaa Channel, will be achieved through curriculum development, improved facilities, better resources and the provision of well trained, competent teachers. As part of this and because of the demand globally, teaching and learning English as a foreign language in Libyan schools is now considered to be a priority. As reported by Jalova in Libya:

> While education has definitely received focus, an area of easily discernible absence has been the pace of English teaching and learning in the country...... The purpose of giving emphasis on the teaching and learning of English in Libya is to enable the country to go along in the development of its economy and to promote international exchange.

> (Jalova, 2013, p.71)

This could demonstrate how the national and international demands along with the political and economic situations could work as either encouraging or discouraging factors for any educational reform. In recent years, it has been realised that the teacher is key to any educational change where initiatives must recognise the important role of teachers to raise students' performances (Harwell, 2003; Reimers et al, 2005 and Fullan, 2007). School restructuring and improvements, the composition and development of curricula, assessment and revised teaching methods are likely to be of little value if teachers are not taken into account (Hargreaves, 2000, p.1). The general idea about teachers as individuals whose performance does not exceed the boundaries of common theories and principles which are developed by experts in the field, has been shifted towards the idea of teachers as individuals who are responsible for constructing their own effective theories of teaching and implement them in practice (Fang, 1996 and Borg, 2003). When investigating English language teaching, Golomberk (1998, p.448) recommends it is best to start with what teachers know and what type of knowledge they lack and need for effective teaching and learning. Desforges (1995, p.386), on the other hand, argues that just knowing the knowledge that teachers hold is not enough, rather it is vital to know how they apply that knowledge when teaching; that is the teaching methods they employ. That is why teachers should have the opportunity of initial and ongoing tracks of professional development in order to launch their teaching career with confidence and competences; to transform novice teachers into professionals and experts (Herbert and Rainford, 2014, p.243). However, the way teachers identify and consider themselves as professional is significant; what they considered their professional identity (Day et al, 2006). In recent years, there have been several debates around

what constitutes teachers' identities across a variety of educational settings. Tateo, 2012; Beijaard et al., 2004; Samuel and Stephens, 2000 suggest that the process of teachers' identities formation occurs within the psychological, sociological and educational dimensions of teaching. Those three dimensions of teaching have been reflected by Day et al (2007). as three key facets of teachers' identities: personal, situational and professional. Personal identity refers to teachers' identities outside the school. Situational identity refers to teachers' identities within the context of their work and in which way it influences individual agency. Professional identity refers to the teachers' identities element that is influenced by the changes which occur in roles, responsibilities and national policy (2007, p.102).

What teachers know, believe and do in the classroom is crucial. An increasing body of research recommends that teachers' beliefs affect everything thing that teachers do inside the classroom and students' outcomes (Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996; Woolley et al., 2004; Shin and Koh, 2007). Therefore, investigating the relationship between what teachers say, intend, and actually do inside the classroom plays a vital role towards the improvement of teachers' effectiveness (Pajares, 1992; Borg, 2003 and Jones, 2011). As a result, the research conducted about teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards the learning process in many contexts has increased. Borg (2001) stated that beliefs direct teachers' thoughts and behaviours inside the classroom. Those beliefs have stronger impact on the employed classroom strategies, even more than the curriculum (Williams and Burden, 1997, p.56-57). Borg (2003) found that the majority of conducted studies in this regard defined the word belief as a statement that is expressed by the teachers about their ideas, an evaluation about what should be the case, and what should be done for the best.

Accordingly, a number of influential theoretical frameworks emerged as a response to investigate teachers' beliefs: for instance, Woods' Beliefs, Assumptions and Knowledge model (1996); also Pratt and Associates' Teacher Prospective Inventory model (1998). Both of them are effective to study teachers' beliefs, but they share one significant and similar weakness; both of them study beliefs at an individual level of cognition without taking social and contextual levels into account. Another more recent influential model is Borg's Language Teacher Cognition (2006) which covers teachers' beliefs and knowledge while also focusing on the personal, social and contextual dimensions, but there is very little empirical work to test its efficacy in providing an explanation about teachers' behaviours (Nishino, 2009). Planned Behaviour Theory alongside with Desimone's (2009) Professional Development model was adopted as a theoretical base for the study at hand, because of the explanatory power each one of them has. Both informed the conduct and the analysis of the study in such a way as to inform understanding of how things must be done regarding to teachers' beliefs and practices. The former studies teachers' beliefs and behaviour with regard to the personal, social and contextual dimensions; whereas the latter focuses on the development of those behaviours, providing routes for teachers' behaviour change under the lens of professional development.

1.2 Statement of the Problem and Rationale

Issues relating to teaching and learning English in Libya are evident. Recent studies conducted by Libyan researchers: Alshibany (2014), Abusrewel (2014), Tantani (2012), Shihiba (2011), Elabbar (2011), Saad (2011) Orafi and Borg (2009) indicate that the current Libyan English curriculum is based on the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach, but all state that, although the aim of that curriculum is to

develop students' communicative skills, Libyan students finish their preparatory and secondary schools unable to communicate effectively using English. Some, such as Orafi and Borg (2009, p.244) and Tantani (2012, p.24), suggest this happens as a result of the use of a traditional grammar translation and audio-lingual methods when attempting to implement a communicative curriculum. Alshibany (2014) justified the use of traditional methods in that Libyan teachers have very little knowledge of how to employ CLT, since they have recorded little or no training to this effect.

Orafi and Borg (2009) also imply that the instructions given in the Libyan curricular teacher's book are not followed. Saad (2011) and Abusrewel (2014) acknowledge this, suggesting also that it could be as a result of inadequate training. Carless (1999, p.355) reinforced this when stating "If teachers are to implement an innovation, it is essential that they have a thorough understanding of the principles and practices of the proposed change." While, Richards and Rogers (2001, p.91) explained that EFL teachers have often found "new materials difficult to teach because they required a high level of oral fluency in English and an English-only methodology that was difficult to implement in large classes". Recent research conducted in a different Libyan context, for example, demonstrated the pedagogical circumstance and teachers' qualifications and experience as an issue in that context, especially since it is noteworthy that, some teachers graduate from universities and colleges without having any teaching methods' modules included in their study schedule (Abusrewel, 2014). They are employed and start their careers with little knowledge about pedagogy.

At the time of the introduction of the current curriculum in 2000, training for established teachers was very limited and led by Libyan inspectors of English (Orafi and Borg, 2009 and Alshibany, 2014). When I worked as a secondary school teacher, I experienced these training sessions which, as Asker (2011, p.21) described, were not effectively designed to fulfil the requirements of the curriculum and offered nothing about teaching methods or approaches appropriate to a communicative approach. The focus was on revising and developing grammatical knowledge in a very traditional way. This was one of the main things which motivated me to undertake this study when I considered teacher education and professional development in my context.

Yet, however in another context, Darling-Hammond (2000) confirms that any attempt to assign teachers to teach programmes without them being effectively trained will have a negative impact on their students' performance, and Tantani (2012) states that Libyan teachers need to get regular training courses in order to develop their teaching knowledge. The question here is what type of training do they need? Hall and Marsh (2000, p.18) state: "For some development to occur, we first have to discover what it is that we do not know", as teachers. Teaching and learning English in Libyan schools still appears inadequate and lacks the required genuine communication between both teachers and students, even though the current curriculum emphasises the importance of developing students' communicative competence and inter-cultural understanding (Sinosi, 2010). Change and development, however, will necessitate new ways of thinking and a different concept of professionalism as well as the provision of good opportunities for continuous professional development, starting with understanding and explaining teachers' beliefs and practices as discussed throughout this research.

Furthermore, Libyan teachers have undertaken their professional role at a particular time within a particular social context, and, as a result, their beliefs and practices are socially formulated. Wilson (1999) emphasises that people do not learn in isolation, but they learn through being active members in a society. This research, however, has been conducted during a point of fundamental transition in Libyan society. The social context is one of political and educational disruption and change. Libyan teachers' beliefs and practices before 2011 were socially shaped and constructed by the Gaddafi regime, but this study is conducted in a different and uncertain socio-political context. It is significant because it may reveal whether the beliefs that Libyan teachers hold about teaching and learning English as a foreign language in terms of teaching methodologies, professionalism and the current curriculum, have been or can be affected by regime change. Also, the researcher investigated how the data is aligned with the objectives of the current curriculum because this could help to articulate the training necessary for teachers.

This study is an interpretive qualitative case study which involves fifteen teachers of English. Four inspectors of English and the head of an English department were also interviewed. The fifteen teachers were purposively chosen from seven public schools, and then observed and interviewed three times to generate data. However, taking into consideration the available research regarding teachers and teaching English in Libya and the current socio-political context of the study, the rationale for this research is structured under the following aims and questions.

1.3 Research Aims and Questions

This study aims to develop an understanding about what Libyan teachers think and believe about teaching English, how they regard themselves as English language teachers, their teaching skills and professionalism, their classroom practices and the current curriculum so as to provide insights and make recommendations for future national initiatives on teacher training and professional development. It aims:

1) To understand and explain Libyan teachers' beliefs about teaching English as a foreign language in terms of the teaching methodologies, professionalism and the current curriculum.

2) To identify the teaching and learning methods employed by Libyan teachers and to determine in what way these methods are aligned with the aims and objectives of the current English curriculum.

3) To investigate what teacher professionalism means in the context of a developing and changing society such as Libya.

4) To provide insights and make recommendations for future initiatives in Libya regarding English language teacher training and professional development.

The following research questions were formulated to guide the design of this study and the process of data collection:

1) What do Libyan teachers do and believe with regards to teaching English as a foreign language, and how do these beliefs affect the process of teaching and learning English?

2) What teaching methods are employed by Libyan teachers to teach English as a foreign language, and how do those methods align with the current English curriculum?

3) What does professional development mean in the Libyan context and how can this be effectively theorised?

4) What might be the Libyan teacher training requirements and recommendations for enhanced professional development?

1.4 Significance of the Study

As emphasised by Woods (1996), and by Freeman and Richards (1996), there is a necessity to study teachers' beliefs and practices since change in curriculum does not always produce the relevant and required development in teachers' classroom practices. Teachers are individuals and have their own perspectives. They are likely to filter and implement a curriculum with regard to their own beliefs, philosophy and educational context. Therefore, this study addresses some pedagogical concerns in terms of teachers' beliefs about teaching English as a foreign language, the teaching methodologies and the current curriculum in order to provide better understanding and interpretation of their classroom practices, as well as providing a comprehensible idea about what it means to be a professional teacher in a Libyan context. Also, this study provides insights and recommendations about the relevant future training and what types of opportunities and resources should be provided for teachers to enhance their continuous professional development; what Leung (2009) calls the sponsored professionalism and the independent professionalism. Training sponsored by the Libyan Ministry of Education (MoE) has been provided for many years through two

main sources: the limited in-service teachers training provided centrally, and the regular inspection system which is more evaluative rather than supportive. Professionalism is, however, not a focus; and teachers are not encouraged to pursue their own professional growth.

The use of the Planned Behaviour Theory (PBT) and Desimone's Professional Development model as a theoretical base for this research is also a new theoretical contribution to knowledge. Applying the PBT in an educational context was challenging; because this theory was designed to explore, explain and predict human behaviour, and to provide a psychological framework to enhance behavioural change interventions (Ajzen, 1991 and Ajzen, 2011); for this to occur a researcher needs to have background about the processes which are involved in behaviour change and development. PBT helped the researcher of this study to systematically and comprehensibly explore and explain teachers' beliefs while taking into consideration the required psychological aspects and processes such as a teacher's intention as a main aspect to capture a variety of motivational factors. The way teachers' intentions adapt to certain practices were influenced by the three main determinants of this theory; behavioural, normative and control beliefs (See 4.2).

Understanding how teachers' beliefs impact on teachers' practices and affect students' performances, was informative and an instructive start regarding such change. The Desimone's Professional Development model worked to enhance the required change regarding to the current teachers' practices and their future professional development in a developing context such as Libya. This theoretical

model, as suggested by the findings of this study, could be considered as the first step on the professional development ladder for Libyan teachers.

However, this study is the first study conducted in the southern part of Libya, and at a point of fundamental social and political change focusing on the four elements together; teachers' beliefs, teaching methodology, the current curriculum and professional development, and examining how all these elements are aligned to enhance the goal of teaching English as a foreign language to Libyan students. Under those four elements, this study reveals and discusses a variety of significant and related issues, and offers some suggestions for future improvements.

1.5 Organisation and Structure of the thesis

This thesis consists of eight chapters: this introductory chapter introduces the research idea and outlines the aims of the study and the research questions. It also draws attention to the rationale and significance of the study.

- Chapter two explores the context of the study, starting with geographical and historical background. It presents the structure of the Libyan educational system and its objectives. It also describes the current English curriculum within Libyan preparatory and secondary schools. Finally, it offers information about the inspection system in Libya in general and in the south in particular.

- Chapter three offers a detailed critical review of the research literature surrounding this study. It begins with a discussion of teachers' beliefs and moves on to exploring approaches and methods of teaching. It also provides a critical review of professionalism and continuous professional development.

- Chapter four provides a detailed explanation of the theoretical framework of the study. It starts with a rationalisation for employing a theoretical framework in general and moves on to explain in more detail Planned Behaviour Theory and Desimone's (2009) Professional Development Theoretical framework.

- Chapter five offers a thorough description and justification of the adopted research design, case study strategy; how schools were accessed; samples and sampling procedures; and of the data collection tools. It also explains the ethical issues relevant to the study.

- Chapter six contains two parts of analysis. The first analysis presents a picture of how the process of teaching and learning was shaped during classes and explains why teachers implemented certain practices. This part of analysis provides a background that underpins the subsequent analysis of teachers' beliefs in the second part. The second analysis analyses the data through the theoretical lens of Planned Behaviour Theory.

- Chapter seven provides a conceptualisation of teacher professionalism and professional development in the Libyan context, and focuses on the forms of PD available for Libyan teachers. It also presents issues raised by the participant teachers which hindered their PD. Finally, it discusses how Desimone's (2009) theoretical framework could be considered as a relevant strategy for Libyan teachers which might offer an effective PD model for a developing country such as Libya.

- Chapter eight addresses the research questions and summarises conclusions. It explains the contribution of this study to literature and examines its limitations.

It also suggests potential further areas of research related to the issues investigated in the thesis.

1.6 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter highlighted the structure of this study in terms of its significant stages. It started with a brief introduction to the research, and then it provided the rationale for this study. The research aims and questions also were outlined in this chapter. It finally presented the organisation and the structure of the thesis, offering a succinct account of each. However, to fully understand teachers' beliefs, practices in conjunction with all of the other issues raised in this research, the following chapter provides a full description and explanation of the Libyan context; its geographical, historical, cultural and educational background.

Chapter Two: Context of the study

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to offer background information about the macro context where this study has been conducted. It starts with a brief account of the geographical, historical and cultural background of Libya. Then that is followed by a general detailed overview about Libyan education and its development. It outlines the objectives of education in Libya as a developing country and describes its educational system and stages. It also offers a brief outline of the current English language curriculum taught in Libyan preparatory and secondary schools. Finally, it provides background about the national education inspection system, and ends with a brief comment on ICT in the Libyan context.

2.2 A Brief Geographical Background about Libya

Libya is an Arab developing country stretching along the North coast of Africa, and its capital is Tripoli. Libya is the fourth largest country in Africa with an area of 1,759,540 square kilometres. It has borders with six countries: Egypt and Sudan from the east, Tunisia and Algeria from the west, and Chad and Niger from the south. The north side of Libya lies on the Mediterranean Sea. The northern coastline is about 1,900 kilometres long and approximately 80% of the Libyan population live there engaging in agriculture and some industries. The remaining 20% of the population live in the southern part of the country. The Sahara Desert covers around 85% of Libya, and life is only possible in few areas where water and some flora are available. The exploration for oil in Libya started in 1955, and it was first exported in 1961. The discovery of oil transformed Libya from a country which was relatively poor to one

which was comparatively wealthy. Up until recent times, the Libyan economy has been highly dependent on oil, gas and some petrochemical products. (Abusrewel, 2014)

Traditionally, Libya has been identified under three geographical provinces: Tripolitania is the northwest area, Cyrenaica is the east area, and Fazzan in the southwest area. Most recently, Tripolitania and Cyrenaica were under British governance, whereas Fazzan was under the French governance (Abdulhamid, 2011). Many Libyans nowadays identify themselves within one of these three provinces, and some propose such division as a solution towards ending the current on-going conflict.

Figure 1: Map of Libya

The southern part of Libya is the Fazzan region, and Sebha is considered to be its capital, with an approximate population of 130,000. Sabha is one of the main cities of Libya. It is located near the centre of the whole country; as shown in the above

map. The ethnicity of the southern population is a mixture of Arab and Saharan Black African descent. Sebha has a small domestic international airport. The major settlements around the city of Sebha are small towns which are, educationally and economically, highly dependent on Sebha. They are: Samno, Temnhent, Alzighan, Ghadduwah, and are identified under the district of Sebha. The other neighbouring districts bordering the Sebha district are Wadi Alshati from the north side, Murzuq from the south side, Aljufra from the east side and Wadi Alhaya from the west side. This research was conducted in the southern part of Libya.

2.3 A Brief Historical Background about Libya

Historically, Libya has been subjected to several periods of foreign occupations: initially from 1551 to 1911 by the Ottoman Empire; then from 1911 to 1912 by the Italians who in 1912 signed a treaty with the Turkish. Libyans at that time, as documented by the Department of Foreign Information (1991), suffered a cruel colonial occupation and resisted the Italian forces for more than twenty years. Then, at the end of 1943, the British entered Northern Libya and established a military government; while in 1944, a French force invaded and occupied the Southern part of Libya. Libyan independence was established in 1951 under King Idris.

At the end of 1969, in a bloodless coup against King Idris, Colonel Muammar Gadhafi gained control. In March 1977, in an official ceremony which took place in Sebha, Gadhafi announced Libya as the Great Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, and passed authority to the General People's Committees. He declared himself to be nothing more than a representative figurehead of Libyan people. The governmental system at that time was based on the Gadhafian theories summarised in his famous

Green Book, which was firstly published in 1975. Social, political and economic issues were openly discussed at many local conferences organised all over the country with all people, even the uneducated and illiterate, having the right to participate and speak about their needs and developmental requirements. The committees of those small local conferences passed their decisions onto a central general committee of elected members, where votes of the local conferences were discussed, resulting ultimately in national decisions (Abusrewel, 2014).

In 2011, in conjunction with what is known as 'the Arab Spring' and after the collapse of the Tunisian and Egyptian governments, Libya started to follow the same path, and the 17th of February revolution (Elabbar, 2011) brought an end to the 42 years of the Gadhafian regime. However, the country up until the time of writing is still in turmoil with no authority in full control. Libya now is divided and has two opposing governments; one in Tobruk in eastern Libya; and the other in Tripoli in northern Libya (Murray, 2015). The United Nations has tried to support and encourage dialogue between both governments, but all efforts so far have failed to achieve this, because both sides believe that each one's territory and resources cannot be secured without continued struggle. (Sherlock, 2015)

2.4 A Brief Libyan Cultural Background: Values, Attitudes and Beliefs

Though Libyans had experienced pressures during the various colonial periods, independence, the development of the oil industry, the arrival of large numbers of foreigners to join the Libyan labour force, even the Gadhafian regime's collapse and the current on-going conflict nevertheless have not precipitated fundamental political change nor undermined the deeply rooted tribal and social structures. For instance,

compared to other Arab nations which were occupied by foreign nations, Libya is considered one among few countries where colonialism has had comparatively little impact. The Italian occupation between 1911 and 1951 had little socio-cultural and linguistic impact on Libya unlike neighbouring colonial countries such as Tunisia, Morocco and Algeria. (Layish and Borg, 2005)

However, excluding the ethnic minorities of the Berber in the western mountains of Libya, and the Tubo and Twarek in the south who represent less than 10% of the population, and each of which has its own language. Libya is primarily a mono-ethnic and mono-lingual country (Agnaia, 1996 cited in Elabbar, 2011, p.22). The majority of Libyans are of Arab origins and all of them are Muslims. The national culture and the way Libyans carry out their lives are, alongside their local traditions and customs (Layish and Borg, 2005, p.2), generally shaped by Islam (Jones, 2008, p.59). As a result, it is fair to say that values, attitudes, beliefs of Libyan society are deeply and strongly rooted in Islamic culture and vary only slightly between tribes and villages (El-Fathaly, 1980; Layish and Borg 2005). The tribal system in Libyan culture still forms the Libyan social and political structure. These tribes are governed traditionally by old 'wise' men in small tribes, and a group of elders discussing and sharing opinions and decisions in tribes with larger numbers. Such elders have played a significant role over the history of Libya in dealing and sorting out issues faced by their tribes. In big cities such as Tripoli, equivalent roles are usually played by some religious figures or the wealthy families' heads.

Generally speaking, it is considered significant for individuals in Libyan society to maintain generosity, dignity, honour and morality in their daily conduct. They are

always expected to show respect, commitment and allegiance towards their families, and towards tribal and societal values. They must avoid any behaviour which is culturally unacceptable; because this would shame, and tarnish the image and reputation not just of individuals, but also of their families and tribes (Jones, 2008, p.58). This collective culture maintains the sense of harmony among Libyans who are supposed to keep acting and reacting with a great deal of modesty, responsibility and decorum.

In addition, the need to avoid social criticism has made Libyan society suffer from a so-called (and well-known among Libyan educationalists and researchers) 'culture of fear' (Amin, 2013). Such cultural factors could have role preventing and decelerating individuals' development and progress in terms of different aspects and fields of life. Libyan young individuals in particular, as argued by Amin (2013, p.17-18), experience the culture of fear at different levels and periods of life. For instance, generally speaking, Libyans start their lives with the fear of parents and families, and, as adults, experience the fear of tribes, employers, educators, and in many cases, the fear of the political system and leaders. Though, the country has recently opened up, and people are now able to freely express themselves, there seems to be a number of obstacles in the process of introducing new developments in Libya. In fact, Libyan people at different educational levels and fields of life seem to need time before they get used and adjust to change; particularly in education and daily lifestyle.

Before 2011, television was the powerful tool which had been used for 42 years to influence people's minds, their ways of thinking and emotions towards the regime goals. One Libyan governmental channel displayed all the material designed to pave

the way towards the government initiatives, facilitating social and political change (Hunjan and Pettit, 2011). During the 2011 events, Libyans were lost among the different and conflicting news provided by the mass and social media about the political situation of the whole country. They could not get a clear picture of the chaotic situation. Nowadays, and due to the turmoil and continuous political fighting between the different parties, it is difficult for ordinary people of different ages and education to analyse the situation except through everyday conversations with each other. Some Libyans are active on social media; particularly Facebook which played a vital role in the collapse of the last regime as well as through the current conflict. As stated by Jalova, it was:

> Largely due to social media and their ability to bring local and international attention to unfolding events, to coordinate and communicate vital information in the vacuum left by traditional news outlets. The possession of cell phones, computers and laptops also allowed ordinary people to become, not merely witnesses, but also crusading citizen-journalists.

(Jalova, 2013, p.71).

However, due to cultural constraints, Libyan women's role in the past was less important and secondary to that of men in most fields and aspects of life. Historically, that role was highly confined and prescribed by Libyan traditions and customs which ensured that women stayed in seclusion and remained at home serving their families. In the 1970s, however, the status of women shifted, and, since that time, women in large numbers, particularly in the urban areas, have been to school and university, and, after graduation, they were encouraged either to apply for scholarships to pursue further studies or to find employment in a number of professions newly opened to

them. Though Libyan customs and traditions remain significant, the role of women as effective Libyan citizens has become more acceptable, and, as a result, many have been at the centre of Libyan transformational processes. Convincing the majority of Libyan people of the necessity for social change was difficult even under the Gadhafian regime, because Libyans remain deeply conservative and in many cases resistant to change (Metz, 1987). For instance, up until recent times, young women could not enrol in the armed forces. However, women's position under Sharyiah law is much better than under the tribal traditions and customs.

Generally speaking, Sharyiah is inherited pure Islamic rules, whereas local customs are generated by people over the time (Layish and Borg, 2005). In other words, Sharyiah reflects the ideal religious norms, whereas traditions and customs reflect the tribal law norms; which are the collective experiences of local citizens whose acceptance and adjustment to those norms has occurred over centuries. The interaction between the Islamic Sharyiah law and the Libyan tribal traditions and customs has not always been harmonious. Therefore, local traditions and customs, in many cases, have been predominant; and, as a result, play a fundamental role in moulding the Sharyiah rules inside every tribe and within the Libyan society as a whole. That continuous interaction alongside the cooperative fertilisation of the two has continued within Libyan society, controlling and leading people's daily life deals and interactions Layish and Borg (2005). As this interactive process happens, in the long run, this could explain why Libyan people seem to be fossilised and carry on their lifestyle in certain ways with little evident social changes.

2.4.1 The Libyan Classroom Culture

In general, and as emphasised by Tudor (2001), educational practices and norms are significantly influenced by the socio-cultural standards of a society. Both students and teachers work within a particular socio-cultural context, which means that their attitudes, perceptions, values and beliefs are clearly influenced by that particular environment. As a result, both students and teachers are equipped with a fixed set of attitudes, perceptions, values and beliefs about what constitutes good teaching and learning, their roles and duties inside the classroom, and what is required to be taught and how it should be taught (Senior, 2006).

As every educational culture has its own deep roots in the cultural traditions of a society (Cortazzi and Jin, 1997, p.169), Libyan society has its own educational culture. One of the features of the Libyan classroom culture is that students play a relatively passive role and are silent much of the time. Libyan classrooms are generally teacher-centred settings; the students' role is to sit, listen and memorise the knowledge delivered to them by their teachers (Aldabbus, 2008). Students in Libya respond only to their teacher's direct questioning. Another feature is the large numbers of students crowded in every classroom; in many cases the number in one class is between 40 and 50 (Abdulhamid, 2011), with a time limit for every session of 45 minutes for all subjects.

Moreover, Libyan teachers are expected to have a full control of their students, to be well-informed and be knowledgeable in the subject they teach. A teacher's failure to answer any question raised by students puts the teacher inside the frame of inadequacy. Behaviours such as interrupting a teacher when delivering a lesson,

36

arguing with a teacher about the validity of any provided material, or the way it is delivered are not accepted and often considered impolite. As a result, being silent is considered to be respectable behaviour for students inside the classroom when a teacher is delivering a lesson. School teachers must deliver the curriculum provided by the government without having any prior role in consultation or contributions into what that curriculum will be. Students, on the other hand, must accept what they are taught and act as they are asked to do without any questioning or arguing with their teachers, and they do not have the right to query their learning material legitimacy (Abdulhamid, 2011). Such a passive role for students has limited the opportunities for them to be creative and develop their analytical skills.

As for teachers, due to the fact that they have to provide students with scientific knowledge and correct information, this has made teachers focus only on linguistic competence and not pay any attention to their classroom practices. As a result, ELT teachers tend not to employ new teaching approaches in their classrooms in order not to lose face, or undermine their feeling of security (Orafi, 2008). Also, because Libyan classrooms are test driven, teachers are expected primarily to prepare their students to successfully pass their exams.

In short, students are provided with textbooks for all school subjects; while teachers have a key role to deliver those textbooks; and students are expected to understand and memorise the material in those textbooks in order to be able pass their exams.

2.5 A Brief Background about Education in Libya

Throughout the Ottoman era, those few Libyan families who lived in major cities had the chance to be enrolled at the Kuttabs and Quranic schools which offered

conventional religious education focusing on religious studies and the Arabic language (Arabsheibani, 2001; cited in Abusrewel, 2014). Females were not allowed to participate apart from a small number of girls who belonged to relatively open- minded families (Al Moghani, 2003). During the colonial occupation, schools were established in main cities such as Tripoli. Those schools were sponsored and administrated by Italian or subsequently British governments where the language employed was either Italian or English because the teachers were often either Italian, British or American (Altaieb, 2013). Arabic was restricted and only taught as a school subject (Abusrewel, 2014). Such restriction made the majority of Libyans refuse to enrol their children in these schools and continue to send them to the Kuttab, Quranic schools and often small rooms at mosques. Consequently, foreign languages were not embedded in Libya as it was with the French language in Algeria and Tunisia. However, education during King Idris' time was accessible to all people. Libyans were encouraged to start learning foreign languages such as English and French at preparatory and secondary school levels.

Under the Gadhafian regime, however, great emphasis and attention was paid towards education; and, as a result, there was a noticeable educational progress in terms of continuing and expanding the steps made under the monarchy. All Libyans were guaranteed the right to free education completely funded by the government from the primary stage up to the university level (Khalifa, 2002). Education was compulsory from the first grade of primary education up to the end of the final stage of preparatory education; grade nine. Later, this was extended up until the end of the secondary stage for males and females. Even the old Quranic schools, which were closed during the independence struggle, were reactivated and also new ones

38

established. Primary, preparatory and secondary schools were established all over the country, and so, with the passage of time, there was a noticeable growth in the number of schools (Elabbar, 2011). There are now nine Libyan public universities which exist in the main cities of the country. Yousif et al (1996, p.82) mentioned that from 1973 the number of Libyan students at school and university started to increase. In recent years, the MoE has offered all Libyan students in higher education a monthly grant as a way of supporting and encouraging them to gain higher educational degrees. Male and female students are not separated in higher education although there are all-girl and all-boy schools (Altaieb, 2013).

The growing number of students and schools has not occurred concurrently with an extension and enhancement of teachers' training (Sawani, 2009, p.59). As a result, the Libyan educational system has always suffered from lack of competent teachers, a narrow curriculum, and a noticeable tendency to follow traditional rote learning (Elabbar, 2011). In order to deal with this challenge, there has been a reliance on foreign professionals and teachers, such as Egyptians, Iraqis, Sudanese, etc., to fill teaching gaps.

However, the Libyan educational system is highly standardised and centralised, following a top-down style, under the Ministry of Education (MoE) in Tripoli as the main Education Authority for the whole country though Gadhafi had called for a decentralisation. The Gadhafian term 'Al-Jamahiriya' is translated as 'the state of masses' which means the decentralisation of decision-making (Metz, 1987). However, it has been always the MoE in Tripoli, which has been responsible for decisions and policies with regards to funding, and for the establishment of educational institutions

across the country, and of educational and cultural foundations, curriculum development, regulation about admission to schools, teachers' employment, teacher training and development, the inspection system and the provision of scholarships (Orfai and Borg, 2009). In order to facilitate the management and implementation of policies throughout the country, the government divided the country into fifteen different educational regions led by regional administrations under the central MoE in Tripoli (Altaieb, 2013).

Moreover, the Department of Curricula in the MoE is responsible for making all curricular decisions and produces students' textbooks on school subjects with teachers' guides. Teachers are required to teach the textbooks following the guides as prescribed by the Ministry of Education, which means that teachers do not have the space to employ their own creativity as it is constrained by regulations (Altaieb, 2013). Also, some of the curricular decisions made by the MoE were described by Hamdy as "unplanned changes of curriculums and structures" (2007, p.55-59). Curricula were changed four times within a period of ten years. Such changes were not accompanied by teachers' training and relevant preparations. The period of time between 2000 and 2010 witnessed a number of unplanned changes and curricula modifications and specialisation, which all resulted in a number of challenges for both teachers and students. (Elabbar, 2011)

The first "Libyan University" was established in 1951 with campuses in Benghazi and Tripoli, and over time developed a number of major faculties: Arts, Education, Humanities, Science, Law, Economics and Agriculture. In 1973, that university was separated into two independent universities; one in Benghazi and the other in Tripoli,

each with its own faculties. Nowadays, there are nine public universities spread in the main cities throughout the country. Universities, higher education in general, are directed by a governmental body called: The Committee of Higher Education (CHE) in the MoE. The CHE is responsible for providing scores for faculties' enrolment; the start and end dates of academic years; and the appointment of university deans and heads. El-Hawat (2003; cited in Elabbar, 2011, p.32) suggested that such administration enlarged the gap between departments and faculties since some department heads and faculty deans seek to retain their own views, beliefs and perceptions to manage their own organisations. At the current time and as a result of the on-going conflict in a number of cities and towns, various schools and educational institutions are closed either because of the on-going violence in parts of the country such Benghazi, or because they need maintenance. Others in Sebha and Tripoli and elsewhere were destroyed. However, the educational system at the current time has not been changed yet as the country is still going through a transitional period.

2.5.1 Humanistic Objectives of Education in Libya

Integrating humanistic and democratic aspects into Libyan education has emerged in recent years. The Libyan General People's Committee of Education (GPCE) stated in its annual National Report that humanistic and democratic aspects should be seriously considered in the central objectives of Libyan education (GPCE, 2008). The GPCE is a major part of the governmental MoE. The GPCE has the responsibility to deal and manage educational issues. In summary, the objectives which are outlined by the GPCE (2008, p.4-5), and as stated by Shihiba (2011, p.10) are intended to be aligned with the humanistic and democratic values. Those that are relevant are numbered specifically, as follows:

41

- The sixth objective is to facilitate students to gain the appropriate knowledge, skills and positive attitudes in line with their cultural and social values and needs and needs.

- The eightieth objective is to provide equal educational opportunities for all students and help them to make their choices of the available specialisations in terms of their orientations and abilities in order to meet their societal needs and ensure the sustainable human development.

- The ninth objective is to provide the required support for any new effective types of education as well as enabling Libyan students to discover their abilities and acquire knowledge through promoting self-learning.

- The tenth objective is to enable students to develop skills of scientific analysis in order to be in line with the global scientific and technical developments.

- The eleventh objective is to assist Libyan students to accomplish the required development in terms of their social, mental, emotional, psychological and even physical abilities.

- The fourteenth objective is to develop the adjustability and capacity of Libyan students in order to be able to interact with different minds and cultures all over the world; and as such will make them more capable and qualified citizens to positively and jointly live in the global community.

- The fifteenth objective is to develop the partnership of innovation and creation and facilitate the required access for Libyan students in order to get varied sources of knowledge.

- The seventeenth objective is to help students with their special needs or abilities; e.g. disabled, talented...etc, in order to enjoy better educational opportunities.

- The eighteenth objective is to ensure the required development of Libyan students' environmental awareness as well as encouraging them to maintain the sense of responsibility and integrity towards the environment and its resources. Developing such sense will motivate them to eagerly and effectively contribute to solving environmental problems.

However, applying these objectives in the real world requires changing Libyan schools and other educational institutions into places where students can enjoy equal levels of care, respect, freedom, justice, confidence, self-esteem and develop creativity through more student-centred approaches.

2.5.2 The Structure of Education in Libya

The educational system in Libya has a number of stages; starting with the kindergarten, which is optional, for children at four and five and lasting for two years, it aims to prepare children for school. Kindergartens in Libya are provided by the private sector. Then, there is basic education which involves nine years of study: six years at primary involving classes from one to six (ages from six to twelve), and three years at preparatory school involving classes from seven to nine (ages from twelve to fifteen). Students who pass the final written examinations of the third year of preparatory stage are awarded the Certificate of Basic Education which allows them to enrol for secondary or vocational institutions. Both involve three years of study (ages from fifteen to eighteen).

Schools in Libya are operated on a term basis; where the first term begins in September and ends in early January; the second term begins in February and ends in May. In the middle of the two terms, students have a holiday of two weeks. At the school time, students must be present five days a week, from Sunday till Thursday with around six sessions of 45 minutes. Those sessions start from eight in the morning and end around half past one in the afternoon every day, with a break of fifteen minutes in the middle.

In the past, the secondary stage of education involved two main specialties: Arts and Sciences. In 2006, the specialised secondary education was issued by the GPCE under the decision NO.165; it was validated to include the following disciplines (Elabbar, 2011):

- The basic sciences specialisation which concentrates on mathematics and physics.
- The life sciences specialisation which concentrates on the disciplines of chemistry and biology.
- The engineering sciences specialisation which concentrates on engineering and construction disciplines.
- The social sciences specialisation which concentrates on the social sciences and humanities.
- The languages specialisations which includes Arabic, English, French, Swahili and Hausa languages.
- The economic sciences specialisation which takes account of economics, accounting and banking sciences.

In the English language specialisation, students studied a range of subjects to develop their linguistic competence and skill. The English curriculum contained grammar, phonetics, listening, speaking, reading and writing materials. Socially, English language specialisation was seen as an important school major and highly encouraged by a lot of parents (Oniaba, 2013). However, in 2010 the general secondary stage of education reverted just to Arts and Sciences. Students who pass the final written examinations of the third year of secondary stage are awarded a certificate that allows them to join higher education, including higher vocational institutes and universities. However, due to the growing demand for university education, high grades in the certificates of secondary stage are required for students to be accepted and enrolled at universities.

Universities' regulations, subjects and length of study are, to some extent, the same all over Libya. They differ only in subjects' classification under different labels. When students join universities, they may struggle and face a number of challenges since the teaching methodologies and learning is completely different from the school system (Gadour, 2006, p.170). Whereas schools' curricula are managed and designed by the MoE; universities' course curricula are provided by academics. Teachers at schools are restricted to following the instructions provided in the teacher's book; whereas, teachers at universities make their own methodological decisions (ibid, p.31). The main public universities in Libya are University of Tripoli, University of Benghazi, University of Sebah, University of Misrata, University of Alzawia, Omar Almuktar University, Al-Asmaryia Universities and the Academy of

Graduate Studies in Tripoli. All universities offer free accommodation for all students, even the international ones.

2.5.3 Teaching English in the Libyan context

English is taught at preparatory and secondary schools as a foreign language for four sessions a week. Teaching English as a foreign language, started in 1946 during the British administration. English was taught as one of the main school subjects at primary five and six stages up to 1973, but then it was restricted to preparatory school. During the time between 1986 and early 1993, teaching and learning English and all other foreign languages were banned as the result of political clashes between Gadhafi and the West (Jalova, 2013). When America attacked Libya in 1986, one of the regime's reactions was to ban teaching and learning English at all educational levels; justifying this as an attack on western cultural invasion. Black (2007; cited in Jalova, 2013, p.71) argued that this step made by the government caused a giant dent in the process and level of learning English language all over country. This ban had a long-term impact on students; especially if they became employees in fields which required English language to communicate with foreign workers. As for the impact on teachers and inspectors of English, as stated by Abusrewel (2014), some of them became jobless and others were compelled to teach other school subjects such as: Arabic, geography, history, political awareness, etc.When English language teaching resumed in 1993, there were a number of issues such as a lack of English language teachers (Al-Hussein, 2014). Therefore; besides the few Libyan teachers who returned to teach English in schools, many foreign teachers of English e.g. Egyptian and Sudanese were hired to teach English (Abusrewel, 2014).

However, Barton, who had been one of the professionals in language teaching who visited Libya in the UNESCO mission from 1965 to 1968 in order to design an English curriculum for Libyan students, reported that English language enjoyed a considerable position in Libya (UNESCO, 1968). Barton attributed the interest in learning English to the interest of the Libyan government at that time to develop the industrial, economic and educational sectors (UNESCO, 1968, p.1). Nowadays it is noticeable that those factors are still influential not only from a governmental stance, but even from Libyan citizens' perspective. The Libyan government and society have realised the significance of learning English, especially since it has become the dominant language in international trade, technology and science. As a result, a number of steps have been taken by the government in order to revive the language in the country (Jalova, 2013). Currently, Libyans seem to be more interested and motivated to learn English and efficiently to communicate in English, though English language still does not have any institutional or social role in the Libyan society (Abusrewel, 2014).

Moreover, despite the efforts made by the Libyan government over time towards progressing the teaching and learning English, claims have been continuously made that Libyan students at all educational levels are not able to perform and communicate well in English, regardless of which language skill (Jalova, 2013). However, the findings of a study conducted by Alhmali emphasised the high interest and positive attitude of Libyan students towards learning English, and being able to fluently communicate in it (2007, p.150). As a result, there is increasing interest in learning English, and it is hoped that in the near future English language will be taught as a second language (SL) instead of as a foreign language (FL); which will require a

47

change in some sectors in the Libyan society (Abusrewel, 2014). What is termed SL is a language that has a direct connection with the learner's personal and social environment. SL is considered important in the learner's country; because it might be either another local language such as French for Canadians, or an international language such as French for Moroccans. FL, on the contrary, is often a personal choice of a learner, except in contexts were a learner is compelled to learn it. (Punchihetti, 2013)

2.5.4 The Development of the English Language Curriculum in Libya

The first Libyan English books were developed in 1961 by Gusbi and John for the preparatory stages. Later in 1971, Gusbi developed a new series of English books for preparatory stages called: 'English for Libya', and another series of English books for the secondary stages called: 'Further English for Libya'. That curriculum was based on the audio-lingual approach with a focus on grammatical rules. In 1982, Gusbi again developed another series of English books called: 'Living English for Libya'. It focused on understanding reading texts through translation, memorising isolated words, applying grammatical structures (Abusrewel, 2002).

However, the development of English language teaching and learning, led to the adoption of Communicative Language Teaching as a teaching approach in the1990s (Orafi and Borg, 2009, p.244). In the academic year 1999/2000, the revised 'English for Libya' curriculum was introduced for preparatory schools. That curriculum was written by Jenny Quintana and Bab Mardsen, and was published by Garnet Education in the UK. The main objectives of the curriculum as summarised by Orafi (2008, p.15) are:

- To help students to develop their communicative skills through motivation and expanding their interest to effectively start employing those communicative skills.

- To provide students with the basic spoken and written forms of the English language so as to pave their ways to the outer world through the lingua franca that English has turned into.

- To develop a variety of students' skills, such as the skimming and scanning skills as a part of their reading skills, listening skills that assist students to obtain meanings efficiently, also the writing and speaking skills that facilitate students' effective communication.

Other significant decisions were made with regard to providing schools with the required modern teaching and learning facilities. Alhmali conducted research involving twelve secondary schools; his findings reported a lack of facilities and resources in these schools as a serious issue (2007, p.190). Then the GPCE report emphasised that secondary schools should be provided with computers and language laboratories (GPCE, 2008).

The current preparatory and secondary school curriculum: 'English for Libya', requires the use of three books: teacher's, course and work book. There are also CDs which contain the listening material. This curriculum contains activities that are based on the communicative standards and which support the effective use of language, receptive and productive skills in both oral and written contexts (Orafi and Borg, 2009, p.245). The teacher's book provides a teacher with a comprehensive guide and instructions in order to follow when delivering a lesson. The course book is for students to use

inside the classroom. It is divided into ten units each unit consists of eight lessons which provide a wide range of stimulating; cultural and scientific, topics about environment, technology, scientific achievements, etc. It contains some written text, pictures and a wide range of activities to maintain the students' interest and motivation which are accompanied by related tasks in the workbook. This book is designed to develop students' linguistic competence through a variety of communicative activities; to increase students' range of vocabulary; and to extend their four language skills. For instance, the reading texts are designed to be as authentic as possible, so that students will be able to learn how to deal with a variety of different examples of written English. Wu (2009, p.130) says: "The authentic material is the effective way for learners to acquire communicative abilities." The term authenticity in learning a language, as discussed by Tan (2005), refers to the real use of English and English speaking materials used by a native speaker in real life situations. However, three stages are supposed to be followed in the course book when the focus is on developing students' reading skills. These stages are characterised in a number of activities to be performed before, while and after reading the text. The relevance and realism of the language used offers some obvious advantages such as helping to "sustain learners' motivation and make the activity more appropriate to their probable communicative needs in the future." (Littlewood, 1981, p.12) The work book contains a number of exercises for students to practise inside the classroom and at home as homework.

2.5.5 English at Preparatory and Secondary School

Students at preparatory and secondary school are taught in line with the material provided by the English book series published by Garnet Education. The material

provided in the English book for the preparatory school is very simple and general. As for the secondary school, the first year book contains general English material which is often not well covered due to insufficient time compared to the lessons objectives and to the number of students, the lack of resources and facilities, etc (Alshibany, 2014). In the second year of their secondary school, students study English according to their specialisation: literary or scientific. The aim of introducing the language under a certain specialisation is to familiarise students with relevant language and prepare them for higher education (Orafi, 2008). When Libyan students finish their secondary schools, they will have been studying English as a main school subject for eight years before they go onto higher education.

2.5.6 English at the University Level

Learning English at the university level differs and varies between colleges and faculties. Students who are joining scientific, medical and technical colleges and faculties are exposed to English as the medium of instruction in almost all of their taught subjects throughout their years of study. Whereas students who are joining the social and humanities colleges and faculties are exposed to general English and some technical terms at the first two semesters only. However, when English language is a specialisation, it is taught for four years at university level in faculties of Arts and Education. Students who hold secondary school certificates in English have the priority among other students to register at the faculty of Arts and in the English Department.

In 1976 when the University of Sebha was established, and the faculty of Arts and Education opened its English Language department for the first time, with a period of study of four years' full time. There were a number of modules to be covered within

that period. Besides the English modules (See table1) there are other cultural modules which are delivered in Arabic: Arabic language, Islamic culture, psychology and political awareness. In the final year, besides the listed modules, students have to work in pairs to come up with a research topic and find a supervisor, and, at the end of the year, they submit their piece of research (fifteen to twenty thousand words) to the head of the department who in turn and, with the help of supervisors and examiners, schedules a suitable time to involve the students in an evaluative discussion over their piece of research. Students are free to choose open discussions where they could invite any one they want, besides their family members, or closed discussions where it is only both of the students, their supervisor and the examiner who is one of the department teaching staff.

	English Department Taught Modules (1996-2006)							
1st Year	Grammar	Writing	Comprehension	Conversation					
2nd Year	Grammar	Writing	Comprehension	Oral Skills	Phonetics	Literature			
3rd Year	Grammar	Essay Writing	Comprehension	Oral Skills	Phonology	Literature	Translation	Intro to Linguistic	General Background: Methods of Teaching
4th Year	Syntax	Creative Writing	Advanced Comprehension	Oral Skills	Phonology	Literature	Translation	Contractive Analysis	Reading & Appreciation

Table 1: English Taught Modules at the University of Sebha English Department (1996-2006)

However, many of those who graduate from university do not expect to be teachers, but may in fact do so. Females in particular find themselves involved, sometimes unwillingly, in the teaching profession. The GPCE statistics during the academic year (2006/2007) reported that about 79.38% of teachers were females (GPCE, 2008, p.22). Females are obliged to agree to teaching as a job under certain social

considerations (See 2.4). Teaching as a profession in a Libyan context is considered as the most appropriate job for females. However, in all Arabic countries, females enjoy equal rights in education, but when it comes to employment the balance shifts in favour of males (Metcalfe, 2006, p.97), which again can be attributed to the societal cultural and ethical norms that, as expressed by Metcalfe, "create strongly defined gender roles" inside those societies (2008, p.85).

However, since it was obvious that studying at the Faculty of Arts does not of itself provide qualified teachers, in the academic year 2002/2003, a teaching methods module was included for all third year students. However, my own experience as a student, and then as a teacher suggested it was not neither effective nor adequate to cover all of the required and relevant knowledge. However, few changes have occurred, within the last few years, in the English department of Sebha University. One of the main changes has been the study system; it has been converted in line with other departments to a semesters' system; two semesters every academic year with final written examinations at the end of every semester. Other important developments occurred after 2010, with the establishment of two specialisations in the English Department. At the present time, there are two specialisations for students to choose when they reach the fifth semester. They are the applied linguistic and the translation division (see table 2).

	Current University Taught Modules					
1st Semester	Intro to English Grammar	Intro to Reading	Intro to Academic Writing	Listening Skills	Speaking skills	
2nd Semester	Principles of English Grammar	Strategies and Skills of L2 Reading	Fundamentals of Academic Writing	Situational English Language Listening	Situational English Language Speaking	Intro to Pronunciation
3rd Semester	Essential Grammar in use	Reading Comprehension	Essay Writing	Listening Englishes	Speaking Englishes	Intro to English Phonetics
4th Semester	Advanced Grammar	Critical Reading	Writing	Intro to TESL	Academic Speaking	Phonology

	Applied Linguistic					
5th Semester	Intro to Syntax	Intro to Morphology	Academic Writing	Semantics	Conversational skills	
	Translation Division					
	Syntax	Legal translation	Academic Writing	Translation Practice	History of Translation	
6th Semester	**Applied Linguistic**					
	Syntax	Socio-linguistic	Intro to research Writing	Advanced Communication Skills	Teaching Methods	
	Translation Division					
	Syntax	Legal translation	Intro to research Writing	Theories of translation	Specialist translation	
7th Semester	**Applied Linguistic**					
	Psycho-linguistic	Applied Linguistic	Research Methods	Micro-teaching	Discourse Analysis	
	Translation Division					
	Syntax	Legal translation	Research Methods	Theories of translation	Translation Practice	
8th Semester	**Applied Linguistic**					
	Stylistic	Pragmatics	Language assessment	Classroom management	ICT & language teaching	
	Translation Division					
	Subtitling	Literary translation	Legal translation	Cultural translation	Interpretation	

Table 2: Current Taught Modules at the University of Sebha English Department (2007-2017)

The objective of adding teaching modules is to prepare qualified teachers of English mainly for preparatory and secondary schools in Libya. Students are taught the main aspects of a language in conjunction with certain pedagogic subjects; as shown in the above table. Some of the participants of this research are graduates of this department.

2.5.7 English at the Higher Institute of Teacher Preparation

Students who were motivated initially to become teachers generally joined the Higher Institute of Teacher Preparation. The subjects which were taught at this institute differ from those taught at the faculty of Arts in the extensive exposure to materials relevant to methods of teaching and pedagogy (See table 3).

	Higher Institute of Teacher Preparation									
1st Year	Grammar	Writing	Reading Comprehension	Conversation	Intro to Teaching Methods in English	Arabic Language	Intro to Education in Arabic	Intro to psychology in Arabic	Islamic Culture in Arabic	Political awareness
2nd Year	Grammar	Writing	Reading Comprehension	Conversation	Phonetics	Arabic Language	General methodology in Arabic	Educational psychology in Arabic	Islamic Culture in Arabic	Political awareness
3rd Year	Grammar	Essay Writing	Reading Comprehension	Conversation	Phonology	Intro to Linguistic	Teaching practice	Methods of Teaching	Bases of curricula in Arabic	Arabic Language
4th Year	Syntax	Creative Writing	Advanced Comprehension	Oral Skills	Phonology	Contractive Analysis	Teaching practice	Methods of Teaching	Teaching Aids	Arabic Language

Table 3: Higher Institute of Teacher Preparation Taught Modules

Libyan students from this Higher Institute of Teacher Preparation, at the end of their study, had to visit schools and undertake practice teaching under supervision as part of their teaching preparation plans and graduation. These visits, known as the teaching training periods, were considered as an opportunity for pre-service teachers to build their own professional identity (Pridham et al, 2013, p.51). Such experience was intended to help student teachers to understand and comprehend their roles as teachers in the future (Schulz, 2005, p.148). Teachers who are graduates of this institute seemed to be better prepared and more qualified to teach English than those who are graduates of the faculty of Arts and Education. Unfortunately, these teaching training periods is schools were cancelled in 2004 by the MoE without any explicit reason. Then the Higher Institute of Teacher Preparation was closed in 2007.

The current study discusses a range of relevant issues in regard to teachers' knowledge and the way in which their previous learning experiences have influenced the construction of their beliefs and practices.

2.5.8 Inspectors of English Language in Libya

In the Libyan educational system, the process of inspection in general is controlled by the MoE. Libyan inspectors of all subjects are teachers who were appointed to be

inspectors after successfully passing oral and written tests. Their own inspection reports, their number of years of experience, and any educational or social reputation are all highly significant when applying for an inspectorial job. The role of inspectors in Libyan education is supposed to be an evaluative one, and an informative guide for teachers during their teaching career, while also providing advice and assistance when required. They monitor and evaluate teachers' competency and performance. Inspectors are also expected to participate in planning training courses for in-service teachers and designing the material provided in these courses. Inspectors have some authority to change what is found to be inappropriate or to hinder the process of learning. (Shihiba, 2011)

Moreover, inspectors pay regular visits, typically from two to five every year and attend some classes with teachers in order to produce evaluative reports for the school administrators and the MoE. The MoE provide a standard evaluative form with the main criteria which are supposed to be covered by all Libyan inspectors all over the country (See Appendix 1). This form is supposed to be filled by the inspector at the end of every observed class. However, inspectors do not have a direct role in curriculum development which suggests a limitation of the inspectors' roles in terms of educational innovation and development (Orfai, 2008).

2.6 Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the Libyan Context

The rapid and continuous achievements in ICT will further change the way knowledge is acquired, delivered and developed. The integration of ICT in the teaching and learning processes can provide opportunities and offer new modes of teaching and learning for both teachers and students (Abodher, 2014). For effective teaching and learning, and effective ICT integration in teaching, teachers need to know how learning

could occur through the use of ICT tools (Wilson, 2002). Based on the work of Condie and Munro (2007), ICT has a direct impact on cultivating independent learning and motivation. As teachers need to take responsibility for their independent learning through Continuous Professional Development (CPD), ICT could enhance such responsibility according to (Caroline et al., 2009) who added that: "Successful ICT CPD builds opportunities for critical reflection on teaching. Teachers are encouraged to enquire into their practice, and to be proactive in deciding how it can be improved" (p7).

However, the Internet, as one of ICT's main aspects, emerged in Libya in 1998 and became available to the wider public by 1999, via Internet cafes (Elmabruk, 2008). The Internet since that time has become the most significant means to access a wide range of materials. After years of being isolated, Internet-based knowledge is expected to be a possible solution to maintain teacher development through CPD in the near future as this thesis reveals in the discussion chapter. The ICT in school programmes which were all over Libya in 2003, promised to develop and update the technical skills of teachers (Elmabruk, 2008). Those promises were reiterated in a television interview in July (2007) when the national curriculum director at the MoE stated that there was a plan to develop teachers' ICT skills, and to enhance the online learning programmes for in-service teachers. The first part occurred in the same year 2007 through the three months International Computer Driving License (ICDL) courses provided free for teachers of all school subjects to join. At the end, they had to pass interactive exams to finally get an international certificate. Such a certificate was a major motive for teachers to join the courses. These courses are still delivered all over the country every year for teachers and other employees at governmental banks and other

commercial institutions. However, the online learning programmes have yet to materialise.

2.7 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has offered background about the macro and micro context where this study has been conducted. A brief account of the geographical and historical background of Libya was presented in conjunction with an overview about the cultural and societal environment. It described the education system, its development and the objectives of education in Libya as a developing country. It also offered a brief idea of the current English language curriculum taught in Libyan preparatory and secondary schools and provided background about the inspection system and inspectors. Finally, it offered a brief overview of ICT in the Libyan context.

Chapter Three: Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

In order to understand and get more knowledge about the issue under investigation, the literature on teachers' beliefs and professional development are reviewed. This chapter starts with a general and brief explanation of what a belief is and the role it plays in leading human behaviours in the educational context and then goes on to discuss teachers' beliefs within an educational context. It sheds a light on the main characteristics and drawbacks of the dominant language teaching approaches: grammar translation method, direct method, audio-lingual method and the communicative language teaching. It also reviews relevant literature about professionalism, continuous professional development and context impact. It ends with explanation of curriculum alignment, change and development.

3.2 Definition of Beliefs

The American educational theorist Pajares (1992) reviewed research on teachers' beliefs and provided extensive theoretical syntheses. He reviewed different definitions about beliefs as well as making distinctions between beliefs and knowledge, but he could not find a consensus on how to define a belief. That, as justified by Johnson, is attributed to the psychological nature of beliefs which makes them "neither easily defined nor studied" (1994, p.439). This definitional problem, poor conceptualisation and the different understandings of beliefs and their structures, as Pajares (1992, p.307) suggests, could cause confusion in research about teachers' beliefs. The other uncertainty Pajares referred to relates to terminology. He regarded beliefs as a "messy construct" (p.307), because of the different terms researchers use to refer to beliefs. Pajares stated that beliefs "travel in disguise and often under alias" (p.309). Those

aliases, as identified by Pajares, include: judgments, opinions, values, attitudes, perceptions, axioms, ideology, perspectives, conceptions, preconceptions, dispositions, personal theories, implicit theories, explicit theories, internal mental processes, practical principles, rules of practice, repertoires of understanding and social strategy (p.309). Some examples to show various terms used to refer to teachers' beliefs include: "teachers' implicit theories" (Clark and Yinger, 1977), "personal practical knowledge" (Clandinin and Connelly, 1987), "beliefs, assumptions and knowledge" (Woods, 1996), "personal theories" (Sendan and Roberts, 1998), "implicit knowledge" (Richards, 1998), "teacher cognitions" (Borg, 2003), and "perspectives" (Tabachnick and Zeichner, 2003). However, not all terms have the same meaning. Fives and Buehl (2012) reviewed research about beliefs and summarised that "the lack of cohesion and clear definitions has limited the explanatory and predictive potential of teachers' beliefs" (p.471). That is to say: the proliferation of terms used in research about beliefs has made comparisons of results difficult to achieve, because not all research on beliefs "clearly label the type of belief(s) being studied and different kinds of beliefs are often conflated in discussions of research on teachers' beliefs" (Fives and Gill, 2015, p.59). Another weakness in research on teachers' beliefs, as discussed by Fives and Gill, is the lack of clearly articulated theoretical frameworks underpinning most research on teachers' beliefs (p.60). To overcome such lack, confusion and multitude of terminologies, Pajares (1992) suggests that researchers should clearly identify the meaning of the term they are using and explain what beliefs are explored.

Importantly, Borg argues that a belief is considered as "a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held. It is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the

individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; as a result, it serves as a guide to thought and behaviour" (2001, p.186). He added that beliefs play a vital role in teaching and in all aspects of life and help individuals to create their sense of the world. "Beliefs colour memories with their evaluation and judgement, and serve to frame our understanding of events" (ibid, p.187). In a past study, Bauch (1984) stated that a belief system functions like a psychological filter that guides individuals' selections, intentions and behaviours. That is: a set of preferences are created in certain circumstances and developed over time by individuals either consciously or unconsciously of how to feel, recognise, respond and act towards themselves, an event, a thing or a person. Basturkmen et al. used the term "teacher's beliefs" to refer to the "statements teachers make about their ideas, thoughts and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what should be done, should be the case and is preferable" (2004, p.244). This definition demonstrates the interrelationship between teachers' beliefs and practices. Khader defined beliefs as a set of ideas embedded in the psychological and mental content of teachers' minds which have a fundamental role in guiding their teaching behaviours (2012, p.74). However, besides Borg's and Bauch's definitions of a belief, which seem to be the most appropriate ones for my research purpose, there is Schwitzgebel's (2011) definition that is beliefs refer to the acceptance of something to be true or that could be true. Relevantly, Ajzen indicated:

> Beliefs reflect the information people have in relation to the performance of a given behaviour, but this information is often inaccurate and incomplete; it may rest on faulty or irrational premises, be biased by self-serving motives, by fear, anger and other emotions, or otherwise fail to reflect reality.
>
> (Ajzen, 2011, p.1116)

Libyan teachers' beliefs in this study are situated within those three definitions provided by Borg, Bauch and Schwitzgebel, because the three definitions provide an integrated meaning for beliefs as a term used in the Libyan context, and complement Ajzen's definition of a belief as explained by the Planned Behaviour Theory (See 4.2.1). That is: beliefs have cognitive, affective and evaluative aspects which are perceived to be true by teachers.

3.2.1 Beliefs and Other Interrelated Aspects

Fives and Gill (2015) agree on four shared core aspects of beliefs among the available literature about beliefs. They are: firstly, beliefs are used in general to describe mental constructs of individuals which are considered as true by the individual who holds those beliefs. Secondly, beliefs have cognitive and affective aspects, with rather stronger cognitive aspects than attitudes and emotion. Thirdly, beliefs are considered temporally and contextually stable and not likely to change when one substantially engages in relevant social practices. As for teachers, they develop such beliefs as being active players in their personal lives, schooling experience, educational programmes and collaboration with others. Fourthly, beliefs are key components in determining and interpreting the ways teachers handling their practices. Those four aspects seem to be the simplest way to understand the concept of beliefs and to avoid getting lost among the inextricably intertwined relations between beliefs and other emotional and cognitive components within the available literature. However, due to the dynamic nature of beliefs, they are mostly correlated with attitudes, values and knowledge. Pajares explains:

> When clusters of beliefs are organized around... this holistic organization becomes an attitude. Beliefs may also become values, which house the

evaluative, comparative, and judgmental functions of beliefs and replace predisposition with an imperative to action. Beliefs, attitudes, and values form an individual's belief system.

<div align="right">(Pajares, 1992, p.314)</div>

This reflects an interrelationship between beliefs, attitudes and values; that is recognised as a belief system. This belief system is responsible for conducting behaviours. The interrelationship between these three aspects is found in a number of theories and definitions. For instance, the Expectancy Value Theory (EVT) presents attitudes as a balance between an individual's beliefs about certain behaviour and own relevant values (Atkinson, 1950s-1960s). Reasoned Action Theory (RAT) considers beliefs about certain behaviour, values and evaluation of the target behaviours as the main determiners of individuals' attitudes (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1975-1980). There is also Rokeach (1969, cited in Fives and Gill, 2015) who considered beliefs as major components in-line with attitudes and values within a functionally incorporated cognitive system, and in order to make distinctions between these three components, he defined each one of them. Beliefs are "any simple proposition... inferred from what a person says or does" (p.113); attitudes are "a relatively enduring organisation of beliefs around an object or situation, predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner" (p.112); and values as "a single belief that... guides actions and judgments across specific objects and situations and beyond immediate goals to more ultimate end-states of existence" (p.160).

Other scholars also engage themselves in extensive discussions trying to establish final definitions about beliefs and to disentangle beliefs from other related concepts such as knowledge, attitudes, values and emotions. For instance, as for the distinction

between beliefs and knowledge, Nespor suggested beliefs are more influential than knowledge on teachers' practices and "stronger predictors of behaviour" (1987, p.311). This explains why beliefs seem to have a vital role in how teachers develop their practical knowledge with regard to perceiving and teaching curricular content (Calderhead, 1995). Pajares distinguishes between belief and knowledge by claiming that the former usually is based on personal evaluation and judgment; whereas the latter often is based on objective facts. Others such as; Cohen, (2014), Borg (2003), Allen (2002), Borg (2001), Richardson (1996) and even Pajares (1992) consider the distinction between beliefs and knowledge as the most complex issue in studies on teachers' beliefs. In other words, it is difficult to define where beliefs end, and knowledge starts. Even Borg (2003) argued that there has been no consensus defining teachers' beliefs. Despite this lack of consensus, it could be said that, in most studies, the use of the word belief as a term has a fine distinction in definition. For instance, Pajares (1992) used the term belief to refer to teachers' educational beliefs. Borg (2001) also referred to beliefs as the "teachers' pedagogical beliefs" (p.187).

Additionally, Pajares (1992) proposed the concept of a teachers' belief system to refer to knowledge; as both beliefs and knowledge are inextricably intertwined (p.325). Similarly, Verloop et al. (2001), in a study he conducted about teachers' beliefs, indicated that, in teachers' minds, there are components of intentions, beliefs, knowledge and conceptions which are inextricably entangled (p.446). Lewis (1990) believed that the reason why beliefs and knowledge are indistinguishable can be attributed to the fact that knowledge is deeply rooted in beliefs. Accordingly, the process of the formation of new knowledge is evaluated and filtered by an individual's beliefs (Pajares, 1992). Another reason that makes the distinction between belief and

knowledge even more challenging is the fact that the mental life of teachers is unobservable (Pajares, 1992). Therefore, "knowledge is distinguished from belief by the ability to give an account of explanations" (Crumley, 2009, p.54). Thus, the only way to acknowledge the abstract entities of teachers' beliefs and knowledge is through what teachers say.

On the other hand, Nespor (1987) identified four features to help distinguish beliefs from knowledge. They are: first the existential presumption which refers to the personal facts about students, their abilities, their learning, their maturity and so on. The second, alternatively, refers to the conceptualisation of ideal situations which significantly differ from the present realities. Beliefs in this respect work as a means to define goals and get relevant knowledge organised. Third, beliefs are correlated with effective and evaluative components. In view of that, beliefs are conveyed in the form of feelings, emotions, moods and evaluations based on individual preferences. Finally, beliefs are characterised by their 'episodic structure', which means it is often when beliefs are linked to particular remembered events. Further to that, Philipp claims that "What is knowledge for one person may be belief for another, depending upon whether one holds the conception as beyond question" (2007, p.259). Although beliefs and knowledge seem to be similar to each other, they still have different structural features. For instance, beliefs, compared to knowledge, are a part of an interrelated system where all other aspects are connected with each other (Furinghetti and Pehkonen, 2002). Beliefs within such an interrelated system, as explained by Furinghetti and Pehkonen, are psychologically organised, rather than being rationally organised like knowledge. For instance, when representing someone's knowledge,

s/he may say 'I am hundred percent certain that the earth rotates around the sun'. But

when representing someone's beliefs, the same individual may utilise a lower degree of confidence and certainty, e.g. one day we will find a form of intellectual life on other planets.

According to Borg (2003), however, beliefs and perceptions are two aspects under an umbrella term 'teacher's cognition'. Yook (2010, p.13) says "beliefs and perceptions are closely related to each other, but they may be different concepts". He added that there has been no work on distinguishing those two concepts and both have acquired an indistinguishable usage. This correlated the nature of a belief with other aspects to function as a unified system which often makes it difficult for a researcher to distinguish between what is a belief, knowledge, evaluation, etc.

3.2.2 Beliefs and Teachers' Classroom Practices

Although there has been lack of a consensus in defining beliefs, there is a broad consensus about beliefs as being the most effectual psychological construct in teacher education (Nespor, 1987; Pajares,1992; Richardson, 1996; Putnam, 1996 Calderhead, 1996; Borg, 2001; Wilson and Cooney, 2002; Skott, 2009; Bryan, 2012; Fives and Gill, 2015). Pajares (1992), for instance, argued that "teachers' beliefs can and should become an important focus of educational inquiry" (p.307). This is because teachers' beliefs, as discussed by Pajares (1993, p.45), are the best predictors of people's behaviours. Richardson (1996) also suggested that teachers' beliefs are a significant concept which helps to understand teachers' thoughts, attitudes and behaviours. Similarly, Putnam (1996, p.675) considered teachers' beliefs about teaching, learning and learners, and subject matter as key determinants of teachers' classroom practices. Wilson and Cooney (2002) stated that beliefs significantly shape

and constitute classroom practices and process. Ahsan (2012) also claimed that teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning are considered to be significant variables which have a critical impact on classroom behaviour, teaching practice and judgments. Additionally, Nespor (1987), Pajares (1992) and Bryan (2012) considered teachers' beliefs as filters, interpretive devices and transformers of employed curricula often developed by others. More specifically, Fives and Gill (2015) supported the significant role of beliefs in regard to the implementation of curriculum reform. Bryan (2012) claims further if teachers' beliefs are not aligned with the philosophical underpinnings of the development, then "the implementation of reform initiatives is compromises" (p.483). As a result of all those views, investigating and studying teachers' beliefs are considered as explanatory principles for teachers' practices in different contexts and in line with related components (Skott, 2009).

Furthermore, Eslami (2008) added that, not only do beliefs have a clear influence on teachers' instructional practices, judgements, decision-making and professional development, but even on their students' performance. As teachers are directly involved in teaching and learning processes, so they have the main role in identifying the best methodology, technique or material to be employed for learning (Stuart and Thurlow, 2000). This means that, if teachers have negative beliefs and perceptions, this will automatically affect their students in a negative way (Borg, 2001; Williams and Burden, 1997). That is why it is fundamental for teachers to recognise their own beliefs in order to help them to develop awareness about the teaching process which, in turn, could improve classroom dynamics, and provide them with opportunities to develop more relevant teaching strategies and practices.

However, teachers, as argued by Yook (2010, p.14), may hold two types of beliefs: deep-rooted beliefs and articulated beliefs; the former are also known as the core beliefs and the latter are considered as less important beliefs. Distinguishing both types from each other is considered a serious issue, although there is little substantive research. In most cases core beliefs are stronger and more connected with educational issues; whereas articulated beliefs are less stable and may include more general beliefs. Borg (2001, p.186) argued something similar when making a distinction between conscious and unconscious beliefs. Birello also indicated that "inconsistency between beliefs is not unusual. We may believe in something, but we may also believe in something else that pulls in a different direction" (2012, p.91). According to Phipps and Borg (2009), when there is tension and inconsistency between someone's beliefs, core beliefs seem to be the dominant ones. Further, Yook (2010) referred to classroom observation as the best technique used to distinguish between the core/deep-rooted and the articulated beliefs, but unfortunately even such choice could not be reliable as the process of teaching could be affected by other constraints, such as: lack of resources, classroom size, time, etc. Also as Pajares explains that beliefs in general cannot be easily and directly measured through observation, and beliefs "must be inferred from what teachers say, intend and do as fundamental prerequisites that educational researchers have seldom followed" (1992, p.314).

In addition, teachers' beliefs can be categorised in different ways. For instance, Calderhead (1996) suggested five main areas where teachers have been found to hold fundamental beliefs about: firstly, their students and the way they learn, since, as explained by Calderhead, these beliefs have a clear influence on the way they teach

and interact with their students. Secondly, there are beliefs about the goals of teaching. For instance, some teachers think of teaching as a process of transmitting knowledge. Others see it as a process of guiding students' learning. Thirdly, there are beliefs about the subject they teach; e.g. English. Fourthly, there are beliefs about the process of learning to teach. This last one is consistent with the beliefs teachers hold about themselves. Teachers' beliefs as explored in my research match the five areas discussed by Calderhead. Part of this are teachers' beliefs about their roles, their teaching goals, teaching methods, assessments and the curriculum, and the way in which all these elements are congruent with each other, because exploring such beliefs and the way they are aligned with each other is significant for understanding and improving educational processes. (Fives and Gill, 2015)

A number of studies have been conducted to investigate the degree of alignment between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices which indicate a number of gaps. For instance, a study by McDonald and Walker in which they claimed that there is a gap between teachers' thoughts and practices, "what they say they are doing...and what in fact they are doing" (1975, cited in Powell, 1999, p.4). Powell (1999) conducted a study where he adopted a self-observational method to investigate teacher beliefs which finally ended with reflections about teachers' beliefs on their classroom practices. Another study conducted by Sato and Kleinsasser (2004) revealed the significance of paying extensive concern to the context of the study as the lack of contextual understanding could lead to a definite gap when investigating beliefs. In another investigation about beliefs in teaching, Farrell and Lim (2005) also emphasised the significance of understanding the context as it could function as a major restriction on beliefs and practices. Therefore, adequate attention and concern

must be paid to the social and institutional contexts (Burns, 1996; cited in Borg, 2003, p.94). Similarly, Borg (2003) demonstrates the main role classroom and institutional contexts have in constituting teaching and learning practices. He added that factors such as the available resources, requirements of curricula, school policy and colleagues could prevent teachers' beliefs from being reflected in their classroom practices. Gahin (2001) conducted a study in an Egyptian context where teachers showed positive beliefs about the curriculum and its objectives, but the findings revealed that the majority of teachers' beliefs were mismatched with their classroom practices, and factors such as: workload, low pay, lack of resources, large classes and time constraints, were raised as potential reasons for such inconsistency.

Similarly, another study conducted in Thailand revealed that teachers were passive compared to their expressed beliefs. Their passive practices were attributed to external factors such as: overload content, lack of resources, societal expectations and exam-based assessment (Maiklad, 2001). This usually happens in a Libyan classroom when a teacher has a positive belief about the importance of using English to teach and interact with students, but, due to pressure, large numbers of students and some other constraints, teachers tend to use Arabic to save time and be sure of making things clear to all students (See 6.2 and 6.3). In short, teachers give up their beliefs and images of good teaching models as a result of three main circumstances: firstly, when they decide to do what better works in practice, even if they believe in the opposite; secondly, when they are socialised into the ethos of teaching and start doing what their administrations and colleagues do; thirdly, when they are forced to perform in certain ways due to some external (MoE) and internal (school regulations) prospects (Flores, 2005, p.396).

However, Martin (2000) stated that it is not a direct relationship between beliefs and practices; he explained that beliefs shape teachers' intentions, and intentions in turn are closely related to shaping teachers' practices. What Martin said corresponds to Ajzen's PBT in that beliefs are assumed to feed into and guide intentions which in turn shape behaviours (See 4.2). Therefore, it becomes clear that teachers' intentions, decisions and classroom practices are influenced by the beliefs they hold, but the challenge is to establish the right causes and sources of those beliefs.

3.2.3 The Main Sources of Teachers' Beliefs

From the moment an individual is born, his/her beliefs are formed. Those beliefs are affected and changed as a result of daily-life and professional experiences (Hatano and Inagaki, 2000; Lackey, 2007; and Canh, 2011). To better understand teachers' beliefs, educators and policy makers need to recognise and understand the sources of these beliefs. Richards and Lockhart (1996) suggested that teachers' beliefs are generally positioned among a mixture of sources such as; personality characteristics and factors, past experiences such as being a language learner, teaching experiences, favoured practice, educationally based principles, research based principles, and principles initiated out of certain method or approach. Socialisation within the existing settings and other external learning opportunities also have a degree of significance (Sato and Kleinsasser, 2004). Thompson (1992) stated that teachers constitute their teaching practices with a diverse collection of beliefs which are shaped as a result of their practical experiences within the classroom settings. These experiences are informed by their learning experiences as students as well as the classroom experiences they have had as teachers.

71

More specifically, Borg, (2001); Peacock, (2001); Attardo and Brown, (2005) indicate that teachers of English beliefs about teaching and learning processes are mainly formed through three major sources: the apprenticeship of observation, teacher education and teaching experience itself. These sources interact with each other within a particular context and form the beliefs teachers hold. The research at hand considers those three elements alongside the Libyan culture of education as main sources of teachers' beliefs (See 2.4 and 2.4.1). Being well aware and having rich knowledge of these sources; how and in which way they affect teachers' practice, could give valuable insights of how to act on those beliefs.

3.2.3.1 The apprenticeship of observation

Pajares (1992) emphasised that classroom practices are the result of beliefs which are filtered by experiences, and an apprenticeship of observation, including, in this context, a teacher's previous experience of being a language learner. The experience of being a language learner often leaves a powerful impression of how teaching and learning should be. That is to say novice teachers tend to behave like their past teachers "without understanding why they are acting in a particular wa*y"* (Bullock, 2012, p.16). Lortie stated that the apprenticeship of observation equips pre-service teachers with preconceptions of classroom practices (1975, p.61 cited in Borg, 2004, p.274). According to their learning experience, teachers decide the type of teacher they want to be in the future (Bailey et al., 1996, p.15). Such teachers keep remembering their own learning experiences as they form images about preferred teaching methods and strategies, and in turn those images are developed into beliefs about what they believe to be effective classroom practices. However, apprenticeship of observation provides pre-service teachers with only a partial view of the necessary

and effective practices in teaching. When pre-service teachers start employing the teaching processes and methods they learned, they may fail to develop their own teaching and independent beliefs (Johnson, 1994).

One of the studies used to examine the power of apprenticeship of observation on the teaching of student teachers was conducted by Johnson (1994). She studied how the beliefs of four pre-service ESL teachers were shaped. The study reported that those student teachers outlined their beliefs based on their prior learning experiences. They described images of their learning experiences where their former teachers followed traditional and teacher-centred approaches. Though the four student teachers did not want to be like their teachers, they did not have alternative images of teachers and teaching. They wanted to employ student-centred approaches, but also they believed that, in order to manage time, maintain classroom authority and maintain the lesson flow, they had to revert to traditional approaches. This study shows that though student-teachers realised the sort of teachers they look forward to being, they cannot always create the teaching and learning settings as desired. This could be attributed to the beliefs they hold and not necessarily because of their apprenticeship of observation, but because they lack alternative images of teachers employing student-centred practices. This is largely true particularly for novice teachers who go into their classrooms without sufficient training (Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Darling-Hammond et al., 2002). Therefore, Johnson suggests that providing student-teachers with opportunities to observe and experience alternative models of classroom practices could help them to compare their own experiences with such models and make decisions about what might be the best to follow. However, the apprenticeship

of observation should encourage criticality and understanding of teaching skills, assisting pre-service teachers to recognise what is effective.

3.2.3.2 Teacher Education

There are a number of studies which have indicated the role of teacher education in shaping teachers' beliefs. Woods (1996) stated that beliefs are shaped as a result of teacher education and training programmes. Fox (2005) stated that EFL teachers' practices are very much related to the knowledge they learned during their graduate studies stage. Within that educational knowledge, as argued by Richard and Lockhart (1996), student-teachers' beliefs are influenced by the educational theories which underpin teaching methods. Teachers, during their education courses or even in training programmes, are supposed to gain the knowledge required for the teaching profession. As a result, their beliefs are influenced by such knowledge. However, when Shulman (1987) discussed teachers' knowledge, he suggested its fundamental base include: content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, curriculum knowledge, knowledge of learners, and knowledge of educational contexts, objectives, values, and philosophical grounds (p.8). Having such interrelated base of knowledge may reduce possibilities of inappropriate beliefs and contribute to more effective teachers.

Despite the fact that early beliefs often are resistant to change, teachers who have received effective teaching and learning programmes build critical understanding of teaching approaches and may integrate those methods into their educational beliefs (Pajares, 1992). In a study conducted by Fox (2008), she emphasised the necessity of conducting further research about the role of graduate studies in informing and guiding teachers' practices inside their classrooms. In the Libyan context, for instance,

74

most universities offer very few teaching methodology modules (See 2.5.5, table 1&2) so their students start their careers as teachers with limited awareness of alterative teaching approaches and methodologies or underpinning theory.

3.2.3.3 The teaching experience

Teachers could learn and build new beliefs from their teaching experience. For instance; when delivering sessions, teachers often face some problems and challenging situations which require them to react in order to overcome difficulties. Zhou and Guotao (1997; cited in Xu, 2012) stated that teachers' beliefs are shaped throughout the teaching experience in which they are involved. Kennedy (1997) added the active interaction and socialisation processes within the school are also significant in forming teachers' beliefs. Farrell (2003) investigated the development and socialisation processes of a teacher during his/her first year of teaching. The focus was on the challenges that a teacher experienced. Farrell noted a number of challenges: the workload; inability to deal with students' low English language proficiency; lack of support from colleagues and poor communication with them. Farrell described the school, where he conducted this study as having "a culture of individualism" (p.103). That means teachers developed a habit of working alone without the professional support of colleagues. However, the teacher in Farrell's study sought to overcome all the challenges and obstacles he faced when teaching. This helped him to gain new insights and experiences in teaching, and as a result, become more able to manage his classroom as well as to devise fitting teaching methods. Hargreaves explains:

> teacher individualism, teacher isolation, teacher privatism - the qualities and characteristics that fall under these closely associated labels have come to

be widely perceived as significant threats or barriers to professional development, the implementation of change, and the development of shared educational goals.

(Hargreaves, 1993, p.53)

A culture of individualism or isolationism in teaching not only impedes opportunities for professional development, and also inhibits change, and poses obstacles to the implementation of innovation. Novice teachers often experience the challenge of being overloaded with duties and are given full responsibilities from the first day at work (Farrell, 2003). These teachers are often expected to achieve everything expected of experienced professionals (Gordon and Maxey, 2000). That is why socialisation is considered to be a vital stage for teachers; novice teachers in particular (Greenlee and Dedeugd, 2002). The novice teachers, in a study conducted by Flores, felt isolated in their work settings, and unsupported as they tried alone to learn from their own mistakes (2002, p.318). Because teaching is a practical activity, a teacher has to find a way of using theory in practice. Teachers in classrooms become more concerned with surviving their teaching settings rather than professional development (Cheng and Pang, 1997). However, such interactive thoughts and decisions, minor or major and in plan or practice, made by teachers in classrooms are considered as change. Such change implies an awareness of one's own practices during lessons, encouraging teachers to make further adjustments to their practices based on the interactive decisions taken earlier (Erkmen, 2010). A teacher still needs to commence activities within a community of other teachers, for the reason that people do not learn in isolation (Wilson, 1999). Also socialisation with other professional teachers and being active members of formal or informal activities provide opportunities for

professional development (Day, 1999), and, as a result, teachers may develop a range of relevant beliefs, while replacing and changing some others.

3.2.4 Belief change

Teacher change, in general and as stated by Richardson and Placier, is associated with "learning, socialisation, development, growth, improvement, implementation of something new or different, cognitive and affective change, and self-study" (2001, p.905). As beliefs are often unconscious, they are not always easily changed or replaced (Borg, 2001). For instance, Peacock (2001) conducted an investigation into 146 teachers' beliefs over a period of TESL training in Hong Kong. He found that their beliefs did not change and remained constant throughout the whole period of their training. After years of training programmes on communicative approaches, they still believed that learning a second language involved learning grammar rules and vocabulary. This could be explained by the fact that many beliefs are held in an unconscious way. It is not easy to change them unless teachers are first made aware of them and the kind of impact they may have on their classroom practices and students' achievements (Crandall, 2000). However, Raturi and Boulton-Lewis states that "some beliefs will facilitate good teaching and others will be detrimental" (2014, p.68). Teachers' must replace the latter with positive beliefs for effective classroom practices and successful students' performance.

For any change to occur, as noted by Fullan (2001), it is better to first come from teachers themselves. Teachers must be able to identify their own beliefs and discuss the meaning and significance of their beliefs and the way in which they affect their opportunities to achieve their teaching and learning aims. Raising teachers' awareness of how such beliefs hindering their classroom decisions and practices

could enhance the required change in their beliefs. This is what Tillema described as the "deliberate confrontation" (1998, p.220), where a teacher makes a judgement about whether to accept or reject the new information into his/her belief system, which in turn leads to changing beliefs. In other words, belief change could happen as a result of challenging existing beliefs with new and different information. For definite change, the new information must be "powerful alternative conceptions", as this will make teachers doubt their existing beliefs (Murphy and Mason, 2006, p.728). Similarly, Atkin (1992) stated that once teachers realise the existence of an inconsistency or a gap between their own objectives, the setting principles and their present practices, they will consider to change. Such experiences of change as mentioned by Hashweh could effectively occur if teachers are: motivated from within to learn, aware of their unspoken thoughts and practices, qualified to construct their own alternative beliefs, knowledge and practices, able to determine the conflict between the former set of beliefs, thoughts and practices and the recent initiatives (2003, p.421). For instance, if a teacher notices that students do not benefit from a particular teaching practice, it would then be more likely for that teacher to start rejecting that practice and look for new ones as better alternatives. Often, however, teachers do not become aware of such ineffective practices by themselves. For that reason, better alternatives that can be more effectual for students' learning must be introduced to teachers to help them recognise the issue, and how it could be better solved. As a result, change in teachers' beliefs is likely to happen. To add, Murphy and Mason (2006) claimed that, once teachers become doubtful about their existing beliefs, alongside an introduction to better alternative conceptions, change will happen, though, if they try the new idea and its practical application fails then teachers will go back to the old beliefs.

Studies conducted by Abduallah-Sani (2000), Cabaroğlu and Roberts (2000), Flores (2002), da Silva, (2005) and Mattheoudakis (2007) to explore the impact of training programmes on teachers' beliefs, found that change in their beliefs was associated with the training they received. Other studies conducted by Peacock (1991), Borg (2002), Urmston (2003) and Hobbs (2007), however, suggested that training programmes do not necessarily lead to belief change. For example, Peacock (1991) explored little evidence of change in trainees' beliefs. Also in a doctoral study of six trainees within a four week CELTA programme in the UK, Borg (2002) found that there was limited change in the trainees' beliefs. Some researchers refer to key factors which could hinder the process of changing teachers' beliefs when joining training programmes. For instance, the length of time of the training programmes appears to play a significant role in the process of changing teachers' beliefs (Mattheoudakis, 2007). The findings of the study conducted by Cabaroğlu and Roberts (2000), of a 36-week long programme, revealed that teacher training programmes can facilitate the process of belief change if teachers are provided with opportunities to confront their pre-existing beliefs. Peacock (1991) recommends that trainees should be informed by their instructors and be aware, at the very beginning of the training programmes, of their beliefs and the way those beliefs affect their teaching practices. On the contrary, Crandall (2000) indicates that if teachers are not given the chance to identify their own beliefs, they will not be open to new ideas which, in turn, will make them unable to recognise inconsistencies and examine their beliefs even in the light of new data. One could say here that the scope and degree of belief change varies from one context to another and from one teacher to another. This is individuality and the role it has in the process of belief change.

Moreover, according to studies they reviewed, Tatto and Coupland (2003) suggested four theoretical strands regarding to belief change. They stated that if the educational interventions provide the following theoretical standards, including that beliefs are more likely to change. First is the field and classroom experience for future teachers (Groulx, 2001; Linek et al., 1999; Hodge, 1998 and Mason, 1997). Second is the opportunity for individual or peer reflection (Peterson et al., 2000; Harlin, 1999; Carter, 1998; Cooney et al., 1998 and Levin and Matthews, 1997). Third is the opportunity for understanding ourselves in challenging and novel situations in a secure environment (Yildirim, 2000; Sherry, 2000; Ropp, 1999; Robin et al., 1998; Crawford, 1998 and Harper et al., 1998). Fourth is the theoretical and applied knowledge about the subject, teaching, learning, pedagogy, curriculum and the varied students (Foegen et al., 2001; Abbott and Faris, 2000; Vacc and Bright, 1999; and Tatto, 1996).

Furthermore, Fox considered teachers' development as a key factor contributing to make change (2005, p.270). In her (2008) study, she called for further research in such issues. Accordingly, Yook (2010) states that any research about teachers' beliefs should provide realistic and comprehensive understanding about the teaching and learning processes not just for teachers, but also for teacher educators and policy makers who in turn may develop an environment that is more conducive to change (Crandall, 2000). Reflecting on all that in the Libyan context could explain why Libyan teachers of English seem to be fossilised, using traditional approaches when implementing the current communicative curriculum as this thesis discusses. Teachers' beliefs remained a key when conducting this study. Research suggests that training courses need to be structured and better aligned with pedagogical practice and knowledge for teachers to be effective in their teaching careers, though, change

and development are not necessarily easy to implement. The following section presents a brief view about different teaching approaches.

3.3 The Dominant Approaches of Language Teaching

In foreign language teaching classrooms, the quality of teaching, the approaches and methods employed are essential for effective teaching which leads to successful learning (Al Moghani, 2003). There are the traditional approaches which often seek the development of learners' grammatical competences as the basis of language proficiency. Richards states that traditional approaches

> are based on the belief that grammar could be learned through direct instructions and through a methodology that made much use of repetitive practice and drilling... language learning meant building up a large repertoire of sentences and grammatical patterns ... Great attention to accurate pronunciation and accurate mastery of grammar was stressed from the very beginning stages of language learning.

(Richards, 2006, p.6)

Some of those traditional approaches, which relate to this research as being the dominant ones of language teaching in the Libyan context (See 1.2), are: grammar translation method, the direct method and the audio-lingual method. In view of the fact that learning a TL involves much more than developing grammatical competences, Communicative Language Teaching was developed (Richards, 2006, p.9). The following sections provide background about traditional approaches and Communicative Language Teaching.

3.3.1 Grammar Translation Method (GTM)

GTM is one of the oldest methods of teaching which originated in the late 18th century to teach Latin and Greek languages. This method started as the "Classical Method", and then (1840-1940), it was called as the Grammar Translation Method, and it became a trustworthy method of teaching a language (Brown, 2007). It is also known as the "Prussian Method", because it started in the German Kingdom of Prussia (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). According to Brown (2007), the GTM became popular and was adopted in most schools because it did not require teachers with high fluent abilities and professional skills in the TL. Hammerly (1982) also believes that, practically, GTM is advantageous because it does not require teachers with rich knowledge (content and pedagogical) of the TL, therefore, it is considered to be a less demanding method professionally.

The main focus of this method is on translating the grammar of L2 into the grammar of L1, little attention is paid to the communicative aspects of L2 (Lindsay and Knight, 2006). Grammatical rules and structures are taught to support reading comprehension. Stern indicated that "the first language is maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the second language" (1983, p.455). This could justify the reason that teachers, in a number of contexts including the Libyan one, adopting this traditional method. Libyan teachers depend heavily on their L1 when delivering English lessons (See 1.2). In GTM, students are taught to memorise grammatical rules and vocabulary, and teachers are expected to correct their mistakes every time they arise. In 1981, however, Stephen Krashen developed a theory of second language learning and claimed that teaching grammar was pointless, justifying this by highlighting the acquisition of L1 where children learn their L1 without formal instructions (Cowan,

2008). Krashen considers that learners of TL could acquire and develop their language skills and abilities through natural exposure to the TL, because formal instructions could generate learning difficulties and discourage learners from being involved in successful communication. Teaching grammar, as indicated by (Ellis, 2001), develops the grammatical competences of learners, but it does not develop their skills and abilities to employ the learnt grammatical structures correctly. This explains why Nassaji and Fotos (2004) assumed that grammar instruction was not only worthless, but it could even be destructive when learning a TL.

The GTM has received extensive criticism. The main criticism is that students learn only de-contextualised vocabulary and the grammatical rules of the TL, but they lack the required skills and abilities to communicate in the TL (McIntyre et al., 2009, p.8). Also, focusing on grammar and ignoring other language skills, as indicated by Finocchiaro and Brumfit, "led to learning about the language rather than learning to use the language" (1983, p.5). GTM was a common method up until the Direct Method was introduced as a reaction against the GTM and an attempt to fill the gaps that GTM created.

3.3.2 Direct Method (DM)

The DM was developed as a result of the growing interest in teaching a TL for speaking purposes, because this method focuses on communicative practices. Teachers using DM are expected to develop communicative classroom settings where grammar comes inductively (Aslam, 2003). Grammar is learnt through working out in the TL. Also, teachers do not convey meanings of words through direct translation into L1, but through following other means such as; gesturing, miming, asking questions, etc. Further, gradation and sequencing strategies are employed when teaching both

grammar and vocabulary (Lindsay and Knight, 2006). The main advantage of the DM lies on the idea that in order for someone to effectively learn a TL, the mechanism of L1 acquisition should be adopted and followed. That is to say, students are given more opportunities to use the TL; therefore, teachers stay silent most of the time, and this is what makes learning a TL in the DM similar to the acquisition of L1 (Omar, 2014). O'Neill and Gish used the phrase "Silent Way of Learning" as a concept referring to the DM (2008, p.94). The other advantage is the potential opportunities provided to learners for a rigorous engagement with the TL, especially if learners do not have any other opportunities to practise the TL in its natural settings.

The DM still can be seen in a variety of today's practices in the field of teaching a language (Omar, 2014). Despite of its popularity and persistence in language teaching contexts, however, it has also received an extensive criticism. One of the main criticisms the DM received was that learning FL/SL is not similar to learning a L1, because the classroom settings often do not represent the real context of the TL. (Hussein, 1989). It was also criticised for its heavily dependence on fluent, professional and skilful teachers (Omar, 2014), and for consuming longer classroom time (Hussein, 1989). However, such criticism led to the development of a new method that might better meet with the requirements of FL/SL learners and provide an effective scheme of language teaching.

3.3.3 Audio-Lingual Method (ALM)

The ALM was developed by the American government as a method of teaching a FL to the American military armies during and after the Second World War. The aim was to develop American armies' abilities to communicate in the FL of the countries they invaded. It is also known as the "Army Method" (McIntyre et al., 2009). The theoretical

structure for the ALM was provided by both structural linguistics and behavioural psychology. The former provided techniques for breaking down a language into pieces and contrasting it by adopting the contrastive analysis approach, whereas the latter provided a form of teaching a language based on the development of habits since language is considered as a set of habits (Valdes, 2001).

The main assumption of the ALM is that listening and speaking comes before reading and writing. That is why it focuses on teaching a TL through aural-oral drills, where teachers present the TL in forms of dialogues through the use of audio recorders inside language laboratories (McIntyre et al., 2009, p.8). The evident strategies of the ALM are memorisation and repetition with a focus on accurate pronunciation. It encourages the development of listening and speaking skills through repetition of dialogues. Teachers are expected to encourage learners to repeat drills in the TL till they becomes a habit in their minds. A teacher provides a hint (e.g. using pictures), and then students are expected to develop a dialogue using appropriate grammatical structures (Lindsay and Knight, 2006). Moreover, the ALM, as claimed by Rothenberg and Fisher (2007), is based on Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) which indicates that learners need support at the first stage of learning a language, and afterwards they become independent learners. The ZPD is associated with considering a language as a social activity which requires direct interaction between learners.

However, the ALM also has received extensive criticism and can be considered an ineffective method of teaching FL/SL, with some teachers adopting this method claiming that it did not offer the desired results for learning a TL. For instance, Lindsay

and Knight (2006, p.18) argue that, though drill activities are considered valuable and helpful, they do not provide students with opportunities to practise the TL in a natural setting. O'Neill and Gish (2008, p.89) also claim that this method does not pay sufficient attention to communication inside classrooms; nor does it focus on teaching the grammar of the TL. It offers little knowledge of the TL. This created a need for developing a method that takes into consideration the grammatical, phonological and lexical aspects of the TL, as well as creating everyday-life contexts for learners to communicate effectively.

3.3.4 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

CLT is a popular western methodology that has become widely employed in English language teaching (ELT) classes in many parts of the world (Alshibany, 2014), achieving international popularity and prominence (Sato and Kleinsasser, 1999). Chowdhury and Ha claim:

> The increasing demand for competent users of English in the era of globalization has had a significant impact on English language teaching… Teachers of English have been encouraged, even required to adopt CLT approach.

> (Chowdhury and Ha, 2008, p.305)

CLT, as recommended by Richards and Rodgers (1986), Sato and Kleinsasser (1999), Sayer (2005) and Hiep (2007), is the best approach for those who want to communicate using a TL. However, Littlewood (1981) criticised it saying that developing communicative ability is not restricted to CLT, but it is also a goal of the ALM and other situational approaches. The main aim of CLT, however, is to enable students to communicate using the TL in a variety of contexts. That is to say; students

are encouraged to use the TL through a number of communicative activities such as information gap, solving puzzles, games, acting and role play. Sayer (2005) suggests that this focus on communication means those taught by teachers using CLT achieve a better level of speaking in the TL. Moreover, Xu (2010) said that compared to other methodologies such as the GTM where the main focus is on grammar, CLT creates real situations for students to use the TL. As for the ALM, Richards and Rodgers stated that "the target linguistic system will be learned through the overt teaching of the patterns of the system", whereas in CLT "it will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate" (2001, p.156). CLT, however, as other approaches, has a number of characteristics and some criticism.

3.3.4.1 Main Characteristics of CLT

There are a number of characteristics and features of CLT. One of them is that CLT focuses on the appropriateness and the use of the TL rather than just on the form of the language. Kumaravadivelu mentioned that CLT is based on "the belief that grammar construction can take place in the absence of any explicit focus on linguistic features" (2006, p.135). Carter and Nunan (2001) comments on this further saying students are able to learn the form of the TL through the communication they make with each other and with the teacher in the class. Unlike earlier methodologies which focused on introducing and practising discrete grammar points one by one, the focus on communication in CLT means that learners are encouraged to use any language that they possess in order to achieve their communicative goal. In CLT, learners are not restricted to using only the language that has been taught in a particular lesson. (Flowerdew and Miller, 2005)

In order to promote communication in the classroom, teachers using CLT need to ensure that learners have a reason to communicate (Harmer, 2007). One way of achieving this is by contextualising language in situations which are useful and relevant to the needs and interests of students, and that, in turn will stimulate the learner's desire to participate and communicate effectively in the class. One more feature of CLT, as discussed by Xu (2010, p.160), is that "it puts real-life situations into English teaching and learning… such as going shopping, going to the bank, buying stamps, meeting and greeting people, etc." Such way of teaching stimulates the learners' desire to communicate using the TL. Also, one of CLT's other advantages, also mentioned by Xu, is that this approach gives learners more opportunities to acquire the TL with its culture; i.e. to understand the culture of the TL and to recognise the cultural differences. As a result of this, learners are more likely to feel confident to communicate with the native speakers of the TL.

Moreover, Lightbown and Spada (1999) said that one of CLT's features is that there are many types of communication which might be effectively brought to the classroom. They added that learners could practise different discourse through the use of role play, stories and authentic materials such as TV broadcasts, newspapers, etc. Accordingly, as CLT is concerned with increasing the communicative interaction among learners, it aims to provide good opportunities for the emergence of more cooperative relationships among learners and also the teacher (Littlewood, 1981). A wide range of communicative activities are recommended to be used in order to create different forms of interaction in the classroom; that is the social and functional aspects of communication. However, though learners' aim is to convey meanings effectively,

they must also pay attention to the social context where the interaction takes place. From that point of view, a teacher has to be careful and well aware of such issues.

Another feature of CLT is the avoidance of whole-class teaching. Instead, in order to maximise students' opportunities to talk, pair and group work are often used. Jacobs and Ball (1996) suggested that this is particularly important for learners who are anxious in class and prefer the security of working in smaller groups. Gunderson and Johnson (1980) also reported that the co-operative learning pairs or group activities encourage students' positive attitudes towards the TL as well as towards the teacher and the rest of the students, especially with the lower achieving students. Playing games is also considered to be one of the significant activities in the CLT. These kinds of activities aim to get students to enjoy the process of learning a language and to want to speak it in particular. Thus, it can be seen that CLT classroom promotes the use of language through a range of activities designed to promote communication and fluency (Scrivener, 2005).

Compared to traditional approaches, the role of the teacher in CLT is to facilitate the process of communication within the classroom. Littlewood (1981) and Larsen-Freeman (2000) identified this through a variety of responsibilities such as: an adviser, overseeing his/her students; a classroom manager, creating situations that promote communication. In many activities, a teacher may perform the usual role of a language instructor who presents the new language and directly controls the performance of learners. However, in other activities, s/he does not intervene in the process of learning, but lets students accomplish the communicative activities independently; for instance, through the use of pair-work activities. Breen and Candlin (cited in Richards

and Rodgers, 1986) explained the role of the teacher in two ways: firstly, to facilitate communication among all learners in classroom; secondly, in some activities to act as an independent participant among "the learning- teaching group" (p.77).

When it comes to errors, however, CLT has redefined the traditional view of correcting all errors at once. Since it is very important to make students enjoy feelings of success and self-satisfaction, CLT recommends delaying correcting errors during the performance of a learner in order to avoid embarrassment or anxiety. Murphy (1986) said there is no value in interrupting any activity just to give an instant correction directly after the error committed. In other words, students must be given an opportunity to speak without frustration, reticence or hesitation rather than using the negative correction techniques that interrupt and may confuse students instead of enlightening them, because committing errors means starting to learn. Gardner (1985) mentioned that the more frustration and stress on students; the poorer they perform.

3.3.4.2 Criticisms of CLT

There have been a number of criticisms of CLT. The main challenge for CLT as reported by Klapper (2006) is the gap it makes between the linguistic form and the communication of meaning. The absence of formal reference with regard to the linguistic elements Klapper suggests could result in a failure to create a generative language framework which helps learners to create unique utterances. Similarly, Xu (2010) suggested that teachers who use CLT tend to focus only on the everyday "functional aspects of language" and have less emphasis on formal structures. As a result of this, fluency is gained at the detriment of accuracy. Littlewood (1981) disagreed with that and said one of the main features of CLT is that it stresses not just

the functional aspects of a language but even the grammatical ones. Wu (2009, p.131) compared some traditional approaches where it seemed to be sufficient for teachers to apply what is in the textbook; CLT "does not offer the teacher the security of the textbook." Also, he believed that, in CLT, it is very difficult for a teacher to evaluate students' performance. Findings from a study conducted by Anderson (1993, cited in Chung and Huang, 2009) reflect that learners' sceptical attitudes towards communicative activities appeared to be one of the obstacles that prevent implementing CLT. In another study conducted by Li (1998) in South Korea, the findings show that learners tend to be reluctant to participate in the TL, and all learners were concerned about were the scores and grammar.

In addition, Richards and Renandya (2002) reported that there are many reasons that may hinder developing some communicative activities such as discussion. Some of those reasons, as claimed by Hu (2002), could be the large classes, time management, socio-linguistic competence, teachers' lack of proficiency, examination pressure and cultural factors. Time management is one of the issues that has been largely discussed in CLT (Orafi and Borg, 2009; Shihiba, 2011; Saad, 2011 and Alshibany, 2014). Since each activity may consume a different length of time which could be attributed to the different levels and abilities of learners. Another problem that may prevent teachers implementing CLT is the large multilevel classes. One of the greatest criticisms of CLT comes from Bax who claims:

> CLT is now having a negative effect… I shall argue that CLT has always neglected one key aspect of language teaching- namely the context in which it takes place- and that the consequences of this are serious.
>
> (Bax, 2003, p.278)

He explained, that the message delivered to teachers by CLT, is that no matter what the context or situation CLT works. The main focus is only on what teachers should do to generate communication. Though some researchers have referred to the importance of the context when implementing CLT, this has often been classified as irrelevant. Bax suggests the issue is CLT discourse which always gives priority for communication without taking into account learners' needs, wishes and classroom problems. Borg (2006) too referred to the importance of the context. Thorp (1999) reported that learners' relevant contributions could be influenced by the culturally different norms of interaction which may result of the learning context. That is why, as discussed by Bax, teachers should give more attention to the context. Additionally, Golombek (1998) discussed that teachers need to balance their ideas and the expectations of their learners within a certain context. Importantly, Mckay (1992) pointed out that every classroom operates within a cultural context which determines what is to be learned and how it is to be learned with respect to the teacher's preconditioned ideas about that particular context.

However, in research conducted by Mckay (1992), Hu (2002), Zhang and Head (2009), Lee and Ng (2009), one of the reasons behind a failure to implement CLT in some Chinese classes was the clash that occurred between the Chinese culture of learning and the expectations of teaching and learning when implementing CLT. In other words, Chinese learners tended to keep silent in the class and feel uncomfortable presenting opinions which differed from those of their teacher or classmate. Dogancay-Aktuna (2005) reported that Chinese learners therefore had problems, participating in interactive activities, debates or joining group work. He added that even the Japanese classes did not focus on interaction and the emphasis

was on the whole-class working with the teacher, with L1 being heavily used. Littlewood (cited in Zhang and Head, 2009, p.2) justified that saying "the passive behaviour of Asian students is not innate but has been instilled into them by growing up in a cultural and educational environment which discourages independent thinking." Also, they do not consider a teacher as a facilitator but rather a person in authority. This is not dissimilar to the Libyan cultural environment.

Moreover, Ellis (1994, cited in Ellis, 1996) mentioned that due to some cultural problems, teachers failed to implement CLT in Vietnam. Beishamayum (2010) also mentioned that, unlike English learners, Manipuri learners of English tend to avoid eye contact and look down when they spoke to their teachers in order to show respect and politeness. However, such behaviour is not appropriate in CLT, as eye contact is very necessary. That is why he advised teachers to identify the needs of their students and, according to that, to recognise which cultural elements need to be explored in a lesson. The cultural content of TL teaching materials is important in order to increase the awareness of learners. Typically, CLT materials may not be appropriate for every culture. (Dogancay, 2005). In Saudi Arabia, the dominance of religion in every aspect of life, including education, could largely affect issues such as material selection and what is appropriate for each gender (Mckay, 1992). However, due to the traditional way of teaching that is still followed in most classes, Arab teachers do not like to use activities that include pair or group work, because they believe such activity will make them lose the control of the class. Also, according to Chen (2003), some learners feel uncomfortable talking with others about their personal experiences. Therefore, in such an educational context, when using traditional CLT materials and methods, problems

like anxiety, apprehension and reticence may occur when it comes to communicating in the TL.

Overall, culture is one of the main aspects that must be considered in the process of learning a TL. That is to say, as language tends to be a social activity, and people need to communicate, the socio-cultural approach focuses on culture and social interaction while learning a L2. Lightbown and Spada (1999, p.23) mentioned that Vygotsky (1978) explained the process of learning as "it develops entirely from social interaction." He referred to the importance of cultural awareness in the process of learning. CLT it is designed to help learners to acquire the TL with its culture. Beishamayum (2010, p.212-213) says "Language is the product of culture". In this sense, he claimed that teaching a TL without its culture diminishes learners' experience.

3.4 Professionalism and Effective characteristics of Professional Development (PD)

With reference to the significance of understanding teachers' beliefs, the concept of professionalism could be considered an issue, because it is fundamental to deepening teachers' content knowledge as well as developing their teaching skills and practices (Desimone, Smith and Ueno, 2006, p.181). Similarly, Wei, Darling-Hammond, Andree, Richardson and Orphanos (2009) define professionalism as "the process and activities designed to improve teachers' knowledge, the practice of instruction and the learning outcomes of the students" (cited in Kang, Cha and Ha, 2013, p.4). However, professional development has been identified in many ways. As discussed by Hismanoglu (2010), it is a) an inclusion of in-service teachers training; b) a process where teachers work under supervision in order to gain experience; and c) a

continuing learning process where teachers' main aim is how to teach according to expectations and needs of their students. (p.990)

Teachers' professional development is recognised as a key step and a vital component to enhance the quality of teaching and learning in schools. Consequently, as Ingvarson, Meiers and Beavis (2004, p.2) indicate, there is an increased and continuous interest in research that identifies diverse features and characteristics for effective PD in teaching and learning in different contexts. Despite the diverse content of PD in the literature, some general conclusions about the effective characteristics of PD can be drawn. There is a broad consensus that effective models of PD should have clear objectives about how to facilitate teacher practice and change in line with teachers and students' needs (Garet et al., 2001; Birman et al., 2005; Desimone, 2009; Saunders, 2014). Riley (2003) identified some characteristics for being professional: the amount and the content of knowledge teachers have; an ethical foundation for activity and interaction; a societal purpose and obligation; a degree of regulation autonomy; consensual standards for a profession. Baggini (2005) adds that being professional means to be able to efficiently cope with the inherent teaching challenges and tasks through the use of skills, experiences and expertise. That is to say, teachers are not just authorities within their classrooms and of the content they teach, but their roles are bigger than that. In other words, students' success, achievements and education are dependent upon teachers who should be good models with relevant knowledge, effective teaching methods, appropriate behaviour, manners, ethics and be aware of who their students are and of their societal values. Teachers are often considered models even when they are not delivering formal content. Yoon, et al. (2008, p.3) identifies how professional development could affect

students' achievements, suggesting it is like a circle, starting with professional development enhancing teachers' knowledge, skills and motivation; and then knowledge, skills and motivation improving classroom teaching practices; and, finally, improved teaching practice enhancing students' achievements.

In addition, effective professional development has components which have been approached from different perspectives (Hismanoglu, 2010). Day (1999) illustrated seven factors for effective professional development. They are: discussion, inspiration, exposition, opportunities for cross reference of standards, skilful training, experiments opportunities and coaching skills. On the other hand, there is Adey (2004, p.194) who proposed fourteen fundamental factors which come under four main elements for effective professional development to occur and keep in line with any change or development in the educational settings. These factors are: firstly, innovation which should have an adequate theory base, supported by appropriate high quality materials, and should introduce methods for which there is evidence of effectiveness. Secondly, the professional development programme (PD), which has to be of sufficient in length and intensity, should employ methods that reflect the relevant teaching methods and include provision for school management and coaching. Thirdly, the senior management in the school should be committed to the innovation, and share its vision with departments while instituting the necessary structural change to ensure maintenance. The last one is that teachers, who need to work in groups in order to share experiences, should effectively communicate with each other in regard to the innovation, and be provided with opportunities for practice and reflection., Finally, teachers should be supported in questioning their beliefs about teaching and learning and be given opportunities to develop a sense of ownership of

the innovation they are implementing. In institutions, supporting the above factors should cohere with certain strategies such as: peer coaching, study groups, action research, mentoring, teaching portfolio, in-service training, team teaching, and some others. The provision of such strategies would therefore provide teachers with an effective and valuable opportunity to change under the umbrella of on-going professional development which in turn will be reflected within their students' achievements. The notion of the ongoing and lifelong professional development for teachers has been emphasised by a number of studies and research such as Fullan and Stiegebauer, (1991); Clarke and Clarke and Hollingsworth, (2002); Harwell, (2003) and Hismanoglu, (2010).

According to Harwell (2003, p.4), professional development content along with strategies should function to deepen teachers' knowledge of the subjects being taught; to sharpen teaching skills in the classroom; to keep up with developments which may occur, particularly in the field and generally in education; to generate and contribute new knowledge to the profession; and, finally, to increase the ability to monitor students' work and achievements in order to provide constructive feedback to students which might appropriately redirect the teaching process. He added that professional development should always address acknowledged gaps in student achievement. For instance, it would be useless to offer professional development to raise student performance in a subject such as English if students are performing well overall in English, but weakly specifically in reading or writing skills. The content of professional development should be focused on: subject matter, measurement of student performance; pedagogical weaknesses within the organisation; and inquiry regarding professional questions which are relevant to the teaching and learning

settings in which the professional development is delivered. Working within this frame could increase the opportunities for teacher professional development which is relevant to actual issues and in turn leads to avoiding the provision of any information that may not be useful and beneficial for the participants.

3.4.1 Continuous Professional Development (CPD)

Teachers' continuous professional development is of main concern and a priority in a number of countries all over the world, because it has been considered as the most effective approach for adequate teacher preparation (Mokhele, 2013). Often, as reported by Helterbran (2008), teachers refer to themselves as professionals and see themselves as experts on teaching because they have experienced some degree of formal education. He claimed this belief means teachers do not strive for proficiency in professionalism. The implication is that, to overcome this, teachers' education should not stop with his or her graduation, but there should be continual progress and awareness of the best and new practices, teaching methods and material in the field; and it is here where the continuous professional development (CPD) lies. Therefore, as suggested by Harwood and Clarke (2006), teachers have to play a dual role: involvement in their teaching practices plus engagement in a CPD route. Experiencing such duality could be a vital key for teachers to articulate their development needs and to draw on their own and others practice-based evidence to facilitate their and other teachers' change and development (Pickering, Daly and Pachler, 2007). This study will consider the significant of this in Libyan context.

CPD, however, has been interpreted from different perspectives. For instance, Neil and Morgan recommend that a good framework for CPD interpretations is based on

three main perspectives. The first is the official interpretation: that is, the way education policy makers plan to interpret and carry out development. The second is the schools' interpretations: that is, the way heads of schools see CPD as being based on policies and regulations in light of the local contexts and learning circumstances. The last one is the teachers' interpretation: that is, the way teachers see CPD in line with their professional and personal needs (2003, p.1). The official interpretational prospectives of CPD, as stated by Goodlad (1992), refer to framing teacher development as a centralised top-down involvement, because such perspectives are imposed by education and policy makers, and a frequent result of those politically-driven initiatives where the CPD focal point relies more on structure than on educational processes. This can be clearly seen in the Libyan context when the centralised top-down involvement is initiated by the education authorities, MoE (See 2.5). The school interpretational perspectives of CPD lie under the 'staff development' heading where teachers are developed through being members of teaching staff inside a school (O'Sullivan, et al., 1988). Day (1999, p.1) emphasised that, in a school context, teachers could enjoy opportunities to be active in a range of formal and informal activities focusing on professional and personal purposes. For this reason, the school interpretational perspectives of CPD can be identified under two key sub-perspectives of CPD; the first is the formal perspective where schools as governmental institutions and on behalf of educational authorities arrange the required training to meet the local needs. The second is the informal perspective which occurs in a collaborative way among teachers themselves.

However, school-based development refers to the strong sense of responsibility teachers have towards their careers mainly when implementing any relevant changes.

In conjunction with school-based development, challenges appear when a group of teachers wanting to follow contrasting priorities (Neil and Morgan, 2003). For example, some teachers might be satisfied with their practices and consider them appropriate; other teachers may not be satisfied but also might not be able to change yet; others' focus might be on some external factors, hindering change occurring. Likewise, a development activity which seems appropriate and can work effectively with some teachers might be inappropriate and cannot work with other teachers. As explained by Head and Taylor (1997), this may be attributed to the fact that those solutions were not developed for the sake of the individual needs and desires or have a vital role to encourage teachers to self-develop. However, school-based development focuses on teachers' collective needs, and independent development could take different routes and be employed differently, depending on teachers' needs, aims and existing conditions (ibid). However, within the centralised top-down conditions in Libya, it is not possible for Libyan schools to have full control to arrange their own developmental training programmes. Finally, teachers' interpretational perspectives of CPD are determined by the bottom-up route of development That is to say the CPD can be adjusted either independently, collaboratively or both. This bottom-up individual development seems to be a more reasonable move towards peers' collaboration. Such persistent development is perceived as a harmonised effort which takes place when the planning and implementation of CPD is a "joint responsibility of teachers, schools and government". (Day, 1999, p.2)

In regard to the three interpretational perspectives of CPD, Fullan (1994) determined that neither top-down nor bottom-up strategies could stand effectively on their own, rather they coexist as cooperative components. As a result, he and Day (1999)

recommended the holistic vision of CPD which takes account of the three interpretational perspectives of CPD mentioned above. However, alongside the top-down approach Libyan teachers need to be encouraged and supported through the bottom-up approach, where they can accomplish their own CPD in an independent way and also collaboratively with others in order to articulate the required and relevant CPD activities and ways which are entirely teacher-led.

In addition, Internet-based development for teachers is another effective form of CPD which could occur either individually or collaboratively, without time or distance limitations (Jennings, 1995, p.104). In other words, online learning provides teachers with a wide range of opportunities and options for formal and informal forms of learning as well as the individual and collaborative forms of learning. Simply, it provides teachers with more practical ways to share, reflect and construct new meaningful knowledge in a collaborative mode while being part of communities (Daly and Pachler, 2007). Internet facilities nowadays, as a more flexible gateway to information resources, are provided in a number of portable technologies to be used anywhere and anytime, and, as a result, teachers have more opportunities to create their own flexible learning and networking (Price, 2007), downloading different materials for learning, creating discussions, composing different interactions with different people, etc. (Clarke, 2002, p.13). Informative platforms have emerged where valuable knowledge and expertise are shared (Neil and Morgan, 2003). Harlen and Doubler highlight that the online discussions and platforms are resourceful opportunities for teachers to share knowledge, question their practices, recognise other teachers' perspectives, and get themselves familiarised with a wider variety of convenient practices (2007, p.458). In such online discussions, where teachers express their

thoughts through writing, teachers take time to respond through writing, and, as a result, they tend to be more reflective and critical (Lapadat, 2002). In the Libyan context, although internet facilities are accessible to the public, they can be erratic. Teachers must do their best in order to broaden their teaching knowledge and share practices and reflections with others. For Libyan female teachers with family commitments and cultural restrictions, it might be the best alternative CPD resource.

To sum up, professional development which involves teachers in a direct exploration process of their own beliefs could be considered as an opportunity towards developing great self-awareness through critical questioning and then reflections for afterwards adaptation.

3.4.2 Professionalism and Reflexivity

York-Barr et.al (2001) refer to reflexivity as good practice and enhanced professionalism whereby teachers examine their beliefs, goals, classroom practice and management in order to gain a better and deeper understanding about development with a view to improving their students' performance. Goodson (1997, cited in Helterbran, 2008) reported that teachers who understand the benefits and importance of reflexivity will constantly work to strengthen and refine their skills and practices and in turn will enjoy the prospect of becoming increasingly effective and professional. With reflection and critical thinking, teachers could be more able to interpret and reframe their beliefs and experiences from different perspectives, and then to develop and to change the traditional beliefs and practices which are inherited from past experiences.

Reflexivity is considered an essential component of teachers' professional development (Postholm, 2008) and a good idea for every educational context to have a clear set of expectations about teachers' responsibilities and also a clear structure of support (e.g. training, practice and feedback) for teachers to facilitate their ongoing professional learning. Korthagen (2001) defined the term reflection as a mental process which happens to structure or restructure a problem, an experience, an insight or existing knowledge making explicit the subject of thinking. As reflection aims to improve, restructure and ameliorate the effectiveness of one's own performance, so it is considered as one of the key strategies of the ongoing professional development, the change in one's own performance happening as a result of revising one's own way of thinking about classroom practices and performances. Some countries have coherent frameworks "to document and certify effective professional development activities" (OECD, 2005, p.131). For instance, teachers' portfolios are used to support teachers' professional development. Such portfolios might, firstly, allow teachers to systematically keep track of professional development activities as well as sharing the results with others. Secondly, they provide a good opportunity for the documentation of developmental projects and research achieved by teachers in such a way as to make teachers aware of their developmental needs and better able to understand the factors which could contribute to teacher effectiveness. Moreover, reflective teachers seem to be more open to innovation and therefore they seem to have less risk of being fossilised, following familiar paths and refusing to be professionally developed. In other words, reflective teachers often are open to trying out alternative methods, strategies and techniques of teaching in order to develop and enhance the learning that is appropriate to their students. Reflective teachers see

teaching as a process which is dynamic rather than just an activity which can be managed competently.

3.4.3 Professionalism and Context

Professionalism and life-long learning are emphasised and encouraged in the Islamic culture, Prophet Mohammed, peace be upon him, has a famous saying in this regard. Once he said to his companions "Seek knowledge from cradle to grave". However, Herbert and Rainford (2014) stated that professional development must be in line with the context as well as involving the knowledge teachers require. In a past review, still of relevant significance, about professional development in developing countries performed by Weeks (1988), he pointed out the significance of investigating development in particular contexts is in order to come up with relevant decisions and solutions. He reported that:

> The third world, so-called, is a diverse, complex group of nations and cannot be neatly labelled as if it were a homogeneous unit with all countries at the same stage of development.... Each country is at a different stage within its particular context, facing issues of varying complexity.

(Weeks, 1988, p.383)

Besides that macro context; society and culture, there are the micro educational contexts which have to be reviewed in order to set out the best scene for professional development, especially if the learning context differs significantly from the context of practice. Such activity could narrow, if not bridge the gap between theory and practice as well as achieve critical outcomes in teacher education (Herbert and Rainford, 2014). Therefore, as Weeks (1988) claims, all administrators and policy makers in those countries have to catch up with other countries' educational achievements and

expectations, and come up with what suits their needs for professional development out of the broad principles of professional development. To add, Guskey suggests that for successful educational achievements, professional development should not be "just in terms of individual improvement, but also in terms of improvements in the capacity of the organisation" (2000, p.21). That is to say; effective professional development, change and improvement at an individual level should be aligned with organisational values.

Moreover, it is emphasised that without change in teachers themselves, any educational improvement and innovation at the classroom level may not be as effective and successful as expected and planned. Hargreaves claimed that "change in the curriculum is not effected without some concomitant change in the teacher", because it is the teachers who are responsible to deliver that curriculum (1989, p.54). This is key aspect of this study and of the situation relating to Libyan teachers.

3.5 Curriculum Development, Change and Alignment

Curriculum development and change are also considered as significant in the success of teaching and learning processes which is why the curriculum should align with all aspects of teaching and learning procedures (Wilson, 2009). In other words, the key to successful language learning and teaching could be linked to the compatibility of all educational components. Curriculum and pedagogical alignment is an issue in the Libyan educational context. It is fundamental to building a solid bridge between educational standards and educational practices (Anderson, 2002); to ensuring curriculum learning outcomes, teaching methodology and assessment procedures are congruent and aligned to each other and with the societal standards in order to

achieve the intended aims of teaching and learning. Biggs and Tang (2007; cited in Joseph and Juwah, 2012) referred to this as 'the whole system' which should be kept in balance in order to achieve the teaching and learning outcomes. By aligning all of the educational components with each other, effective teaching and learning should occur (Joseph and Juwah, 2012), because, if what teachers deliver to their students is not aligned, then their teaching will not be effective (Anderson, 2002).

3.6 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter started with an explanation of what a belief is and the role it plays in influencing teachers' practices. It also presented the core sources of teachers' beliefs within the educational context. This chapter then reviewed the main characteristics and drawbacks of the dominant language teaching approaches; grammar translation method, direct method, audio-lingual method and the communicative language teaching. It has also explored relevant literature about professionalism, continuous professional development, reflexivity and context impact. It ended with an explanation of curriculum alignment, change and development.

Chapter Four: Theoretical Framework

4.1 Introduction

This chapter starts with an overview of the theoretical framework and the way in which the adopted theoretical base strengthens my research. It provides a detailed discussion of the relevant elements of Planned Behaviour Theory (PBT) and of Desimone's (2009) Theoretical Framework (DTF) relevant to my research and explains how each of them guided, and contributed to this study.

4.2 Theoretical Framework

To understand a theory and realise its association and relevance as a theoretical framework for a particular research requires the following dimensional efforts which are stated by Silver:

- To travel into the theory inventor's mind and become able to perceive reality as that person does.
- To experience a shift in a researcher's mental structure and find a different way of thinking.
- To feel some wonder towards things he/she never realised before now.
- To stretch his/her mind in order to reach the theorist's actual meanings.

(Silver, 1983; cited in Jr and Mertz, 2015, p.2):

Those conceptualisations reflect the significance of a theoretical framework structure. With those four conceptualisations in mind, a theoretical framework, as referred to by Swanson (2013), means to introduce and describe an existing theory which appears to be relevant to investigate and explain research issues. However, this study employs two theories as a theoretical base for its research; they are: Planned Behaviour Theory

(PBT) and Desimone's (2009) Theoretical Framework (DTF). The main reason for adopting these two together is that one of them focuses on behaviours as they are (teachers' current practices) considering beliefs as a key source for structuring certain ways of behaving. Whereas, the other focuses on the change and development of those behaviours through professional development. Generally, this linked theoretical base strengthens my research in the following ways:

- It allowed me to look deeply and make sense of how things should be managed with regard to teachers' beliefs and practices;

- It informed what to do in the design, conduct and the analysis of the study;

- The theoretical base connected me with relevant existing knowledge and provided me with appropriate notions through the interrelated concepts provided by both theories;

- It helped to specify what might be functioning as key variables in terms of teachers' beliefs and professional development, and how such variables could differ and change under certain circumstances;

- Both of the theories were selected due to their appropriateness, the ease of application in terms of the research issues, and the explanatory power each one of them has.

4.2 Planned Behaviour Theory (PBT)

Planned Behaviour Theory is an extension of Reasoned Action Theory developed by the social psychologist Icek Ajzen in 1985, and it continues to be a focus of attention in many fields, particularly in social psychology (Ajzen, 1985, 1988, 1991). This theory has been used in a number of studies to predict and explain human behaviours in a variety of contexts (Cheng et.al, 2005 and Conner et.al 2003). PBT is based on the

assumption that "human beings usually behave in a sensible manner; that they take account of available information and implicitly or explicitly consider the implications of their actions" (Ajzen, 2005, p.117). This means an individual's intention to perform or not to perform is the immediate key element towards the behaviour; and what constructs that intention are the beliefs an individual hold. This theory considers intention (and the resulting behaviour) as a reflected product of three basic determinants: one is personal in nature, another is a reflection of a social influence, and the last is dealing with controlling issues. That is to say, as explained by Ajzen, the first personal element refers to 'someone's belief and attitude towards behaviour. It is the positive or negative evaluation that an individual makes about performing a particular behaviour. The second element of intention construction is the perception of a social pressure which could result in the performance (or not) of that behaviour. As this element deals with 'perceived normative perceptions', it is called the 'subjective norms'. The third element of intention is the sense of capability and self-efficacy towards the performance of the behaviour under consideration. This element is termed as 'perceived behavioural control'. (p.118)

In general, an individual intends to perform a particular behaviour when he/she constructs a positive evaluation about it, and is under social pressure to perform it, but also when he/she believes that there is the means and chance to achieve it. This theory proposes that the relative significance of an attitude towards behaviour, the subjective norms and the perceived behavioural control rely partly on the intention under consideration. Sometimes some attitudinal considerations of certain intentions become more central than the normative considerations, and in other cases these normative considerations of other intentions become the dominant. Similarly,

perceived behavioural control becomes the most significant and influential element for some behaviours rather than others. To add, on some occasions, one or two factors are considered to be enough in order to provide a justified explanation about the intention behind the construction of certain behaviour. Though on other occasions, all three factors are required. That is to say, the relativity of how vital the three determinants are differs from one person to another. The figure below represents PBT, as explained above (Ajzen, 2005).
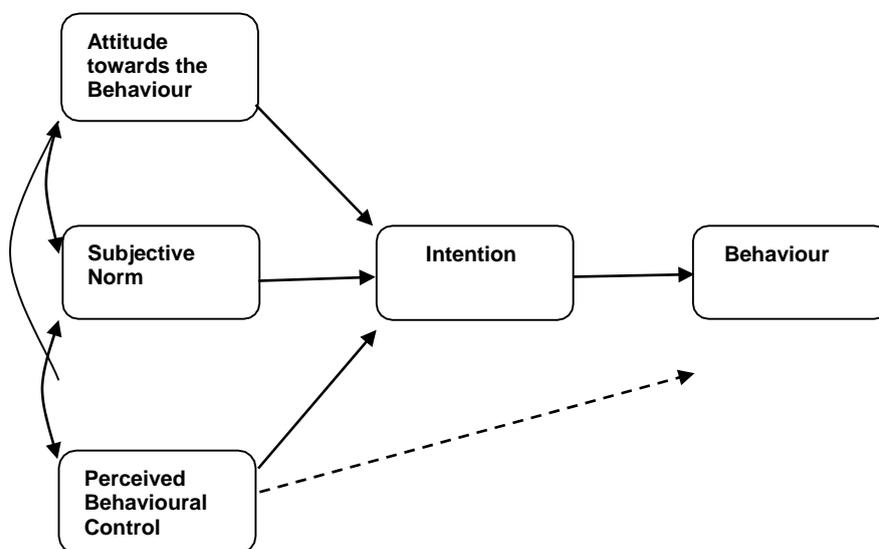
Figure2: Planned Behaviour Theory (Ajzen, 2005, p.118)

This figure reflects the two hallmarks of PBT. The first is the assumption that the perceived behavioural control has motivational inclusions towards the creation of an intention. For instance, if an individual has a passive belief, he/she will not necessarily have the opportunity or the resources to perform a particular behaviour; it becomes unlikely for him/her to form strong behavioural intention, even if he/she holds a favourable attitude towards the behaviour of interest. Thus there is an expectation that there might be an association between the perceived behavioural control and the

intention. This assumption is reflected in the above figure by the arrow that is connected between the perceived behavioural control and the intention. The second is the possible availability of a direct connection between the perceived behavioural control and the behaviour, and in many cases the performance of that behaviour does not depend on motivational factors only but also on the adequacy of control factors over the behaviour under consideration. A perceived behavioural control could have an indirect influence on behaviour. However, in some instances, the measurement of the perceived behavioural control appears to add very little to the accuracy of the prediction that could indicate the behaviour. This might happen, for example, if an individual has little knowledge about the behaviour, or if the available resources are changed, or if some other new and unfamiliar elements appeared on the ground. Though, it might be possible to gain a direct measure of the perceived behavioural control by directly asking individuals whether they believe in their capability to perform in certain way. This assumption, however, is reflected in the last figure through the broken arrow which indicates the connection between the perceived behavioural control and the behaviour. This link is expected only when an agreement between the perceptions of control and the actual control over the behaviour exists. (Ajzen, 2005)

4.2.1 Behaviours and Beliefs

Planned Behaviour theory, as stated by Ajzen on many occasions, provides a rationalisation of how behaviour might be explained and justified in a certain number of situations. It suggests that beliefs are the informational foundation of individuals' intentions and behaviours. Ley stated that this theory as indicated by its title, is "based on the assumption that behaviour is a consequence of rational decision making" (2012, p.212). Through a chain of overruling phases, PBT traces the behavioural

111

causes to an individual's accessible beliefs, and every successful phase within the chain (from questionable behaviour to the beliefs behind it) provides a comprehensible account of the factors behind the construction of behaviour. Firstly, behaviour is determined by an intention and behavioural control. Secondly, the intention itself is explained through the attitude towards behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. Thirdly, attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control are considered in terms of the beliefs an individual may hold about the consequences of performing the behaviour; the normative expectations and the available factors which could either facilitate or hinder the behaviour performance. Finally, then, behaviours are explained and interpreted through the consideration of beliefs. Ajzen (2005) distinguishes in this theory between three types of beliefs: behavioural, normative and control. The following figure represents the main three determinants of the PBT with the addition of what is termed by Ajzen (2005) as behavioural, normative and control beliefs.
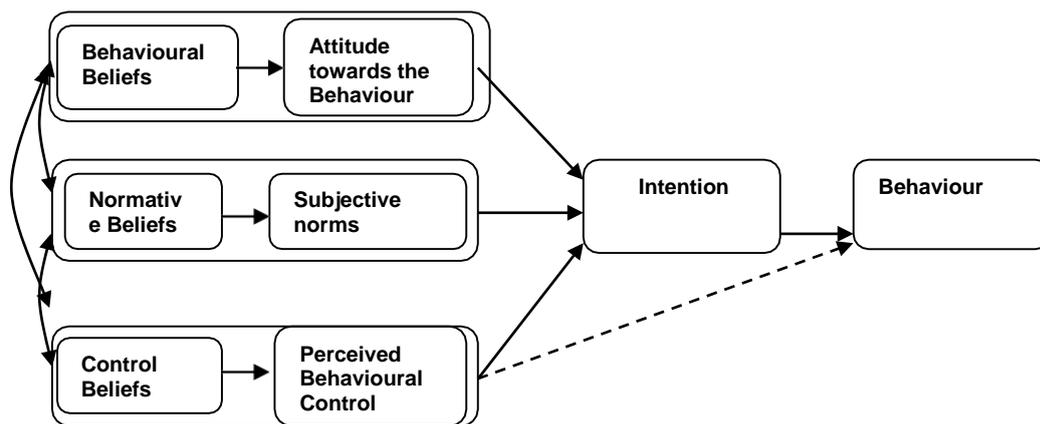
Figure 3: Beliefs as the informational Foundation of Intentions and Behaviour (Ajzen, 2005, P.126)

As a reflection of the concepts in the figure, the process of adopting behaviour is influenced by three key beliefs:

- The first is the 'behavioural belief'; the beliefs and attitudes toward the behaviour and a person's belief about particular behaviour. This determinant refers to the subjective possibility that certain behaviour will lead to a certain outcome and a person's positive or negative evaluation of self-performance in certain behaviour.

- The second is the 'normative belief' and the subject norms. That is; a person's perception of a social norm or relevant beliefs about the possibility and appropriateness of performing certain behaviour.

- The third is the 'control belief' and the perception of control that refers to the extent to which a person perceives the ease or difficulty of performing a certain behaviour which is identified by control beliefs.

(Underwood, 2012).

These three determinants and, more specifically, the 'behavioural beliefs' (e.g. teachers' beliefs about using L1 as a tool of explanation when delivering a lesson) generate either a favourable or unfavourable attitude towards certain behaviour (some agree and others do not); 'normative beliefs' lead to the perceived social pressure; that is the 'subjective norm' (capability and self-efficacy: for instance; using L2 when delivering a lesson); and then 'control beliefs' lead to the 'perceived behavioural control' (e.g. how easy or difficult following the teacher's book instructions might be). Altogether, belief and attitude towards the behaviour of interest (e.g. the provided listening material (CDs) is not arbitrary but develops listening skills); subjective norms

and the perception of behavioural control lead to the construction of the behavioural intention (e.g. teachers consider using those CDs and creating the required environment). The more the attitude and the subjective norms, the greater the perceived control will be, and the stronger the individual's intention will be towards the performance of the behaviour. (Ajzen, 2002, p.665). Ajzen describes Planned Behaviour Theory as being open to the addition of extra predictors and further elaboration, but that is only when it is identified and revealed that they capture significant variation in intention and behaviour with the present variables of the theory in mind (1991, p.199). Conner and Armitage (1998) argued that empirical evidence is required to support a theoretical explanation of how and additional variables are required within the application of PBT. This theoretical explanation, they assumed, should, firstly, identify the process by which any new variable affects intentions and behaviours; secondly, explain in which way it relates to the existing determinants of PBT; and, finally, provide a justifiable clarification about the variety of conditions over which such a variable might be expected to have an impact (1998, p.1433). However, this feature of openness provides a kind of flexibility that could support the adoption of other models in an aligned way in order to fill in any gaps which may occur as a result of focusing on certain factors and determinants.

4.2.2 Background Factors

As discussed earlier, according to PBT, intentions and behaviours can be understood and formed through the behavioural, normative and control beliefs. A large number of variables could be either related or influence the beliefs an individual holds. For instance, variables such as age, gender, personality, religion, ethnicity, education, exposure to information, past experience, intelligence, coping skills, social support,

etc, all could differently influence individuals' behaviours. As people grow up within a variety of environmental and social situations, they will acquire different information about a variety of issues, and, in turn, different constructions of beliefs and behaviours to shape the kind of personalities they are. From a psychological point of view, the process of acquiring different information about a variety of issues provides an individual with the base for their beliefs, the consequences of their behaviours, normative expectations and obstacles which may prevent them performing specific behaviour. All exemplified factors affect behavioural, normative and control beliefs, and, as a result, individuals' intentions and behaviours are influenced (Ajzen, 2005). Good background, cultural and educational factors are clearly significant in the Libyan context of this research.

Ajzen divided the background factors under three main criteria, that is: personal, social and informational categories. The following figure represents the role of the background factors in PBT.
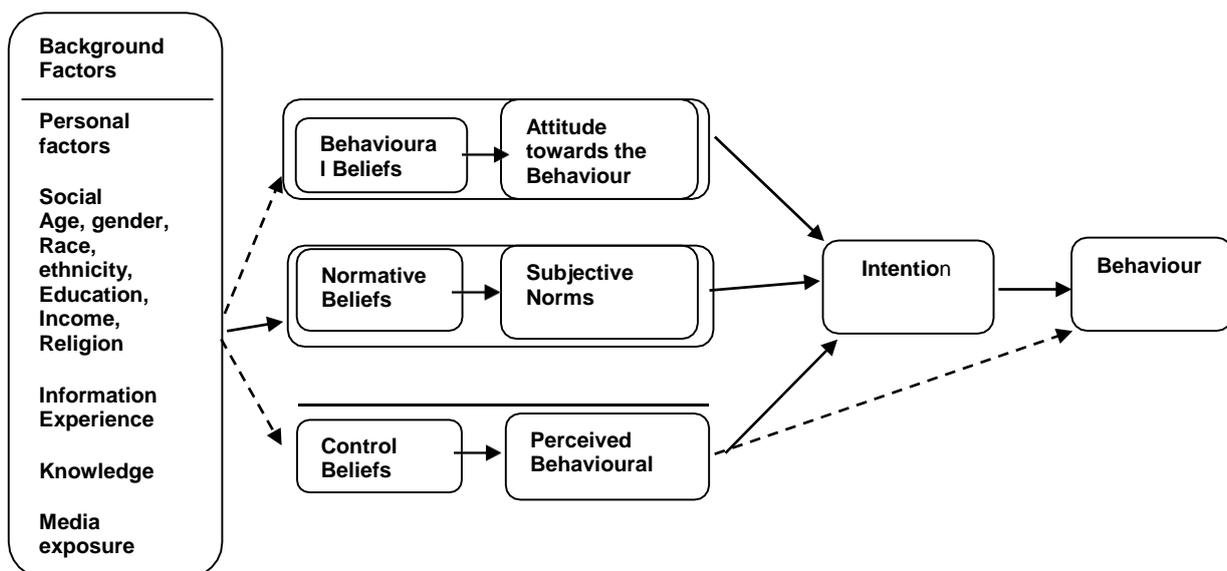
Figure 4: The role of the background factors in the PBT (Ajzen, 2005, p.135)

The dotted arrows in the above figure indicate that, though the background factor could influence in some way behavioural, normative and control beliefs, there is not necessarily any kind of connection between background factors and beliefs. However, with a multitude of background factors, it would not be an easy task to recognise which should be considered and which not without a theory guiding the selection of what might be the dominant factors behind the construction of the behaviour of interest. Accordingly, other theories could be adopted to complement PBT as recommended by Ajzen himself, in order to support the identification of relevant background factors, and, as a result, broaden and intensify the general understanding of the behaviour and its determinants.

4.2.3 Criticism of PBT

Since the introduction of Planned Behaviour Theory by Icek Ajzen, it has been an influential and frequently adopted model for the prediction of individual's social behaviours; particularly in psychology and health sciences. It has been productively employed to predict and explain a wide variety of health behaviours studies such as smoking, drinking, breastfeeding, etc. (Ajzen, 2011, p. 1113)

Regardless of its popularity, PBT has been a target for many debates and criticism. Some researchers such as Wegner and Wheatley (1999) and Wegner (2002), do not agree that this theory has provided sufficient explanation of social behaviours and deny the key role of the consciousness factor as a causal agent. Other investigators such as Uhlmann and Swanson (2004), Brandstatter, Lengfelder and Gollwitzer (2001), and Aarts and Dilksterhuis (2000) criticise this theory and state that there are many other unconscious mental processes that go on when formulating certain

behaviours. In other words, PBT does not consider other variables which could have a direct impact on the behavioural intention and even motivation, such as mood, fear, threat, or a past experience. Ley criticised PBT saying that, though it is considered as a good model at predicting intentions, it appeared to be of little efficacy at predicting an actual behaviour, especially when the behaviour is a habit. Yet, most of those criticising PBT accept its fundamental reasoned action propositions, questioning primarily its adequacy and its limiting conditions (Ajzen, 2011). However, its flexibility element could cover aspects of limiting conditions through different ways, especially if it is aligned it with another theory or model.

4.2.4 The research issues under the PBT lens

From a psychological point of view, Planned Behaviour Theory concerns the link between behaviour and beliefs. Bauch (1984; cited in Alresheed, 2012) suggests that a belief system is assumed to work as a psychological filter which makes a person selective in making decisions and judgments about what is 'intended' to be performed. This belief system represents a set of priorities and preferences to identify, feel about and consistently respond to evolving stimuli and events. Therefore, regardless of whether the nature of that belief is true or false, conscious or unconscious, it is always recognised as true by the person who holds that belief (Borg, 2001). Libyan teachers, though they have positive feelings towards the current curriculum and its objectives, are resistant to change despite the fact that their traditional instructional practices are not aligned with the goals of the current curriculum and the achievement of students' communication in English. PBT is therefore adopted as a theoretical framework for this study for the following reasons:

- It appears to be appropriate to this research due, firstly, to its three key determinants; behavioural, normative and control beliefs that correspond and can be applied in a variety of contexts, and seem to be applicable to the Libyan context.

- This theory takes into account social and contextual factors and could illuminate how these might have a role in shaping teachers' beliefs and perceptions regarding the curriculum and methods of teaching.

- PBT may help to connect Libyan teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning, and their instructional practices, to the cultural, organisational and personal factors related to the local schooling system.

- It aims to explain and predict human behaviour at times of change and intervention.

- It is open and flexible and can be aligned with other theories and models; such as Desimone's (2009) theoretical framework.

This theory, as discussed by Newton (2011, p.1), could be considered as "a powerful lens for exploring and understanding the educational activities in different cultural systems." It is intended to enable the researcher to move from analysing people's actions to analysing their activities within the cultural, organisational or political context, and then their individual professional identity.

4.3 Desimone's (2009) theoretical framework

Teachers are individuals and as a result have individual needs. As identified in the literature in order to come up with what teachers might miss and lack in their profession for further development, it is important to identify their personal and professional background. It is, therefore essential to provide a base for what might be

the focus of the professional development they need in order to work within as this will be a direct response in terms of their professional needs (Huban, 2002; Turbill, 2002 and Huberman, 1992). Desimone defines professional development as being "any activity that is partly or primarily to prepare paid staff members for improved performance in present or future roles in school districts" (2009, p.182). His model is adopted for this study with Planned Behaviour Theory as a theoretical base to complement each other in terms of Libyan teachers' beliefs and practices. Desimone's model is employed as a guide to explain and evaluate professional development within a Libyan context using the following three aspects:

- To identify the key features and explanation of effective professional development.

- To explain the way in which effective professional development could affect teachers' knowledge, practices and their students' learning.

- To see how contextual factors such as teachers', students' and school characteristics are related to effective professional development.

Desimone (2009) stated that the main purpose of professional development is to develop or reform teachers. Desimone (2011) identified some features and characteristics for professional development which seem to be grounded in the literature. They are: content focus, active learning, coherence, duration and collective participation. These five features, it is suggested, are fundamental to effective professional development (Desimone, 2009, p.183), and therefore; they seem to be a good fit for evaluation and initiative in Libya regarding the training of teachers of

English and their professional development. The figure below represents the proposed professional development by Desimone (2009):

| Core features of professional development

1-Content focus

2-Active learning

3-Coherence

4-Duration

5-Collective participation | ←→ | Increase teacher knowledge and skills; change in attitudes and beliefs | ←→ | Change in instruction | ←→ | Improved Student Learning |
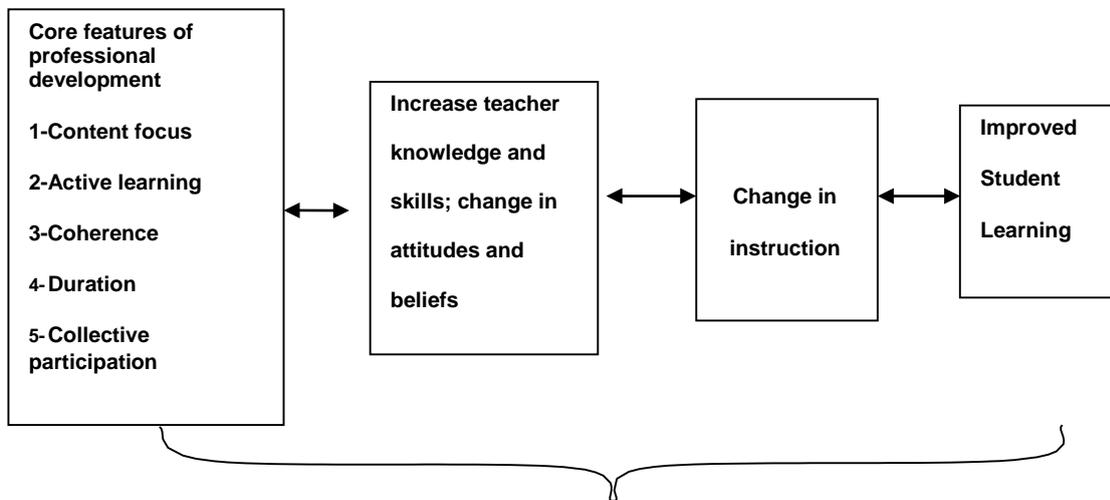
Figure 5: Desimone (2009) Professional Development Model

Contexts such as teacher and student characteristics, curriculum, school leadership, policy environment

4.3.1 Content focus

Content focus is the first element considered in Desimone's model. It refers to what teachers learn through professional development such as knowledge of the field, and knowledge of how students learn content. Desimone considered this feature the most important one as it has a direct impact on teaching practice and student learning. The greater and more profound sense of the material being introduced to teachers, the better they become and, in turn, are productive in their practices. This element of professional development builds teachers' knowledge and provides them with a more developed and solid background and base for their subjects and the academic field. If teachers do not adequately understand the professional development content, there will be a risk of disconnection between the innovation aims and its implementation.

Klingner et al. (1999) demonstrated such disconnection in a study he conducted where he identified eight teachers who were trained in four strategies regarding writing and reading. Those teachers did not have a comprehensive grasp of the innovation; as a result, their responses towards the strategies were passive or resistant (e.g. too difficult for the students; boring; I do not like it). These reflections came as a result of a fundamental lack of understanding of professional development, or it could be a representation of teachers' lack of beliefs in professional development. Accordingly, Fullan (2007) ensured that for a successful implementation of an innovation, belief in the innovation itself should be sought. Klingner et al. (1999) added that belief in an innovation encourage its usage and delivery. Beliefs, in most instances, lead to commitment which, in turn, lead to better and enhanced practices. However, the process of selecting an innovation in a certain content field starts with configuring relationships, trust, and discourse to accept the innovation (ibid).

Moreover, Adey (2004, p.194) proposed fourteen fundamental factors for effective professional development to occur and be consistent with any change or development in the educational settings. The first factor he addressed was that the innovation should have a sufficient theoretical base; secondly, it should be supported by appropriate high quality materials, and, thirdly, introduce methods for which there is evidence for effectiveness. According to Harwell (2003, p.4), professional development content along with strategies should function to deepen teachers' knowledge of the subjects being taught; sharpen teaching skills in the classroom; keep up with developments which may occur particularly in the field and generally in education. He added that professional development should always address acknowledged gaps in student achievement. For instance, it would be useless to offer

professional development to raise student performance in a subject such as English if students are performing well overall in English, but weakly in reading or writing skills. That is to say, the content of professional development should be focusing on things such as: subject matter, measurement of student performance, pedagogical weaknesses within the organisation and inquiry regarding to professional questions which are relevant to the teaching and learning settings in which the professional development is delivered. Working within this frame could increase the opportunities for teacher professional development which focus on actual issues and, in turn, avoid the provision of any information that may not be useful and beneficial for the participants.

4.3.2 Active learning

Active learning in the Desimone model is reflected in the act of listening, learning, creating knowledge. In other words, it refers to the opportunities provided for teachers to get engaged in the process of teaching and learning analysis. There are many ways of doing this, such as observing other teachers or being observed, scoring assessment, developing and presenting lessons, etc. More specifically, there are five strategies which have been identified to support active learning in Desimone model of professional development. The first is observation; where teachers observe each other and make their own reflections. The second is the provision of interactive and constructive feedback as this could assist the process of identifying workable choices. The third is interactive and leading discussions; where teachers could get productive chances to learn from each other and share a variety of experiences. The fourth is reviewing students' work. The last one is initiating leading discourse and connections between teachers and teachers, between teachers and researchers; communication

and networking. To maintain professional development, active learning is required to be in the form of collaborative sharing of problem solving (Menendez, 2003).

4.3.3 Coherence

Coherence in professional development refers to how professional development is consistent with the other teaching and learning opportunities, teachers' knowledge, beliefs, practices, school reforms and polices. Coherence is also the connection provided by the teachers between the reform, the innovation to be followed inside the classroom and the students' performance and achievements. Administrators have a significant role towards the establishment of coherence through supporting teachers as change agents and providing them with the required facilities and resources which in turn could provide teachers with a kind of trust and stability in their organisations. (Salisbury and McGregor, 2002)

4.3.4 Duration

Desimone said "sufficient duration" should be the time spent on professional development (2009, p.184). Duration simply refers to a sufficiency of time for professional development actually to occur. Fullan (1993) referred to the sufficiency of time within a frame of time, starting from the initiation of professional development till its implementation.

4.3.5 Collective participation

Collective learning refers to the participation of different teachers from the same school in the same learning opportunities which could enhance the possibility of exchange and development. Desimone (2009) explained this element as being interactive and constructive discourse between the professional development

planners and the teachers. Being inside the structure of a community where co-planning, co-teaching and collaborating becomes an essential practice is the aim of collective participation.

4.4 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter started with brief outline of theoretical framework and the way in which the linked theoretical base for this study strengthens my research. It also provided a detailed discussion about the elements of Planned Behaviour Theory (PBT) and Desimone's (2009) Theoretical Framework (DTF) relevant to my research and in which way each one of them guided this study, and what are the relevant variables of each one that contribute to relevance and influence. On the whole, the conceptualisations provided by both theories have a direct influence on the methodology and the analysis of the study by targeting the particular data to be gathered. Though to avoid the risk of missing other significant details (Orr, 2009), I kept the whole research process in balance. That is to say, in order to keep the research aims and questions in mind at all of the research stages: firstly, I followed a semi-structured process at the data collection stage in order to allow the flexibility to add other significant details; secondly, I adopted the theory-led approach and the data-led approach at the analysis stage in order to allow the openness for more interpretations. This is discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5: Research Methodology and Design

5.1 Introduction

Planning to conduct research is not an arbitrary matter, but there are many things for a researcher to highlight, think about and address in a coherent and logical way. Planning research depends on effective design which comes from methodological reflection and the specific research questions and aims (Cohen et al., 2011). This chapter reviews the methodological framework employed for the study. Initially, it discusses the philosophical paradigm adopted in this study in conjunction with the research design and the use of case study as a research strategy to provide a thorough understanding of the research issue. Additionally, it describes the participants and the reasoning behind why and how they were chosen. It also presents in-depth details of the process and techniques employed in the data collection procedures. It reviews the rationale of how the questionnaire, classroom observations and interviews were formulated to ensure valid and reliable data is received. Penultimately, it sheds light on how the process of data analysis was employed in order to achieve the required research aims. Finally, it refers to how ethical issues were considered within the study.

5.2 Research Aims and Questions

Mason (2002, p.19) considered the existing literature as a springboard for qualitative researchers to launch their own research and make it connected with the current debates. In regard to this research, the researcher's experience of being a teacher in the same context of the study, besides relevant existing literature, highlighted the significance of considering the following aims:

1) To understand and explain Libyan teachers' beliefs about teaching English as a foreign language in terms of the teaching methodologies, professionalism and the current curriculum.

2) To identify the teaching and learning methods employed by Libyan teachers and to determine in what way these methods are aligned with the aims and objectives of the current English curriculum.

3) To investigate what teacher professionalism means in the context of a developing and changing society such as Libya.

4) To provide insights and make recommendations for future initiatives in Libya regarding English language teacher training and professional development.

In short, this study addressed the following questions which were formulated to guide the design of this study and the process of data collection:

1) What do Libyan teachers do and believe with regards to teaching English as a foreign language, and how do these beliefs affect the process of teaching and learning English?

2) What teaching methods are employed by Libyan teachers to teach English as a foreign language, and how do those methods align with the current English curriculum?

3) What does professional development mean in the Libyan context and how can this be effectively theorised?

4) What might be the Libyan teacher training requirements and recommendations for enhanced professional development?

5.3 Research Design

The research journey detailed in this study could take various approaches in order to reach its conclusions. To ensure a successful approach, studying and understanding the research issue should be categorised under the appropriate research designation, paradigm and appropriate data collection techniques. Every piece of research should be based on certain fundamental philosophical assumptions which establish and enrich the validity of the study as well as providing clarification and guidance for a successful research design including the appropriateness of the data collection methods (Easterby-Smith et al, 2002). Therefore, it is very important for a researcher to recognise these basic assumptions whilst in the initial stages of conducting research. This research methodology is shown in the following figure 1:
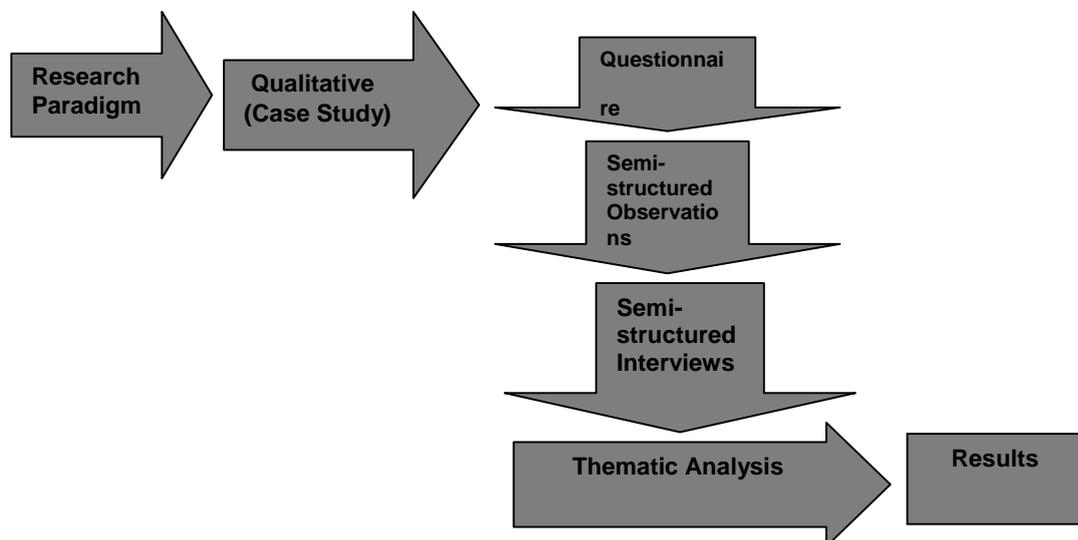
Figure 6: Research Methodology

Collis and Hussey (2003, p.55) described research methodology as "the overall approach to the research process, from the theoretical foundation to the collection and analysis of the data". Denzin and Lincoln (2005, p.24) explained that a carefully conceived research methodology design assists the researcher to situate herself or himself in the empirical world thereby linking with specific locations, institutions, people and any relevant documents and archives. Yin (2003) justified the importance of a clear and detailed explanation of the research design by referring to it as an enhancement to research trustworthiness. With that brief methodological rationalisation in mind, the choices for this study were made, as it is essential for the methodology to provide a consistent and coherent framework for all of the research aspects, including the tools employed to collect valid data, and the methods subsequently employed at the analysis stage. That is because, as explained by Dwyer (2002), it is through an appropriate choice of research methodology, that the research aims and objectives are successfully achieved. However, the first component of the research design begins with the following subsection, the research paradigm.

5.3.1 Research Paradigm

The origin of the term paradigm comes from the Greek word `paradeigma` meaning pattern. This term was originally used by Thomas Kuhn (1962) who defined a paradigm as a set of beliefs, values and assumptions used by a community of researchers. This is reflected by Sparkes (1992, p.11) who stated "the individual research act does not take place in a vacuum, but in the social context of invisible colleges, that is, a community of scholars who share similar conceptions of proper questions, techniques and forms of explanations". Subsequently, paradigm was defined by Bogdan and Biklen (1998, p.22) as "a loose collection of logically related

128

assumptions, concepts or propositions that orient thinking and research". It is the philosophical intention or motivation for conducting a study (Cohen and Manion, 1994, p.38). Additionally, MacNaughton, Rolfe and Siraj-Blatchford (2001, p.32) defined the term paradigm by three main features. They are: a belief regarding the nature of knowledge; secondly, a defined methodology; and, finally, the criteria for validity. This provides the paradigm with the features employed within a framework that influences how defined knowledge is studied and interpreted. Willis (2007, p.8) considered a paradigm as a "framework that guides research and practice in a field", and failing to do so could have serious consequences for the entire enquiry (Richards, 2003). This indicates nominating a paradigm should be the first step in any research journey.

Additionally, as researchers' essential beliefs and insights regarding specific research issues emerge from their theoretical perspectives, it seems to be a fundamental beginning to their research journey to formulate their explicit philosophical assumptions. Creswell (2003, p.4) mentioned that, in the last decade, other philosophical assumptions beyond those developed in 1994 have been widely discussed in literature. He referred to the term paradigm as 'a knowledge claim', saying "starting a knowledge claim means that researchers start a project with certain assumptions about how they will learn and what they will learn during their inquiry." From a philosophical perspective, researchers build their claims about what knowledge is (ontology); how it is known (epistemology); what are its values (axiology); how to write about it (rhetoric); and the processes for studying it (methodology) (p.6). Lately, Scotland (2012, p.9) pointed out that a paradigm consists of four main fundamental components: Ontology, epistemology, methodology and

method. These components are identified by Morrison and Scott (2007, p.86) as the methodological levels and the relation between them is as shown in figure 7.

Ontology

Epistemology

Methodology (Strategy)
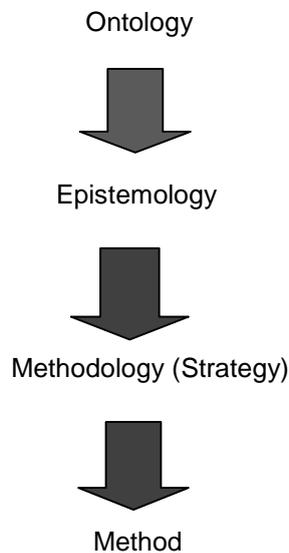
Method

Figure 7: The Methodological Levels (Morrison and Scott, 2007, p.86)

Ontologically, a researcher needs to answer questions such as: "What is the nature of certain reality, what is to know and can be known about it?" This would be considered as a first step towards answering a research problem (Guba and Lincoln, 1994, p.108). The ontological assumption refers to reality as being locally and uniquely formulated as a result of people's actions and interactions. From the earlier statement, it is obvious that the interpretive researcher does not identify and realise the existence of an objective world but rather perceives the world in a particular time and context. The ontological position of interpretivism is relativism. Relativism refers to reality as being subjective, which therefore differs among people (Guba and Lincoln, 1994, p.110). Reality, as identified by Crotty (1998, p.43), is individually constructed; it appears when consciousness engages with objects which already have meanings. Meanings are not discovered, they are constructed through the interaction between

the world and consciousness (Scotland, 2012, p.11). Consequently, the epistemological question, "What is the relationship between the knower and what can be known?" (Guba and Lincoln, 1994, p.108) should be answered consistently with an ontological assumption (Andrade, 2009, p.44). Methodology refers to the strategy or plan which a researcher follows in order to link the methods with the outcomes (Creswell, 2003). In other words, it helps the researcher to govern the choice and use of methods. The final component is method, and this refers to the techniques and procedures adopted by the researcher for data collection purposes.

In the literature, there are two main paradigms: positivist and interpretivist. The positivist paradigm is defined as a scientific approach which presumes that reality consists of facts that can be measured in an objective way; that studying those facts can be done without considering the contextual influences; that testing hypotheses shapes the bases of natural sciences and of the quantitative studies in social sciences (Hennink et al., 2011), all of which reflect the inappropriateness of adopting this paradigm for my research. On the contrary, there is the interpretive paradigm which focuses on understanding people's experiences in a subjective way (Cohen et al., 2000); taking into consideration the influence of the historical, cultural and social context (Hennink et al., 2011). The interpretive paradigm is identified under several terms: qualitative, constructive and naturalistic (Robson, 2002) and is relevant to this study.

However, every paradigm in educational research holds related theories, methods of teaching and learning, professional development, curriculum and assessment, etc. My choice of an appropriate paradigm emerged when I perceived how and why the

131

selected paradigm could enlighten my research in order to ensure that my aims are achieved, and my research questions are adequately answered. In other words, I have chosen the interpretive paradigm for my research, specifically because I am seeking knowledge regarding how English language teachers in Libya perceive, understand and interpret issues affecting them and their practices within a specific context. Usually the interpretive paradigm is employed for this type of study as it pertains to different interpretations and understanding of events by individuals (Matthews and Ross, 2010). It provides deep and rich insights into experiences from the point of view of the people who participate in the relevant events (Schwandt, 1994, p.118). This paradigm, however, grew out of Edmund Hussel's phenomenology along with the work of Wilhelm Dilthey and other German philosophers' studies of the interpretive understanding paradigm known as hermeneutics (Eichelberger, 1989 cited in Mertens, 2005, p.12). It has the goal of understanding "the world of human experience" (Cohen and Manion, 1994, p.36), suggesting that "reality is socially constructed" (Mertens, 2005, p.12), and that the researcher is the medium who will reveal the reality (Andrade, 2009, p.43).

Moreover, the interpretive paradigm retains the notion that people see the world in different ways due to differences in their beliefs, perceptions and interpretations. In other words, reality is subjective and differs from one person to another. Rehm (2010, p.143) stated that interpretive researchers believe that reality is dynamic, relative and differs among people even those in similar situations. He added that the reality which exists for each individual is formed through constant social and group dynamics (p.144). Therefore, participants' responses for this research are not necessarily expected to be in line with each other's interpretations, or with mine. This is the reason

why the research relies heavily on naturalistic methods of data collection including interviews, observations and the analysis of existing texts. These methods, in turn, will help to ensure there are sufficient open channels of communication for the exchange of ideas between me, as a researcher, and the participants of my study, in order to collaboratively construct a meaningful reality regarding the research issue. Also, as data is collected from real life situations such as schools and classrooms, (but not in a laboratory or any controlled environment), most of the research findings are expected to emerge from the interpretations of the participants' views regarding the research issue (Creswell, 2003, p.8). In other words, this paradigm relies on constructions of the social world characterised by the researcher and the participants' interactions whereby the researcher's interpretations play a fundamental role (Mingers, 2001).

The researcher's role in this paradigm is considered to be a core component for interpreting what is seen and heard in relation to society and culture, bringing reflexivity to the fore and supported by criticality (Garcia and Quek, 1997, p.459). The role of the researcher, if not carefully and consciously defined through taking into account any impact which may occur from his or her political and social views, beliefs, emotions or assumptions may affect the research discussions and cause findings to be viewed as biased. This in turn could undermine any conclusions reached (Morrison and Scott, 2007, p.202) and could negatively affect the validity of the research. Qualitative researchers differ regarding the extent to which it is possible for researchers to record and interpret participants' actions and perspectives without being affected by their presence (Morrison and Scott, 2007, p.184). As interpretive research is directed by defining and understanding an issue from the perspective of

the individuals' (Scotland, 2012, p.12), the interpretive methods adopted for this research (observations and interviews), provided a rich insight and understanding of participants' behaviour, as well as an explanation of their actions from their own point of view without the researcher leading them.

However, it is not possible to judge interpretive research using the same criteria as scientific paradigms (Scotland, 2012, p.12). In other words, it cannot be formulated on a foundational base of knowledge as this could make its validity questionable. In my research, I constantly keep in mind questions such as: "What influence might my past and present values and beliefs have when interpreting the participants' feelings and thoughts?" "What might be my hidden assumptions which could constrain the data outcomes?" This, to some extent, was intended to reduce the bias of my own interpretations and enhance broader thinking, focusing on the educational, social, political, historical and economic aspects, as well as how others understand and judge that reality. In this sense, the researcher employs his or her interpretive framework in a conscious way, as the basis of developing new understanding and knowledge (Levy, 2003) which is why interpretive research is considered to be reflexive (Charmas, 2006). Reflexivity has deep roots in most research disciplines, especially in the social sciences, as it increases the credibility of research. However, Morrison and Scott defined reflexivity as "the process by which the researcher comes to understand how they are positioned in relation to the knowledge they are producing." (2007, p.201). The notion of reflexivity in research, as reported by Sultana (2007, p.376), refers to the reflection on either own self, individuals or a process, the examination of power relationships and of researcher accountability when collecting and interpreting data. Sandelowski and Barroso (2002, p.222) then explain reflexivity to be a hallmark of

qualitative research which entails the ability and willingness of researchers to acknowledge and take account of the many ways they themselves influence research findings and thus what comes to be accepted as knowledge. Reflexivity implies the ability to reflect inward towards oneself as an inquirer; outward to the cultural, historical, linguistic, political, and other forces that shape everything about inquiry; and, in between researcher and participant to the social interaction they share.

It has been suggested that there are three types of reflexivity. They are the personal, disciplinary and epistemic reflexivity. The personal reflexivity refers to the impact of personal characteristics, beliefs and values of the researcher on the research. The disciplinary reflexivity refers to the process of knowledge creation involving political, social and cultural implications (Libyan context). The epistemic reflexivity relates to how research texts are epistemological products (Morrison and Scott, 2007, p.202). Reflexivity is concerned with the researcher's own belief system interfering with the research issue outcomes, and, in this context, involves four main levels to be critiqued. (Alvesson and Skoldberg, 2009, p.273)

Aspect/ Level	Focus
Interaction with empirical material	Accounts in interviews, observation of situations and other empirical materials
Interpretation	Underlying meanings
Critical Interpretation	Ideology, power, social reproduction
Reflection on the text production and language use.	Own text, claims to authority, selectivity of the voices represented in the text

Table 4: Levels of Reflexivity (Alvesson and Skoldberg, 2009, p.273)

In short, the researcher's interpretations could be influenced at two levels, micro and macro. The micro level occurs when the narrative and empirical material is collected, and the researcher begins the process of interpreting what he or she reads, regardless of any other meaning and dimensions behind the data. The macro level occurs at the underlying interpretation stage and refers to what is meant and expressed through the spoken or written words. This is because people do not always mean what they have expressed in their words. Nightingale and Cromby (1999) demonstrated that reflexivity requires a thoughtfulness and awareness of the researcher's own impact and contribution to the assembly of the data all the way through the research process, and "an acknowledgment of the impossibility of remaining 'outside of' one's subject matter while conducting research." (p.28). Reflexivity in this sense argues that the researcher's involvement in a specific study could influence the exploration process. Therefore, I carefully handled the data and retained an open mind and interrogated my responses regarding all the information I receive from the participants (observations and interviews), as there was potential for a conflict between the values of the researcher and the participants (Greenbank, 2003, p.796). However, if any information has been omitted or influenced in any way, this is explicitly stated at the data interpretation stage (Blaxter et al., 2001). Reflexivity is cautiously employed within my research in order to ensure consistency and trustworthiness through the interpretation of my position as a researcher.

The latest development in the interpretive paradigm however, refers to the researcher's own subjectivity during the interpretation process as being an important aspect (Taylor, 2013). There is a variety of standards which regulate the construction of an interpretive knowledge data set in the available literature. Arguably, the most

acknowledged, coherent and consistent standards seem to be those illustrated by Guba and Lincoln (1989). They developed standards based on trustworthiness and authenticity in order to increase interpretive research validity. The trustworthiness criteria take into account the credibility, dependability, transferability and conformability, whereas the authenticity criteria take into account the relationship between the researcher and the participants, focusing on educative, catalytic, fairness and tactical aspects. Taking these standards into account, when dealing with the gathered data, could increase the research validity and reliability in terms of the research issues. With respect to these philosophical assumptions and all of the knowledge issues discussed within the last few pages, I have identified myself as an interpretive researcher. In short, the interpretive paradigm was adopted for this study as it supports my research in the following ways:

- It offered me flexibility to employ different methods and techniques for data collection in order to broaden the process of understanding the issue under the study.
- It provided me, as a researcher, with an opportunity to address issues of influence and impact within a defined context such as the changed and changing situation in Libya. In other words, it enabled me to build a rich understanding of local teachers' experiences and classroom practices, their schools and the community which they not only serve but are also part of.
- It allowed me to develop good relationships with the participants in my research (teachers) which, in turn, enhanced my role as a researcher in order to develop sufficient understanding regarding their perspectives and discern the meaning behind their behaviours and actions through observations and interviews.

137

- It helped to ensure that there were sufficient channels of communication open so that the exchange of ideas between me and the participants of my study were sufficiently coherent in order to construct a meaningful reality about the research issues.

5.3.2 Qualitative Approach

Taking the research aims and questions into consideration led the researcher to adopt a qualitative approach to this study. This provided a deep understanding and the compilation of comprehensive evidence for studying and investigating teachers' beliefs and perceptions as well as their classroom practices when implementing the current curriculum (Dawson, 2002 and Creswell et al., 2003). In other words, the characteristics of this approach matches the research purpose, and generated rich data that could provide a better understanding of the research issues (Bryman, 2008 and Blaxter, 2001), and allowed an understanding of the participants' behaviour from their own frame of reference (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998, p.10). Morrison and Scott (2007, p.182) stated that "qualitative research has come to denote research approaches that are underpinned by a set of assumptions about the way the social world operates". In addition, Berg (2004, p.11) stated that qualitative research presents a framework for a researcher in order to "explore, define, and assist in understanding the social and psychological phenomena of organizations and the social settings of individuals" Denzin and Lincoln (2000, p.3) stated that qualitative research can be employed to deal with questions describing how social experiences are shaped or given meaning, which subsequently forms the picture of the experience within a particular environment, making that experience visible and perceptible.

Similarly, Flick (2002, p.4) stated that qualitative research is convenient to be employed to investigate "why" rather than "how many". According to Myers (2009), qualitative research is designed in order to help researchers to better understand individuals and their social and cultural contexts. Such types of studies allow differences and complexities when exploring, understanding and representing the world under examination, which is why it employs different knowledge claims, investigation strategies, data collection methods and analysis (Creswell, 2003). In this research, data was derived from semi-structured observations, semi-structured interviews and document analysis (teachers' diaries and some samples of the current curriculum).

Many qualitative research characteristics are derived from perspectives that differ in the human science world from those of the natural world. Hence, the qualitative research needs to employ distinctive methods (often interpretive). It gives detailed attention to observations where the core data is rich with in-depth descriptions of participants, settings, events and interviews (Morrison and Scott, 2007, p.183). The qualitative approach is a systematic method of investigation which comprises five major assumptions concerning the construction of knowledge (Higgs et al, 2009, p.5). These assumptions are:

- There are multiple constructed realities due to the different perceptions people have about reality. However, the attribution of meanings to events, along with those meanings, is part of the event but not separate from it.
- The process of inquiry changes both the researcher and the participants.
- Knowledge is considered to be both context and time dependant.

- It is more useful to sort descriptions and interpretations about events in order to establish cause and effect.

- Inquiry is considered as "value bound". The values relate to how the questions are asked and the findings interpreted.

To conclude, as the researcher is desirous of building a solid knowledge base along with attaining a deep understanding regarding the research issue being phenomena of interest, I would say that the qualitative research appears to be the most appropriate approach to employ for this line of study, along with the interpretive paradigm. That is to say; qualitative research is a systematic way to explore and describe the differences and complexities which may occur within group social behaviours using the interpretive paradigm to interpret beliefs and behaviours in terms of participants' culture and society. The subjectivity of both the researcher and the participants becomes part of the research process, as their reflections, interactions, observations in the field, their impressions, feelings, irritations etc., develop into the data which forms part of the interpretations (Flick, 2006, p.16). However, although it is a qualitative interpretive study, there are some quantitative data sets applied in order to provide background information on the teachers through the use of questionnaires.

5.3.3 Case Study Strategy

Case study is a popular strategy that is commonly employed in education and particularly in language teaching studies (Yin, 2003). It is a strategy that supports a more detailed investigation of how and why research questions (Rowley, 2002 and Yin, 2003). Its hallmarks include a distinctive example of real people in real life situations (Cohen et al. 2011), rich and vivid descriptions, and a chronological narrative of events which are relevant to the case (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995, cited

in Cohen et al. 2011). Yin (2013) identified three main types of case studies: exploratory, explanatory or descriptive. The exploratory type provides a clear picture for a little understood issue or issues where limited information is available in a particular context. The explanatory type is employed when research seeks to explain to an issue or a phenomenon within real-life interventions. The descriptive type is employed to describe a phenomenon or interventions within a real-life context, and it normally requires developing a descriptive theory before starting the research. Yin also distinguishes between the single holistic case, which is normally used to confirm or challenge a theory, and multiple cases which are used to explore any differences among the employed cases in order to identify outcomes and draw comparisons. Multiple case studies are also termed as a set of cases (Robson, 2002) or a collective case study (Stake, 1995). In the current study, fifteen teachers of English at preparatory and secondary schools were selected as case studies and were individually observed and interviewed. Therefore, a variety of data was gathered from these multiple cases in terms of the teachers' beliefs about teaching English as a foreign language and their practices inside the classrooms, and then comparisons were drawn. Teachers' feelings and thoughts about: their current and previous teaching experiences, the role of inspectors in terms of professional development and the current curriculum were explored in order to investigate and analyse their beliefs. The use of a case study strategy was to provide rich and holistic information which could assist the researcher to deeply understand how the classroom practices of the teachers evolved either as a direct reflection of their beliefs, or of external influences based on what actually happened in the classroom. The researcher directly observed how both the teacher and the students acted and reacted inside the classroom.

Focusing on teachers' practices when observed and comparing that with what they said when interviewed built a solid bridge for the researcher to understand their beliefs. This research, however, is identified as exploratory and explanatory, because exploration supported by explanations is sought to provide clear picture of the research issues.

Case study was adopted as a research strategy for this research because it provides rich and in-depth data for the researcher to address the research questions within a dimensional picture. In other words, it enables the researcher to gain an in-depth understanding of participants' views, beliefs, behaviours and experiences in their natural context (school) through the use of two main data collection techniques (observations and interviews) in order to enhance the research validity (Denscombe, 2010). This is considered as one of the strengths of case study strategy as mentioned by Denscombe (2010, p.54) "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." Moreover, Cohen, et al (2000, p.181) stated that: "Case studies can establish cause and effect, indeed one of their strengths is that they observe effects in real contexts, recognising that context is a powerful determination of both causes and effects". He added that a case study data is likely to be stronger in reality, but usually it is not easy to recognise. Case study strategy was adopted for this research also, because as described by Cohen et al.:

> Case studies are a step to action. They begin in a world of action and contribute to it. Their insights may be directly interpreted and put to use; for staff or individuals' self-development, for within-institutional feedback; for formative evaluation; and in educational policy making.

(Cohen et al, 2011, p.292)

What Cohen et al. said reflects what happened at the time of data collection stage when I interviewed teachers, inspectors and the university lecturer. That is to say, discussing issues such as teaching methodologies, professionalism, asking about the criteria to be followed by inspectors when evaluating teachers, curriculum alignment... etc; all that was like a spark which made them feel the need for change and development. Some teachers thanked me for encouraging them to think about things they were not aware of before. Two teachers joined the British Council Facebook page as a first step towards continuous professional development because that page contains rich material that is continuously updated and reflects aspects that a teacher of English as a foreign language may need. The university lecturer, after being interviewed, said that there was a meeting the following week of the English department where he would mention many of the things we had discussed at the interview. He elaborated by mentioning such things as enhancing the future roles of students as teachers through the development of some modules in-line with the requirements of the current schools' curriculum.

Moreover, case study is defined as a thorough study of a single phenomenon (Denscombe, 2007) without intending to offer generalisable outcomes, which are often so difficult to achieve (Waters and Bell, 2014). Yin (2003) refuted the criticism raised against this by presenting the difference between analytic generalisation and statistical generalisation. Robson (2002) justified the difficulty to generalise case study research findings due to the small number of the participants employed in the study. Cohen et al., argued this saying that:

> The researcher can generalize from a small number of case studies that represent the complex issues in general.... case studies include many

variables; multi variable phenomena are characterized by homogeneity rather than high variability; therefore, if the researcher can identify case studies that catch the range of variables then external validity _ generalizability_ can be demonstrated.

(Cohen et al, 2011, p.295).

As explained by Gerring (2004), case studies, in some instances, could provide better understanding to another wider group with similar characteristics and context to those of the cases under review. This offers the possibility to link the significant features from one context to another sharing similarities. Denscombe (2010, pp.60-61) demonstrated this by drawing on an example of a case study of a small primary school. He said that the researcher must obtain data of significant features: "For primary schools in general, and then demonstrate where the case study example fits in relation to the overall picture." This, to some extent, enhances the purpose of the study at hand. That is to say, the fifteen participant teachers of the study at hand could be considered as multiple cases because they were chosen with a variety of backgrounds in order to generate a variety of beliefs and views. This, as stated by Cohen et al., (2011, p.294) "can be part of a growing pool of data" and as a result "contributing to greater generalizability". Multiple case studies are also known, as noted previously, as a set of cases (Robson, 2002), or a collective case study (Stake, 1995), because every case is considered individually. The fifteen participant teachers were considered as cases representing teachers and were investigated separately but within the same macro context. Subsequent study of these cases might be carried out to anticipate potential similarities or differences that emerge from every individual case. The multiple case studies could be used as magnifying lens to see other teachers in a similar context. That is to say, it increases, to some extent, the possibility

of generalisation through what Stake (1995) calls: "naturalistic generalization." (Stake, 1995).

Though case study is considered as a time consuming strategy, it offers flexibility as it is not time dependant (Simons, 2009). For instance; the observations and interviews for the current study were conducted over different periods of time depending on the participants' availability and permitting conditions. Another critique of a case study strategy is subjectivity. Simon (2009, p.163) argued that: "Subjectivity is not something we can avoid whatever methods we adopt," but it could be decreased when it is acknowledged by the researcher as being an inherent element of the cases as well as recognising the role of the researcher with respect to his/her tendencies, values and feelings relevant to the research.

5.4 Area and Schools Selection

In qualitative research, the ideal selection of location originates from where access is possible; the ability of the researcher to develop strong, trusting relationships; flexible communication with the participants in the selected area; the credibility and quality of data expected to be generated, and, finally, there should be an option for allowing a range of participants, processes, interactions and interest (Marshall and Rossman, 1999, p.69). Taking the above into consideration, in addition to being a native resident and having work experience in the chosen area, I identified a range of schools that employ teachers with different qualifications, experiences and backgrounds. The researcher's familiarity with the selected areas in general and schools in particular made conducting the research feasible for her, as discussed by Oliver (2004), to get access and develop relationships with teachers and administrators. Though

accessibility to a setting is not always simple, in this study, it was possible despite the current situation in Libya. Whilst being part of a post-conflict country, the selected area was considered, to some extent, to be the safer than other areas. Before travelling back to Libya for data collection, I identified nine Libyan schools in three population areas within Southern Libya for this study: Sebha, Temnhent and Samno. Being in the field of study, however, made me exclude some schools and include others due, firstly, to seeking a variety of cases. Secondly, many of the teachers I met were hesitant to be observed and did not agree to be recorded when interviewed. Thirdly, since a murder happened as a result of fighting between two students in one of the biggest mixed secondary schools in Sebha, I was forced to exclude it because it was closed for a while. Despite this fact, I eventually identified a good range of teachers who welcomed being observed and interviewed, and I scheduled activity with these participants. Another difficulty I faced, due to the conflict, was a lack of fuel. It was not available at garages, but one could get a little amount from brokers whom one could see everywhere selling expensive fuel on the city roads. Also moving around by car, even inside the city, was risky since armed car gangs stop people in the middle of the road and steal their cars by force. If the driver resists and refuses to relinquish of his/her car, then s/he will be killed. Many cars are stolen after the driver is murdered.

Finally, I ended up with seven schools in the three selected population areas within Southern Libya: Sebha, Temnhent and Samno. Sebha is the capital city in Southern Libya and as such is one of the chosen locations. Many schools within this area were visited by the researcher. The data was gathered from four schools: One is a boy's preparatory school; another is a mixed secondary school, and two are girls' secondary schools. The second city identified for the study is Temenhent which is smaller than

Sebha. Research was conducted in one mixed preparatory school. The third one is a small town called Samno. It has two big mixed schools and both were visited; one is preparatory and the other is secondary.

However, there has been very little previous research conducted regarding teaching and learning English in Southern Libya and the choice of schools was determined by their scope and study potential: how large the schools were; the number of teachers; the variety of teachers' ages and years of experience, and the range of teachers' qualifications. The potential mixture of schools, it was felt, would facilitate rich and comprehensive data regarding the situation in the south of Libya.

5.5 Participant Selection

As all research investigations require the selection of research participants (Morrison and Scott, 2007, p.219), and because the main aim of qualitative research is to enrich the process of exploring and understanding a phenomenon or an experience, it is essential to select a "fertile sample" (Polkinghrne, 2005, p.140). Morrison and Scott referred to the methods and strategies employed by the researcher regarding sampling choices as being responsible in determining the nature and validity of the research findings which are generated from the sampling results. Therefore, the sampling strategy I employed for my research is purposive (Patton, 2002). In purposive sampling, it is the researcher's decision to select the best participants for his or her research who are identified according to particular criteria which are recognised by the research. Purposive sampling represents people who appear to be distinctively competent and informative, because they are "privileged witnesses to an event" (Maxwell, 2012, p.97). In my research, teachers, at first, were given

questionnaires to answer in order to ensure that participants with different backgrounds were selected. Additionally, the decision regarding the number of teachers was predicated on having a variety of backgrounds. However, as discussed by Denscombe (2007), in qualitative research, it is better to use smaller numbers, but, when it comes to teaching and learning studies, it is better to use a variety of people of different ages, levels, personalities and even cultures. Although using a larger number of participants would increase the possibility of generalising the research findings. Cohen, et al (2007, p.101) stated: "The correct sample size depends on the purpose of the study". Bell and Waters (2014) added, the amount of time a researcher has, is also a major factor in determining the number of participants. Taking all that into account, and, with the research aims in mind, fifteen teachers from different backgrounds, age, gender, years of experience and place of graduation were identified and chosen by the researcher for the semi-structured classroom observations and interviews. The background section in the questionnaire helped the researcher with sample selection (Matthews and Ross, 2010) since a range of participants ensured an opportunity to compare and contrast the variety of teachers' beliefs and practices as well as of their training histories. However, in order to create a comfortable atmosphere and encourage participants to answer the questions, teachers were given a clear idea about the research and its aim. They were also offered the assurance of confidentiality, informed of the study's ethical position and that the security of the data was assured. Good will and trust were emphasised by the researcher in order to develop and improve the prospect of gathering valid data. This is because, if the research participants trust the researcher and feel well disposed

towards the aims of the study, they will be more likely to provide information openly and freely without any attempt to hold back any detail (Denscombe, 2002, p.75).

Taking all that into consideration and, as mentioned earlier, fifteen teachers were chosen, and then observed and interviewed three times. That is what was referred to by Cohen et al. (2010, p.136) as "persistent observations" which were applied through being observed and interviewed repeatedly. Every observation session was directly followed by an interview with the observed teacher in order to investigate the participants' practices inside the classroom and elicit the beliefs and motives he or she had behind certain practices. Each interview lasted at least half an hour. The selected teachers were graduates mainly from the Faculty of Arts (English Language Department), the Teacher Training Institution (closed since 2007); one female teacher had an MA from the Academic Institution in Tripoli, and another one graduated from the faculty of medicine, but he speaks fluent English and has a wide knowledge and experience about teaching and learning English. After graduating from the faculty of medicine, he worked as a tourist guide in the Libyan Desert. This job had provided him, as he stated, with "a golden chance" to develop his English, learn French and broaden his general knowledge in general, and about teaching and learning English in particular. Two female teachers who had more than twenty-one years of experience were selected; they had experience of teaching both the old and the current curriculum and had had some training in the past which they described as "unbeneficial" in terms of developing their teaching knowledge, skills and practices. However, Remenyi (1998, cited in Saunders et al., 2003) assures that in order to evidently understand a phenomena and reach reality, details of the situation must be thoroughly explored. Therefore, the rationale behind this range of cases is to compare and contrast the

variety of teachers' beliefs and practices as well as of their training histories, and in turn this provided wealthy and comprehensive data regarding the situation in the south of Libya. The following table describes the participants.

	Age & Gender	Secondary Diploma	Place of Graduation	Year of Graduation	Qualification	Grade	Level of Students	Years of Experience	Training Courses
Mona	33 Female	General (old Curriculum)	Arts/ English Department	2004/2005	Bachelor	84%	Preparatory 3	14	1
Amal	32 Female	General (old Curriculum)	teachers training Institute	2003/2004	Bachelor	70%	Secondary 1	10	1
Omar	35 male	General (old Curriculum)	Faculty of Medicine	2003/2004	Pkalarios	80%	Secondary 2 & 3	6	No
Ali	25 male	English specialization	Arts/ English Department	2010/2011	Bachelor	69%	Preparatory 3	3	No
Wala	28 Female	English specialization	Arts/ English Department	2008/2009	Bachelor	51%	Secondary 3	5	Private courses
Esra	26 Female	Social Sciences	Arts/ English Department	2010/2011	Bachelor	90%	Secondary 2	4	Private courses
Azza	47 Female	General (old Curriculum)	teachers training Institute	1991/1992	Bachelor	?	Secondary 1	24	3
Safa	27 Female	English specialization	Arts/ English Department	2009/2010	Bachelor	88%	Preparatory 2 & 3	6	No
Samia	38 Female	General (old Curriculum)	teachers training Institute	1996/1997	Bachelor	65%	Secondary 2 &3	19	2
Fatima	41 Female	General (old Curriculum)	teachers training Institute	1992/1993	Bachelor	/	Preparatory 1 & 2	22	No
Kawther	27 Female	English specialization	Arts/ English Department	2009/2010	Bachelor	52%	Secondary 1	3	No
Sharaf	31 male	General (old Curriculum)	Arts/ English Department	2002/2003	Bachelor	78%	Secondary 2 & 3	12	No
Laila	34 Female	General (old Curriculum)	Faculty of Science/ Mathematics Dep	2001/1002	Pkalarios	58%	Preparatory 1 & 2	12	Private courses
Manal	25 Female	Social Sciences	Arts/ English Department	2010/2011	Bachelor	81%	Preparatory 3	2	No
Marwa	38 Female	General (old Curriculum)	Academia in Tripoli	2007/2008	MA (Translation)	73%	Secondary 1	6	No

Table 5: Teachers' Qualifications and Distributions

However, the selection even of those fifteen teachers was not easy due to the on-going conflict and the environment of political uncertainty. That is to say, from the

beginning of the sampling procedure, some teachers from specific schools identified themselves as being for the previous regime and, in turn, resistant to supporting any improvement or development within the country. They kept criticising everything, and, therefore, any responses from those people would have been politically motivated. Other teachers were very pessimistic about the current conflict in the country, and, as a result, their replies to an invitation to participate were "Now all we want is to activate police stations in the city, to feel secure, receive our salaries, have electricity, water and fuel." Consequently, the researcher actively worked in order to get the most representative, informative and productive sample willing to answer the research questions. The representativeness of the variety of cases as well as the sampling procedure and the methodological and theoretical side of the study were all taken into consideration in term of drawing a clearer picture for the current study.

Moreover, four inspectors of English were interviewed; each one once. The first two were face-to-face interviews. One of them was a young female, who graduated from the Faculty of Arts; English Department in 2005, and in 2008 had been employed as a teacher in a primary school. After six years teaching English at primary level, she applied to be an inspector of English which she had been doing for two years. She allowed me to observe her while she was observing a teacher. This observation revealed many issues in terms of an inspector's behaviour (practices) inside the classroom. The second inspector was a man in his fifties who had been an inspector of English for sixteen years. He also had experience as one of the training courses lecturers. The other two inspectors were interviewed via a telephone call. The aim of interviewing those four inspectors was: firstly, to investigate their evaluative criteria and to explore how they distinguish between professional, good or bad teachers.

Secondly; to investigate their potential roles in providing formal or informal support for the teachers of English, and then to compare what they said with what the teachers said in order to identify what, if any, role an inspector of English could play within the teachers' cycle of continuous professional development. Thirdly, to demonstrate any contribution they might have made to any training programmes provided for teachers of English in the south of Libya. Also, they were asked about the possibility of offering any new programmes in the future despite the country being in a transitional period and still suffering the severe impact of the bloody conflict. Moreover, the officials, who were working at the Ministry of Education in Sebha, were asked to provide any official documents they might have in terms of any previous training courses, because such documents could be relevant to the research. Due to the unstable political situation and the on-going conflict, however, it was not easy to access such documents.

In addition, one of the University English department staff was interviewed only once. He had been the head of the department for eight years. Besides teaching 'Methods of Teaching Module' for students of English who were doing their bachelor degree, he taught the MA students other modules about linguistics. He was interviewed to investigate in what way his teaching module was considered to be supportive and informative for students who are in their final year and about to graduate and work as teachers in schools. It was also to see to what extent the knowledge he delivered through that module was aligned with the reality on the ground within schools and inside the classrooms delivering the current curriculum.

5.6 Data Collection Tools

Data collection is the systematic process of gathering in-depth information from every participant involved in the research which results in language data and develops into

discourses (Polkinghorne, 2005, p.138). The gathered data is considered to be the basis on which the research findings are constructed; therefore, choosing the appropriate tools for data collection is considered a fundamental step for any research study. In this research, questionnaires, semi-structured classroom observations, semi-structured face-to-face interviews and teachers' diaries were all used to collect data in order to address the research questions of the study. The rationale behind the use of these tools is to overcome any limitations which would emerge from using a single tool, as together the tools provide richer data and a better understanding regarding the teachers; their beliefs and classroom practices (Oliver, 2000). Document analysis was also used in order to examine teachers' diaries and some samples of the documents used in the current curriculum in Libya as this could assist the researcher to assemble valid comparisons about what is taught compared with what the teachers are supposed to teach in relation to curriculum and pedagogical alignment.

5.6.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires are defined by Gass and Mackey (2007) as "written instruments that present all participants with the same series of questions or statements, which the participants then react to either through providing written answers, marking Likert style judgements or selecting options from a series of statements" (p.148). There are different approaches for asking questions when conducting questionnaires ranging from the close-ended questions which provide quantitative data to the open-ended ones which provides qualitative data (Gay and Airasian, 2003; Wilkinson and Birmingham, 2003; Cohen et al., 2007; Bryman, 2008; Bell and Waters 2014). The closed questions provide quantitative data, whereas the open questions potentially

offer more reasons and explanations. (Blaxter, et al. 2001). Additionally, Gass and Mackey (2007, p.153) stated that, besides the open and close ended questions, questionnaires can be adapted to some other different types of questions depending on the research purpose which gives the flexibility for questionnaires to be used in both quantitative or qualitative studies.

Although questionnaires are rooted in the quantitative approach and the positivist paradigm (Morrison and Scott, 2007), questionnaires were used in this research at the initial stage of data collection for two main reasons. Firstly, in order to elicit information regarding the participants' backgrounds, personalities, beliefs and values (Cohen et al, 2000). Such data helped to form the basis for the purposive samples. Secondly, questionnaires enabled the researcher to construct a basic awareness regarding the participants' responses, expectations and concerns about the research issues. This in turn assisted in the construction of the questions for the semi-structured interviews (Blaxter et al., 2001). The questionnaire employed in the current study was very short and simple due to two main reasons. The first was because this tool of data collection was employed only to help in the purposive sampling procedure. The second was to avoid any inaccurate response which could come as a result of tiredness and boredom (Dornyei, 2003). The questionnaire included a series of both close and open-ended questions and was divided into four sections (See Appendix 2). The first section contains general questions regarding the teacher's age, gender, years of experience, qualifications, place of graduation and the educational level and number of his or her students. The second section was designed to acquire information regarding the teachers' classroom practices. It includes questions which

investigated teachers' views regarding teaching English as a foreign language. They

were asked about their main aim when teaching English; what type of teaching strategies they employed when delivering their lessons and why. The final section included questions regarding the teachers' training history. This type of format is referred to by Basit, "…will make the questionnaire more manageable and will encourage the respondents to complete one section and move to the next." (2010, p.86). As a result of the researcher's awareness that some teachers may have limited proficiency in English, the questionnaires were translated into their native language, Arabic.

5.6.2 Semi-Structured Classroom Observations

Observation has played a significant role in the history of qualitative research (Flick, 1998). Baker (2006) suggests it allows researchers to study people in their natural environment or educational context in order to understand the research issues from their own perspectives. The assumption underlying research observation is to witness events, activities and behaviours which are helpful and useful for specific investigation purposes (Denscombe, 2010). Hennink et al. (2011, p.170) defined observation as a systematic research method that enables researchers to observe people's behaviours, actions and interactions in order to attain an in-depth description of a social setting or events, that in turn helps to position people's behaviours within their own natural (social and cultural) context, and then analysing and interpreting all that had been observed (Robson, 2002). Importantly, observations can assist a researcher to gather data in its naturalistic setting, and see details that participants themselves might be unaware of, forget or are reluctant to discuss (Denscombe, 2010). Observation "permits a lack of artificiality which is all too rare with other techniques" (Robson, 2002, p.311), and this is considered as one of its major features which

provides the researcher with good opportunity to access valid authentic data. This advantage of observation; however, can also be one of its major disadvantages, because the observer can only see the obvious events without being able to access the participants' thoughts, beliefs, intentions and feelings which are the motives behind their behaviours, and in turn "the observers will have their own focus and will interpret significant events in their own way", and, as a result fail to understand what that behaviour means to the observed participants (Bell and Waters, 2014, p.211). In order to fully understand the participants' behaviours (teachers' classroom practices), the researcher needed to identify the motives and beliefs behind those behaviours. Therefore, the use of interviews after the classroom observations was a way to enable the researcher to know and access the teachers' thoughts, beliefs and motives behind their teaching practices.

As mentioned earlier, fifteen teachers were observed whilst conducting their English classes on three separate occasions. The aim of the observations was to gain direct information on the teachers' classroom methodology and practices and to see how this reflected their beliefs. Matthews and Ross (2010) point out that as observations take place in the real world, the researcher will have a chance to see, document and compare how the teachers respond against what they actually do. However, in addition to written field notes (See Appendix 3) from observing teachers' behaviours and practices, some of the observed classes were recorded by an audio recorder (depending on the teacher's choice) in order to increase the descriptive validity and accuracy of the collected data. Though the use of video recordings was preferred by the researcher, because it offered, if not intrusive, a good opportunity to ensure a comprehensive record of the physical environment, interactions and activities taking

place between the teacher and the students in the classroom, teachers refused to be videoed. This is a typical reaction in Libyan culture and society, videoing people for any reason is often refused.

However, in order to avoid teachers or students being concerned regarding their performance, and how they might be evaluated or assessed, prior visits were arranged with every teacher and students in their classroom in order to introduce myself to them, explain my role as a researcher, the goal of my research and to assure them that the records would be completely secure, and that I would be the only person reviewing them. That helped to set participants more at ease and to feel comfortable within their regular setting (Hennink et al., 2011). However, the age of some participants was another factor, because, in Libyan culture and beliefs, older people should be respected. Their age worked like a barrier towards observation and open communications, and discussions with them were sometimes affected by cultural and social constraints. In Libyan culture, teachers with more than ten years of experience are considered the most expert teachers, therefore, asking them (older teachers in particular) to be observed was considered as a threat to their status in front of their students, other teachers and the school administrators. For instance, Fatima was a 41-year-old female. She talked very proudly about her experience, and how other teachers keep consulting her. She was not keen to reveal the grade she got when graduating. When asked if she would mind being observed, it was not easy for her to respond. Answering 'No' could be embarrassing for her in front of me and the school administrators; as this 'No' could be perceived as a lack of self-confidence about her teaching. On the other hand, answering 'Yes' could be threatening for her, because the observation might reveal things that dissatisfied her. She finally agreed to be

157

observed, but needed further reassurance about confidentiality and anonymity. To overcome this issue, I explained my ethical position regarding confidentiality as well as explaining my role as a researcher (not an evaluator), and the aim of my research.

Throughout the observational period, all of the sessions were systematically reviewed to ensure that relevant notes were produced and in order to reduce the omission of any relevant information or detail. This method is known as semi-structured observations. O'Leary (2014, p.54) defined the semi-structured observation as whatever the observer witnesses within the classroom which is "shaped by a set of pre-established categories". These categories could be headings, themes, questions, a checking list, etc. The field notes, produced by the researcher, were in a form of a description of the whole setting such as; the number of the students, the time of the class, the lesson number and topic, students level (secondary or preparatory), what the teacher wrote on the board, and also any impression, feeling and thoughts that came into my mind about what was observed.

The observational data, however, provided a detailed account of the work which characterised the teachers' behaviours (practices) while delivering a lesson and revealed to what extent these practices reflected the curriculum aims and objectives. However, as the thoughts and beliefs which underlie teachers' actions cannot easily be observed, each session was followed by a semi-structured interview in order to seek further insights into the teachers' beliefs and thoughts. The researcher had an opportunity to discuss everything she had observed and registered as notes during and after the observation sessions in order to gain more clarification and justification from the teachers about their classroom practices. In other words, during the follow

up interviews, teachers had a chance to comment on their classroom practices and explain the rationale for these practices. This could help to identify the main factors (motive, belief, etc) which underlie these classroom practices. For that reason, Richards (1996, p.281) ensured "the need to listen to the teachers' voices in understanding classroom practice in order to be able to understand teaching in its own terms and in ways in which it is understood by teachers". Breen (2001) also argued that it is not possible to infer the intentions and beliefs behind the teachers' classroom practices, or understand the reasons of why they behave in the ways they are do only from observation sessions. That is why employing interviews directly after the classroom observations assisted me to clearly understand the perspectives of the teachers being observed instead of just depending on my own inferences. With the current curriculum aims and objectives, and the teachers' book instructions in mind, it was clear that the teachers' practices inside the classroom while delivering a lesson deviated extensively from those recommended by the curriculum and the teacher' book instructions. However, the comparison of the data from both the observations, and the interviews provided an opportunity to ensure consistency between what the participants expressed, and what they might believe and discuss regarding their actual practices and performances in the classroom.

5.6.3 Semi-Structured Interviews

Bogdan and Biklen (1998, p.93) referred to an interview as "a purposive conversation" that is directed by one person in order to understand and elicit information from another. It often occurs between two, however, occasionally, more participants are simultaneously involved. The interview is a popular data collection tool employed in a wide range of research designs (Robson, 2002). According to Morrison and Scott

(2007, p.133), "interviews yield different kinds of data depending on the purposes for which they are being used and the kinds of interview most amenable to those purposes." In other words, all interview types focus on the creation of verbal stimuli in order to elicit verbal responses (Silverman, 2001; cited in Morrison and Scott, 2007, p.133). Using interviews as a data collection tool is both time consuming and can be considered a subjective technique, since the researcher's attitude and manner may not only influence the participants' responses and behaviours, but also how the gathered data is interpreted and presented. For this reason, the degree of academic rigour associated with interview material is always open scrutiny. However, the interview is considered as a primary tool and is used often in qualitative research due to its fundamental features, as it enables the researcher to build up a good understanding of the participants' involvement and interests regarding the issues being studied (Robson, 2002).

Qualitative interviews are normally dependent on the participants' abilities to interact, verbalise, conceptualise and remember (Mason, 2002). Robson (2002), David and Sutton (2004), Bell (2005), Berg (2009), Bell and Waters (2014) identified three different forms of interviews: structured, semi-structured and unstructured. The structured interview is performed by the researcher through the use of a plan of pre-formulated questions, and the order is usually fixed. The semi-structured interview is also performed through the use of a plan of pre-formulated questions, but this form of interview progresses in response to the interaction between the researcher and the participant which, in turn, permits the researcher to probe the participants on specific issues of interest that might occur. The unstructured interview is more of a conversation between the researcher and the participant with the researcher guiding

it and the participants answering without feeling controlled by pre-formulated questions or a restricted range of answers. The structured interview was not employed in this study because of the inflexibility of the questions, and because this form of interview does not allow deep investigation of the participants' beliefs and thoughts. The unstructured interview was excluded also since certain themes and questions needed to be covered within a certain and limited period of time in order to ensure valid and reliable data. This form of interview, as argued by Bell and Waters, requires "a great deal of expertise to control and a great deal of time to analyse" (2014, p.181). However, the semi-structured interview compared to the structured and unstructured interviews, is considered to be more beneficial, as it provides flexibility, allows the researcher to ask additional questions based on the answers given by the participants as well as clarifying any ambiguous answers. (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003)

However, ultimately, the purpose and aims of the research determine the use of the appropriate interview type. Interviews are generally employed for data collection in order to investigate peoples' internal perspectives, feelings, thoughts and behaviour towards the issue under investigation (Robson, 2002). In this respect, semi-structured interviews were chosen by the researcher as a procedure to investigate and compare observations in the classroom with what teachers might say and express in their interviews. This format of interview was adopted for this study, because it allowed the researcher to access the thinking of the participants, and, as a result, the researcher was able to determine aspects of the teachers' thinking such as beliefs and intentions which could not be captured through other methods of data collection (Patton, 1980).

It was not easy, however, to accomplish the interviews with busy teachers in general, and in this Libyan post-conflict context in particular. The semi-structured interviews were conducted with the same fifteen observed teachers. Every interview session lasted approximately 30 to 45 minutes. Since time was of the essence, it was significant for me as an interviewer to keep control of the interview, and minimise any deviation (Gray, 2004). It was important to channel the interview back onto the right track, as most of the interviewees kept discussing political issues related to the ongoing conflict, in many situations. Interviews were conducted more than once, three times and directly after each observation session, in order to reduce any untruthfulness may occur. The interviews were conducted in Arabic in order to facilitate free and open communication of the participants' thoughts and ideas. Notes were immediately written by the researcher after each interview, as this process lengthens the required time for the researcher in order to allocate to each interview (Easterby-Smith et al., 2004).

Interviews, however, are expected to be effective in generating data based on beliefs, emotions, attitudes and privileged information (Denscombe, 1998). Compared to other techniques of data collection, semi-structured interviews have been identified as the most appropriate tool for the researcher to use, as it allows flexibility for the participants to raise their voices, talk about their concerns and expectations, their teaching practices and experiences, the current school curriculum and their students' achievements. There is also an opportunity for the researcher to explain any question that is not clear to the participant (Robson, 2002 and Basit, 2010). In semi-structured interviews, as discussed by Gray (2004), improvisation is considered as a main key when effectively used by the researcher. He defined it as "a skill that needs to be built

through experience" (p. 225). Arksey and Knight (1999, cited in Gray, 2004, p.225) suggested the following tips as hallmarks for such an interview: it allows the variation of the questions' order in a way to fit the flow of the interview; variation of the questions' phrasing so the interaction seems more natural; review if the interview goes off track; and it helps to build a kind of trust and rapport through the investment of the interviewer's self into the interview, by raising different or similar experiences depending on what is being discussed. As a result, interviews give participants the scope to clearly express themselves which in turn strengthens the validity of the gathered data.

In order to start the interview, the researcher formulated a number of questions and themes as a guide and used probes as a way to enhance the richness of my research data. Robson (2002, p.276) defined the term 'probe' as a device that is skilfully employed by the researcher in order to motivate and encourage the participant to say and give more details. Careful and attentive listening to the interviewees' answers is of significance as this facilitates new important themes which could be probed with other questions. To shed a light on the role of listening, Gray (2004) ensured that, when conducting interviews, a researcher has to remember that:

> An interview is not a normal conversation.... in normal conversation it might be acceptable to occasionally glance at one's watch or look away, in interviews a far greater degree of attentiveness is required. This means listening to and interpreting the meaning of what is being said, but also noting the tone and delivery of the dialogue to pick up any traces of irritation, confusion or boredom.

> (Gray, 2004, p.226)

When I was conducting interviews, occasionally I realised, through their facial gestures and expressions, that interviewees did not understand what exactly I meant by a question or a phrase. Also, sometimes an unfinished statement, or even silence, can reveal more than what is actually said (Gray, 2004). However, the interview focused on simple and clear questions which were aligned with the research aims and questions (See Appendix 4), in order to ensure that relevant data was generated, either when observing or interviewing the participants. It was, however, expected that there would be some further questions arising as a result of the interviewees' answers and discussions.

5.6.4 Teachers' Diaries

A diary is defined by Alaszewski (2006, cited in Bell and Waters, 2014, p.196) as "a document created by an individual who has maintained a regular, personal and contemporaneous record and which is organised around a sequence of regular and dated entries over a period of time during which the diarist keeps or maintains the diary". Diaries are widely used in language teaching and teacher training programmes (McDonough, 1992). Jarvis (1992) called diaries: 'learning records', because they could be used to provide an opportunity for teachers to reflect on their teaching as they seem to be a helpful and practical way of perceiving professional development. Therefore, she employed diaries to encourage teachers to "be aware of the importance of their own reflection, and to provide a spur towards their creating a meaning for new ideas which was rooted in their own practice" (p.134). Bailey and Ochsner (1983, cited in Numrich, 1996) defined teachers' diaries as "a first-person case study that is reported in a journal, an introspective account of an L2 experience that reports of affective factors normally hidden from or inaccessible to an external

observer" (p.131). Moreover, teachers' diaries can be a helpful source of information for researchers and teacher educators (Numrich, 1996).

However, Libyan teachers in general use diaries as reminders inside the classroom while delivering a lesson. Those diaries are also considered as a tool to be used by inspectors in order to evaluate teachers. It is obligatory for Libyan teachers of all school subjects to have their lesson diaries with them, as they will be regularly checked and can be asked about their work at any time, either by the manager of the school or by the inspectors in order to assess teachers' practices inside the classrooms through an organised description in their diaries.

However, diaries seem to be inefficiently used by the teachers; they just copy into their diaries the aims and objectives of the lessons from the teachers' book as well as recording the new words of every lesson and answers to the questions provided in the work book (See Appendix 5). Therefore, one of the recommendations to be made by the researcher of the current study will be to ensure the significance of the efficient and adequate use of teachers' diaries by the teachers themselves and also by the inspectors to enhance professional development.

5.8 Data Analysis

Being able to understand and explain research findings within a conceptual framework which makes sense of gathered data is the mark of a mature discipline that aims to systematically study a particular phenomenon (May, 2001, p.29). The analysis of qualitative data requires analysis of texts and images in order to generate answers to the research questions at hand (Creswell, 2012, p.236). Qualitative data analysis in general, as stated by Flick (2014, p.369), could be oriented to a variety of aims such

as; describing a phenomenon of a specific individual or groups; focusing on individual or groups to identify and explain differences; or developing a theory. Flick defined qualitative data analysis as follows:

> Qualitative data analysis is the interpretation and classification of linguistic (or visual) material with the following aims: to make meaning statements about implicit and explicit dimensions and structures of meaning making in the material and what is represented in it. Meaning making can refer to subjective or social meanings. Often qualitative data analysis combines rough analysis of the material (overviews, condensation, summaries). Often the final aim is to arrive at statements that can be generalized on one way or the other by comparing various materials or various texts or several cases.

> (Flick, 2014, p.370)

This definition draws attention to the notion that in most cases, several levels are involved in the qualitative data analysis; such as implicit and explicit levels of meaning. That is why reading "between the lines" of what is said is often a very essential step (Flick, 2014, p.370). Since beyond individuals' awareness, there might be some unconscious aspects behind their behaviours and practices. Such aspects could be characterised in some certain forms such as indirect words and expressions, pauses, laughter, physical gestures, etc Howitt (2013). Sometimes what is not said might be also of significance and interest. Theoretically, a major characteristic of qualitative research is that the analysis starts at early stage of data collection process. Researchers are often advised to do so instead of leaving all of the analysis until the data collection stage is over because this "enables 'progressive focusing', and selection of key issues for further investigation to be conducted" (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 539).

However, the research aims and the type of the gathered data all play a significant role in deciding the kind of methods adopted and the approach to analysis undertaken (Cohen et al., 2011). For instance, content analysis could be employed to all types of data. Discourse analysis is an approach used to analyse qualitative data focusing on what exists under the surface; implicit meanings of a text rather than the explicit text (Denscombe, 2010). Narrative data analysis and conversation analysis are best employed to analyse every day and institutional talk (Howitt, 2013). Thematic analysis, in some respect, seems to be most relevant to grounded theory, though it does not require the same level of complexity when collecting data or building a theory. There are some other forms of data such as documents which require specific analytic treatment or visual data such as photos and films. Every analytical method and approach should be structured and suitable to the data. Therefore, a researcher must be aware and carefully choose appropriate methods and an approach which fits the type of his/her data and research questions (Flick, 2014). Taking all that into consideration, thematic analysis is adopted for this study.

5.8.1 Thematic analysis

Howitt (2013) identified thematic analysis as a descriptive method rather than a theory building approach. Braun and Clarke (2006, p.79) defined thematic analysis as "a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes)". They suggested two forms of thematic analysis; one is driven by pre-existing theoretical concerns, and the other one is driven by the gathered data. Thematic analysis is a widely used method that is employed for data analysis for its relative lack of complexity, and its accessibility for various qualitative analysis procedures. It does not have strong theoretical perspective and, in turn, has the flexibility to be aligned with any theory that

is adopted as a theoretical framework. Thematic analysis as stated by Flick is "strongly rooted in psychological research" (2014, p.423). It is considered "an important and straightforward form of qualitative analysis.... requires the researcher to identify a limited number of themes to adequately describe what is happening in textual data such as interviews" (Howitt, 2013, p.157). This type of analysis allows in-depth and rich description of the gathered data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). In short, thematic analysis is adopted for the study at hand for the following reasons:

- Its accessibility and relevance making it preferable to all of the other qualitative analysis procedures.

- Its capacity to provide the researcher with a detailed vision about the issues discussed in the current research.

- Its relative lack of complexity, because it does not have a strong rigid theoretical and methodological prospective.

- Its flexibility to be aligned with the adopted theoretical framework of this study.

However, thematic analysis has been criticised for its lack of a dependable and consistent protocol, as a result, researchers employing thematic analysis need to include detailed information regarding how the analysis was conducted (Howitt, 2013). This type of analysis, therefore, requires the researcher to have an intimate knowledge of the data; knowledge that is gained through the data collection stage, when transcribing, and when reading the data many times. A major problem with this is that the direct role of the researcher in the analytic stage can appear minimised: "The task seems to be too easy – so long as a few themes are suggested and a few illustrative

quotes found, then the job of analysis is done" (Howitt, 2013, p.177). However, in order to avoid such a limitation, the researcher of the current study employed thematic analysis alongside an adopted theoretical framework which worked as a lens to provide the researcher with a clear vision about the data and how it is going to be analysed appropriately. That is to say besides the emerging themes which came out of the collected data, there were some a priori themes which were identified as a result of the available literature in relation to the research aims and questions, interpretive paradigm, and the adopted theoretical framework.

According to Howitt and Gramer (2011, cited in Howitt, 2013, p.178), the main processes involved when conducting a thematic analysis are the transcription stage, analytic effort and the themes' identification. Conceptually, those three processes seem to be separately performed, but in reality it is not necessary to undertake them in this rigid sequence as they overlap. That is to say, the researcher may need to go back and forward between those stages to keep checking and refining the themes.

5.8.1.1 Transcribing Textual data

Transcriptions process as defined by Howitt (2013, p.145) as "the process of turning sound (and video) recordings into written text". He described such a process as a "behind the scenes activity" (p.151), because it is not always detectable in the qualitative research literature. There are different considerations to be highlighted when starting data transcriptions in terms of the analytic purpose. In other words, the analysis determines in which way the transcriptions should be carried out. For instance, Bucholtz (2000, cited in Howitt, 2013, p.149) suggested two types of transcriptions: the naturalised and denaturalised transcription. The former describes

the type of transcripts where every detail is important to be captured and included. The latter is the type of transcripts where details such as certain noises, stuttering, pausing and accents are not of importance; so they are eliminated. That is to say; the idiosyncratic elements are not required (Howitt, 2013). For this reason, it is essential for researchers to consider their transcription needs before starting to transcribe the raw data, which in turn will get their transcription process optimised relative to their research aims. The transcription method, however, is an early stage where the researcher starts to get him/herself familiarised with the data. The familiarity that is gained at the transcription stage is very closely focused. Therefore, the analysis, as noted previously, should start much earlier; at the data collection stage. In other words, it is considered as "an early push or stimulus towards trying to understand and, hence, analyse the data" (Howitt, 2013, p.179). This is what happened at the transcription stage of the data in this study.

5.8.1.2 Analytic Effort

A researcher works on transcripts, trying to figure out and generate themes. The analytic effort of this process contains the following constituents: The first is familiarisation with the data; as the researcher will be aware of every included detail. The second is the detailed coding and the conceptualisation that is applied by the researcher on the data; for instance, the line by line coding process or even much broader process of identifying the overall themes. The third is processing and reprocessing the data analysis in order to ensure that the analysis is in-line with the data. The fourth is the extent to which a researcher is able to deal with difficulties when analysing, and the employed effort to resolve those difficulties. The last is the frequent and thorough checks achieved by the research. (Howitt, 2013)

5.8.1.3 Identifying Themes and sub-themes

At this point, the researcher refines and identifies themes and sub-themes which are considered to function as the key features of the data because those themes are supposed to exactly describe what is happening in the data. In qualitative research, however, it is possible that different researchers might look at the same data differently, and, as a result, could come up with alternative readings and different themes. That is because the process of themes' identification partly depends on the amount and quality of the analytic effort employed by researchers in their analysis, and on their context and position in relation to the research. (Howitt, 2013)

However, in order to eliminate some of the weaknesses of thematic analysis, there have been attempts to provide methodical guidelines in terms of how to carry it out. Braun and Clarke (2006, p.86), for example, developed a concept for thematic analysis that requires "the searching across a data set .... to find repeated patterns of meaning", and, as a result, they proposed a more systematic version of thematic analysis, which typically involves the following six steps (p.87-93):

- Familiarising own-self with the data through reading carefully through the entire corpus of data, trying to search for meanings and patterns.

- Generating initial codes of the data.

- Searching for themes; sorting out the different codes into potential themes.

- Refining the themes concisely; developing them (there might be some sub-themes)

- Defining and naming the themes and using those themes to code further data as well as modifying where every piece of data appropriately fits.

171

- Findings: producing reports

All these steps referred backwards and forwards to other steps at the time of data analysis. The following sub-sections present the process of data analysis following the above six steps.

5.8.1.1 Data Familiarisation

The data familiarisation stage allows the researcher to think about that is going on in the data. These early thoughts about what is happening in the data could suggest ways about data coding and apparent themes in the data (Howitt, 2013). In this research, when all of the data was gathered within the expected period of time (four months), the raw data from the observations and interviews, both written and recorded, were transcribed and the Arabic accounts (interview data) were translated into English. During this process, I translated Arabic meanings into English meanings; it was not a word by word translation (not a literal translation). I reviewed the transcribed data many times in order to ensure the accuracy of conveying the exact meanings. I reread repeatedly the transcribed data and highlighted some chunks trying to generate some initial thoughts. Though it was time consuming, this stage helped me to get a comprehensive grasp of the data, familiarised me with the data and generated the process of writing notes in the margins of the pages.

5.8.1.2 Generating initial codes of the data

The line by line coding of data is considered as a formal analysis step in thematic analysis. Coding is an initial process that is working towards theme generation. Howitt (2013, p. 176) defined coding as "brief descriptions of small chunks to data". He added that: "there are no rules to say precisely how this is done but the more conceptual the

codings are the better". Coding is used in order to reduce a large amount of data into smaller units for analysis (Denscombe, 2007). The researcher's coding should indicate things which seem to be interesting and of significance. Braun and Clarke (2006) stated that codings do not emerge from the data, but it is the researcher who works actively to create those codes in relation to the data. They suggested two different approaches depending on whether the coding process is data-led or theory-led. The data-led approach refers to the idea that the coding process is dominant and guided by the data itself. Whereas, the theory-led approach refers to the idea that the creation of initial codings are suggested by the key constituents of the adopted theory. In my research, I applied both those two approaches when coding. That is to say, I undertook a priori coding in terms of my theoretical framework. I then went through all of the transcripts and created some other codes for chunks of the data which appeared to be relevant to the investigated research issues. (See Appendix 6)

5.8.1.3 Searching for Themes

After that, I looked for similarities and differences among those codes, and, as a result, I started grouping the relevant code chunks under appropriate themes. That is to say, from those codes, the researcher refined and developed the priori themes, and identified some other emergent themes which have a description about the major features of the data at hand.

5.8.1.4 Refining and Developing the Themes

Each theme was carefully defined and differentiated from the others in order to avoid repetition and allow comparisons when required. All that allowed the researcher's analytic ideas to develop, and, as a result, there has been a constant need to re-check

the data together with the codings in order to maximise the fit between the data, codings and the themes (Howitt, 2013). All those themes were used to present analysis.

5.8.1.5 Producing Reports

Finally, the data was analysed in a systematic and comprehensive way under the identified themes in order to answer the research questions.

5.9 Considerations of Validity and Reliability in Qualitative Research

In any type of research, it is essential to ensure that data collection methods and results are accurate and credible. Validity is considered to be a strong point of qualitative research. The accuracy of the results must be verified not only from the perspective of the researcher, but also from the perspective of the participants. Typically, validity and credibility are used in qualitative research to indicate that the findings are genuine (Creswell and Miller, 2000). Cohen et al. (2010) argued that the internal validity can be applied in several ways such as the appropriate use of the research design and the use of different methods of data collection where the data is delivered from a variety of sources. Silverman (2011) suggested that the use of comparisons between the different data collection methods (observations and interviews) could determine the level of validity. External validity, on the other hand, relates to the level to which the research findings can be generalised to other cases and people. In this regard, Cohen et al. (2010) claims that it is likely to assess the participants and settings through comparing them with other groups and other situations in order to find out how the data could be converted into other situations and even cultures. However, Lincoln and Guba (1985) argued the threats to external

validity may occur in cases such as where the study was applied to a certain group but could not be applied to another as the context and history may differ. In this research, the case studies are likely to be relevant, and the findings could be significant to various Libyan teachers as the context and some other circumstances, such as the education policy, curriculum, teaching background and the received knowledge, are similar. Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest that in order to enable readers to assess the extent to which research findings are transferable to other similar contexts, a detailed description of data should be integrated with the working assumptions. Through and after data collection, certain measures were applied in this study to provide an accurate reflection of the research issues:

-The researcher was critically aware of any impact which may occur from her political and social views, beliefs, emotions or assumptions which could cause the research discussions and findings to be viewed as biased due to the researcher's own views.

-Reflexivity was systematically employed within my research in order to ensure consistency and trustworthiness through the interpretation of my position as a researcher.

-The use of a case study strategy enabled the researcher to gain an in-depth understanding of the participants' (teachers') views, beliefs, behaviours and experiences in their natural context (school) through the use of multiple data collection techniques (observations, interviews and document analysis: Teachers' diaries and samples of the current curriculum) which in turn enhanced the research validity. (Denscombe, 2010)

175

-The case studies elicit a range of variables which were identified in order to demonstrate external validity; generalisability. (Cohen, et al., 2011)

-The clarification provided by the researcher for the investigated context also enhances the external validity of this research. (Cohen, et al., 2011)

-The research participants were given clear ideas about the goals of the research in order to encourage respondents and, in turn, increase the validity and reliability of the research findings.

-After observation, interviews were also conducted to attain first-hand data from the participants. The two methods were used to complement each other and, in turn, helped to create a more comprehensive picture about the teachers' beliefs and classroom practices.

-Semi-structured observation was employed to avoid omission of any important points; this also increases the validity of the gathered data.

-The use of "persistent observations" (Cohen et al., 2010, p.136) were applied through being observed and interviewed three times.

-An audio-recorder was employed as a useful strategy for retrieving and checking the accuracy and the validity of the data.

5.10 Ethical Issues and Principles Which Guide this Study

Ethics, in the context of academic research, are identified as the appropriateness of the researcher's behaviour alongside with the rights of participants of the study, and how they might be affected (Saunders et al., 2007). Ethical considerations are significant when undertaking educational and social research. Bell (1999, p.119)

ensured the necessity to identify ethical protocols to guide the research process towards establishing a research practice of good quality, and neglecting such ethical considerations and protocols could not only harm the research participants, but it could also have a negative impact on the researcher herself or himself (May, 1997, p.55). For instance, it is essential to establish boundaries regarding what can be directly attributed or anonymised. Thus, the research is conducted under the umbrella of the BERA Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research (2011). There are various points the researcher took into consideration when conducting this research. As honesty is vital, the researcher notified the relevant authorities and other appropriate persons in order to seek permission to enter the schools and meet the teachers. Difficulty in accessing the selected schools was not anticipated, however, the researcher systematically followed the correct formal procedures in order to legitimise the data collection process. That is, the researcher requested a letter from her supervisor stating the importance of collecting such data; and then outlined in a further document how the data was collected, who were the participants, time constraints for the data collection, and the level of the identified schools. These letters were then submitted to the Educational Office of the region (Southern Libya) which, in turn, issued a further letter addressed to the schools' managers to provide the researcher with any required support. (See Appendix 7)

In an on-going conflict environment, a researcher can feel either bias or a need to identify with the party he or she supports. As a researcher who is looking for better education and a better Libya, I treated the participants of my study fairly and sensitively. Additionally, as the situation in Libya is still in a state of flux, and there is conflict between those who support the 17th of February Revolution and others who

still support the green flag of the previous regime, the researcher treated all the participants with dignity and respect with regard to their ideas and political beliefs.

Research participants were given a clear understanding of the goals of the research to encourage respondents and in turn to increase the validity and reliability of the research findings (Cohen, et al., 2007). Whilst I explained everything verbally at the start of the study, the participants were given documentation beforehand containing the researcher's key goals and aims for conducting this research, including how and why the participants would be observed and interviewed, the timeline, and what would happen to the information obtained (data). Additionally, concerns such as confidentiality, the significance of their honest participation and commitment were included in the hand-out. This gave a complete picture of the whole process, which, in turn, allowed a prospective participant to make an early decision regarding whether or not to participate (Bell, 2010, p.161). It was emphasised to participants, however, that they had the right to withdraw at any time without being obliged to give reasons. However, their personal details were anonymised because, in Libyan culture, such details can help to create trust and consolidate the relationship between the researcher and the participants. The researcher did not use the participants' real names in the analysis chapter (Basit, 2010 and Creswell, 2012) and even the names of the schools were not revealed. This is why it is important for the researcher to inform the participants and other relevant persons regarding both her role in the study and the research goals.

Data was electronically saved via a password protected folder, and any hard copies were securely stored in a locked folder case. Data has been only used for purposes

of research. The findings of this research will be published under the real name of the researcher on the Huddersfield University website. Hard copies will be available at Libyan university libraries and education departments for further study and development.

5.11 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter described in detail the methodological framework of this research. It discussed the philosophical paradigm adopted in this study in conjunction with the research design and the use of case study as a research strategy to provide a thorough account of the research. Additionally, it described the participants and the reasoning behind why and how they were chosen. It also presented in-depth details of the process and techniques employed in the data collection procedures. It reviewed the rationale of how the questionnaire, classroom observations and interviews were formulated to ensure valid and reliable data was received. Penultimately, it shed light on how the process of data analysis was employed in order to achieve the required research aims. Finally, it referred to how ethical issues were considered within the study. The following chapter will be a detailed analysis and discussion of the research data.

Chapter Six: Data Analysis

Analysis One: Teachers' Classroom Practices

6.1 Introduction

The findings in the following analysis focus on what happened in classrooms. The data was gathered through semi-structured interviews with the fifteen participant teachers about their practices, and semi-structured observations undertaken by the researcher. Four inspectors of English were interviewed once each. The main focus of the observations, which took place over four months in the seven participant schools, was the teaching methods and techniques; and the role of a teacher in the process of teaching and learning (instructor or facilitator/ traditional or innovative). This included the extent to which teachers followed the pedagogical instructions of the current curriculum teacher's book, and the way they employed their diaries. The observational data, however, provided a detailed account of the fifteen teachers' practices and showed the extent to which those practices reflected the curriculum's pedagogical principles. In analysing the observational data, the focus was mainly on describing what teachers did. As a result, key episodes from the observed practice were identified, and then compared to the pedagogical instructions recommended in the teacher's book.

The main aim of this part of analysis is to set the scene and provide a clear picture of how the process of teaching and learning was shaped during classes. Setting the scene provides a background that underpins the subsequent analysis of teachers' beliefs and change through professional development. The next section presents teachers' aims when teaching English, and then the following two sections discuss

how those aims were executed through classroom practices and teachers' roles. The

last section analyses the extent to which teaching practices were aligned with the English teacher's book pedagogical instructions.

6.2 Teachers' Aims when Teaching English

After the first observations conducted with all of the fifteen teachers, they were asked during the first follow-up interviews about their main aim when teaching English. All fifteen teachers asserted that their main aim was students' success in examinations. The issue was not the aim itself but rather how that aim and those examinations affected the teaching and objectives of the current communicative curriculum. As indicated by Johnson (1989), in educational systems, a key question for teachers, school administrators, and even inspectors and students themselves is often not: "Are students gaining in communicative competence?" But: "Are they on course for the examination?" (1989, p.6). This raised a number of significant issues. Mona, for instance, said:

> Because it is essential for me as a teacher to prepare and help students to successfully pass their exams, in all of my teaching classes, I focus only on developing students' grammatical knowledge and those skills which are relevant for exams, such as; how to have a clear handwriting, keep practising work book exercises with them, do dictation of the new vocabularies for students in order to make sure that they keep memorizing all of the new words as they will need to know the Arabic translation for some structures and words in the final exams. (Interview 1)

Amal also believed that it was significant for her success as a teacher to prepare her students effectively for exams. She indicated that she was not "bothered" about the wider range of language skills since she needed to follow a style of teaching where the main focus was on passing exams. Though Amal was one of the teachers who was using both English and Arabic to deliver her lessons, she said:

It did not matter whether students learn how to speak English or not, because they are not going to speak in their exams. All what they are required to do in mid-exams is just to fill in spaces with the suitable words, matching or to answer some grammatical exercises. So why do I need to teach them how to speak? (Interview 2)

Wala also ensured the same aim saying that:

My main aim when teaching English is to guarantee success and passing exams for my students (Interview 1).

Similarly, Fatima, Azza, Safa, Kawthar, Laila and Manal referred to passing exams as their main aim of teaching English the way they did. This raises the question of alignment between the curriculum and its assessment. The Libyan MoE's proposed aim of teaching English as a compulsory school subject is students' effective communication in English, but the assessment does not reflect that. In other words, the chosen assessment is not aligned to the aims and objectives of the current curriculum. For effective assessment and effective learners' outcomes, both elements are required to operate in parallel, aligned with each other (Houghton, 2004). What these teachers did was exactly as claimed by Houghton. That is to say; they aligned their practices in a way that enhanced alignment between their students' desired outcomes and the employed assessment. The issue is the lack of alignment between the current curriculum aims and the students' outcomes. In CLT: ''Language learning success is to be assessed neither in terms of accurate grammar and pronunciation for their own sake, nor in terms of explicit knowledge of the rules, but by the ability to do things with the language, appropriately, fluently and effectively.'' (Cook, 2003, p.36). Contradictorily, the current assessment in Libyan schools is mainly characterised by two main types of examinations: first are the mid-examinations which are designed by

the teachers themselves; those exams take the form of grammatical questions with the sole aim of gaining higher scores. Second are the final public examinations which are designed by the MoE in Tripoli for preparatory three and secondary three. Those examinations take the form of multiple choice questions where students are only required to tick the correct answers. Both types of examinations are not aligned with the objectives of the current curriculum. Such mismatched and incongruent assessment system has been identified as a key factor which made the aims and objectives of any teaching process hard to reach (Haider and Chowdhury, 2012). This could explain a part of the problem identified in this research which is students' failure to communicate in English. As Tang and Biggs suggest: ''The quickest way to change student learning is to change the assessment system'' (1995, p.159).

Moreover, when the fifteen teachers were asked about the main aim of the current curriculum, their replies revealed their lack of awareness and knowledge of the relevant objectives. Omar, for instance, said:

> All I know it is a school subject which I have to teach in a way to ensure students' understanding of the grammatical rules and the provided texts to pass their mid and final exams. (Interview 1)

Fatima stated:

> The current curriculum was designed in a way to help us as teachers to deliver all of the provided lessons in a systematic way, and to provide students with all of the English grammatical rules which in turn will help them to pass exams. (Interview 1)

Wala, Laila, Azza, Safa and Manal's answers were that they aimed to aid students' learning of English. When asked about what type of learning they were referring to,

their answers emphasised the development of the students' grammatical competences. Laila, for instance, talking about the main motive behind her classroom practices, explained:

> To assist my students' success in exams. Passing exams is my most important drive to teaching grammar for my students.... I see grammar for students to pass exams is like a candle in darkness (Interview 1).

On the other hand, however, Sharaf, Samia, Marwa and Esra's answers were about learning English through the development of the four macro-skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). Sharaf, for instance said:

> Honestly, I never thought about such question, but I think the main aim of the current curriculum is to develop students' four skills through the implementation of the provided activities. (Interview 1)

Kawthar talked about the aims and objectives situated on the top of every lesson page in the teachers' book. She said:

> I do not know what the general aim of the current curriculum is. Really I do not know and I never asked before.... Though there are aims and objectives for every lesson in the teachers' book, but I am hundred percent that none of the English language teachers in all Libya, whom I am one of them, follow or even read such objectives ... and that is simply because those aims and objectives are not helping the aim of passing exams. (Interview 2)

Kawthar's answer was clear and straightforward; she said she had no idea about the curriculum aims. Her justification for herself and others ignoring the teachers' book instructions reinforces the issue of alignment between the curriculum and the assessment system.

Esra appeared to be uncertain of the current curriculum aims. Her reply to my question: "Do you know what are the aims and objectives of the current curriculum?" indicated uncertainty and reserve:

> [Silent]… Is not it to help students know English language and learn it?... I am just joking. I mean English has become an international language, and as you can see Libya is now opening its doors for international exchange and cooperation. As a result, Libyans need to learn English. And I am sure that the current curriculum is good and it helps students to learn English. Am I right? Though I never thought about such question before, but I am saying so, because this curriculum contains a wide variety of vocabulary and grammatical structures. (Interview 2)

All that was said by participant teachers leads to the fact that, because the aims and objectives of the current curriculum were not clear to them, their teaching practices were based on their own acquired teaching beliefs and viewpoints which in most cases lacked the required knowledge background. Evidence suggests that it is essential for the teachers, inspectors and the even examination committee to have a good understanding about the aims and objectives of the curriculum and how such aims should be reinforced through the assessment system. At the same time, they need to consider pedagogy and how the subject could be taught, in order to develop appropriate assessment. Also, if the aims and objectives of the current curriculum are clearly analysed and emphasised for all of the pre/in-service teachers, teachers might have the confidence to be bolder and to deviate from the traditional modes they are adopting now. They might be encouraged to follow the instructions provided by the teacher's book; and, as a result, communicative activities would become a more significant part of their practices. The question is whose responsibility is this, where and how exactly should teachers be informed? However, the issue remains about the

lack of congruence between the MoE assessment and the main aim of the Libyan curriculum. When this issue was raised in the interview conducted with Mr Jamal (an inspector of English for approximately twelve years), he raised a number of important points in relation to teachers' understanding of this:

> Honestly, no one tells teachers either about the aim of teaching English or how it should be taught in order to reach that aim. They are just provided with a teacher's book and supposed to follow its instructions. As a result, teachers feel lost, and finally end up with imitating each other, or copying their own previous school teachers' styles of teaching. I have been an inspector of English for many years and I saw the same teaching styles followed in almost 99% of the classes I visited. The main focus of teaching was always on grammar and translation. (Interview 1)

Since inspectors are deemed to be responsible for monitoring teachers' performances, Mr Jamal was asked about the inspirational role in monitoring and encouraging effective teaching. He acknowledged this, but indicated his frustration saying: "One hand cannot clap", and then hesitantly added:

> There are inspectors who are older than me with many more years of experience. Trying to discuss such things with them at the inspection office was always a heavy burden on me. Because raising such issues reflects gaps or shortcomings in how they conducted their roles so what I said was nor accepted by them, as they see themselves as professional so who am I to criticise them, or even provide advice. (Interview 1)

So, Mr Jamal suggested here that many inspectors' traditional perspective is a part of the problem. Mr Jamal himself had had contact with British teaching staff at the British Council in Tripoli and Sebha, and this had extended his knowledge about teaching approaches and improved his proficiency in English. This wider knowledge and

experience, as he explained, created conflict with some other inspectors especially if he criticised people who were more senior. He stated:

> I tried to discuss things related to innovative teaching with them, but it was always when my words hit the walls. As you know people of my age and older in Libya do not accept new things easily, also they are not friends with the current technology. The majority of inspectors I know and meet at the inspection office do not use computers or the internet and with the lack of updated readable material in the central library, this has made the situation worse now. (Interview 1)

The above quotation raises another significant issue which is the lack updated resources and the importance of technology and of access to the internet as one of the effective resources for EFL teachers (Chen, 2008). However, four of the fifteen teachers: Omar, Samia, Sharaf and Marwa's responses as well as emphasising their main aim was to ensure students passed exams, highlighted the promotion of English as a language in use, because it was necessary for almost all aspects of life. Sharaf; for instance, said:

> English nowadays becomes like the air we breathe; one could come across English words, expressions and sayings almost everywhere s/he goes. That is why I hate the way I was taught English, because my teacher at that time taught me English as a school subject but not as live language. She was teaching us English just to pass exams which I never liked. Yes, I believe that examinations are important for students' development and to ensure learning outcomes, but also I believe that teachers of English must turn their focus on teaching the beauty of English as a language instead of teaching it as a boring school subject. (Interview 1)

Marwa also shared this view. She criticised some other teachers' ways of teaching English, and attributed students' failure to speak English to the teachers who taught them and their focus on exams. She said:

> Passing exams in general is an aim of every teaching process and teachers are required to play such traditional roles. But as you see English language is taught from early stages of student's life and education and up to s/he graduates from higher institutions. The shocking fact is that students at all stages are weak in English and cannot speak it. The reason behind this painful truth is the teachers who deliver English to students as a school subject but not as a language. Their aim when teaching English to their students is just to pass exams. (Interview 1)

Marwa's comment was echoed in almost all of the teachers' observed practices and in what they said when interviewed. Samia also raised a very interesting point about the way teachers need to think about English as a language rather than a subject. She said:

> I believe that teaching school subjects such as geography, history, mathematics, etc which requires students to know, retain and memorise information is not like teaching English as a language. That is to say; if teachers taught English as a language inside their classroom, this would be like providing students with the required tools and the ways of how to use such tools; which is speaking the language. (Interview 3)

Another issue raised by the teachers' responses regarded the impact of examinations when they appeared to be fixed and follow a repeated format. Looking at the teachers' diaries revealed the way examinations were formulated throughout the whole year. Those examinations consisted of questions such as: change the following sentences into negative, into questions, into passive, from one tense to another, and re-order the following words to make correct sentences. Also, there were fill-in questions where students were asked to choose the correct form of verb, preposition, article, some/any, much/many, etc. Such examinations were employed by all of the fifteen teachers. Even the examinations which are provided by the MoE follow a fixed format system, and sometimes repeated questions throughout years. Such fixed format system of

189

examination has the effect of narrowing the curriculum; as it confines what is done to those elements that are considered to be testable or convenient. It also, however, could have an impact on the whole process of teaching which is "likely to become restricted to the sorts of activities and abilities that are tested" (Alderson, Clapham and Wall, 1995, p.228). That is why changing such fixed formats on regular basis is considered essential, or examinations become predictable which will eventually have a damaging impact on the process of teaching and learning (Weir, 1990, p.27).

In short, during this research, the teachers' priority was their students passing examinations. They also believed that traditional learning and GTM were the most effective ways of doing this, a view which was shared by some of the senior inspectors who were tasked with monitoring teachers' performances. What teachers said, however, reflects the lack of alignment between the current government curriculum aims and the way exams and assessments are structured. The final multiple choice examination provided by the MoE made teachers, even those who had positive beliefs about the communicative approach, employ traditional approaches from time to time. Graves (2008, p.147-149), stated that teachers may follow the curriculum and the prescribed method on one occasion because they feel a compulsion to do so in their teaching setting, but then, on another occasion, they may rely more on their own beliefs which are different from those prescribed, meaning they might depart from the way they are supposed to teach. That is why it is significant to discuss the relationship between teachers' practices, roles and their beliefs.

6.3 Classroom Practices

Twelve of the fifteen teachers: Mona, Ali, Azza, Safa, Fatima, Kawthar, Manal, Amal, Omar, Wala, Esra and Laila, were in favour of traditional approaches to teaching English; in particular, GTM. Mona, Ali, Azza, Safa, Fatima, Kawthar and Manal, for instance, used Arabic as a main tool to explain grammar and other points to their students. Using the first language (FT) to deliver a target language (TL) lessons is a key feature of the GTM (Lindsay and Knight, 2006). However, the other teachers: Amal, Omar, Wala, Esra and Laila used both English and Arabic, initially explaining everything in English including the vocabulary meanings, only later transferring into Arabic and then repeating everything.

Mona, for instance as one of the teachers who depended on Arabic to deliver all her lessons, in the first observation, delivered a lesson to preparatory three female students. The topic was about food and it aimed to develop students listening skills. This aim was clearly reflected in the way that lesson was designed for students in the course-book, and also in the teacher's book: This lesson aims to develop students' listening skills, providing them with the correct pronunciations as well as making them familiar with native speakers' models. Students were supposed to listen to a conversation between two persons discussing food, and look at pictures of the food in the course book. They then talked about it. It is a very simple and interesting communicative activity. But Mona did not deliver the lesson in such way. What she did was:

> She opened her diary and wrote thirteen vocabulary words with numbers on the board. She asked the students in Arabic to look at the board and concentrate on the way she pronounces every word. She read the words written on the board in a slow rhythm and then again in Arabic asked students to repeat after her every word she read and they did. This activity

190

took thirteen minutes. Then she asked students if they know any of those words. Students in a noisy way started naming different Arabic words referring to the words on the board. With a big smile reflecting satisfaction about the student performance, Mona asked, in Arabic, students to open their course books on page No. 37, and try to match each word written on the blackboard with the pictures at the bottom of that page. After five minutes, the teacher asked, in Arabic, who can tell which word from those on the board match the first picture? She added raise your hands and do not answer in groups. Students raised their hands and then the teacher chose one to give the answer. This activity took 21 minutes and students kept focusing on translating to Arabic though there were pictures reflecting their meanings. (Observation1)

It was obvious that Mona did not follow the instructions provided either as hints in the course-book or as details in the teacher's book. She delivered this lesson and the other two lessons following her own thoughts and beliefs. Her diary showed that all of the lessons were planned in similar ways. In interviews, her lack of the required pedagogical knowledge was evident. For instance, when she was asked about a communicative approach and how to implement certain communicative techniques, it was apparent that she did not know what to do. However, when she was asked about the main source of knowledge she depended on when planning for her lessons, she replied that her experience as a learner of English at schools and then at university, plus her fourteen years of teaching experience, all had helped her to be the teacher she is now. The pre-conceptions about teaching that many teachers have are often as a result of their own experiences as students and then as teachers (Britten, 1988). Teachers get their content knowledge during their educational stages and then shape their pedagogical knowledge during their teaching years of experience. Similarly, Johnson (1994) found out that teachers make their selection of appropriate teaching materials and activities depending on their personal learning experiences (See 3.2.3).

191

The other four interviewed teachers: Azza, Safa, Kawthar and Manal, revealed the same strategy. They mentioned that they adopted similar teaching methods and techniques to those used by their own teachers when they were at school because they believed that they were valuable approaches in teaching.

In the second observation, Mona delivered 'Conditional Type 1 rule'. She depended on Arabic to explain everything. She neither used the activities provided in the course-book nor followed the instructions provided by the teacher book:

> She wrote the rule with few examples on the board. She read the rule with the examples on the blackboard. Then she started explaining, in Arabic, when to use conditional one and for what reason. She said "Conditional type one is used to talk about facts, real and possible situations. Then she orally added few more examples saying, "If I am hungry, I will eat. If you work hard, you will pass". She wrote an exercise on the other part of the board. Then she asked the students to take five minutes and try individually to answer these exercises in their notebooks. Randomly, Mona started calling students by their names; one in every time to give an answer. Some were standing silently, others gave wrong answers and very few who managed to give the right form of the verb. This made Mona explains that rule again in Arabic. (Observation 2)

Mona's delivery of the lesson was entirely different from how that lesson was demonstrated in the course-book and how it was supposed to be delivered according to the teacher's book. What Mona did was clearly traditional; whereas that lesson was designed to be communicatively delivered. When I started questioning Mona about the way she delivered that lesson, she kept repeating and insisting on the importance of teaching grammar. Though even in CLT, as Lightbown and Spada (1999) stated, a teacher may focus on the grammatical forms of a language only when there is a need for more clarification. Students should be able to develop their communicative competence through the communication or interaction they may have with the teacher

192

or with each other, either in pair or group work activities. Such communication and activities though are delineated within the current curriculum, but were missing in all of Mona's classes. This could be attributed to her lack of knowledge about CLT. She said:

> I believe that it is very essential for students to learn English grammar in order to pass their exams. And because it is a language, I use Arabic to explain everything for my students to make them happy, comfortable, and understand everything to pass their exams. That is how I was taught till I became the teacher of English I am right now with all of the grammatical rules stored in my mind. (Interview 1)

The last sentence reveals the beliefs she has about certain practices of teaching English. She acquired those beliefs from her experience as a language learner, and as a result those beliefs affect the way she acted and justified her approach. However, when she was asked about her main aim of teaching English to students besides helping them to pass their exams, her answer was "Nothing". This means developing students' communicative fluency and accuracy in using English, as the current curriculum and the MoE highlight, was not in her mind at all. Again, this was the same case with many other participant teachers who had no idea of what might have been the aim of the current curriculum; how it was supposed to be delivered and what the aim of teaching English as a compulsory school subject in Libya is. They were dealing with English as a school subject where students need only to pass their exams.

Moreover, Ali delivered a lesson about the use of articles for preparatory 3 in the same traditional way. In short, he did exactly as follows:

> He wrote the rule with few examples on the board. Then he started explaining that rule in Arabic. He explained to students when and how the three articles: a/an/the, are supposed to be used. He wrote 15 sentences

with missing articles on the board, and asked the students to take 5 minutes and try individually to answer these exercises in their notebooks. Then he stared asked students who want to answer the first one in a voluntary way. (Observation1)

It was clear that his English was excellent; he spoke fluent English with me outside the classroom, and everything in his diary was written in well-structured English sentences. However, the last observed session was grammar revision with students when he was asked to explain various rules. He was always ready to explain everything with a variety of examples, but in doing so he used Arabic to explain everything for his students. When I asked him why use Arabic since he speaks fluent English, his reply was:

> I use Arabic because my students are still so young. I do not want them to be distressed and frustrated of receiving things in English without understanding what I am saying. I always keep reminding myself of my own experience when I was at preparatory stages where I was taught by a very rough teacher who was always making me upset and frustrated because he kept using English all the time... And finally start calling us by our names and asking us to answer exercises he wrote on the board. I hated English for a while because of him. (Interview 3)

What Ali said raises two main points: first his lack of pedagogical knowledge; second the impact of his past learning experiences on his current views, beliefs and practices. As it is so often the case, teachers' learning experiences can alter their practice throughout their teaching careers (See 3.2.3.1). Such a pervasive influence constitutes an: 'apprenticeship of observation' (Powell, 2002), which was evident, not only with Ali, but also with other participant teachers who had shaped their current teaching practice and beliefs through scenarios during their own learning time;

194

whether bad, like Ali, or good like Mona, Azza, Safa, Kawther and Manal. However, if these teachers were introduced to other options, they might be encouraged to try such alternatives in their classrooms which, if they proved effective, could then be employed afterwards (See 3.2.4). Therefore, it might be inferred that change in general, and in beliefs in particular, is more likely to occur when a teacher recognises and experiences alternatives which are more effective for students' learning.

Moreover, when the five teachers: Amal, Omar, Wala, Esra and Laila who used both English and Arabic to deliver their lessons, were asked in the interviews about the reason for doing this, they explained: "To ensure students' understanding" (Amal), "to confirm that the topic was clearly delivered" (Wala), "to be sure that all students understood everything" (Omar), "to help weak students to understand" (Esra), "to make sure no points were missed and made students disappointed due to saying them in English" (Laila) . For a teacher to make things clear and understood by students is considered essential, but, in such English classes, teachers are expected to communicatively explain and deliver lessons. Those comments might be convincing if it was a matter of conveying informative facts, but not a language where the current curriculum is based on a communicative approach, and teachers are expected to employ communicative activities, and students are expected to develop communicative skills and abilities. Hymes (1971, cited in Wu, W., 2008) highlights that in CLT, it is fundamental to develop learners' communicative competence through engaging learners in meaningful communication in order to attain communicative fluency in ESL settings. That fluency could be achieved through the consistent and continuous use of the TL. However, as the participants' comments emphasise, they shared the notion of 'understanding and clarity'. When those teachers were asked

195

about their main aim of ensuring such clarity and understanding, all of them had the same answer which is to help students pass their exams.

Another technique, twelve of the teachers shared, was writing lists of new vocabulary on the blackboard for every lesson they delivered and then translating them into Arabic. Such way of teaching vocabulary has been widely criticised in CLT (Sonbul and Schmitt, 2009). Teachers would read the list written on the blackboard slowly and then again in Arabic asking students to repeat after them. It was also observed that some teachers often pronounced words incorrectly, and students repeated those errors. Mona, for instance; pronounced the word 'Peanuts/pinəts/' as "/pinjuːtz/". While, Safa pronounced the word 'Mediterranean /medɪtəreɪniən/' as "/mɪːdætaɪreɪniən/". Azza, Kawther and Manal also were noticed pronouncing vocabulary wrongly. Teachers who either lacked or had inaccurate language content knowledge were likely to teach incorrect rules and structures of the TL, which in turn would lead to various types of errors in grammar, pronunciation and semantics. As the behaviourists believe, those errors may be imprinted on students' minds which in turn will negatively affect their performances. Though not all of the participant teachers revealed lack of content and pedagogical knowledge, such a lack played a vital role in the formation of teachers' current beliefs and practices. Adequate and relevant content, and curriculum and pedagogical knowledge are considered to be fundamental facets of teachers' knowledge and development (Elbaz, 1981 and Shulman,1987). Equipping teachers with such relevant knowledge could raise their personal and professional awareness, sustain their development and exchange any incorrect beliefs with supportive ones operating as better alternatives. This would help teachers to modify their earlier views and beliefs, and perhaps enhance the process

of teaching and learning English as instructed by the current curriculum. (Cabaroglu, 1999)

In the third observation, Safa delivered a lesson; its main focus, as instructed in the teacher book, was speaking. Students were expected to learn vocabulary about kitchen items and accidents, to practise asking and answering questions about sequences of events, focused on using 'when' to join two clauses. The activities provided in the course book were twofold: in the first activity, students were asked to use the exemplified structure of a question and try to form similar questions with answers using the verbs provided in the box to describe what happened in the pictures. In the second activity, there were speech bubbles as reactions to what happened in the pictures, and students were asked to match each speech bubble with the suitable picture. What Safa did was completely different from what was instructed in the teacher's book, but similar to other participant teachers' practices:

> She wrote new words on the board, read them, asked students to repeat after her, and translated all of the words into Arabic. After that she asked students to open the course book on p.64, and to try individually and within 10 minutes to write questions with their answers about the pictures in that page. Then she asked them, in Arabic, of what they think about the events in first picture. It was easy for them to tell in Arabic. From their Arabic description, Safa chose few main verbs and nouns, to write on the board. Depending on Arabic, Safa and her students formed the required questions with their answers as required about the pictures. (Observation 3)

Safa and her students consumed more than the planned time for this activity; which was supposed to be ten minutes in order to revise vocabulary about kitchen items and accidents, and another ten minutes to talk about the events and accidents in the pictures. Instead, they spent 41 minutes delivering the lesson in such traditional way.

197

Kawthar also was another participant teacher who followed a traditional approach of teaching and delivered a similar lesson in the same way to Safa and other participant teachers.

Another technique that was employed by most of the participant teachers was reading aloud. Mona, for instance, in the third observation delivered a reading lesson in this traditional way. She neglected the main focus of the lesson which was teaching students how to skim and scan a text, learning how certain structures and vocabularies are used within certain contexts, instead of that her focus was on teaching the Arabic translation of the new vocabularies, translating all of the text, and she made all students to read-aloud two to three lines of the text. Gibson (2008) argues that, although in the last years reading aloud seems to have been rejected and discouraged in CLT approach, it is still widely used, and this was clearly the case with these Libyan teachers. Reading aloud was a technique that was used by six other teachers too: Ali, Azza, Safa, Fatima, Kawther and Manal. When I asked them about their main aim of using such a time consuming activity, they said that they assumed reading aloud would improve and develop students' pronunciation. Fatima added that reading aloud increased students' comprehension of the text, but did not explain how. Indeed, Gibson (2008) argues that students' comprehension level could be less, as it will be more difficult to understand what is being read aloud.

Azza is a 47 years old with 24 years of teaching experiences. In the first observation, she delivered a lesson for secondary one. The focus of the lesson was on reading and it was designed to provide: before, while and after reading activities. The objectives of the lesson, as demonstrated by the teacher's book, were to develop students' reading

skills, learn vocabulary for cultural topics, and develop skills of finding and correcting

mistakes. What Azza did was none of all that:

> She wrote a list of new vocabulary on the board, students were coping what
> she was writing on the board in their notebooks. She read the words written
> on the board. Then she asked students to read after her word by word. She
> with the students translated those words to Arabic. The same thing they did
> when they started reading the provided text in the course book. Azza was
> using Arabic to explain everything. It was so obvious that Azza's aim of
> teaching this text was to make students able to learn all of the Arabic
> meanings. When they finished translating all of the text and answered all
> of the questions provided in the course book, the final activity was reading
> aloud in turn. (Observation1)

The second observation was a reading text. Azza repeated the same scenario of

delivering the previous reading lesson. When I asked her about her main aim of

teaching such reading lesson depending on activities such as translation and reading

aloud, her answer was similar to what other teachers mentioned but she added

something different. She said that because she was teaching Secondary two students,

who had been taught English for four years by other teachers using the same teaching

techniques and strategies, she did not want to change the way of teaching as this

could negatively affect her students. She added that she did not want her students to

hate English. However, the third observation was about the use of relative pronouns

and grammar:

> Azza wrote five relative pronouns on the board, and then she started
> explaining in Arabic their meanings and when to use each one of them. She
> used a number of examples to explain the way such pronouns are used.
> Then she compared the use of relative pronouns in both languages: Arabic
> and English. She kept giving more and more examples. Finally, she wrote
> an exercise on the board and asked students to copy it into their notebooks
> and answer that exercise silently and individually. That exercise was a
> number of sentences with spaces and students were asked to fill in with

the correct relative pronoun. After finishing this activity and sharing the answers together, she asked the students to open their work book on p.33-34. There were four different exercises about relative pronouns. They started translating meanings of each sentence in order to provide the correct relative pronoun. (Observation 3)

Again, another observed session reflected the traditional mode when teacher Azza delivered a lesson focussing on a grammatical rule in the similar traditional way followed by the other participant teachers mentioned earlier. Safa also in the first and second observed sessions delivered lessons focusing on grammar, where she followed the same traditional route of the other participant teachers.

Such ways of teaching have a historical resonance with my own experience of learning. It was noticeable that most of the participants; twelve of the teachers in particular, encountered serious problems regarding teaching methodology. Choosing the most appropriate teaching method or technique in order to transmit the objectives of a particular lesson or unit was always a challenge for them. Mona, Ali, Azza, Safa, Kawthar, Manal, Omar, Wala, Esra and Laila, confirmed their lack of the pedagogical knowledge when they were interviewed. Whereas; Fatima and Amal, when interviewed, appeared to have a wide pedagogical knowledge, but they still did not employ that knowledge to enhance their teaching due to some negative beliefs which they held. For instance, Fatima who appeared to have a good pedagogical background, delivered a lesson to Preparatory two in a traditional way, its focus as instructed by the teachers' book was on the use of present simple with frequency adverbs. Here, briefly, is what she did:

> She wrote the rule, adverbs of frequency, and few examples on the board. In Arabic, she started explaining when and how to use this tense. She kept asking students if they understood or not. She repeated her explanation in

Arabic many times. Then she wrote an exercise on the board; students were asked to put the verbs in their correct present simple form. (Observation1)

When I asked her about the reason she delivered this lesson in a traditional way though the teacher's book instructions said it should be delivered in a communicative way employing activities provided in the course book to enhance students' communication, her reply was simply such activities are not designed for Libyan classes. She said that she had strong beliefs in herself as a professional teacher and the way she delivered her lessons was the most fruitful way. Fatima had spent 22 years teaching English. She said:

> Due to my long and wide experience in the field of teaching, all teachers of English working in this school and other neighbouring schools ask and consult me whenever they face any challenge or a problem. Many teachers come to observe me how to deliver my lessons in order to learn. (interview1)

She considered herself a professional teacher. Just to make her feel comfortable and to indicate appreciation of the knowledge she had, I asked her about the source of her knowledge and of the teaching methods and strategies she employed. Apparently at ease, she replied that the knowledge she had come as a result of long discussions and arguments with an Egyptian teacher who was working at the same school. This interaction inspired Fatima, and, as she described "was like a light for me" to start searching the internet and visiting the central library looking for more details about all she heard from the Egyptian teacher. Fatima said:

> I strongly believe in the effectiveness of the teaching style I am adopting in my classrooms. All of my students pass their exams successfully... and yes, I am a kind of person who likes reading to enlarge my knowledge, but what I read in this regard was not something which I can depend on, trust and

> follow. Reading about a variety of teaching methods and approaches such as CLT assisted me to be on the safe and strong side when arguing the Egyptian teacher who appeared to have not real evidences of the effectiveness of the modern teaching styles he talked about. (Interview 2)

It was obvious that, due to the positive and deep-rooted beliefs Fatima had about her traditional way of teaching, the motive behind her search of knowledge was not for the sake of her learning and development as much as it was her capacity to strongly argue with the Egyptian teacher and defend her position. Fatima lacked awareness and a critique of her own firm beliefs, making teachers like her ignore the teachers' book and its pedagogical instructions. (Cabaroğlu, 1999)

However, the other two lessons delivered by Fatima embraced the traditional mode as well. In the second observation, she was looking at and marking the students' notebooks. Students were standing in turn next to her as she marked the notebook. Students were silent, and a serious atmosphere pervaded the class. It was obvious that Fatima was one of those teachers who depended on filtering any new knowledge through an already existing framework of beliefs. This reflects what Kennedy (1992, p.2) suggests about the way teachers interpret any received knowledge through their existing understandings, which is then adjusted and re-interpreted as a new idea based on what they already know or believe.

Similarly, although Amal indicated that she had appropriate pedagogical knowledge during the interview sessions when she spoke about a range of teaching approaches and techniques, each of her three observed lessons to Secondary One were delivered in a traditional way. When asked about the source of her knowledge, at first she praised the Teachers' Training Institute, where she studied, and then she added that,

since she had got a laptop and become addicted to using the internet she managed to enlarge her knowledge in different fields and aspects of life. The use of the internet as one of the effective resources for EFL teachers has been demonstrated by Chen (2008, p.1016). However, in the first observation, Amal delivered a reading lesson as follows:

> She wrote a list of new vocabulary on the board with students coping in their notebooks what she was writing. Loudly, she read those words. Then she asked students to repeat after her every word she read. She explained the meaning of those words in English, but later on she translated those words into Arabic. She read the text provided in the course book p.45, three times. She started delivering the text main points in English, then transferred into Arabic. She with the students started translating all of the text a sentence by sentence into Arabic. Students were asked to read few sentences of the text loudly in a voluntary way. Finally, Amel asked students to try, in pairs, and answer the questions provided in the course book about the text. Then again in a voluntary way, students were asked to give their answers. (Observation1)

It was so obvious that Amal's aim when teaching this text was to make students learning Arabic meanings. When asked in the interview about why she had translated the text into Arabic, her reply was to confirm students' understanding and clarification. The clarification she talked about was intended to make students familiar with all of the texts provided in the course book; and, as a result, she hoped that students would become more confident and be better able to pass their exams. Her main aim of using reading aloud as strategy, as she described, was:

> Yes, reading aloud is a traditional technique, but really it has a very effective role to make students familiar with English language. They learn how to speak out a sentence on one breath because it helps them to practise their organs of speech, and as a result students' speaking skill will be developed. (Interview 1)

Amal's justification contradicts what Celce- Murcia, Brinton and Goodwin (1996, cited in Gibson, 2008) say in this regard. They disagreed with using reading aloud as a teaching technique to develop speaking skills due to the unnatural texts and the followed way when reading aloud that does not help students' pronunciation in spontaneous speech. In the second observation and ten minutes before the start of the session, Amal told me that today she would be doing quizzes with her students, starting with vocabulary dictation and ending up with grammatical exercises. At the start of the session, students appeared to be ready for the quizzes. There were blank empty sheets of paper in front of every student who had pencils in their hands.

> After greeting students, Amal started directly dictating them a list of vocabulary. When she finished dictation and collected papers with the dictated vocabulary from students' hands, she started writing a number of grammatical exercises on the board with students setting silently and just coping into their notebooks all that Amal was writing on the board. She wrote four exercises; the first was about changing certain sentences to present continuous; the second was about changing sentences from their active forms into passive; the third was about choosing the correct article a/an/the; and the last one was fill in the gaps with much or many. Amal started calling her students by their names one at a time to provide an answer. If a student answered correctly, s/he would be given three marks and other students clap for her/him. But students who answered incorrectly were asked to stand at the back of the class. At the end of the session all of the exercises were done, with five students standing at the back. They had been required to fill a space which using much or many, but neither of them nor the rest of students in the classroom managed to give the right answer. It was the final sentence, where students were confused about the word 'traffic' in the sentence. They kept insisting on many but not much, justifying their answer by saying that in Arabic the word traffic is an uncountable noun. During the discussion, in Arabic, between Amal and her students, it was obvious that the students translated the word traffic to have the meaning of the three traffic lights. (Observation 2)

The aim of this session, doing dictation and grammatical exercises, as explained by Amal, was to ensure that the students memorised all of the new vocabulary for each lesson, and to check students' understanding and recall of previously explained rules. All that, Amal believed, would help her students to learn English and pass their exams. However, the third observation was an interesting one with a different atmosphere from the teaching sessions delivered by the eleven other more traditional teachers including Amal herself. It was the first session where the teacher's aim was to deliver a listening lesson provided in the course book and using the accompanying CD which had conversations between native speakers of English. Amal brought her laptop with big external speakers in order to provide her students with a chance to listen to a telephone conversation between two people; one of them in Manchester and the other in Jeddah.

> After listening to the dialogue more than three times, Amal asked students to read the questions provided in the course book p.51, and then she asked them to listen carefully to the dialogue for the last time, in order to be able to get the answers of those questions. I was obvious that students were enjoying this activity. When this activity was finished with all of the questions answered, Amal copied that dialogue from her notebook onto the blackboard. Then she read it and asked students if it was clear. Then, she told students that they are going to practice this dialogue in pairs before they are going to speak it out in a form of a conversational scene. Again, students showed happiness mixed with enthusiasm and started practicing it in pairs. (Observation 3)

Discussing with Amal this lesson and its activities, revealed two contradictory things. In the first and second interviews, she had talked about helping students to pass exams as a main aim of her teaching. That is why, she explained, that she neglected and did not pay attention to lessons which contained any speaking and listening activities, because students would neither be asked to speak in exams nor to fill in

205

listening exercises. However, in the last interview, she confirmed the importance of teaching students speaking and listening activities in order to help them learn English as a language. She justified herself saying that, though she wanted to deliver all of the speaking and listening activities provided in the course book, she could not do so due to: firstly, time constraints since the activities provided in the course book were not conducive to the large number of students in the class. Secondly, the examination pressure, and, thirdly, if an inspector visited her, she would not be on schedule with the curriculum, and would be criticised as a dilatory teacher and, as a result, get a poor evaluation. This was an issue for other participant teachers as well. However, Amal showed awareness of the difference between teaching English as a school subject, where all of the teaching is dedicated towards helping students to pass their exams, and teaching English as a language in use.

Overall, this research suggests that participant Libyan teachers used traditional techniques and methods of teaching, GTM in particular, though the Libyan curriculum is based on CLT. The main focus of almost all of the teachers was explicit teaching of grammar, translating reading texts and new vocabulary into Arabic, memorisation and dictation of new vocabulary, and reading texts aloud. This emphasises a lack of alignment between the current Libyan curriculum's aims and the teachers' practices. Despite the fact that, some teachers who employed traditional approaches appeared to lack the required pedagogical knowledge, there were some who appeared to have relevant pedagogical knowledge but who, nevertheless, employed traditional methods as well. The following section discusses how participants' roles were classified in relation to their classroom practice.

6.4 Role of the Teacher

The classroom observations showed that twelve of the fifteen teachers: Mona, Ali, Azza, Safa, Fatima, Kawthar, Manal, Amal, Omar, Wala, Esra and Laila were essentially traditional instructors. They were the authority in their classrooms. They were explaining, translating, correcting students' errors and mistakes, conducting all of the activities with students just being passive learners who sat, listened and answered only when they were asked. This is the traditional classroom characterised by Scrivener as: "A focus on chalk and talk" (2005, p.16) with the teacher talking most of the time, explaining the language system to the students and asking questions to assess their understanding; while the learner was just to listen and concentrate. Lewis (cited in Richards and Renandya, 2002, p.46) described the role of the teacher using traditional methodologies as "a tap pouring water into an empty vessel", with students being largely passive, and simply receiving the knowledge that a teacher gives. For instance, Mona seemed to be proud of her position as a teacher who controls the classroom from the front while the students just sit and carefully listen. A belief in this aspect of classroom control might be linked to the cultural background since, in Libya, a good and professional teacher is still considered to be the one who can control the classroom, and where quietness, respect and tight organisation are the main features of the environment.

On the other hand, there was Amal, who despite her pedagogical knowledge, aligned herself within the same traditional approaches as other participant teachers who were less aware. Amal's attitude seemed to occur as a result of some unconstructive beliefs about good teaching. This confirms what Pajares (1992, p.324) claims about

the way beliefs filter, redefine, distort or reshape thought or information. Though Amal knew exactly what CLT is and what role a teacher should adopt, she said:

> I cannot imagine myself to be a facilitator in the class. I am used to being the dominant one who controls everything inside the classroom; students and the process of learning and teaching. (Interview 2)

Amal expressed negativity about implementing CLT inside Libyan classrooms. When I mentioned a few communicative techniques and the development of students' communicative skills and abilities, she was defensive, suggesting that CLT was alien to Libyan classroom culture. She talked about losing respect between teachers and students; about students having the authority in communicative classes, while teachers were passive, meaning that students would be exposed to inaccurate information and inappropriate learning.

In the third interview, Amal classified herself as a teacher who would sometimes employ CLT in her classes, but only when following her own way. However, Amal appeared to be like those teachers whom Hu (2002) mentioned as just claiming to follow CLT, but: "This is often a matter of paying lip-service" (p.94). He discussed this further saying that whilst teachers seem to be convinced that CLT is an effective methodology, they do not always apply it themselves due to reservations such as: lack of necessary resources, big class size, limited instructional time, teachers' lack of language proficiency and sociolinguistic competence, examination pressure, and other perceived cultural factors.

The other three teachers: Samia, Sharaf and Marwa, were sometimes innovative, and could act as facilitators. They motivated students, setting up exercises, listening and

observing, acting primarily to facilitate and guide students' learning. The communicative approach was evident in those three teachers' observed practices. When those three teachers were asked about their main aim when teaching English, their answers were to help students: "to speak English" (Sharaf, interview 1), "to learn how to use English" (Samia, interview 1), "to communicate in English" (Marwa, interview 1). Samia and Marwa's answers in regard to their roles as teachers were clear and reflected a good understanding of the current curriculum principles and pedagogical knowledge. Samia said:

> I am doing my best to make all of my classes a suitable environment for my students to learn how to communicate in English, through encouraging students and make them enjoy learning English and as a result they will start confidently using it without any fear of committing mistakes. All I do in my classes was as you observed. I am just organising, supporting and facilitating students' learning. (Interview 1)

During the three observed sessions, the communicative teaching approach was reflected in Samia's practices. She was playing the role of facilitator. For instance, in the first observed session, Samia was delivering a lesson which aimed to develop students' writing skills. This was identified in the teacher's book and in her notebook and also reflected the lesson plan of the course book. Samia's focus was organising and facilitating the process of learning. She asked students to read the text provided in the course book and decide whether they agreed with the points provided or not. When they finished reading it, she started eliciting relevant ideas from students. Then she asked students to read the text again and underline any errors, as justified by Samia:

> This was a start to refresh students' minds and prepare them for the next main activity of today lesson; which is writing their own for or against texts. (Interview 1)

Samia followed the instructions provided by the teacher's book to enhance facilitation of students' learning. When asked about her role (organising, motivating, and eliciting), she replied:

> My main aim of playing such roles was to raise students' self-confidence, make them feel comfortable to participate during all of the employed activities and as a result their four skills; writing, reading, listening and speaking, will be developed. Mainly, they will be able to fluently communicate in English. (Interview 1)

Sharaf also expressed his enthusiasm for being a modern teacher, adopting communicative approaches, methods and techniques for teaching and learning English. He defined his role as an English language teacher as being "innovative". He criticised the traditional teaching and learning he had experienced at his preparatory and secondary stages. He said:

> I hate to see myself reflecting my preparatory and secondary school teachers. I could see teachers who are copying their school time teachers, teachers who are with them at the same school, other teachers who are friends or relatives. (Interview 2)

His creativity in a developing country and a closed society such as Libya was apparent in a number of roles he used to play. For instance, he used to formulate his own material related to the Libyan context in order to enhance students' motivation to use English.

> It is so often when I come up my own lessons. For instance, in the last term, I delivered a speaking lesson about Libyan traditional weddings. I provided

students with some relevant pictures a day before the class time. That was just to provide them with a chance to prepare and practise at home. On the day of the lesson, it was an amazing and motivating experience for both of us: me and the students. I have my own written texts. They are about Libyan cultural customs, traditions, food, occasions, etc. (Interview 2)

Such stories confirm what Tomlinson (1995, p.485) suggests about the appropriate selection of material (curriculum knowledge) being the product of teaching and learning theory where teachers' cognitions (knowledge, beliefs, attitudes and personalities) and teachers' experiences (both the previous experiences as being learners and then teachers) are all interconnected. When those elements are combined together, teachers make decisions about what might be considered as appropriate materials for their students' learning. Dogancay (2005) confirmed that relevant cultural content in L2 teaching material increases learners' awareness about the TL and its speakers, although some typical CLT materials may not be appropriate for every culture. Sharaf believed this and reinforced it on various occasions during the three interviews. He indicated that this belief was shaped as a result of his own learning and teaching experiences, but not the knowledge he received. One of the lessons designed and delivered by Sharaf was described as follows:

> Through using a projector reflecting on the white board a silent fifteen minutes' video, students were asked in advance to watch and write down any notes about what story this video was delivering. Students were so enthusiastic. The message delivered by the video was clear; it was about a Libyan young man who travelled abroad looking for better job and salary. He spent so many years abroad leaving his parents behind. When he came back, he did not look like a Libyan. He adopted all of the cultural characteristics of the country where he was. While watching the video, students were writing down notes enthusiastically. When it was finished, Sharaf asked the students if anyone would volunteer to tell the main story of the video. The majority of students raised their hands. Eleven of them had

got this chance. Then he started asking other questions about events in the video, and eliciting students' opinions. (Observation 2)

His students were Secondary two and three, and they showed a very good level of language fluency. Sharaf had been teaching them English since they were Secondary one. There was high degree of respect and commitment evident in the relationships between Sharaf and his students who were all girls.

Marwa also raised similar cultural issues to Sharaf, with a slightly different emphasis. Marwa was also amending any material which she considered to be culturally inappropriate for her students. The lessons delivered by her during the three classroom observations were all based on material adapted from the course book. When talking about her role as an English language teacher, her teaching activities and the current curriculum, she talked about how she changed the prompts to write a letter to a boy/girl friend to writing a letter for a close friend, because the relationship of boy/girl friend is not acceptable in Libya, and is forbidden in Islam. This means adjusting existing material provided for students to enhance their learning (Roberts 1998, p.174). Such adjustments might be made in order to amend the content of certain materials provided in the course book to suit the students' culture, levels and even interest. As mentioned by Sharaf:

> Sometimes I take the same lesson plan as a template to deliver my own material, using the same activities and sense of questions whenever provided and following the teacher's book instructions. I do so whenever I am sure that the prescribed material will not interest my students, and as a result it would be boring for them to learn, and even for me to teach, as it will be hard to get them engaged in the process of learning. (Interview 3)

212

This confirms what Littlewood (1981) stated about the use of teaching material and activities which have purpose can motivate students to communicate. The following section sheds a light on the way teachers made the best use of the teacher's book.

6.5 Teachers' Practices vs. Teacher's Book Instructions

The current curriculum is a series of three books: course book, work book, and teachers' book (See 2.5.4). It is evident from the two previous sections that the majority of teachers who participated in this study did not follow the pedagogical instructions provided in the teacher's book. They were using the teacher's book for content knowledge reference only. They used it to provide new vocabulary for every lesson in the course book; identify the correct answers for all of the provided exercises in both the course and work book; read and better understand the explanation provided in the teacher's book about any grammar lesson provided in the course-book. Mona considered the teacher's book as:

> A reliable friend for all Libyan teachers of English, because it saves them of any embarrassing situations they may encounter in front of their students, students' families and sometimes in front of their inspectors. I use the teacher's book to write the new vocabularies, check the correct answers for all of the exercises provided in both the course and work books. (Interview 3)

Azza also confirmed similar aims of using the teacher's book:

> I constantly keep myself linked to the teacher's book as a guide to guarantee providing my students with the correct answers, grammatical knowledge, also to get the listening texts which are not available for students in the course-book, and which are supposed to be provided on CDs.... but due to a lack of equipment to use CDs for the listening texts, I get such texts from the teacher's book and read it for students. (Interview 2)

Omar, as well, talked about the teachers' book as "a reference to get the correct answers for the questions provided in both course and work book". Kawther said that she could not: "survive without the guidance of the teachers' book". When I asked her about what sort of use she made of the teachers' book, like other teachers, she said she just used for guidance.

Most of the teachers were not following the pedagogical instructions provided in the teachers' book. it was apparent not only from what the teachers said but also from their practice and their diaries. As the key aim of all fifteen participant teachers was to help their students to pass exams, their main focus as a result was always to develop students' grammatical competences, including the three teachers who tried to employ communicative activities. Since exams and tests in Libya are always just grammatical exercises, teachers recognised that they did not need to implement all of the material provided in the curriculum, and therefore did not pay much attention to the pedagogical instructions provided by the teachers' book. This again raises the issue of a lack of alignment between the curricular aims and the teachers' practice. Though the teachers' practice was aligned to the assessment system; the assessment system was not aligned either with the students' expected outcomes nor with the Libyan English curricular aims.

6.6 Summary

The data presented in this part of the analysis was gathered through observations, and interviews transcripts provided by the participant teachers about their practice. Observations suggest that twelve out of the fifteen participant teachers employed essentially traditional methodologies when delivering their lessons. Their explanations

when interviewed revealed that some of them did not have adequate knowledge of relevant CLT teaching methodologies and techniques; especially those who were involved in teaching but had not received any prior pedagogical training or induction. Others, despite having appropriate pedagogical knowledge, chose to follow the same traditional path as their colleagues. Only three teachers did their best to deliver their lessons in an alternative communicative way.

This part of the analysis suggests two main points. The first one confirms the notion demonstrated by research conducted previously by Libyan researchers that a traditional mode of teaching and learning is evident in teachers' practice (See 1.2). What makes this study different is: firstly, where there were a few teachers who were trying to employ other modern approaches such as the communicative teaching, they did not do this consistently. Secondly, former studies have been always attributed noncompliance and methodological choice to teachers' lack of pedagogical knowledge. This research, however, shows that there were teachers who had a good background about teaching methodologies but who still adopted a traditional role. This study indicates that this is due: firstly, to a lack of alignment between the Libyan assessment system and the principles of its current curriculum; secondly, an inconsistency between the official monitoring inspection regime and the principles of the current curriculum; thirdly an inadequacy in the initial training and continued professional development. The monitoring inspection regime also appears to be inadequate due to a lack of consistency in regard to two main points: firstly, the disparate views among the inspection team about what constitutes effective teaching in the Libyan context, which could be attributed to the fact that inspectors in Libya are selected on the basis of experience but not knowledge. Secondly, there is a lack of

consistency between the regular visits paid by inspectors and the MoE specified time scale for every unit within the curriculum throughout the school year. This schedule made the teachers feel under pressure, necessitating starting and finishing each unit within a tight timeframe. Moreover, one of the main reasons that made teachers teach explicit grammar was the way such grammatical rules are presented in the course-book (as opposed to the teachers' book).

The following part of analysis discusses teachers' beliefs as a main guide to their classroom intentions and practices.

Analysis Two: Beliefs as the informal foundation of Individuals' Intentions and Behaviours

6.7 Introduction

This part of analysis is based on deep reading of the data that is presented according to emergent and a priori themes. Data analysis and interpretation was linked to the main elements of the planned behaviour theory (PBT) and with the literature review. The identified themes provide insights into understanding teachers' beliefs and practices. Despite the fact that the current curriculum employed in Libyan schools emphasises the significance of developing students' communicative competence, teaching and learning English still appears inadequate and lacks the required genuine communication between teachers and students. The available research done in this regard attributed that to a number of reasons such as: the implementation of traditional methods, teachers' with little teaching knowledge, and lack of training courses (See 1.2).

The previous part of the analysis suggested three main points: firstly, that there is no alignment between teachers' practices and the objectives of the current curriculum. Secondly, though the majority of teachers employed traditional methodologies, a few employed other modern approaches particularly the communicative teaching approach. Thirdly, there were teachers who had a good background in teaching methodologies, but who nevertheless still adopted traditional role. This, as shown by the data presented in the previous part of the analysis, could be attributed to: firstly, a lack of alignment between the assessment system and the principles of the current Libyan English curriculum; secondly, a lack of alignment between the monitoring inspection system and the principles of the curriculum; thirdly, the inadequacy of the

training provided. However, because, as justified by Ley, any behaviour often is a consequence of a reasonable decision making process (2012, p.212). Therefore, these teachers should not be blamed for their traditional practice not being aligned with the objectives of the current curriculum, because this practice is as a result of two major factors: the fact that the assessment system and the Libyan inspection monitoring system are both also not aligned with the aims and objectives of the current curriculum. Teachers are in a dilemma owing to these competing demands and consequently rely on inherent beliefs (See 6.2 and 6.3).

This part of the analysis explains how teachers' beliefs influence their intentions and classrooms practices. That is to say; it develops an understanding about Libyan teachers' beliefs regarding teaching English, about themselves as English language teachers, their classroom practices and the current curriculum; it also explains how their beliefs influenced their intentions and classroom practices. It analyses how teachers' beliefs are aligned with their practices and also sheds light on the main factors behind the construction of those beliefs.

Briefly, beliefs under the lens of PBT are considered as the main guide to constructing individual's intent and behaviours. This along with the significance of PBT as a theoretical framework employed to study human behaviour in a number of contexts such as health, business and education (Ajzen, 1988, 1991, 2001, 2005, 2011), has led to its application in this context of Libyan teachers' beliefs and how they are formed.

According to PBT, belief evolves within a circle of three main considerations, as identified by Ajzen, that is behavioural, normative and control beliefs. First are

behavioural beliefs which are the likely consequences of certain behaviours. Second are normative beliefs which are based on the common expectancy of people around. This type of belief is formed as a result of certain ideas, viewpoints, feelings, attitudes, values which are held by people within a certain context. Third are control beliefs which are beliefs about the presence of external factors that may either endorse or hinder performing target behaviour (See 4.2). The construction of those beliefs is explained and discussed under what Ajzen called background factors that enhance the process of acquiring different information about a variety of issues which, in turn, provides an individual with the base for their beliefs. (See 4.2.2).

The data from this study suggests that the fifteen teachers' practices were based on a diverse collection of beliefs which are often unconsciously held (Ajzen, 2005); and, as a result, they were predisposed to follow certain styles and ways of teaching. The following section presents findings regarding teachers' beliefs about teaching English as a foreign language in the Libyan context.

6.8 Beliefs about teaching English as a foreign language in Libya

The data presented in this section was gathered through semi-structured interviews. It shows that Libyan teachers of English hold a number of beliefs in regard to teaching English. Those beliefs are classified under the three main types provided by Ajzen in the PBT: behavioural, normative and control beliefs. This classification explains the nature of the beliefs classified under each, because, as seen by this theory, an individual performs a particular behaviour when he/she constructs a positive evaluation about it, and is under particular social expectations to perform it, and also has the required means and opportunity to achieve it. Though in most instances, all three elements are required to be available, on some other occasions, one or two

219

elements are considered to be enough in order to provide a justified explanation about the intention behind the construction of certain behaviour. That is to say, the significance of the three elements differs from one person to another (See 4.2). Ajzen refers to these key elements, which enhance the role of PBT, as the "behavioural causes". Every successful phase within the chain (from questionable behaviour to the beliefs behind it) provides a comprehensible account of the factors behind the construction of what might be deemed questionable behaviour. For instance, as seen in the last part of the analysis, teachers followed traditional approaches to teaching and that was attributed to firstly, the assessment system; and secondly the monitoring inspection system. Both of the factors informed each other, and encouraged teachers to construct a positive evaluation, beliefs and intentions about the practices they should follow.

Moreover, exploring and explaining teachers' beliefs using the three key elements presented by the PBT could predict of the type of training such teachers may need in the future. Explaining teachers' beliefs as behavioural, normative and control, raises a number of issues regarding teaching practices which, in turn, leads to notions of the training required. Adequate and regular training, in turn, could help achieve the change in both what might be seen as unconstructive beliefs and unproductive practices.

6.8.1 Behavioural Beliefs (BB)

BB are considered as personal in nature, and shaped through relating performance of target behaviour to specific outcomes Ajzen (2005). At the beginning, an individual's attitude is determined by the target behaviour as a result of his/her favourable or unfavourable evaluation of the expected outcomes. Empirical research revealed that

such evaluation contains two main elements: the first is experiential, and the second is instrumental. The experiential component is reflected when an individual feels fun, pleasure, enjoyment, etc. Whereas, the instrumental component is reflected in feelings of worthiness, value, use, etc (Ajzen, 2002). The findings of this research reveal that the fifteen participant teachers hold a variety of beliefs which can be classified as BB, because they acquired those beliefs as a result of experiential and instrumental evaluations about the outcomes they were seeking when performing target behaviour. For instance, as revealed in the previous part of analysis, participant teachers were in favour of teaching grammar in order to help their students to pass exams. This could be interpreted as follows: those teachers evaluate about the importance of grammar helping their students to pass exams. This evaluation developed over time into beliefs. This could explain part of the reality: many Libyan teachers seem to be fossilised, following traditional approaches with a focus on grammar (See 1.2).

In short, the positive or negative outcomes which the participant teachers associated with certain practices influenced their intentions and decisions of whether or not to perform target practices. Although a teacher may have a number of BB with respect to any practice, only few of them were readily accessible at a given moment (Ajzen, 2002). The following sub-sections discuss some of those beliefs as revealed by the data.

6.8.1.1 Grammar Translation Method

At all levels of Libyan education, GTM is still considered as the norm of ELT. Such a method entails a focus on grammatical rules, memorisation and translation. The

observed practices of the participant teachers discussed in Analysis One revealed that all of their justifications reflected GTM, in an indirect way, as a key to teaching English. This idea was developed because exam success was a main aim for teachers when teaching English, which, in turn, supported the construction of certain beliefs with regards to GTM. That is to say: twelve of the participant teachers appeared to have favourable experiential and instrumental evaluations about the outcomes of employing traditional practices. The following sub-sections discuss each behavioural belief they held and how this reflects their indication with the GTM as a key to teach English.

6.8.1.1.1 Arabic and Texts Translation

One of the key features of GTM is that classes are delivered in the mother tongue (See 3.3.1). During the observations, the majority of English lessons were conducted entirely in Arabic, with a very little use of English in many classes. Even those teachers who could speak fluent English such as Wala, Esra and Laila used Arabic with English to explain everything (See 6.3). Wala, for instance, said:

> Honestly, a year ago I was delivering all of my lessons in Arabic, because at that time I believed that all students need from this compulsory school subject 'English' was just to pass their exams. Because that was my main aim when I was a student, I did not want to learn English as a language; all I wanted was just to pass exams with high scores [....] I registered in English department, because I was advised that English teachers get jobs easily. My love to English has grown and developed since the time I bought a laptop and started using the internet. As a result, I joined the British Council courses to develop my English. Now I strongly believe that no one can learn English without hearing it. That is why I am using English and Arabic to deliver all of my lessons. I use English in order to encourage students not to consider it just as a compulsory school subject to pass, but I want them to like it and want to learn it. My aim in using Arabic was always to ensure that they understood the lesson. (Interview 3)

What Wala said about her experience of delivering her lessons in Arabic reflects that the beliefs she holds are BB which were formed as a result of the expected outcome that implementing traditional practices would guarantee students' passing exams. A favourable instrumental evaluation was created, and, as a result, behavioural beliefs about the practice became the dominant controller of her intentions and practices. Later, she developed other favourable evaluations about using English, and that was when she started using both of languages to deliver her lessons. In a similar vein, Esra believed:

> I am hundred percent sure that students will never learn English if they did not hear it from their teachers. Listening to English inside the classroom helps them to be familiar with the use of structures and as a result they could create their own structures. I like English and speaking it, and I want my students to do the same thing. I use Arabic just to be sure that they have understood the entire lesson and as a result will be able to pass their exams. (Interview 2)

Esra raised two favourable evaluations about the use of English to deliver her lessons; one is experiential and the other is instrumental. The instrumental evaluation for the expected outcome of using English is to make students familiar with English and its spoken structures. The experiential evaluation is reflected in her positive feelings about herself speaking in English. Both types of evaluation about using of English, contributed in the formation of the beliefs she had. Though Esra had received some training, her evaluations continued to control her classroom practices as usual. That was due to some contextual factors which played a significant role enhancing her evaluations. Esra referred to a lack of required resources as a hindering factor, she said:

223

Well I know that teaching a language is not an easy task that anyone can effectively do, but I am sure that if all people worked together... I mean the school managers, inspectors and even teachers themselves, if all could provide the required support ad environment for both teachers and students, then I am hundred percent sure that the process of teaching and learning English will be better than it is now and as a result all Libyans will speak English fluently; I mean the coming generations.... What I liked the most at the private institution where I did the training programme was the provided resources and facilities for teaching a language such as English... I believe that the quality of teaching will be better only if.... I mean in our public schools there must be Labs in particular, libraries or at least small rooms provided with relevant academic books, computers, Internet, and lots of other things which would really made the process of teaching and learning English more interesting and productive. (Interview 3)

The experiential and instrumental evaluations are both apparent in Esra's comments, particularly in her last sentence when she described the process of teaching and learning English as being interesting and productive. Such evaluations replicate the BB Esra has, and also suggest Esra might adopt other recommended practices (e.g. communicative practices) if she acquired relevant pedagogical knowledge through adequate training. Esra developed her ideas as a result of her learning experience in a private institution. That experience made her passionate about the environment and the way she was taught. Sharaf, as well, indicated that a lack of resources was why he used to bring his own equipment when delivering a listening lesson (See 6.4). It was clear that he regarded communicative activities favourably. He believed that if:

Grammar can be integrated into speaking and reading lessons, alongside with providing us (teachers and students) with the required facilities and resources, then really I could say things will be fantastic when teaching and learning English. (Interview 2)

Sharaf's explanation reflects his lack of adequate pedagogical knowledge, because grammatical material is actually integrated into all four skills, including speaking and listening. This also raises the issue of understanding the curriculum itself and not only the way of implementing it. In the classroom observations, however, Sharaf did show interest in and enthusiasm for implementing communicative activities, and he did his best to adjust the provided material to make it more contextually relevant and motivating for his students (See. 6.4). The following sub-sections present teaching grammar and other practices as being the main BB that participant teachers have.

6.8.1.1.2 Importance of Grammar

The emphasis of most observed sessions has been always on grammar. Teachers encouraged students to learn the grammatical components of the language, but not how to use those components in a given context as it would be the case in communicative practices (See .6.3). Teaching grammar, in general, has always occupied a central place in teaching SL/FL. Therefore, it has been always one of the longstanding debates in the field of ESL/EFL teaching. The controversy about the role of grammar in SL/FL teaching and learning has centred around two main points: first is whether teaching and providing students with explicit grammar knowledge could support or hinder their acquisition of TL as a language in use and communication. Second is whether there are interfaces between what is considered as explicit and implicit knowledge of grammar (Ellis, 2006).

In this research and as discussed in the Analysis One, sections 6.3 and 6.4, the fifteen participant teachers always emphasised the necessity to provide their students with explicit knowledge of grammar. Truscott (1999, p.120) criticised this approach as being short-lived and shallow because it fails to achieve what he calls the "genuine

225

knowledge of language", which assists communication through language. However, as mentioned earlier, the current curriculum in Libya is based on CLT which emphasises dealing with English as a tool of communication rather than simply as a system to be learned which would suggest that teachers should deliver implicit grammar knowledge. The interview transcripts revealed, however, that all of the fifteen participant teachers were in favour of teaching grammar in an explicit way. That could be attributed to the beliefs they hold about the significant role of grammar in passing the public examinations. These beliefs were formed as a result of the experiential and instrumental evaluations evident in their environment.

All of the fifteen participant teachers, even the three who were classified to be facilitators when teaching, believed that grammar is the main foundation of teaching English. Samia, Sharaf and Marwa revealed positive beliefs about the importance of teaching grammar to develop students' communicative competences. Sharaf and Marwa did not think that students could communicate effectively and accurately in English without having a good knowledge of grammar. To confirm this belief, Samia gave an example of how children, who learn a TL from its environment through imitation without formal grammar teaching, within a short time of leaving the TL environment, can forget all of the TL they have acquired. Samia's justification of her belief is a clear example of what Ajzen meant by behavioural beliefs and the way such beliefs affect individuals' behaviours. Samia appeared to build her current beliefs on the misinformation about children's acquisition of a TL. From that, she developed beliefs regarding what might be competent or incompetent teaching practices, Samia developed this belief as a result of a behavioural outcome she interpreted as a fact: that children forget a TL due to not providing them with the required knowledge of

226

grammar. However, all learners of any TL, with and without knowledge of grammar, will forget it if they are disconnected from environmental, education, input and use. Similarly, Marwa had the same view about the importance of teaching explicit grammar underpinning communicative practices. She believed that developing students' communicative competences could not occur without them being taught grammar. She said:

> My view might be considered as being conventional, but students are always badly in need to have a good knowledge of grammar to apply when performing the four skills: speaking, listening, reading and writing. Learning isolated words without grammar knowledge will never help students to get their messages across. (Interview 2)

She further added that for teachers to ensure the development of their students' communicative skills in English, they must start teaching them grammar straight away and at an early stage. Otherwise, she felt, students would gather words together within ungrammatical structures and not know how to order them correctly. Furthermore, the belief that explicit knowledge of grammar helps students to construct a cognitive framework to pave the way to further learning as well as providing them with the confidence to communicate using English was revealed by what Sharaf said:

> Development of students' communicative competences is essential, but also it must be made on the bases of grammatical knowledge. Because without grammar, communication becomes very limited and in most cases unsuccessful. Also, if the students wanted to become fluent and accurate users of English, they cannot do so without grammar knowledge. (Interview 3)

The importance that those teachers ascribed to the significance of teaching grammar to develop the students' communicative skills in English was detailed in their belief

about how grammar knowledge is related to the main macro-language skills. In this regard, data from Samia, Sharaf and Marwa' s interviews indicated that they strongly believed in the role of grammar to reach the required development in all four macro-language skills, i.e., listening, speaking, reading and writing. Marwa added that "The significance of grammar to develop writing skills is out of question".

Despite the three teachers' beliefs about the causal relationship between grammar and communication, they appeared to prefer teaching grammar discretely and separately from the general skills work although there were signs of incidental focus on form in the skills work. Sharaf, for instance, confirmed that saying:

> Though I always do my best to follow effective and innovative paths in the world of teaching and learning English, but I cannot stop teaching explicit grammar in a different way of how I am used to do when my focus is on tm development e development of certain skills. (Interview 3)

Similarly, Marwa believed that:

> If we [teachers] want to achieve the objectives that the students become able to listen, speak, read and write, nothing like grammar could help to achieve so. Grammar could provide them clarity and familiarity to understand the reading and listening text, writing and speaking materials. (Interview 3)

'Clarity and familiarity', these two words reflect the instrumental evaluation that Marwa had developed and which influenced her classroom intentions and practices. However, in addition to their beliefs about the main role of grammar in the development of students' communicative competence, for Samia, Sharaf and Marwa, assessment was another factor that made them favourable towards teaching grammar. As indicated earlier. Omar, also, elaborated his point of view in this regard saying:

> I keep teaching grammar to my students in an explicit way; as this would help me to evaluate and assess their levels. Also, it [grammar] is particularly essential for students to successfully and confidently take the exams... Students learn English for exams only, to take the graduation exam, which focuses largely on grammar. This makes grammar predominantly important. (Interview 2)

Mona also confirmed the importance of grammar saying:

> I believe that if students want to learn English, they must have a solid grammatical knowledge.... Grammar will help them to be confident and do not feel afraid to start speak English if they want. (Interview 3)

While Amal believed that:

> If students are just taught how to read, to listen, to speak and to write without teaching them grammar, they will never learn English. (Interview 2)

However, there are two important points that need to be considered regarding teachers' beliefs about the explicit teaching of grammar. First, Libyan learning culture in general has always viewed memorisation of facts as an important dimension of intellectual development, with the goal of schooling being the mastery of as much factual information as possible. This refers to all school subjects not just English. Secondly, the tradition of English language teaching has always emphasised the teaching of discrete grammar components. This is reflected in the textbooks of the current curriculum which, although based on CLT principles, have grammar components presented in a separate lesson under the sectional headline as 'language focus' in order to be delivered in one session as identified in the course book (See Appendix 8). Such a presentation encourages teachers to deliver such lessons focusing on grammar separately from skills work. It is, therefore, not surprising that

the interview data indicated that teachers believed that students would learn best if they were taught grammar carefully and systematically in terms of rules.

The belief that students need to learn grammar more than learning how to communicate in English is further evidenced by Fatma, Esra, Azza, Safa and Laila who believed that students prefer to learn grammar rather than speaking and communicating in English. They kept insisting that they should teach students grammar. Esra, for instance, said:

> I tried a lot to teach my students the four language skills, but they were always unwilling to such learning. After each grammar lesson, students are satisfied because they gained something visible comparing to what they gain in the skills lessons which appear to be abstract. (Interview 2)

Based on her own experience of learning grammar, Laila also remarked that:

> Seemingly, the skills lessons might be exciting and motivating, but students are just considerate to anything other than learning grammatical rules. That is how it worked with me when I was student. I was always eager to learn grammar as it became easy to form my own sentences using the vocabularies already stored in my mind. (Interview 3)

Laila also believed that teachers are responsible and have an indispensable role to explain and introduce all grammatical rules to their students. In short, everything raised by all the fifteen participant teachers clearly revealed that they have strong beliefs about the importance of teaching grammar to their students' ability to pass their exams, form their own sentences, and communicate purposely. The significance of teaching grammar has been identified in the available literature as being essential for learners of SL to understand the language and use it systematically (Canale and Swain 1980; Roe, 1996, and Brown, 2007). Also, Hinkle and Fotos

(2002), and Richards and Renandya (2002) indicate that grammar affects learners' capabilities to express themselves accurately and effectively all of which confirms teachers' beliefs about the importance of teaching and learning grammar. However, there appears to be a gap in participant teachers' justifications about the fact that it might be possible to teach grammar successfully in a communicative way. Even Sharaf, Samia and Marwa, who were working as facilitators and communicatively teaching the four macro-language skills, insisted on the necessity of providing students with explicit knowledge of grammar. The only way they [all fifteen teachers] believe it is possible to teach grammar is the traditional way of delivering it through explicit knowledge. Such behavioural belief could be attributed to the instrumental evaluations those teachers have in their minds about the importance of teaching grammar as being valuable and supportive in students' examination success. The following section will look into their beliefs about teaching lists of isolated vocabulary.

6.8.1.1.3 Teaching Vocabulary

Language learning is often considered as a cumulative process, where a teacher needs to create an intelligence association between language aspects and skills. When it comes to vocabulary teaching and learning, this means learners must be encouraged to acquire new vocabulary and master previous ones as this underpins the development of all skills and aspects of language (Kuzborska 2011, p.117). There is evidence in the literature that confirms the essential need for students to acquire a large store of vocabulary, and that a lack of vocabulary hinders their progress (Schmitt et al. 2011, p.26). This consideration, as indicated by Schmitt (1998), has led researchers to recommend longitudinal studies which help to identify the optimal types and amounts of vocabulary for students at different levels of proficiency to acquire.

231

Examination boards and educational programme designers have been also dedicated to identify lists of core vocabulary that must be included within a particular curriculum (Gardner and Davis 2014, p.305-307). All that is clearly understood and gives the right to the participant teachers to insist on the importance of teaching vocabulary, the questionable issue is the way the participant teachers taught that vocabulary to their students which seemed to hinder the achievement of the current curriculum aims and objectives, and contradict the principles of CLT. However, the following extracts confirm teachers' beliefs about the importance of teaching vocabulary:

> I believe that vocabulary is the main significant tool when learning a language. (Mona, Interview 1)

> Students will not be able to learn and pass their exams without memorising lists of words. (Azza, Interview 2)

> To start learning English and pass exams, one must start with memorizing as much words as possible. (Amal, Interview 1)

> If students do not memorise words, they will never learn English. (Omar, Interview 2)

> When introducing new grammatical rule, students who are equipped with a huge number of words stored in their minds will be able to form their own sentences. (Esra, interview 1)

> To say something in English one should have a store of words. (Sharaf, Interview 2)

> Knowing and memorising large number of words is good for students to speak English. (Marwa, interview 2)

> Students who keep memorising all new words provided by the teacher, with the passage of time will develop a fluent speaking skill. (Marwa, Interview 2)

> Learning vocabulary encourages and increases students' motivation, as well as making them comfortable and want to learn. (Samia, Interview 1)

All of the fifteen participant teachers share the general aim of teaching vocabulary to help students pass exams, but, as the above examples indicate, teaching vocabulary, they believed, could also help to develop language skills, speaking in particular, raise students' motivation, make them confident and want to learn. All that reflects the instrumental evaluations which paved the way for the construction of their beliefs and then their classrooms practices.

Accordingly, teaching vocabulary as isolated words in a form of lists, as the participant teachers of this study did when being observed, is another key feature of GTM (Hall, 2011). Most of the teachers who participated in this study insisted on the importance of teaching students new vocabulary during every lesson in a form of lists. That insistence was attributed to the behavioural beliefs they hold about teaching vocabulary in the traditional way they themselves had experienced. The findings of this research about this revealed that positive instrumental evaluations about the outcomes those teachers sought persuaded them to hold positive beliefs about teaching students lists of vocabulary the way they did. The following extracts from the data confirm this:

> This way will help them to never forget those words. (Mona, Interview 1)
>
> Teaching new vocabulary in a form of lists make students more familiar with all of the included words at any time they hear or read it anywhere and anytime. (Amal, Interview 1)
>
> When writing a list of the new vocabulary of every lesson on the board and then give their Arabic meanings directly as well as reading them, such thing will help students to memorise those words in a spontaneous way. (Fatima, Interview 2)
>
> This way of introducing new vocabulary was helpful for me when I was a student and I believe my students liked it as well. (Omar, Interview 2)

233

Theoretically speaking, the participant teachers were supposed to make the students understand the new vocabulary of each lesson in an implicit way, within a relevant context, and to communicate effectively with them. However, most of the observational sessions, alongside the teachers' justifications when interviewed, contradicted the theoretical assumptions indicated by the current curriculum. This reflects a clear gap between the theory which promoted teaching vocabulary in implicit ways and the beliefs those teachers held regarding their actual choices in terms of practice (Farrell, 2007). That is why such beliefs are classified as behavioural ones; where teachers created their own positive instrumental evaluations about teaching lists of vocabulary regardless.

However, sometimes, the metaphors and analogies used by teachers when justifying their beliefs can be very informative because they disclose beliefs which are deeply held by teachers who might not find it easy to communicate these in concrete terms (Hall, 2011). For instance, Sharaf criticised the explicit way of teaching vocabulary in a form of lists as being "an endless spoon-feeding process". He described those teachers who follow such practice as being like a parent who feeds their children from small bowls without giving those children opportunities to be independent. This analogy suggests that he has negative behavioural beliefs about such a traditional way of teaching vocabulary. The following section presents another behavioural belief held by the participant teachers.

6.8.1.2 Key Activity: Reading Aloud

Klapper (1992) criticised reading aloud as it does not provide any significant development of students' reading skills. He added that the repeated use of reading

aloud could be boring, difficult for some students to do; and so it may discourage students and sometimes make them less motivated. Therefore, teachers must be careful in using this especially when they could be using communicative practices in order to make the best use of time to promote some other relevant and effective and CLT activities. The teacher's book suggested that the greater exposure to English language in a communicative way, through listening and speaking skills, would enhance the development of students' pronunciation and oral skills (Littlewood, 1981), but not through reading aloud.

However, as discussed in Analysis One, section 6.3, most teachers were in favour of implementing reading aloud as a main tool to assist their students' learning; they believed it improved pronunciation in particular and speaking skills in general. The following extracts express the views of the participant teachers who adopted reading aloud as a main tool in their teaching practices:

> I believe in reading aloud as strategy to assist students' pronunciations and speaking abilities. (Omar, Interview 2)
>
> I am certain that all teachers of English consider reading aloud as an effective tool to develop speaking skill. (Mona, Interview 2)
>
> Really I do not know why I consider it effective technique, but I believe that reading aloud could provide good chances for students to practise their organs of speech. (Kawthar, Interview 1)
>
> It is definite that reading aloud is a good practice for students to learn how to produce complete sentences together. (Esra, Interview 1)
>
> It makes students familiar with English and feel comfortable to learn it, also it develops their pronunciations and speaking abilities. (Fatima, Interview 1)

As seen throughout the above extracts, teachers developed their beliefs as a result of certain convictions. These beliefs, in turn, impacted upon their classroom practices.

Teachers spent time employing certain activities and instructional practices which they believed were essential and valid (Winograd and Johnston, 1987). This was the situation with teachers who believed reading aloud was a key activity in the development of students' pronunciation and speaking skills. Oxford (1990) suggested there is some benefit for S/FL learners in reading aloud such as practising sounds, learning pronunciation, intonation, placing new vocabulary into a context, but this does not justify the time Libyan teachers devoted to it. Randall (2007) also identified some benefits:

> The first benefit of reading aloud is that of rehearsal of language and the activation of the phonological loop, which…. is the prime mechanism for the automatisation of language skills. By reading the SL material, either aloud or sub-vocally, the learner is activating the phonological loop.

> (Randall, 2007. P.173)

He added that reading aloud can be used as a mediator for SL oral production when little opportunities are found for other methods and techniques of oral production. This benefit was mentioned by Sharaf:

> I myself like to read any English material loudly from time to time, because I feel it helps my fluency. This might not be scientifically true, but really I found it very helpful with speaking skills. (Interview 3)

It was obvious that Sharaf developed his own beliefs as a result of what he found helpful with regard to his speaking abilities. What Sharaf and other participant teachers in this study believed was the necessity of reading aloud to develop pronunciation and speaking skills. The teachers obtained such beliefs from their own learning experiences of being FL learners, but it was not knowledge based on wider evidence. For instance, Mona also said:

> Writing new vocabulary of every lesson on the blackboard and reading them loudly by me at first and then by students is one of the main strategies which I like the most. I believe reading aloud helps students to learn the correct pronunciation of the new vocabulary. Even when we [teacher and students] have a text to read. I read it loudly and then ask students to read it loudly in turn one by one…. I know this from my own experience when I was a student at preparatory and secondary school. I always liked to participate in such activities employed by my teacher in the classroom. He was a very kind and helpful teacher. In every period, he wrote new words on the blackboard and read the words loudly with us [students] repeating after him every word, all that helped me to learn the pronunciation and never forget all words I read loudly from the blackboard. (Interview 2)

This reinforces the fact that Mona had no specific knowledge about the value of reading aloud and improved pronunciation, her opinion was based on experience. It was noticeable that Mona was affected by her learning experience and her teacher as well. Sometimes liking an activity can be as a result of the admiration and respect one has towards a teacher. She was positive about reading aloud which, in turn, developed into beliefs on which her current teaching practice was based.

However, the fact that traditional strategies and techniques such as reading aloud have not found favour within the recent methods and approaches of S/FL, like CLT, does not mean that they are without any value and should therefore be considered seriously. (Randall, 2007)

The following section discusses the normative beliefs which are the second key component of beliefs as suggested by Ajzen in PBT.

6.8.2 Normative Beliefs (NB)

Normative beliefs, as discussed by Ajzen, refer to an individual's perception of an existing social norm about the possibility and appropriateness of performing certain

behaviours. This could happen as a result of two main aspects as claimed by Ajzen: subjective norms and motivations to comply with the perceived expectations of others. This indicates that the culture of contexts could have a significant role in the formation of certain normative beliefs. The strength of each NB is weighted by the power of the motivation to comply with the perceived expectations of others. In this study, the NB include the willingness and normative influences to comply with the Libyan schooling (teaching and learning) culture. The data provided by the participant teachers of this study reflected the following NB.

6.8.2.1 Communicative Approach

It was apparent that the participant teachers in this research held a number of NB. Some of them reflected NB about CLT as being a western product which does not match the context of a conservative society such as Libya. Those teachers who appeared to have little real knowledge about CLT, considering it to be a western product which could not be implemented inside Libyan classrooms. Even Amal, who was one of the teachers who did seem to have some knowledge of CLT, mentioned: "I learnt about CLT from the internet". Although in favour of CLT as an effective way of teaching, Amal also believed that it could not be implemented inside Libyan classrooms. She said:

> Though I know that CLT is a successful approach for teaching English, but I believe that is only in its context; where it has been developed, and I believe it is impossible to implement it inside our classrooms, due to some cultural differences. Implementing CLT means noisy classroom especially when employing pair or group work activities, the other thing I noticed in classrooms adopted CLT was the classroom environment.... I mean, for instance, the way chairs and tables are arranged, the way a teacher deals with the students. Also, in CLT classes, students are more free than they are supposed to be in our usual classrooms.... yes, I know that the current

curriculum is based on CLT that was the reason encouraged me to read about CLT in the internet. But that does not mean I must follow it. (Interview 3)

Amal's comments reflect two main things in regard to NB. She was not sure about the subjective norms regarding to CLT as an approach to be implemented in the Libyan context, but also she appreciated the motivation. Azza, Fatima, Kawthar, and Mona shared the same NB. Their perception of the social influence controlled their intentions of whether to approve or disapprove the implementation of CLT in their classes. The subjective norms represented their compliance with this perception of the social pressure about the inappropriateness of CLT in the Libyan context. Fatima described the facilitator role a teacher plays in CLT as being:

> A negative and destructive role; because it neither helps nor ensures students' learning. Also this role is not like us; Libyan teachers who must have their prestige and respect inside the classrooms…. I mean if I want to be a CLT teacher, this means; I have to be like a friend with my students which is not a good thing. Because this will make me unable to control them and make the classroom like anywhere else but not a formal place for learning where respect and commitments are essential. (Interview 2)

What Fatima said reflects the context and impact of subjective norms, on how teachers may consider teaching approaches, methods and practices. It also reinforces the way such cultural impact encourages teachers to develop certain evaluations which in turn become beliefs which either support or hinder the process of teaching. The subjective norms that teachers, Amal, Azza, Fatima, and Kawthar, held about CLT ensured they rejected the implementation of CLT in Libyan classrooms owing to cultural issues and prejudices.

6.8.2.2 The Role of English Language teacher

In the Libyan culture, teachers are supposed to be first and last responsible for their students' learning. This is translated as teachers being required to do most of the work inside the classrooms where students just sit and, in a passive way, receive knowledge (See 2.4.1). This cultural fact made teachers throughout their careers adopt a more authoritarian role. Fatima said:

> As a teacher I am the one who is responsible about my students' learning in front of Allah, in front of my students' families and in front of all Libyans. I have to be a teacher who provide my students with all of the knowledge provided in the curriculum; and I am happy to do everything inside the classroom as long as it helps my students to learn. (Interview 2)

What Fatima said was obvious at the observational sessions. All of the twelve teachers, who followed the traditional approaches in their teaching, did all of the work: explaining, writing on the board, translating, solving most of the questions provided in the workbook. It was, as described by Sharaf, a 'spoon-fed' teaching and learning process. The following extracts from participant teachers reflect this:

> I know I am a teacher so I have to do everything. (Omar, Interview 1)

> Honestly, sometimes I see myself as a lazy teacher, because I let students do most of the work inside classrooms. (Ali, Interview 2)

> I always do my best inside the classroom to provide my students with all that they need. (Safa, Interview 2)

> I enjoy doing everything inside the classroom for my students, because this makes me more comfortable about my role as a teacher. (Mona, Interview 3)

> Teaching is a huge responsibility on teachers' shoulders. Every teacher has to appreciate such responsibility and always be ready to provide students with all that they need to learn. (Marwa, Interview 3)

> It is me who do everything inside the classroom, I explain, give examples, translate, dictate and solve workbook exercises. I am doing so because I am a teacher who look forward to help students pass their exams and also to get positive evaluations at every inspectional visits. (Wala, Interview 2)

> As a professional teacher I have to support my students' learning in all ways I can. There are lazy teachers who just sit in the classrooms and let the students do everything; wiring sentences on the board, translating, solving the exercises in both the course and work book. (Kawther, Interview 3)

Everything raised by the participant teachers in regard to CLT reflects the Libyan cultural background regarding teaching where teachers are the providers of all of the work inside the classroom; whereas students just sit passively receiving the knowledge delivered by their teachers. Evidence from the data suggests that Libyan teachers are virtually programmed to be this way and usually react without questioning or looking to other more open and flexible approaches.

6.8.3 Control Beliefs (CB)

Control belief refers to the extent to which an individual perceives the ease or difficulty of performing certain behaviour. It deals with the presence or absence of factors which may either facilitate or hinder the performance of target practices. That is why they are identified by control beliefs. In relation to that, the perceived behaviour control represents the degree teachers perceive themselves to have control over the available resources and required skills. As acknowledged by Ajzen (1991), the perceived behaviour control is compatible with Bandura's concept of self-efficacy (1977,1997); which is the degree of control and confidence an individual has regarding to his/her ability to perform a target behaviour. Participant teachers reflected some beliefs under this category.

6.8.3.1 Time scale and Number of Students

One of the main CBs was the issue of insufficient time to deliver the provided material and communicative activities in the current curriculum. This belief was repeatedly expressed by Sharaf and Marwa. Sharaf, as seen in Analysis One, worked as a facilitator and did his best to enhance his students' motivation in a way to encourage their communicative participation inside the classroom. The length of teaching period is 45 minutes for every school subject. The number of Sharaf's students in the first observation was 26 female students. The second observation was conducted with the same first group and they were 24 because two were absent. The last observation was conducted with a different group of his students where there were 29 female students. This is not a large number of students in comparison to other teaching sessions and fits CLT and the communicative activities provided in the course book, especially if the teacher employed pair and group work activities. Sharaf said:

> Due to the large number of my students, I always end up my classes in a rush, and it is always when all my students want to have a turn in certain activities but because of the time they do not. If I want to get all of my students involved and participate in all of the provided activities, then the time scale must be longer than it is now. (Interview 3)

What Sharaf said reflects a kind of truth from the angle he evaluated things. Communicative activities could be implemented inside small classrooms as well as large ones, and all it depends on the way a teacher deals with time, activities and students. Pair and group work could provide a solution for such an issue. Sharaf developed this belief as a result of organising students who wanted to participate in certain activities but where time had finally run out. Such difficulty of managing time paved the way in front of the current CB Sharaf has about the number of his students

and time. Similar points were raised by Marwa, when she referred to insufficient time scale in comparison with the provided communicative material as:

> A huge burden which makes teaching communicative activities and following the teacher's book instruction impossible to happen. Though I tend to do so, but really I find it too difficult to teach with having the three elements together; the 45 minutes, large students number and the communicative activities, in a coherent line. (Interview 3)

In the observational sessions conducted with the fifteen participant teachers, the number of students ranged between 21 and 29. There was only one observation, which was conducted with Omar, where his class size was 35. However, few years ago, the number of students in all Libyan school classrooms always ranged between 35 and 45, and this issue had been raised and discussed by a number of researchers such as Orafi 2009. Recently, however, through my visits to a number of schools at the data collection stage, it seems that the number of students in every classroom is fewer.

6.8.3.2 Examination Pressure

Examination pressure is a fact of life for all EFL teachers and learners, and it can have a very significant influence on the way teachers approach their lessons (Bailey, 1999). In systems which have a high-stakes examination at the end of the course, there is considerable pressure on teachers and students specifically to learn those items likely to be examined, and to ignore other items which are not likely to be examined. When this becomes a significant, it is known as the 'washback effect'. Such pressure can affect all aspects of teaching including the order of materials, what is taught, and the way it could be taught (Bailey, 1999, p.8). Libyan teachers have to follow the course book

unit by unit, and teach all the new vocabulary of each new lesson as provided in the teacher's book, but as revealed by the data most of them do not do so as required.

As discussed in Analysis One, the main aim of all of the fifteen teachers of teaching English was to help their students to pass their exams. Students take examinations, and teachers evaluate the students' progress, based on the examinations results. The examinations employed in the Libyan context assess only the grammatical competence of students. Skills such as writing, listening and speaking were neither a focus of the examination, nor developed when teaching in classrooms. All that led teachers to develop certain beliefs regarding the examinations as a controlling factor which made participants believe that they should teach the way they did.

Also, the highly centralised national examination system for Preparatory three and Secondary three is considered to be an obstacle towards any future change in educational innovation (Abukhattala, 2016). Libyan English teachers have the primary responsibility and duty for preparing their students to pass public examinations. This was an issue for Mona who criticised the pressure of the national examination saying:

> I like English and I like to speak it, but due to the examination pressure which I feel like an electric shock that keeps shocking me from inside to remember that I have a time scale to finish all of the curriculum, and students must have an excellent grammatical background and memorize words with their Arabic meanings if they want to pass their exams. (Interview 2)

The reason why examination system is considered an issue when implementing the current curriculum is discussed in the Analysis One, what is worth mentioning here, however, is how it contributed to the development of certain beliefs. For instance, Kawther, Ali, Fatima and Omar had strong beliefs about the importance of written

244

exams as being the best way of assessing students. Also, they linked the effective examination to grammar, as if there were no other efficient way of assessing students and no other material to examine but grammar:

> I believe that written exams are important, and for students to pass them they need to learn grammar. (Kawther, interview 2)

> I am sure that there is no other assessing way which could do the same as written exams. It is worthy for both students to be assessed and for teachers to assess. (Ali, interview 3)

> I believe that the way examinations are formed are very helpful and encourage students learning in a number of ways. The main thing is it ensures that students learned all of the provided grammar. (Fatima, interview 2)

> The way I form my exams is very supportive for my students' learning the grammar of English. Also, it is very helpful for me to easily assess my students. (Omar, interview 2)

6.9 Beliefs about the Current Curriculum

Although the current Libyan government curriculum had been in place for more than fifteen years, many concerns are still being raised about its implementation (Orafi and Borg, 2009; Najeeb, 2013; Embark, 2015). Libyan teachers have always been the focus of responsibility and been blamed for not being able to teach this curriculum. In this study, the four participant inspectors of English argued that the current curriculum is excellent, relevant and not difficult, but it is the teachers who do

not know how to teach it. Mr Jamal, for instance, considered the curriculum as a good source for students to communicate in English:

> The current curriculum is a complete integrated unit that enhances the graded development of the main four macro-skills through the provided communicative activities. (Interview 1)

Two other inspectors, Mariam and Kadija, also were positive about the Libyan curriculum. Mariam, for instance, said:

> It is an excellent curriculum that is provided with excellent material, variety of interesting relevant topics and activities, a wide range of vocabulary and structures, gradually movements from easy to difficult and from simple to complex. (Interview 1)

Esra and Wala were also favourably disposed, and Laila described it as being "easy, simple and relevant" (Interview 1).

On the other hand, most of the participant teachers believe that the materials provided in the curriculum did not facilitate learning. They considered them to be contextually irrelevant, and saw them as obstacles for them and their students**.**

Teachers often raised concerns about the implementation of the current curriculum. The literature suggests that curriculum planners and educational policy makers often focus on the planning and initiation issues ignoring other core dilemmas and obstacles that might evolve during the actual implementation (Markee, 1997), and that little attention has been given to how teachers implement changes in pedagogy (Carless, 2004).

6.9.1 Context and Material

Some of the teachers interviewed believed that the topics employed in the current curriculum were not related to the students' needs in terms of exposure to the language and the development of speaking skills. Others considered those topics as being culturally irrelevant. Richard and Renandya (2002) suggested that if material is not relevant to the learners' needs and culture, this makes students feel demotivated and lack the desire to be involved in the process of teaching and learning. Tudor (2001, p.75) explains that when presenting any language, what that language means to learners in outside classroom communication must be considered since this influences the way learners digest and interact with the language. However, the literature suggests that teachers may add and change materials for many reasons, including the necessity to include some human interest, to change elements which are not appropriate to the students' context and culture, or to simplify difficult content in a way that meets the needs of students at certain levels (McGrath 2013, p.129).

This is a belief Libyan teachers hold, and it encourages some teachers such as Sharaf to be creative and think of ways to adjust the resources in a way that fits the Libyan context which in turn motivates students to be engaged in lessons. This belief, however, reinforces the three types of beliefs in PBT. That is to say: it could be considered as a behavioural, normative and control belief.

6.9.1.1 The Behavioural Aspect

It could be considered as behavioural because teachers believe that students may learn vocabularies and meanings not appropriate to Libyan society, but they will not use them or have a more relevant repertoire and in turn will not speak. Samia said:

This curriculum has a material that is not related in any way to the Libyan culture. Because it is a language I believe that it must be delivered for students in a well arranged material.... A material with is made for Libyan and not one else but them. A material which must be so interesting and motivating for students in order to get engaged in.

Esra added:

I believe that if you want anyone to learn something, you have to make what you are pushing him or her to learn so easy, interesting, relevant and motivated in order to encourage him or her to interact with.

Sharaf said:

When I graduated from the faculty of Arts, I was not able to speak fluent English at that time. When I was employed at a tourism company, it was so embarrassing for me to keep facing difficulties in dealing with tourists from different parts of the word who speak English. A friend of mine told me that just after few months of using the language and I will be fine, but I could not stay like this and I joined a course delivered by two male teachers; one is Libyan and the other is Nigerian. This course was just chats and games to develop the speaking skill. The amazing thing was that the material used was all about the Libyan society; clothes, food, traditions and customs. It was so motivating for me to develop my speaking skill. That is why as you saw in the last session i made up my lesson just to encourage my students to speak.

He added:

I believe that to help developing students' speaking skills, a teacher needs to model his or her natural speech patterns with the adaptation of own teaching material which meets students' needs.

6.9.1.2 The Normative Aspect

Some teachers believed that students were not motivated to interact in English, due

to the nature of resources. For instance, Fatima mentioned that:

Out of my experience as a teacher who passed through both of the stages of teaching English, I mean the current curriculum and the old one provided by Algosbi. Compared to students at my current classes, my

students in the past were enjoying the lessons provided by the old curriculum. Yes, all was about Farming; Farms and animals, but those lessons were reflecting similar daily lifestyles of wide majority of Libyans.

Fatima referred to a similar idea raised earlier by Sharaf about culturally irrelevant material. This emphasised that there were few reading texts which students considered culturally significant or about which they had prior knowledge. Samia said:

> One of the lessons which I taught only for once and then ignored and never teach it to the other groups, was a lesson about cash-machine. Even when I translated and explaining what is it in Arabic, students did not enjoy the lesson and kept silent most of the time. (Interview 2)

Kawther described the material provided in the current curriculum as:

> Being boring and sometimes difficult. I do not know why people who developed this curriculum did not use easy, interesting and culturally relevant materials, where not only students feel welcome to learn it but even we [teachers] will teach it enjoyably. (Interview 2)

Teachers were obviously not committed to making the curriculum content relevant or to explaining its wider cultural significance. They believed it to be culturally irrelevant and taught it in a way which made this apparent to students.

6.9.2 Curriculum and Flow as a Behavioural Belief

Teachers considered the curriculum as difficult, where it does not follow a rational flow and grading, from easy to difficult. Samia said:

> The current curriculum is difficult for Libyan students. Also, it is arranged in a strange way..... I mean you could find a lesson which is very difficult at the start and another which is so easy at middle or even the end. You find yourself as a teacher fluctuating between difficult and easy lessons. (Interview 3)

There is also Kawther who considered the current curriculum as being "too difficult not for students only, but even for us [teachers]" (Interview 2). Similar points were raised by Fatima and Manal regarding to the difficulty of the current curriculum. Fatima said:

> I could see a difficulty in the way the current curriculum was arranged and developed. Though, it contains prosperous grammatical knowledge and a variety of vocabulary, but I hoped it was better graded with considering a number of factors such as; culture, student different levels, teachers' fluency and knowledge. (Interview 2)

The way teachers perceived difficulty and the irrationality of the current curriculum grading generated perceptions about how to control their classroom practices, and, a result, control beliefs were developed.

6.10 The Main Sources of Teachers' Beliefs

One of the main questions related to teachers' cognition research is the origin of teacher beliefs. This section considers six main sub-sections discussing key factors behind the construction of teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. Those factors are referred to by Ajzen as the background factors (See 4.2.2). The first three sub-sections link the literature about sources of teachers' beliefs to what participants said; whereas the last three sub-sections emerged from the data.

6.10.1 Previous Experience of Being a Language Learner

Lortie (1975, p.61) indicated that teachers developed beliefs about what might constitute good teaching long before entering their own classrooms, and, as a result, he suggested that these ideas are based on an apprenticeship of observation. Following Lortie's conception of the "apprenticeship of observation", a number of studies have provided empirical evidence of the impact of teachers' prior learning

experiences on their beliefs about teaching and learning e.g. (Cumming, 1989; Block and Hazelip, 1995; Smith, 1996; Almarza, 1996; Golombek, 1998; Miller and Aldred, 2000; Freeman, 2002; Ellis, 2006; Boz, 2008). This study also found that twelve of the participant teachers, who were schooled in teacher-centred classrooms where traditional approaches were followed, maintained beliefs that made it difficult for them to embrace CLT. For instance, Mona said:

> When I was at the preparatory and secondary stages, I was taught English in a way that helped me to learn all of the grammatical rules which in turn made me able to pass all my exams. Now I am doing the same thing with my students. (Interview 2)

As many of the participant teachers appeared to be influenced by the way they themselves were taught, one of my interview questions focused on capturing their own language learning experiences. They were invited to describe those experiences and how they felt about them. It was a very open question so as to encourage them to speak out. As a result, it was possible to explore the way in which such experiences shaped their current beliefs and practices. This discussion explained some of the repeated scenes I saw when conducting observations:

> I adopted my current teaching methods and techniques from my teachers at schools because I believe that they were valuable in teaching. (Azza, Interview 2)

> I am grateful to all teachers who taught me at preparatory and secondary stages because I adopted their styles and steps of teaching. (Safa, Interview 3)

> I was inspired by my secondary school teacher of English who made me like English and like to become the teacher who I am now. (Laila, Interview 2)

It was obvious that Azza, Safa and Laila had positive learning experiences which played a significant role in the construction of their beliefs and classroom practices. What Manal, Omar and Kawthar mentioned was also interesting because it showed that sometimes it did not matter how positive or negative the learning experience was, if teachers did not have the opportunity to develop beyond their learning experience.

> I am what I am now as a reflection to how I was taught at preparatory and secondary stages. Graduating from the Faculty of Medicine to finally join the teaching track provide me with no choices about how to teach. As a result, I found myself depending on my own learning experiences which I never feel convinced with. (Omar, Interview 2)

> I am teaching English lesson to my students in the same way I was taught at preparatory and secondary school time. Though I did like that experience of learning, but honestly because I did not have the required practical knowledge of how to start delivering my lessons, I found myself following the same route of my secondary school teachers (Kawthar, Interview 2)

> When I graduated from university and was appointed by the MoE to work as a teacher in this school, I experienced two conflicting feelings. I was happy to get a job, but also it was like a nightmare to see myself inside the classroom and have to start teaching without any prior practical ideas or experiences of how should I start doing so. It was like a solider inside the war field without weapon. The main saver at that time was my preparatory and secondary school experiences as a learner of English. (Manal, Interview 2)

Omar, Kawthar and Manal referred to a lack of other resources that teachers may depend upon either when starting their teaching careers or when dealing with issues while teaching, as a validation of the apprenticeship of observation. They are obliged to depend on their experience just because they lacked genuine practical knowledge when commencing their teaching careers.

On the contrary, Sharaf was not one of the teachers who were influenced by their learning experience. He said:

> I always wanted to teach my students in a different way from the way I was taught English at preparatory and secondary stages. It was horrible experience of learning where I learnt nothing in regards with English as a language. (Interview, 2)

What Sharaf said indicates, however, that it is not only the apprenticeship of observation which plays a vital role in the construction of teachers' beliefs and practices, especially if teachers get the opportunity to evaluate and develop their learning experiences. In other words, the apprenticeship of observation is more dominant in the construction of teachers' beliefs and practices if it is positive or if teachers have no other model to which to refer.

Similarly, Esra who experienced negative feelings towards her secondary school teacher of English, criticised the apprenticeship of observation by describing it as being "disturbing, stressful and never like to remember". It was obvious that Esra experienced a tough teacher whom she did not like. This suggests it may not just be the teaching methods which create a negative evaluation, but also one's perception of the individual teacher.

6.10.2 Higher Education

The data indicated that the education the fifteen participant teachers received at the higher educational institutions had little influence on the construction of their beliefs. Omar, for instance, who graduated from the Faculty of Medicine, but had finally decided to join the teaching field and got the chance to be a teacher of English, had received no training or knowledge about teaching during his higher education and

therefore, depended on his apprenticeship of observation which "he never liked and was not convinced by". (Interview 1)

6.10.3 Current Practical Teaching Experience

When teachers start gaining teaching experiences, they start accumulating knowledge and constructing beliefs. Most of the participant teachers referred to their teaching experiences as a source of learning. They mentioned that they had learned a lot from their teaching experience. Similarly, a study conducted by Crookes and Arakaki (1999) found that the teaching experience is a key source for ESL teachers learning. According to Richards and Lockhart (1995, p.31), teaching experience is the main source of shaping teachers' beliefs about the process of teaching. By trial and error, teachers manage to work out what might be best for their students and what may not. This appeared to be exactly the case with the fifteen participant teachers, who raised significant points regarding their teaching experience as being supportive in their current situations, and which also clearly played a vital role in the construction of the beliefs teachers held. Mona, for instance, said:

> I graduated from the university with a head full of theoretical knowledge which did not exceed the limits of my mind and notebooks. But now while being in the field of teaching nothing was as supportive as the teaching experience itself which provided me with the required practical knowledge. (Interview 3)

When Mona was asked about the way such teaching experience was supportive to her, she gave examples of dealing with a number of issues while teaching, such as error correction, explaining certain elements in certain ways. However, as mentioned earlier, when asked about their main aim when teaching English in their current context, all of the fifteen teachers stated that it was to help students to successfully

254

pass their examinations, but only a few of them added any other aims (See 6.2). The aim of exam success in the current Libyan assessment regime had a direct influence on teachers' favourable attitudes and beliefs about appropriate teaching practices (Ajzen, 2005).

6.11 Summary

This part of analysis presented the findings as they emerged from the data and interpreted under the main elements of PBT. These findings explored the beliefs the fifteen participant teachers hold about themselves as English language teachers, their classroom practices and the current curriculum; and discussed the way in which those beliefs influenced their intentions and behaviour. Those beliefs, as elicited from the fifteen teachers, were formed as a result of what Ajzen called the background factors: their previous preparatory and secondary school experiences as language learners, their practical teaching experience and some other contextual factors. The latter included the significance of the assessment system which made them follow a certain path of teaching; the way some material was presented in the course book (grammatical rules in particular); environmental considerations such as noise and classroom management, time constraints (45 minutes a day and about three hours a week) and crowded classes. The most interesting finding was that the education those teachers received at the higher educational institutions seemed to have relatively little influence on the construction of their beliefs.

The following chapter conceptualises professionalism and professional development in the Libyan context, discusses the forms of professional development available for Libyan teachers, and how Desimone's (2009) theoretical framework could be

considered as a relevant and concrete base for Libyan teachers' professional

development.

Chapter Seven: Data Analysis

Analysis Three: Professionalism and Professional Development in the Libyan Context

7.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a conceptualisation of teacher professionalism and professional development (PD) in the Libyan context, and focuses on the forms of PD available for Libyan teachers. It also presents issues raised by the participant teachers and which hindered their PD. Finally, it discusses how Desimone's (2009) theoretical framework could be considered as a relevant strategy for Libyan teachers which might offer a more effective PD for a developing country such as Libya. References to data sources from interview transcripts of the fifteen participant teachers and the four inspectors are included when required for each section.

7.2 Conceptualising Professionalism in the Libya Context

Teacher professionalism is a broad concept that comprises various dimensions. In brief, in this context, the term professionalism is seen to describe continued proficiency and expertise in a career, and a high standard performance and engagement within a profession, such as teaching. In Libya, it is very rare for teachers to refer to professionalism or qualifications in their teaching career. This can be attributed to the cultural assumption that teachers are considered to be sources of knowledge; as a result, they find it difficult to reveal any professional deficiency or to suggest that they need further knowledge, or that they are unaware of different methods of teaching and learning. The fifteen participant teachers and even the four inspectors were asked in the semi-structured interviews about their general views on

the meaning of professionalism in the Libyan context. Professionalism was explained by Mona as:

> The extent to which a teacher has an extensive base of specialised knowledge. For instance, if a teacher is not well-equipped with all of the English grammatical rules, then he/she could face a number of obstacles not only with his/her students but even with him/herself will not be able to speak fluent English which in turn could put him/her in a so embarrassing situations with students, their families, other teachers, inspectors and school administrators. All will identify such teacher who lack the grammatical knowledge as a weak and unqualified teacher. (Interview 3)

Within a limited frame, Mona linked professionalism and being a professional teacher with the grammatical knowledge a teacher has. This could be attributed to two main things: firstly, because the main aim of teaching English, according to Mona as well as others, is for students to pass examinations, and exams in the Libyan context are mainly based on grammar (See 6.2). She believes that since her role is to help her students to pass exams, then grammar is the main criterion by which teachers must be evaluated to be considered as professionals. Second is the general culture in Libya about teachers: Libyan people assume that good teachers do not commit mistakes (Tantani, 2005). Similarly, Omar defined professionalism as:

> The competent abilities a teacher has to support his/her role as a teacher. I mean the main role for every teacher is to help students pass exams. Therefore; if a teacher fails to help his/her students to master all of the grammatical rules to pass exams then the supposed professional role of such a teacher will be in danger. (Interview 3)

Omar, Kawther and Wala raised similar points to those mentioned by Mona. Fatima, Sharaf, Samia, Esra and Marwa approached their definition from a different angle

linking professionalism with the number of years of experience a teacher had in the field of teaching.

> Professionalism means the years of experience a teacher has in the field of teaching English. (Fatima, interview 3)

> For a teacher to be professional, s/he needs to get involved in teaching many years in order to obtain a wide experience in teaching and learning English. (Sharaf, interview 3)

> Professionalism is the wide experience a teacher has about teaching and learning English. (Samia, interview 3)

> Professional teachers are those equipped with a wide experience. (Esra, interview 3)

> To be considered as a professional teacher, this means one must be teaching for years in order to develop the required professionalism through the development of extensive experience. (Marwa, interview 3)

'Teaching experience' here is used to refer to the period of time teachers are involved in actual teaching practice (Gray et al., 2000). These five participant teachers' belief about experience and professionalism could have some significance, but only if, as suggested by Wiseman et al., teachers with years of experience: "refine and perfect teaching strategies and may become 'experts' in a particular strategy, approach, or philosophy" (2002, p.17). Teachers' experience could be developed over years of teaching or, in turn, the passage of time could reinforce prejudice and preconceptions. Also, breadth of experience could be obtained through teaching different levels within different periods of time. However, Mr Jamal (Inspector of English) raised a significant point regarding professionalism and years of experience. He said:

> Yes, the element of experience is essential for teachers to be considered as professional, but also guidance is another required element. If teachers were not guided, advised and provided with better choices, wide relevant

> knowledge and encouraged to be open and see the world around, then all those years of experience will go with the wind. (Interview 1)

What Mr. Jamal raised is another essential point, and the evidence is that some of the participant teachers like Azza, with 24 years of experience, manifested a lack of current curricular and relevant pedagogical knowledge. She found difficulty employing the various activities in the course book, and she just emulated her own teachers' traditional styles when she was a student. When I asked her what was the main thing she had learnt through her 24 years of teaching across almost all of the educational levels, her answer was:

> I became more confident and I almost memorised all of the provided material in the current curriculum for all of the six educational levels. (Interview 3)

She did not mention anything about pedagogical issues or the challenges she faced when teaching. Burgess suggested that the "Professional learning experience the teacher gains comes from dealing with the situation in practice and thinking through afterwards what happened''. That is to say teachers learn from their own experience and reflexivity in order to develop their own methods of teaching.

However, without having a good background of a pedagogical knowledge, options around to deal with different classroom situations and challenges will be limited. Fatima was another experienced teacher having taught for 22 years. She was classified by the school administrators, inspectors, and other teachers as the most experienced teacher in the school. When she was asked the same question, she identified herself as a professional teacher and said that the main thing she had learnt through the 22 years of teaching was:

I learnt how to deal with students of both genders and with different types of personalities. Also, I recognised that the direct error correction is important for students to learn. Delaying error correction or not correcting students makes them commit such errors continuously and do not learn. I could say in short that the main things I gained through the twenty-two years of experience were confidence, effective abilities to teach all of the material provided in the curriculum, flexibility to deal with students, and English speaking abilities. (Interview 3)

Similar to Azza, Fatima did not mention any pedagogical skills or challenges except her traditional way of dealing with error correction. Both of them vindicated Mr. Jamal's view that there was a lack of required guidance throughout the years of teaching experience. Mariam (Inspector of English) referred to 'the type of experience' a teacher gains as an essential factor for professionalism to occur. She explained:

All people, not only teachers, through years develop different experiences related to both their personal and professional lives. And success is what measures and classifies such experiences as good or bad ones. Teachers who managed to develop the required type of experience; which enhances their students learning to successfully pass exams, those are the professional teachers. (Interview 1)

What Mrs Mariam said indicates a significant point that is the 'type of experience' a teacher gains which matters, but she concluded by limiting the main role of teaching and learning which was primarily passing exams rather than any other significant teaching aims, objectives or experiences. For instance, Tsui (2003) demonstrates that significant development involves the techniques, strategies and effective skills in managing classrooms. Miss Kadija (Inspector of English) said:

A good and professional teacher is the one who has competent skills and abilities to control the classroom; where silence, respect and organization are considered as main features of such necessary control. (Interview 1)

Controlling classrooms is another feature valued within the cultural background that Libyan teachers in general have. However, Miss Kadija added a number of points for a teacher to be considered as professional. She pointed out that:

> As an inspector of English, I could say that the main things I think about when it comes to classifying teachers as professional ones are: to teach for twenty-four periods a week, to have well-organized diaries in which the process of teaching is explained, to bring their diaries with them for each class during working hours, to keep a systematic record of their students' marks and examination results, and to be well-aware of their students' needs and requirements. (Interview 1)

Miss Kadija mentioned a variety of aspects regarding professionalism and referred to a number of duties that Libyan teachers in general are expected to do. She ignored the significance of improving teachers' performance as a key element of professionalism. On the other hand, there was Mrs Aisha (Inspector of English) who mentioned some curricular relevant and interesting points. She said:

> I have been an inspector of English only for three years. I was a teacher for more than twenty years. I taught all preparatory and secondary school levels. During the first fifteen years, I was like all other teachers following traditional approaches thinking that I am doing the best to help my students to pass their exams. When I did my MA, it was like a hard knock on my head telling me that all have to be changed. As a result, I started using communicative approach to teach grammar and all other significant aspects of a language. When teaching grammar, for instance; I was introducing my students to a dialogue where they were encouraged to discover the new grammatical rules and they were enjoying all that we do and learnt a lot. Now I believe that get students engaged in communicative activities can help them to understand grammar rules better and pass exams which are the main focus of all teachers, and also such activities can help them to improve their language skills and levels. (Interview 1)

It is worth noting that Mrs Aisha has a range of experience as a teacher in the past and currently as an inspector. Also, Mrs Aisha's MA programme had a significant effect on her development, encouraging her to form new beliefs and points of view with regard to teaching and learning English. Such knowledge helped her to develop a reasoned judgment about her past traditional practices. This implies that there was some development of her ways of thinking and practices through experience and that the guidance she received had enhanced her knowledge.

7.3 Conceptualising Professional Development (PD) in the Libyan Context

Teachers' professional development in this study has been considered as a significant factor to enhance the quality of teaching and learning processes. There is a general consensus that effective PD should have clear objectives and facilitate practice and developmental change in line with teachers' and students' needs (Desimone, 2009). When the fifteen participant teachers were asked about what PD means to them, they came up with a number of interesting points and a range of other issues which have been included as key themes to reflect the way those teachers conceptualised PD. Four of the participant teachers: Sharaf, Manal, Esra and Marwa emphasised on the significance of PD for the improvement of teachers' speaking fluency, knowledge, and teaching skills, whereby teachers learn how to employ a variety of innovative methods. However, the following extracts illustrate the ways Libyan teachers perceive PD as a conceptual term as well as giving examples of the different ways in which they envisaged PD can be achieved within the Libyan context:

> It [PD] is change and development in teachers' classroom performances and abilities through annual regular training for both pre and in-service teachers. (Fatima, Interview 3)

263

I see PD in a set of well-planned courses to lead teachers towards the required change and improvement. (Mona, Interview 3)

Teachers' PD is a structured training process to develop teachers' skills and practices. (Omar, Interview 3)

PD means the improvement and development of teaching styles, skills and abilities. (Marwa, interview 3)

It [PD] is any door a teacher knocks or a road s/he walks towards developing him/herself and be better. (Sharaf, interview 3)

It [PD] means improvement of teachers' classroom practices through the attendance of training programmes. It is like keep going up and up using a ladder. (Omar, interview 3)

I see PD through the work of inspectors as supportive and advisors for teachers' practices to be improved and their skills to be developed. (Kawthar, interview 3)

These extracts reveal two main things: firstly, that most teachers confined PD within a limited framework of training programmes and inspectors' visits, except Sharaf, who provided a wider understanding of ways to pursue PD. Secondly, these extracts show that teachers share similar views and beliefs about PD as being means towards the improvement of teaching profession. Three significant terms characterised the meaning of PD as described by these teachers. These were: improve, develop, and change. These verbs could be regarded as the basic aims of PD according to these teachers. The following are further comments from the participant teachers of this study in which the term PD was defined and explained within the three terms mentioned above:

To improve my teaching skills and abilities. (Amal, Interview 3)

To develop my classroom performances. (Mona, Interview 3)

To improve and update my teaching styles and learn new ones. (Sharaf, Interview 3)

To develop my knowledge about English as a language. (Omar, Interview 3)

264

> To expand and develop teachers' English skills and abilities. (Esra, Interview 3)

> To develop my grammatical knowledge. (Kawther, interview 3)

> To improve teachers' abilities and their ways of thinking. (Fatima, interview 3)

All those responses provided by the teachers suggest that they related the above three verbs to PD. However, what Mrs Aisha said is worth emphasising with regard to PD:

> Professional development is a significant element for a successful educational processes. The main thing I consider as a main aspect in professional development is when it provides the required updates about the teaching and learning approaches and methods for all of us; teachers and inspectors. But unfortunately such thing does not happen adequately in Libya, because chances for such updates are very limited if not lacked. (Interview 1)

However, although this suggests that PD might contribute to the general aim of career currency, it is not aspirational and would not help teachers to become ambitious about pursuing their development. The following sections will present issues, as illustrated by the participant teachers, which seemed to hinder the Libyan teachers' PD.

7.4 Challenges and Obstacles Regarding PD in the Libyan Context

Relevant professional development to assist Libyan teachers of English to tackle issues, challenge ingrained beliefs and develop their knowledge, skills and practices in order to be aligned with the current curriculum aim is considered to be one of the main missing elements within the teachers' educational lives. The following sections present the main obstacles which have hindered the process of PD for the participant teachers.

7.4.1 Motivation

Data from the interviews with the fifteen participant teachers suggests that nine of them did not have the necessary motivation to become professional. Omar, Ali, Mona, and Kawther talked about the monthly income as being insufficient, and this made them lack motivation to pursue their PD. Omar, for instance, said:

> [Laughing]…. Look! I will be so honest with you. There is nothing which may motivate or encourage us as teachers to seek more knowledge or development in the field. First of all, the monthly wage which is so low. I will give you an example. Three months ago, you see the shoes I am wearing now, I paid all of my wage to buy it. I work here as a teacher in the morning, and then at 2:30 I go to my other work as a carpenter at a carpentry workshop. (Interview 3)

Mona also explained:

> With such little amount of money paid monthly for us who work hard for all of the week, why do we need to make ourselves engaged in other exhausted and often expensive processes just to be professional? (Interview 3)

Besides an insufficient monthly income, Mona raised a significant point about the resources, availability in schools for teachers to develop such as updated libraries, internet and PCs, etc. If such resources were provided at schools for teachers, then development would be enhanced.

Esra, Wala, Azza, Amal and Laila talked about the influence of the current conflict around the whole country as a main factor undermining their motivation to seek any self-development opportunities. They said:

> What we are badly in need to nowadays is electricity, water and security, but not PD. (Esra, Interview 3)

Due to lack of security, I could barely come to school to deliver my lessons; in every day we are told that someone is killed or kidnapped. PD is out of my mind till my country is back. (Wala, Interview 3)

Let us firstly find electricity and fuel, then I could see how I may pursue my PD. (Azza, Interview 3)

I will be motivated only when Libya is back and I could feel security. (Amal, Interview 3)

Before 2011, we [teachers] were nagging the monthly income is low, but nowadays it is not only low but it is months delayed. Now five seven months passed and we are not paid yet, all teachers around Libya. (Laila, Interview 3)

The other three teachers: Sharaf, Fatima and Samia appeared, however, to have motivation and were encouraged to pursue their PD. They mentioned three different motivational factors. Sharaf, for instance, showed a great enthusiasm towards self-directed development which was obvious in the ways he delivered his lessons and reflected on his commitments during interviews. He said:

I love English and I want to speak it fluently and see others in the Libyan society speaking it at least in an understandable way. I feel so happy when I see that all the teaching strategies I follow are fruitful and make my students speak English. That is why I am so encouraged and motivated to direct my own development and learning to be professional in teaching English. (Interview 3)

Sharaf's motivation to be professional was his love to the English language and his enthusiasm to see English used by Libyan people. Fatima's motivation was different from Sharaf's. She talked about the self-directed reading as a main way towards developing herself professionally. Fatima said:

I work hard on myself. Now I am a teacher for many years. I will not lie on you and say that my main motivation for that is because I love English or my job, or because I want to be inspector or minister in one day. No, all that is

> not true, or they might be in the past but no more are. Simply, I could say that my main motivation to follow the self-directed reading strategy, because I am considered as professional by the school administrators and the teachers in my school and the schools around. They all keep seeking help, advise and a solution from me…… as you know in our [Libyan] society it is neither easy nor acceptable if someone waited for an answer from you as a professional teacher but you were not able to tell. (Interview 3)

It was obvious that Fatima generally lacked the proper motivation to be professional and she was contented with just developing herself just for the reputation of being professional within her school and the schools around. Fatima was so direct framing her motivation the way she did, because of the main cultural imperative which makes teachers unable to confess any lack of knowledge or required teaching skills. Samia also mentioned a completely different motivation. She said:

> Being professional teacher is a continuous aim which I always run behind using the available resources such as internet at home. My main motivation for that is to get halal income. (Interview 3)

Samia' religious background, which is Islam, was the main motive for her to pursue her professional development. However, teachers' willingness to be actively involved in PD is a significant factor which must be considered by inspectors, school administrators and the MoE in order to maximise the effects of PD. That is why helping to raise teachers' motivation is considered essential. Teachers need to be receptive to PD and feel that their professional requirements are met through the available resources and opportunities.

7.4.2 Recognition

Lack of recognition and of genuine incentives is a significant obstacle for teachers to pursue their PD, because it demotivated them. Some teachers such as Manal, Azza,

Marwa and Samia expressed their negative feeling about the way their efforts are not appreciated or considered by schools' administrators, inspectors or the MoE. They said:

> Teaching is my hobby, but lately I lost my willingness and eagerness towards teaching and development. I do not feel that there is anyone who may appreciate and feel the way we [teachers] work hard in order to guarantee promising generations. (Manal, interview 3)

> Why may I want to be professional and pursue a costing PD routes, as no one is appreciating us as teachers. (Azza, interview 3)

> I like teaching and I like to develop myself, but frankly speaking nothing is encouraging. We [teachers] miss things such as appreciation for our efforts, (Samia, interview 3)

As a result, teachers follow the same traditional teaching path. Teachers become accustomed to a daily routine teaching cycle.

7.4.3 Inspection System

Inspectors could significantly contribute to support teachers' practices and implementation of the current curriculum in the proper and required way, because their constructive feedback could encourage and induce desirable changes on teachers' conceptions, beliefs and practices (Chapman, 2001, p.69). In this research, the participant inspectors were only four; however, the fifteen participant teachers also addressed the evaluative role of inspectors of English during their interviews. Though there are inspectors who see their roles as supportive and developmental, such as Mr Jamal who showed a wide knowledge in the field of teaching and learning English, and Mrs Mariam who showed willingness to discuss relevant issues. The other two interviewed inspectors talked mainly about their evaluative responsibilities and a role,

which might involve advising and supporting teachers, was essentially about monitoring and judging teachers who followed traditional approaches, rather than the teacher's book, and were focussed on students' examination achievement. Positive evaluations from inspectors played a significant role in enhancing and embedded the beliefs teachers hold about their practices.

Mr Jamal referred to the evaluation of teachers as a minor part of the inspectors' role aimed at identifying any gaps which may require a solution, but others had a different view. All of the fifteen teachers interviewed considered the inspectors' visits as being evaluative, monitoring visits rather than supportive or advisory events. For instance, Mona hated the evaluative atmosphere inspectors create when visiting teachers. Amal talked about hating the visits made by inspectors and described those visits to be "so formal and boring" (Interview 3). Ali considered inspectors as being "police men/women" (Interview 3). Similarly, Omar described inspectors as being "detectives who came just to ask and enquire, googling their eyes on every movement made by a teacher inside the classroom" (Interview 3). Safa criticised the role of inspectors saying: "We are teachers who graduated from universities and prestigious educational institutions, so why are we being inspected twice a year?" (Interview 3). Marwa considered the inspectors' visits as "a waste of time as they are nothing more than a fruitless routine visits" (Interview 3). Kawther, in an angry response, attributed the aims of such evaluative visits as being "just to have their signatures in red pens decorating our diaries" (Interview 3). Esra voiced the negative feelings which affected her thoughts and practices at the time an inspector observes her. Laila said: "When I enter the school and see the inspector at the manager's office, I feel pain in my stomach"

(Interview 3). Teachers are unequivocal and confirm that the main role inspectors have as far as they are concerned is an evaluative one. Sharaf raised an interesting point about when one of the inspectors visited him.

> Both of the inspectors who visited me were not satisfied about my teaching practices.... one of them told me that this is not a private school, it is a public school where you have to deliver lessons as it is supposed to be. (Interview 3)

Sharaf wanted to inquire about the preferred way of delivering lessons, but he was hesitant to ask the inspector such question in case she considered it as an insult. Mona worked at the same school as Sharaf, and was visited and evaluated by the same inspectors. Sharaf talked about the way both of the inspectors, who had criticised him, expressed positive satisfaction with Mona who was delivering her lessons traditionally and conventionally, she was not following the instructions provided in the teacher's book.

Moreover, during the second observation of Laila, the inspector (Mrs Mariam) knocked and entered the class. She (Mrs Mariam) sat silently beside me on the same desk located at the back of the classroom. She filled in a report while writing notes about Laila who was adopting a traditional approach. Ten minutes before the end of the session, Mrs Mariam stood and walked around the classroom to check students' notebooks. Then she asked Laila to use the blackboard where she wrote a sentence and then asked who amongst the students who could change it into negative. Because it was a sentence in the past tense, without a helping verb and containing an irregular verb, students gave wrong answers. The surprise was when the inspector started to use Arabic to explain the sentence and to illustrate how similar structures can be

271

changed into negative or questions using /did/. The way Mrs Mariam performed inside the classroom, starting with using Arabic to explain a very simple grammatical rule and ending up with an activity of "who can translate this word into Arabic", provided another justification for the traditional performances which persist in most teachers' practices. Despite this, Mrs Mariam had appeared to have a good background about the aims and objectives of the current curriculum, and about the communicative approach, and she had also expressed positive beliefs and views about communicative activities. When I asked her about this contradiction between what she did inside the classroom and what she had told me during the interview, she smiled and said:

> I have to do so, because teachers are expected me to follow the same routine all inspectors used to do. Otherwise, I will be like someone who swims against the waves. (Interview 1)

However, this failure of the inspection system could be attributed to: firstly, inspectors' lack of the required knowledge about teaching and learning English, and the aims and objectives of the current curriculum. Secondly, the interference of the MoE, as a centralised educational system, with the inspectors' job being about imposing assessment roles and responsibilities and evaluating teachers' practices. The aims of the MoE's policy on teaching and learning English are not aligned with the aims and objectives of the current curriculum. Therefore, the inspectors, acting as agents of the MoE in Tripoli, share responsibility for perpetuating the problems in the current English language education. Also, this suggests that there is a need for more commitment and involvement from the professionals themselves in the planning and implementing of PD.

7.4.3.1 Alignment between Inspectors' Evaluative Criteria and the Objectives of the Curriculum

When drawing a comparison between the criteria which were reported by the inspectors of English with the aims and objectives of the curriculum, evidence suggests that they were not aligned at all. However, because these criteria were imposed on them by the MoE, there was little opportunity or flexibility for the inspectors' own judgement. Mr Jamal said:

> Although, sometimes I wish to change few things regarding to the way teachers are evaluated, but such act is not going to be easy to occur especially that we (inspectors) are asked to submit such forms to the MoE office when they are filled. (Interview 1)

The criteria employed in the evaluative form indicates that inspectors of English must focus on the way teachers present the content of the provided course book inside the classrooms. A noteworthy concern about this form is its lack of any criteria relevant to the aims and objective of the current curriculum or to communicative practices. Inspector Mariam referred to such an issue saying:

> The way we [inspectors] are required to evaluate teachers is not on the same rhythm of the current curriculum aims and objectives. Teachers are supposed to do certain practices in order to get positive evaluation, but those practices do not reflect what they are asked to do by the curriculum. I was not aware of such issue till the time I recently started doing my MA degree. But before that I was like all other inspectors unaware of all that. (Interview 1)

This reiterates what has been previously said. On the other hand, because the teachers were all too aware of the potential consequences of any negative inspection evaluations relating to their performance on their future teaching careers, their main concern was to follow a certain style of teaching and perform relevant practice which,

they thought, would satisfy the inspectors without giving any considerations to how effective or helpful this might be for students' holistic communicative development.

7.4.3.2 Inspectors and Guidance

The inspectors failed to provide teachers with the necessary guidance and appropriate support due to their own lack of training about the current curriculum, its aims and objectives; their ignorance of the communicative approach, and a general lack of updated knowledge in the field of teaching and learning English. The inspectors themselves in this research were not confident about their understanding either of the current curriculum aims and objectives, or of the communicative approach. For instance, when Miss Kadija was asked about the aims of the current curriculum and how those aims were aligned to the criteria she employed to evaluate teachers' performance, she answered:

> The current English curriculum is like all other school curriculums which aim to provide students with direct knowledgeable material in order to provide for students and examine them at the end of the year. And as for the evaluation, we [inspectors] are provided with a form to fill in during our visits to teachers. But also I have my own criteria to employ when evaluating a teacher; that is checking students' levels through asking them and also looking at their exams marks. (interview 1)

Miss Aisha (inspector of English) also indicated a lack of knowledge about the aims and objectives of the current curriculum and its pedagogy, the communicative approach in particular. She focused on traditional teaching techniques and strategies when evaluating teachers. However, developing Libyan inspectors' understanding of the current curriculum would enable them to offer more appropriate guidance, satisfactory support, and relevant evaluation criteria for Libyan teachers. This was

274

evidenced through what Mrs Mariam said when she told her experience of being a teacher for years and now an inspector, her knowledge was enhanced as a result of being on an MA programme. She said:

> Really it was only after joining the MA programme when I acquired the knowledge I have now, and which helped me to understand the current curriculum aims and objectives. Also, I managed to see the gap between both the curriculum aim and the provided criteria for evaluating teachers. (interview 1)

To develop inspectors' understanding of the current curriculum, there must be extensive training programmes for these inspectors. Moreover, considerations for an effective inspection system could be provided through what has been suggested by Chapman (2002, p.270) and considered as an effective part of such training courses.

7.4.3.3 Inspector and Teacher Relationship

As raised by the participant teachers in the above sections, it was obvious that there was clear distance and tension in the relationships between teachers and inspectors. Their relationships lacked the genuine flexibility and the required educational democracy which could enhance teachers' acceptance of the offered inspection system in terms of mutual collaboration, and PD as well. The dissatisfaction raised by teachers about the inspectors' support and their emphasis on evaluating classrooms practices could be considered as a main reason for such tension (Chapman, 2001). That is why inspectors must establish a more democratic collaborative approach when offering their guidance and supervision, because this could help teachers to change their perceptions and beliefs about the current inspection system.

Another reason which could have contributed to a tense relationship between teachers and inspectors is the regulation framework imposed on both of them by the MoE as a centralised system. Consequently, without those regulations being reviewed and discussed, establishing more equitable relationship between teachers and the inspectors may not be possible.

7.5 Training Courses

Any formal training courses in Libya are centrally planned and delivered by the MoE, and in order to encourage teachers to attend, those who attend a full course are rewarded at the end with an amount of money. If teachers failed to attend any of the relevant courses, they are offered places on the next ones. As confirmed by the four interviewed inspectors, there was not any procedure to assess how useful or to evaluate how successful were courses are, and, because such courses are centrally arranged, teachers were not given any chance to determine what might be relevant in the courses which they were required to attend.

However, seven teachers did not have a chance to join a training courses provided by the MoE and delivered by inspectors. Those teachers were: Mona, Ali, Amal, Azza, Kawther, Safa and Samia. Three other teachers joined private training courses: two sponsored and delivered by inspectors, and one provided by the British Council and delivered by British teachers. Those teachers are Wala, Laila and Esra. The other five teachers did not participate in any training courses during their careers, and their justifications for that were as follow:

> I have my own ways to work on myself and be professional, and honestly, I heard a lot about the content focus of such training courses which I do not need, or let me say which I already have. (Sharaf, Interview 3)

276

I did not attend those courses, because the content focus was only grammar and listening; so why do I need to attend and join such courses as long as there will be nothing new for me to learn. (Marwa, Interview 3)

Because such courses are nothing more than a grammar revision which I do not need. (Fatima, Interview 3)

The training courses provided by the MoE were scheduled at inappropriate time. I mean the time of those courses was made during the middle of the school first term and it was not easy for me to balance between my teaching sessions and attending such courses. (Omar, Interview 3)

Time was a main problem for me to attend those courses. I hoped they were made in holidays. (Manal, Interview 3)

7.7 Other Challenges and Obstacles

The complexity of teacher development often lies in the way of the professional progress that could take place through a variety of developmental means and resources. When the planning and application of PD happen in a form of cooperative responsibilities between teachers, schools and even government, teachers' development will be sustained (Day, 1999, p.2). From what has been raised by the fifteen participant teachers and four inspectors, it was obvious that such joint responsibility is non-existent. A lack of alignment and the lack of joint arrangements between teachers, schools' administrators, inspectors and MoE were amongst the main elements to cause the existing gap between teachers' practices, the assessment system, curriculum objectives, the inspection system and the MoE as a centralised system. Such lack resulted in a number of issues which made any opportunities for PD and CPD were almost non-existent. Sharaf considered lack of resources as a main difficulty to pursue his PD. He said:

I hope that my school could arrange with the MoE to provide us [teachers] with updated libraries, PCs and fast internet access. As this could help us to

enhance our independent PD, instead of just focusing on the available unserviceable training programmes….. I do not have internet at home either, but I often go to cafes where internet is little bit fast but also costing. (Interview 3)

Such lack of school based Internet facilities forced teachers like Sharaf and Ali to obtain internet access at internet cafes. However, female teachers are not expected to go to internet cafes as this is not accepted culturally. With no internet access available at any of the schools and with family commitments at home, the opportunities for the female teachers to enhance learning through technology was reduced and internet-based resources often absent. Amal said:

> We as females are not allowed to go to internet cafes and the internet access I have at home is very slow. Also, siting to use the PC and internet at home is not easy for me because I have six children …. I mean I have lot of commitments which I have to manage at home. (Interview 3)

Some teachers lacked the required technological skills and were unable to apply ICT in their teaching practices and development. As a result, apprehension of technology was evident in their comments. The interview data, however, revealed that teachers' attitudes towards the use of internet to develop leaning are encouraging.

> Though I am not skilled at using internet and yet not confidant enough to use it for learning, but I think yes it could help us as teachers to develop. (Mona, interview 3)

> Using internet to search relevant knowledge is not an easy thing for me. I prefer reading books, because I am not a kind of person who likes adventures in areas which s/he does not know. Though, I am not against internet usage, because I know it could help a lot. (Fatima, interview 3)

> Internet is like a sea which needs skilful divers, otherwise diving inside it will be a waste of time, and I do not want to waste time. At least till I learn how to dive into it skilfully and efficiently. (Kawther, interview 3)

However, such ICT uncertainty would disappear through improvements in teachers' skills as well as awareness being raised regarding the use of internet for teacher learning and development. Mr Jamal (Inspector) acknowledged the possibility of using the Internet as a versatile source of knowledge, but he emphasised this should happen under proper guidance. He said:

> Internet is, for sure, a very resourceful and effective tool for teachers to develop…. Though ICDL courses are delivered for free for all Libyan teachers throughout all Libya, but most Libyan teachers whom I inspected lacked the required skills of how to get the best use of internet to enhance their PD. I mean they need to be educated and informed about how to search for relevant information, download books and journals, also they must know how to search for updated research regarding to Libyan education in general and teaching English in specific. (Interview 1)

The guidance Mr Jamal mentioned is reflected in what was raised by Esra. She said:

> As I mentioned earlier to you that I have my own laptop and internet access at home, but honestly a year ago I was using the internet just to learn how to pronounce certain words provided in the course book, translating words and even texts, checking grammar exercises. It was only at the British Council course when I learned about significant sites about teaching English…. Besides learning, I enjoy discussions with other teachers from around the world, providing suggestions, reading teachers' stories, and….. In fact, since then my journey with internet has become encouraging. It is just that sometimes I find a difficulty to understand certain term and abbreviations which are raised in discussions or even in texts. (Interview 3)

The guidance Esra received played a significant role towards her development and changed the way she used internet. In short, teachers need to gain required skills, confidence and awareness about e-learning for language fluency and PD to be enhanced.

7.7 Summary

This part of analysis involved Libyan teachers' conceptualisation of professionalism and professional development. Though, in Libyan culture it is not easy for teachers to admit any lack of knowledge or skills regarding to their professional practices or identity. To conceptualise professionalism, some teachers linked professionalism and being a professional teacher with the grammatical knowledge a teacher has. This could be attributed to two main things: firstly, because their main aim of teaching English is for students to pass examinations, and exams in the Libyan context are mainly based on grammar. As a result, grammatical knowledge has become the main criterion by which teachers must be evaluated to be considered as professionals. Other teachers linked professionalism with the number of years of experience a teacher had in the field of teaching. Therefore; teachers' years of experience should be enriched with adequate pedagogical knowledge which would enable their self-reflection.

This analysis conceptualises PD in the Libyan context and reveals two main things: firstly, that most teachers confined PD within a limited framework of training programmes and inspectors' visits. The findings show that teachers share similar views and beliefs about PD as being means towards the improvement of teaching profession. Three significant terms characterised the meaning of PD as described by these teachers. These were: improve, develop, and change. These verbs could be regarded as the basic aims of PD according to these Libyan teachers. It also focuses on the forms of PD available for Libyan teachers as well as presenting issues and challenges such as lack of motivation, lack of recognition, and advise offered by inspection system, which was mentioned by the participant teachers as hindering their PD. For

teachers to develop, inspectors' understanding of the current curriculum should be improved which would require extensive training programmes for these inspectors. Also, amore collaborative relationship between teachers and inspectors should be established.

The findings also revealed a lack of alignment and ambitious responsibilities between teachers, inspectors, schools' administrators and even the government. It revealed a gap between teachers' practices, the assessment system, curriculum objectives, the inspection system and the MoE as a centralised system. This resulted in a number of issues which undermined any opportunities for PD and CPD. Also, one of the main findings of this part of analysis confirms teachers' needs to be provided with the required guidance and awareness about e-learning for language fluency and PD. In brief, teachers in the Libyan context need access to effective PD opportunities in order to improve and develop their current knowledge and skills as this will improve students' learning and achievements.

The following analysis represents how each of the effective characteristics presented by Desimone could provide an effective developmental frame to enhance Libyan teachers' PD and beliefs change.

Analysis Four: Desimone's Model of Professional Development and the Libyan Context

7.8 Introduction

For successful change and development, teachers' needs must be met with relevant PD. Teachers' willingness to participate in any offered PD programmes could lead to more professional involvement and learning, beliefs and instructional change, and in turn improved students' achievement. That is why identifying the teachers' personal and professional backgrounds, and knowing what they may miss and lack in their profession is considered essential in order to provide a more relevant base for what might be the focus of the PD they require; as this will be a direct response in terms of their professional needs.

Desimone's PD theoretical framework appeared to be a good fit and a relevant choice to evaluate and enhance PD in the Libyan context. The following sections present the main five features identified by Desimone for effective PD and which seem to be grounded in the literature. That is why this theoretical model, as suggested by the findings of this study, could be considered as the solid base for Libyan teachers PD.

7.8.1 Content Focus

As identified in the literature, content focus has been considered as a key feature of PD, because it has a direct impact on teachers' practices and students' learning (Desimone, 2009; Kinnucan-Welsch et al., 2006 and Boyle et al., 2005). In this study, the fifteen participant teachers were asked about the content focus of the training courses they had had as a direct opportunity for their PD. The content focus varied among the responses to identify three main areas: grammar, listening to conversations made by native speakers of English, and assessment.

> The main focus was grammar and marks distributions as advised by the MoE. (Mona, Interview 3)

> It was like a revision to all of the English grammar, there were also listening material. (Amal, Interview 3)

> The material we [teachers] taught was sentence structure, tenses, passive, clauses, etc… It was mainly grammar. (Ali, Interview 3)

> Besides grammar, they [inspectors] taught us [teachers] how to distribute students' marks throughout the year. (Azza, Interview 3)

> Listening to conversations and then we [teachers] were asked to answer questions about the material we listened to, plus grammar. (Safa, Interview 3)

Sharaf, Fatima, Manal, Marwa, Amal, Azza and Samia considered such PD content focus of the MoE training programmes as being ineffective. The content focus of those training courses was described as being: "nothing more than a repetition" (Sharaf, Interview 3), "fruitless attempt" (Fatima, Interview 3), "inefficient and does not help" (Manal, Interview 3), "boring repetition" (Marwa, Interview 3), "unproductive and it is a waste of time" (Amal, Interview 3). Samia also described such courses as being "fruitless", and she added an important point:

> The training programme provided by the MoE for all of the in-services teachers all over the country does not contain what could help us to effectively teach the current curriculum. (Interview 3)

However, Mona was in favour of such training programme. She said:

> I liked that training course. It was like a refreshment for me. And really, it helped me a lot. (Interview 3)

Mona was the only teacher who praised the training courses provided by the MoE. This might be attributed to her need to revise grammar. When teachers were asked about their suggestions regarding the content focus they prefer and consider as

283

important to enhance their classroom teaching, their answers varied between four

aspects: grammar, listening to material made by native speakers, developing fluency,

and methods of teaching. They said:

> It is grammar and grammar and grammar, especially things such as passive, tenses, clauses, compound and complex sentences. (Mona, interview 3)

> Well, it could be the most difficult grammatical rules, such as tenses that most teachers miss-use them. (Omar, interview 3)

> I would prefer courses where we [teachers] are exposed to any material made by native speakers of English. (Esra, interview 3)

> It is any content that could help to develop teachers' fluency in English. (Amal, interview 3)

> As a teacher, I prefer to join any offered courses that could help me to develop my English fluency. Yes, I am a good speaker in English, but I dream to speak it just like the native speakers. (Kawther, interview 3)

> In my opinion, I think it is listening and developing fluency programmes. Also, I think we all as teachers still need to learn about methods of teaching, strategies and techniques. (Sharaf, interview 3)

> I think that teachers need to learn about communicative language teaching, as this could help them to understand all of the instructions provided in the teacher's book. (Marwa, interview 3)

Ali expressed his desire to undertake and PD programmes or training which could

help him to understand the current curriculum and know how to teach it effectively.

When the four inspectors also were asked about their points of view and suggestions

regarding what they might see as a necessary content focus for teachers. They

commented:

> As a result of the regular visits I made for teachers in a number of school, I could say that most teachers lack fluency in English and the required pedagogical knowledge. (Mr Jamal, interview 1)

> Frankly speaking, it is methods of teaching. (Mrs Mariam, interview 1)

> Teachers seem to face difficulties in teaching the grammar provided in the course book. (Miss Kadija, interview 1)

> I could say that as a result of my visits to teachers, teachers need to be offered courses to develop better fluency in English. (Mrs Aish, interview 1)

All of the participant teachers, and even inspectors, indicated that teachers may need to be offered two different types of training: one focusing on the development of teachers' pedagogical knowledge; while the other focuses on language development (structure and fluency).

However, the training already provided by the MoE was criticised by the participant teachers and even by inspectors, firstly, as being not appropriately arranged because it was delivered during school time when teachers were busy and not available. Secondly, the content of such courses lacked the required pedagogical material which could help effective teaching practice. Thirdly, the individuals who delivered those courses were often inspectors who were not adequately qualified and did not have the required pedagogical knowledge to enhance teachers' understanding.

7.8.2 Active Learning

In active learning, teachers are supposed to get engaged in the process of teaching and learning analysis. For the all of the fifteen participant teachers to more fully understand active learning, a few examples were illustrated for them: peer observation, reflection, feedback on own teaching, productive discussions, etc. Most of the participant teachers appeared to have nothing which might be considered as active learning either within the school environment or through any training they had

undertaken. Manal was the only teacher who told her experience of being a part of active learning when observing another teacher. She said:

> When I graduated from the university, and I was directly appointed as a teacher. I was very happy and excited. But also, I felt that I need to ask and see how other teachers delivering their lessons…… Finally, I found a female teacher who allowed me to observe her while teaching. When the lesson finished, we [me and the teacher] sat and discussed a number of things such as why translating into Arabic, writing new words on the board, the way I have to form exams, etc. Though observing her was enough for me to start my teaching career. (Interview 3)

This peer observation was considered by Manal as an active experience which helped her to pursue her own teaching more confidently. However, if teachers were provided with the required pedagogical knowledge which is aligned with the aims and objectives of the current curriculum, and aspects such as peer observation, reflection and effective discussions were clarified how to be effectively applied, then PD would occur through interaction.

All of the fifteen participant teachers, particularly those who graduated from prestigious institutions without receiving adequate pedagogical knowledge, were asked whether they received any school support such as mentoring when they came to work as new teachers. Unfortunately, however, mentoring and coaching are almost non-existent in Libyan public schools. Once those teachers graduated, they were directly appointed and assigned by the MoE to work in schools as qualified teachers who could commence responsibility for classrooms. Those teachers were left to their own devices. Though in the middle of the school terms, all in-service teachers were offered to join training courses, but, as revealed in the previous section, the content focus of those courses did not fulfil the requirements of the current curriculum nor

provide relevant pedagogical knowledge. Besides inspectors did not have a role as supporters and advisors. Therefore, teachers often did not feel confident to pursue their own active learning. For instance, Fatima, who considered herself as a professional teacher and consultant for others facing challenges, advised colleagues to follow traditional strategies and solutions which were not aligned with the current curriculum goals. There was little evidence or discussions on pedagogic issues, peer conversations, informed observations, or even shared material, which could contribute to knowledge development. Esra said:

> We [teachers] don't have any formal or informal arranged meetings where we could meet develop a variety of ideas, suggestions, solutions, points of view, and knowledge from each other. Yes, we have a 'teachers' room' which contains only metal chairs and big table, but it is rare when teachers using it. All teachers come on the time of their teaching sessions and when finishing they directly leave the school. (Interview 3)

There was little opportunity for a community of practice and shared endeavour, which in turn could lead to unsatisfactory students' learning and achievement.

7.8.3 Coherence

Coherence in PD refers to consistency between teaching and learning opportunities, teachers' knowledge, beliefs, practices, school reforms and polices, curriculum aims and objectives. Unfortunately, and as seen in earlier analysis parts and sections, such coherence and consistency were not available in any PD opportunities offered in the Libyan context. For instance, when the participant teachers talked about the content focus of training offered, some had considered it to be unserviceable, because it did not help their classroom practices as instructed by the teacher's book. The element of coherence was not available between the precise aim of such training programmes,

the teachers' needs regarding to their classroom practices and the aims of the current curriculum. Mr Jamal commented:

> As I mentioned before, both inspectors and teachers, let me add also the school administrators, must realise the urgent need of creating the required link between the curriculum aim and teachers' needs to teach it effectively. (interview 1)

In brief, this research suggests that for future PD plans in the Libyan context, any PD programmes should be consistent and aligned with the instructional goals of the curriculum and all of the other relevant aspects of the educational process and system. As the MoE is the main organiser and sponsor for any PD programmes and training in Libya, the role of inspectors and school administrators should be relevantly and effectively activated in order to supervise and support such developmental processes. Because both inspectors and school administrators have a direct major role to create link between all of the related aspects in order to establish coherence and consistency through supporting teachers and providing them with the required facilities and resources which in turn could provide teachers with a kind of trust and stability in their schools.

7.8.4 Duration

Generally, research on PD has referred to its duration and the number of hours which are offered for any PD programmes or activities. O'Connor et al. (2005) and Van Keer and Verhaeghe (2005) considered the duration as one of the key features is associated with effective PD. When the participant teachers were asked about their views regarding to the time scale they were offered for the training, only Mona

considered the assigned time as being "fair and enough" (Interview 3). Amal like others had a different point of view, however, she said:

> As I remember it was a daily programme with a continuous boring five to six hours within three months. Me and other teachers, at that time, criticised the time duration assigned for this programme. (Interview 3)

The duration was designated by the participant teachers as a key feature of effective PD: firstly, it should be in holidays not during the school term days, because of teachers' daily commitments. Secondly, since practising what is theoretically provided regarding to pedagogical knowledge is essential, it would be better if the allocated hours are divided into two separate sessions. This reflected what was expressed by Azza when she talked about her bad experience of "being stuck in a desk for more than a continuous five hours. I hoped that long lecture was divided into sessions with breaks in the middle." (Interview 3)

7.8.5 Collective Participation

It is significant for teachers to be members of a community of learners as this could provide them with more opportunities for collegial cooperation and create deeper reflection, better pedagogical skills and, in turn, better students' outcomes. Collaborative efforts, where comfortable and effective learning environments are provided, could permit the development of collegial discussions where learning and development can occur. Such professional discussions can create better understanding of the required and necessary teaching changes. (Shulman, 1986; Duffy, 2005)

In this research and as a result of what has been raised by the fifteen participant teachers, it was evident that Libyan teachers require their skills and practices to be refined and better developed in order to be, as suggested by Duffy, 2005, more able to provide effective learning for their students. Associated with this, teachers should be better able to reflect on their own practices when receiving constructive feedback from other teachers in a learning community. At the time when teachers start to collaborate with each other within a supportive learning community, then a cooperative problem solving process will effectively occur (Duffy 2005). Since such collegial communities could provide teachers with reoccurring opportunities of feedback and reflection on their classroom practices.

Moreover, as seen throughout the earlier parts of analysis, some of the participant teachers' beliefs and practices were affected by inspectors and other teachers. It could be said that stimulating and encouraging conversations and discussions among teachers within a learning community could help to shape, develop and change teachers' views, beliefs and practices. When teachers learn together in a form of constructive dialogue and discussions, such collaboration could then result in improved practices, because dialogue, conversations and discussions are social interaction processes which could enhance and confirm learning opportunities. Cochran-Smith and Lytle said that:

> teachers' learning is more constructivist than transmission oriented…… that is, it is recognized that both prospective and experienced (like all learners) bring prior knowledge and experience to all new learning situations.
>
> (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1999, p.258).

For successful PD, teachers must to be interested and receptive to PD opportunities that should meet with their professional needs and be engaging. To establish effective communities for teachers as learners, Hord suggested a relevant framework that includes more likely required elements which appears to fit with teachers' needs in the Libyan context:

> supportive and shared leadership, shared values and vision, collective learning and application of learning, supportive conditions, and shared practice.

(Hord, 2004, p. 7)

7.9 Summary

From what participant teachers and even inspectors said, it was apparent that teachers may need to be offered two different types of training: one focusing on the development of the teachers' pedagogical knowledge; while the other focuses on language development (structure and fluency). However, regarding to the training already provided by the MoE, it was criticised by the participant teachers and even inspectors, firstly, as being not appropriately arranged, that is to say delivered during school time when teachers were busy with classes. Secondly, the content of such courses lacked the required pedagogical material which could help effective teaching practices. Thirdly, individuals who delivered those courses were inspectors and often were unqualified and with the necessary pedagogical knowledge. Again alignment between all of the relevant elements regarding PD opportunities, including time and knowledge seems to be a key missing factor affecting the success of any formal training courses.

Finally, Desimone's PD theoretical framework appeared to be a good fit and more relevant choice to enhance PD in the Libyan context, due to the fact that its main five features seem to function as the solid base for Libyan teachers PD. It gives a structure and suggests aspects of CPD that is most relevant to Libyan teachers for whom CPD is largely either absent or inadequate.

Chapter Eight: Conclusions and Recommendations

8.1 Introduction

This chapter is designed to systematically addresses the four research questions. It presents the contribution of the study and its implications. Finally, the limitations of the study and recommendations for further research are addressed.

8.2 First Research Question: What do Libyan teachers do and believe with regards to teaching English as a foreign language, and how do these beliefs affect the process of teaching and learning English?

The significance of this question lies in the assumption that teachers' beliefs affect their pedagogical decisions and practices (Farrell and Kun, 2008; Borg, 2006; Farrell and Lim, 2005). Though, since other researchers indicate that the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices is still vague and unclear (Phipps and Borg, 2009; Calderhead, 1996), There is a further need to for investigation regarding the complex relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices (Burns, 2009; Borg, 2006). However, the complex relationship between beliefs and practices is explored and explained in this research first question. As a result, this question has aspects regarding to the fifteen participant teachers in this research: the first is the teachers' practices and the second is their beliefs.

8.2.1 Teachers' Practices

The findings regarding to teachers' practices suggest two main points. The first one confirms the notion demonstrated by research conducted previously by Libyan researchers that a traditional mode of teaching and learning is evident in what Libyan teachers join the classroom. This research is different, however, in two main points: firstly, where there were a few teachers who were trying to employ other more modern approaches such as the communicative teaching, they did not do this consistently.

Secondly, former studies have been always attributed noncompliance and methodological choice to teachers' lack of pedagogical knowledge. This research, however, shows that there were teachers who had a good background about teaching methodologies but who still adopted a traditional role. Also, it indicates that this is due: firstly, to a lack of alignment between the Libyan assessment system and the principles of its current curriculum; secondly, to an inconsistency between the official monitoring inspection regime and the principles of the current curriculum; thirdly to an inadequacy in the initial training and continued professional development. The monitoring inspection regime also appears to be inadequate owing to a lack of consistency in regard to two main points: the disparate views among the inspection team about what constitutes effective teaching in the Libyan context, which could be attributed to the fact that inspectors in Libya are selected on the basis of experience but not knowledge. Also, there is a lack of consistency between the regular visits paid by inspectors and the MoE specified time scale for every unit within the curriculum throughout the school year. This schedule made the teachers feel under pressure, necessitating starting and finishing each unit within a tight timeframe. Moreover, one of the main reasons that made teachers teach explicit grammar was the way such grammatical rules are presented in the course-book (as opposed to the teachers' book).

8.2.2 Teachers' Beliefs

The findings regarding teachers' beliefs were presented as they emerged from the data and interpreted under the main elements of PBT. The data from this study suggests that the fifteen teachers' practices were based on a diverse collection of beliefs which are often unconsciously held (Ajzen, 2005); and, as a result, they were

predisposed to follow certain styles and ways of teaching. These findings identified the beliefs the fifteen participant teachers hold about themselves as English language teachers, their classroom practices and the current curriculum; and discussed the way in which those beliefs influenced their intentions and behaviour. Beliefs, as elicited from the fifteen teachers, were formed as a result of what Ajzen called the background factors: their previous preparatory and secondary school experiences as language learners; advice delivered to them by inspectors; collaboration with other teachers; their practical teaching experience, and some contextual factors. The latter included the significance of the assessment system which made them follow a certain style of teaching; the way some material was presented in the course-book (grammatical rules in particular); environmental considerations such as noise and classroom management; time constraints (45 minutes a day and about 3 hours a week) and crowded classes. The most interesting finding was that the education those teachers received at the higher educational institutions seemed to have relatively little influence on the construction of their beliefs. However, at this initial stage of their career, teachers had too little experience to apply theory to practice.

8.2.3 Beliefs and Practices

Exploring and explaining teachers' beliefs using the three key elements presented by PBT helped to explain the way beliefs influence practices. Analysing teachers' beliefs as behavioural, normative and control, raises a number of issues regarding to current teaching practices which, in turn, leads to notions of the training required. Adequate and regular training, in turn, could help to achieve the change in both what might be seen as unconstructive beliefs and unproductive practices.

8.3 Second Research Question: What teaching methods are employed by Libyan teachers to teach English as a foreign language, and how do those methods align with the current English curriculum?

8.3.1 Traditional Teaching Methods

The findings revealed that twelve out of the fifteen participant teachers employed traditional methodologies when delivering their lessons. Their explanations regarding what they did revealed that some of them did not have adequate knowledge of relevant CLT teaching methodologies and techniques; especially those had not received any prior pedagogical training or induction. Others, despite having appropriate pedagogical knowledge, chose to follow the same traditional path as their colleagues. Only three teachers did their best to deliver their lessons in an alternative communicative way, but, even they only did so periodically, owing to contextual pressure.

8.3.2 Alignment between Teachers' Practices, Assessment and the Curriculum Objectives

As revealed throughout the data, it could be said that there is virtually no alignment between teachers' practices and the curriculum aims and objectives. Most of the participant teachers were not following the pedagogical instructions provided in the teachers' book. It was apparent not only from what the teachers said but also from observation of their practice and their diaries as well. As the key aim of all fifteen participant teachers was to help their students to pass exams, their main focus as a result was always to develop students' grammatical competences, including the three teachers who tried to employ communicative activities. Since exams and tests in Libya are always just grammatical exercises, teachers recognised that they did not need to implement all of the material provided in the curriculum, and therefore did not pay

much attention to the pedagogical instructions provided by the teachers' book. This again raises the issue of a lack of alignment between the curricular aims and the teachers' practice. Though the teachers' practice was aligned to the assessment system; the assessment system was not aligned either with the students' expected outcomes nor with the Libyan English curricular aims.

Moreover, teachers' priority inevitably has to be their students passing examinations. This is what parents and the school expect. Teachers believed that traditional methods of teaching and learning and GTM are the most effective ways of doing this. This view is shared by some of the senior inspectors who were tasked with monitoring teachers' performances. What teachers said reinforces the lack of alignment between the current government curriculum aims and the way exams and assessments are structured. The final examination which contains multiple choice questions provided by the MoE made teachers, even those who had positive beliefs about the communicative approach, employ traditional approaches and rote learning from time to time.

Another issue was raised by the teachers' responses regarding the impact of what appeared to be the fixed and repetitive format of the examinations. Looking at the teachers' diaries revealed the way examinations were constructed throughout the whole year. Those examinations consisted of questions such as: change the following sentences into negative, into questions, into the passive, from one tense to another, and re-order the following words to make correct sentences. Also, there were fill-in questions where students were asked to choose the correct form of verb, preposition, article, some/any, much/many, etc. Such examinations were employed by all of the

fifteen teachers. Even the examinations which are provided by the MoE follow a fixed format and even repeated questions from time to time throughout years. Such a fixed format system of examinations has the effect of narrowing the curriculum; as it not only confines the examinations to those elements which are considered to be testable or convenient, but it also, as evidenced by this study, an impact on the whole process of teaching leading it to become restricted to the sorts of activities and abilities which are tested.

Further, the fifteen teachers were asked about the main aim the current Libyan curriculum, their responses revealed their lack of awareness and knowledge of the relevant aims. Consequently, since the aims and objectives of the current curriculum were not clear to all of the fifteen teachers, their teaching practices were based on their own acquired teaching beliefs and viewpoints which in most cases, lacked the required knowledge background. This lack could explain the way examinations are shaped those on the MoE Examination Committee. That is why it is essential for the teachers, inspectors and the even examination committees to have a good understanding of curricular aims and objectives and how such aims could be reinforced through examinations as an assessment system. This obviously has implications at quite a senior level. Also, if the value and significance of the aims and objectives of the current curriculum are recognised and emphasised in pre/in-service training, teachers might be persuaded to question their inherent beliefs. Also, they might be encouraged to follow the instructions provided by the teacher's book; and as a result, communicative activities will be more evident. Again the question is whose responsibility is this, where and when exactly teachers must be informed? Similar question regarding the main aim of the current curriculum should be considered.

Libyan officials in general and inspectors in particular need to understand that it is not enough simply to give teachers a teachers' book with instructions. Teachers cannot be asked to implement a curriculum without looking at what this curriculum requires teachers to do in the classroom, and its congruence with the assessment system.

8.4 Third Research Question: What does professionalism and professional development mean in the Libyan context and how can this be effectively theorised?

When conceptualising professionalism, some teachers linked it and being a professional teacher with the grammatical knowledge a teacher has. This could be attributed to two main things: firstly, because their main aim of teaching English was for students to pass examinations, and exams in the Libyan context are mainly based on grammar. As a result, grammar has become the main criterion by which teachers must be evaluated to be considered as professionals. Other teachers linked professionalism with the number of years of experience a teacher had in the field of teaching. However; teachers' years of experience should be enriched with adequate pedagogical knowledge which would enable their self-reflection.

When the fifteen participant teachers were asked about what PD means to them, the findings reveal two main things: firstly, that most teachers confined PD within a limited framework of training programmes and inspectors' visits. The findings show that teachers share similar views and beliefs about PD as a means towards the improvement of teaching profession. Three significant terms characterised the meaning of PD as described by these teachers. These were: improve, develop, and change. These verbs could be regarded as the basic aims of PD according to these Libyan teachers. It also focuses on the forms of PD available for Libyan teachers as

well as presenting issues and challenges such as lack of motivation, lack of recognition, and the inspection system, all of which were raised by the participant teachers as hindering their PD. For teaching to improve, development of inspectors' understanding of the current curriculum and alternative pedagogies is essential but would involve offering extensive training programmes for these inspectors. Also, this study suggests a more collaborative relationship between teachers and inspectors should be established.

The findings revealed also that lack of alignment between teachers, inspectors, schools' administrators and even the government were other main elements to cause the existing gap between teachers' practices, the assessment system, curriculum objectives, the inspection system and the MoE as a centralised system. A number of issues therefore limited opportunities for PD and CPD including commitments and accessibility. Also, one of the main findings of this part of analysis confirms teachers' need to be provided with the guidance and relevant awareness about e-learning for language fluency and PD. In brief, teachers in the Libyan context need access to effective PD opportunities in order to improve and develop their current knowledge and skills as this will improve students' learning and achievements.

Desimone's PD theoretical framework appeared to be a good fit and more relevant choice to enhance PD in the Libyan context, due to the fact that its main five features seem to function as a solid base for Libyan teachers PD. For effective and successful PD, teachers are required to be receptive to any offered PD opportunities, and for this to occur they must have the feeling that their professional needs are met through the provided opportunities. As the finding of this research explored teachers need

recognition of their efforts, because, as suggested by Bean (2004), teachers are more likely to flourish when their efforts are recognised. Also, the value of the offered PD must be demonstrated to teachers (Bean and Morewood, 2006), in order to encourage them to share their needs and enhance their willingness to learn and develop. Teachers who are eager to learn more likely to be responsive and incorporate new ideas and skills into their classrooms, enabling teacher change and improving students' learning will be definite.

8.5 Fourth Research Question: What might be the Libyan teacher training requirements and recommendations for enhanced professional development?

This research suggests that teachers may need to be offered two different types of training: one focusing on the development of teachers' pedagogical knowledge; whereas the other focuses on language development (structure and fluency). However, it should be noted that the training currently provided by the MoE was criticised by the participant teachers and even by inspectors, firstly, as being not appropriately arranged. That is to say, it was delivered during school time when teachers were busy and unable to attend. Secondly, the content of such courses lacked the necessary pedagogical material which could help effective teaching practices. Thirdly, the individuals who delivered these courses were inspectors who often were unqualified and did not have the appropriate pedagogical knowledge. Alignment between the relevant elements regarding PD opportunities, time, and knowledge seemed to be missing and adversely affecting the success of any PD offered in a form of formal training courses.

Most significantly, in this research, the fifteen participant teachers appeared to be unaware of the influence of their existing beliefs on their classroom practices. This

implies the need for teaching training and education programmes where teachers are given opportunities to reflect upon their own classroom practices, and where their existing beliefs are interrogated and confronted to explore the extent to which these beliefs and practices might hinder or facilitate the development and implementation process.

8.6 Contribution of the Study

The study builds on previous research on teachers' beliefs and practices conducted in various contexts to make a significant contribution to develop an understanding of the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices. This study is a contribution to knowledge as it explored some pedagogical concerns in terms of Libyan teachers' beliefs about teaching English as a foreign language, the teaching methodologies and the current curriculum in order to provide better understanding and interpretation of classroom practices, as well as providing a comprehensive idea about what it means to be a professional teacher in a Libyan context. Also, this study provides insights and recommendations about the relevant future training and what types of opportunities and resources should be provided for teachers to enhance their continual professional development. Professionalism is, however, not enhanced at all as this study reveals; and teachers are not encouraged to pursue their own professional growth.

I adopted PBT and Desimone's model of PD as a theoretical base for this research which is also a new theoretical contribution to knowledge. Applying the PBT in an educational context has helped to provide a theoretical framework to enhance behavioural change interventions. PBT helped the researcher to explore and explain teachers' beliefs in this study while considering teachers' intentions as relevant to a variety of motivational factors. The way teachers' intentions adapted to certain

practices were influenced by the three main determinants of this theory: behavioural, normative and control beliefs. Also, understanding the way teachers' beliefs impacted upon their classroom practices and affected students' learning, was informative and significant regarding any future change. The elicited beliefs from the fifteen participant teachers were formed as a result of what Ajzen (2005) called background factors: their previous preparatory and secondary school experiences as language learners, their practical teaching experience and some other contextual factors. The teachers' own experience of assessment infeluenced their beliefs and affected their teaching. Significant contexual factors included the way in which material was presented in the course book (grammatical rules in particular); environmental considerations such as noise and classroom management, time constraints (45 minutes a day and about three hours a week) and crowded classes. The most interesting finding, however, was that the education those teachers received at their higher educational institutions seemed to have relatively little influence on the construction of their beliefs.

This study has emphisised the significance of teachers' beliefs, and the importance of a conceptualisation of professionalism and professional development which reinforce the value of Desimone's model of PD, as a concrete step on the professional development ladder for Libyan teachers. It is important to add, however, that alignment between the crriculum and assessment is a significant missing element within the Libyan educational system and is another issue to be considered. Since any change and development in teachers' awareness regarding their beliefs or professional practices would be fruitless without between the MoE's aims, the current curriculum aims and objectives, inspectors' practices (regularity and aims), teachers' practices, and the assessment system.

However, this study is also the first study conducted in the southern part of Libya, and at a

point of fundamental social and political change, it focuses on four key elements: teachers'

beliefs, teaching methodology, the current curriculum and professional development, and

examines how all these elements are aligned to enhance the goal of teaching English as

a foreign language to Libyan students. Addressing these four elements, this study reveals

and discusses a variety of significant and related issues, and offers some suggestions for

future improvements.

8.7 Research Implications

The following two sections illustrate the practical implications suggested by this study for

teacher practice and the MoE practice.

8.7.1 Implications for Teacher Practice

- Teachers should be more responsive to PD, because any form of PD requires a personal commitment of time and effort, and may necessitate access and resources such as technology.

- Libyan teachers need to develop their cognitive skills as well as their abilities to read and reflect in a critical way.

- Greater reflexivity will encourage teachers to review their beliefs, and develop and change as appropriate.

- Libyan teachers should realise the significant of the effective use of their own diaries instead of just copying into their diaries the aims and objectives of the lessons from the teachers' book as well as recording the new words of every lesson and answers to the questions provided in the work book.

8.7.2 Implications for Education System

- The Libyan MoE should establish aims and objectives for English teaching and learning which are aligned with the curriculum, assessment and public examining, the inspection system and teachers' practices.

- The Libyan MoE should provide programmes of awareness-raising for teachers regarding the aims of the current curriculum, and the way beliefs affect their practices. This should reinforce the significance of alignment between all of the aspects and educational process.

- The Libyan MoE should discuss with teachers the most appropriate methods and strategies to encourage effective learning.

- The Libya MoE should establish national teaching standards for teachers' preparation, training and PD.

- The Libyan MoE must consider factors such as teachers' low income, long hours, lack of resources, recognition of their efforts in order to adequately motivate teachers to prioritise PD in their lives and to manage their time more wisely.

- PD and CPD should be enhanced and encouraged by the school, the MoE, inspectors and administrators in a number of ways, such as: providing updated

readable material, PCs, supporting productive activities suggested by teachers or inspectors, and time to do PD.

- The Libyan MoE should provide appropriate access to internet facilities at the teachers' workplace, as well as access to relevant resources and research material to help teachers to refine their practice.

8.8 Limitations of the Study

On the whole, the current study was valuable in providing a clear picture about Libyan teachers' beliefs, practices, professional development and other related issues such as the existing lack of alignment between related aspects in the process of teaching and learning English which influenced teachers' beliefs and practices and in turn students' learning. However, this study is not without its limitations some of which are illustrated below.

- This study was conducted in the southern part of Libya. The seven schools out of which the fifteen participant teachers were chosen were located in four areas only in the south. Due to security issues, the researcher did not manage to enlarge the area to include samples of most of the cities and towns in the southern part of Libya. So, the results of this study may not be an accurate representation of other cohorts across Libya. Since findings obtained in some schools and in one context may not necessarily be true for other schools in the same or different contexts. However, some of the themes that I have explored and found significant in this research are likely exist elsewhere in the Libyan context, altogether I am not claiming generalisability.

- The number of English inspectors involved, four, was fewer than initially anticipated. But again, due to the ongoing conflict at the time of data collection,

this reduced the chances to find and meet inspectors at the inspection office, as well as other officials at the MoE office in the Southern area.

- Due to the limited time frame for data collection process, and the need to identify teachers with a variety of backgrounds, opportunities to conduct a pilot stage were restricted. Piloting can be beneficial because it offers first-hand experience of dealing with fieldwork issues in terms of access to the participants, testing the interview schedules, and dealing with unexpected challenges or events. However, the semi-structured interviews' framework provided me with the opportunity to probe new important themes with other questions.

- Also, due to the on-going conflict at the time of data collection, and the political transitional nature of the country, it was very difficult for me to have access to any official documents regarding the issues that I have raised throughout my research.

Despite these limitations, I believe that this study has generated rich data which have contributed to the knowledge of the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices, professionalism and professional development in a developing country such as Libya. Bearing that in mind, other potential areas for further research are suggested in the following section.

8.9 Suggestions for Further Research

When reviewing previous research regarding teaching and learning English in the Libyan context, it is evident that studies could reference to earlier research conducted in Libya, so the findings of one could inform the outcomes of others.

Based on the overall findings of this research, I could suggest further work needs to be carried out in the Libyan context with regard to:

- A need to investigate Libyan English inspectors' beliefs, views and practices. Such investigation may help to provide more insights into the evaluation and monitoring process in Libyan schools.

- A need to research and review of the pedagogical training and curriculum delivered to pre-service teachers in higher education.

- A need to consider alignment between schools' curricula aims and objectives, and the public examining system.

- A need to explore and explain the significance of involving teachers in curriculum decisions.

- Also, as the ultimate aim for PD is to support and encourage better teaching and learning, another research possibility could be to evaluate the impact of any future PD and CPD opportunities on the teaching and learning process inside the classrooms. The focus could be on measuring the impact of PD and CPD programmes on the teachers' practices and its influence on the students' learning.

8.10 Reflections on the Researcher' s Development

The process of conducting this research consisted of a number of key stages through which I learned a number of things and gained various experiences. These stages were: when making amendments and final decisions on the research topic, searching and reading through the relevant literature, mapping the best methodological and theoretical design of the study, decisions on the process of data collection, transcribing, coding, analysing the data, and finally interpreting the results. All that

helped to enlighten and enrich my thoughts about the research experience. As a result, I have learned a wide range of experiences. I have gained much knowledge about social science research, the research philosophies, culture and environments. A number of my own skills have been developed such as the IT skills, searching, reading, summarising, paraphrasing, expressing own academic and personal views, problem- solving and decision-making, making critical judgements, and time management. More practically, the research period was a great chance for me to set for a while away from my work environment and to critically reflect on it through the scientific research enquiry. This has helped to broaden my thoughts and beliefs about my job as a university lecturer. This experience has justly been a noteworthy period of reflection on both sides of my life: academic and personal.

Conducting this study in an on-going conflict environment as a female researcher was at time both difficult and stressful. I had to be adaptable, confidant and positive in order to succeed. I was continually encouraging myself to be patient in order to achieve my aim. It was also a stage where I learned about dealing with the research participants, as advised by Fontana and Frey, of being objective, flexible, persuasive, empathic and a good listener (2000, p.652).

Reflexivity has been one of the most significant terms I have learned throughout this research experience. At every stage of this study, I aimed to be self-reflective and consider my role as a researcher with a critical awareness. I examined this by considering two main positions: the insider one as a Libyan female citizen and an English language teacher who had had similar experiences to the participant teachers. This position of sharing and understanding enhanced my role as a researcher and informed my choices of what might be more significand and relevant to be discussed, though I was aware of the possibility of

bias affecting interpretations. To overcome this, critical scrutiny was adopted reflexively as an all-through frame. This reflects the outsider position as a researcher who looks to stand back and achieve balance within the whole process of research.

Despite all of the positivity of this experience and the great enjoyable moments it carried when certain aims and duties were achieved, there were moments of difficulties, frustration and disappointments. Because every stage of this research had its own worries and difficulties such as lack of confidence, uncertainty, confusion, stress, and anxiety.

References

Abukhattala, I. (2016). The use of technology in language classrooms in Libya. International Journal of Social Science and Humanity, 6(4), 262-267. http://www.ijssh.org/vol6/655-H019.pdf

Abusrewel, F. (2002). The Use of the Learner's Mother Tongue in Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Some Libyan Secondary Schools in Tripoli. Unpublished MA, The Academy of Graduate Studies, Tripoli. Libya.

Abusrewel, F. (2014). 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. PhD thesis. University of Huddersfield, United Kingdom.

Adey, P. (2004). The Professional Development of teachers: Practice and Theory. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston, MA.

Adey, P., Hewitt, G., Hewitt, J., and Landau, N. (2004). The professional development of teachers: Practice and theory. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic.

Ahmad, M. A. (2001). A Critical Evaluation of the Error Correction Techniques used by Libyan Teachers of English at the Secondary Schools. PhD thesis, The Academy of Graduate Studies, Tripoli, Libya.

Ajzen, I. (1985). From intentions to action: A Theory of Planned Behaviour. In J. Huhl, and J. Beckman (Eds.), Will; performance; control (psychology); motivation (psychology), pp.11–39. Berlin and New York: Springer-Verlag.

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behaviour. Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes, 50(2), pp.179-211.

Ajzen, I. (2005). Attitudes, personality, and behaviour *(1st ed.). Maidenhead,*

Berkshire, England: Open University Press.

Ajzen, I. (2011). Reflections on Morgan and Bachrach's critique. *Vienna Yearbook of Population Research*, *1*, pp.63– 69.

Aldabbus, S. (2008). An investigation into the impact of language games on classroom interaction and pupil learning in Libyan EFL primary classrooms. Newcastle University, United Kingdom.

Alderson, J. C., Clapham, C. and Wall, D. (1995). Language test construction and evaluation. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Alhmali, R. J. (2007). Student Attitudes in the Context of the Curriculum in Libyan Education in Middle and High Schools. PhD thesis. University of Glasgow, Glasgow.

Allen, L. Q. (2002). Teachers' pedagogical beliefs and the standards for foreign language learning. Foreign Language Annals, 35 (5), pp. 518-529.

Allen, L. Q. (2013). Teachers' beliefs about developing language proficiency within the context of study abroad. System.

AL Moghani, H. M. (2003). Students' perceptions of motivation in English language learning in Libya. PhD, University of Durham.

Alshibany, E. (2014). Investigating Libyan Teachers' Perception of Communicative Language Teaching. ICERI 2014 Proceedings: iated Digital Library. ISBN: 978-84-617-2484-0. ISSN: 2340-1095. pp. 3978-3988.

Altaieb, S. (2013). Teachers' Perception of the English language Curriculum in Libyan Public Schools: An investigation and assessment of implementation process of English curriculum in Libyan public high schools. PhD thesis, University of Denver.

Andrade, A. Z. (2009). Interpretive Research Aiming at Theory Building: Adopting and Adopting the Case Study design. Journal Article, The Qualitative Report. Vol. 14, No. 1, pp. 42-60.

Arabsheibani, R., and Manfor,Lamine (2001). Non-Linearities in Returns to Education in Libya. Education Economics, 9(2), pp.139-144.

Asker, A. (2011). Future self-guides and language learning engagement of English major secondary school students in Libya: understanding the interplay between possible selves and the L2 learning situation. Unpublished PhD Thesis, Birmingham University, Birmingham.

Aslam, M. (2003). Teaching of English: A practical course for B Ed students. New

Delhi: Foundation Books.

Alvesson, M. and Skoldberg, K. (2009). Reflexive Methodology: New Vistas for Qualitative Research. 2nd edition. Sage Publication Ltd.

Andrade, A. Z. (2009). Interpretive Research Aiming at Theory Building: Adopting and Adopting the Case Study design. Journal Article, The Qualitative Report. Vol. 14, No. 1, P:42-60.

Anderson, L. W. (2002). Curriculum Alignment: A Re-Examination, Theory into Practice, V. 41, No.4.

Asker, A. (2011). Future self-guides and language learning of English major secondary school students in Libya: Understanding the interplay between possible selves and the L2 learning situation. University of Birmingham. PhD thesis.

Attardo, S., and Brown, S. (2005). What's the use of linguistics? Pre-service English teachers' beliefs towards language use and variation. In N. Bartels (Ed.), Applied linguistics and language teacher education. New York: Springer. pp. 91-102

Bailey, K.M. (1999). Washback in Language Testing. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

Baker, L. M. (2006). Observation: A complex research method. Library Trends, 55 (1), pp.171-189.

Basit, T, N. (2010). Conducting Research in Educational Contexts. London, Continuum.

Basturkmen, H., Loewen, S., and Eliss, R. (2004). Teachers, stated beliefs about incidental focus on form and their classroom practices. Applied Linguistics, 25 (2), pp. 243 272.

Bax, S. (2004). The end of CLT: a context approach to language teaching. ELT Journal 57 (3), pp. 278-87.

Bean, R. (2004). The reading specialist: Leadership for the classroom, school, and community. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Bean, R. and Morewood, A. (2006). Promising practices in professional development. In Promising Practices in Literacy Instruction. (Eds. Gambrell, Pressley, and Morrow). New York: Guilford Press.

Beishamayum, S. (2010). Difficulties faced by Manipuri speakers due to Cultural differences in Learning English. MJAL Journal, ISSN 0974-8741, pp.210-222.

Bell, J. (2010). Doing Your Research Project: A guide for first-time researchers in

education, health and social science. Fifth edition. Open University Press.

Bell, J. (1999). Doing Your Research Project. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Berg, B.L. (2004) Qualitative research methods for the social sciences. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

BERA. (2011). Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research.

Birello, M. (2012). Teacher Cognition and Language Teacher Education: Beliefs and Practice. A conversation with Simon Borg. Bellaterra Journal of Teaching & Learning Language & Literature, 5(2), pp 88-94.

Blaxter, L. Hughes, C. and Tight, M. (2001). How to research. 2nd edition, Open University Press, Philadelphia, Buckingham.

Bogdan, R. C. and S. K. Biklen (1998) Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Borko, H. (2004). Professional Development and Teacher Learning: Mapping the Terrain. Educational Researcher, 33(8), pp. 3-15.

Borg, M. (2001). Teachers' beliefs. ELT Journal, 55(2), pp. 186-188.

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. Language Teaching, 36, pp. 81-109.

Borg, S. (2006). Teacher cognition and language education: research and practice. London: Continuum.

Borg, S. and Al-Busaidi, S. (2011). Teachers' beliefs and practices regarding learner autonomy. ELT Journal, 66, 3.

Boyle, B., Lampiranou, I., and Boyle, T. (2005). A longitudinal study of teacher change: What makes professional development effective? Report of the second year of the study. School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 16(1), pp.1–27.

Braun, V. and Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic Analysis in Psychology, Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3, pp. 77-101.

Britten, D. (1988). Three stages in teacher training. ELT Journal, 42(1), 3-8.

Brown, H. D. (2007). Teaching by Principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.

Burns, A. (2009). Action research in second language teacher education. In Burns, A. and Richards, J. C. (eds.), The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 289–297.

Bryman, A. (2008). Social Research Methods, 3rd edition. Oxford University Press, New York.

Bullock, S. M. (2012). *Inside teacher education: Challenging prior views of teaching and learning*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Cabaroğlu, N. (1999). Development of student teachers' beliefs about learning and teaching in the context of a one-year Postgraduate Certificate of Education programme in Modern Foreign Languages. Unpublished PhD thesis. University of Reading: Reading, UK.

Calderhead, J. (1996). Teachers: Beliefs and Knowledge. In D. Berliner and R. Calfee (Eds.), Handbook of Educational Psychology. Nova York: Macmillan. pp. 709-725.

Calderhead, J. and Robson, M. (1991). Images of teaching: Student teachers' early conceptions ofclassroom practice. Teaching and Teacher Education 7(1), pp. 1-8.

Canale, M., and Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. Applied Linguistics, 1(1), 1–47.

Canh, L. V. (2011). Form-focused instruction: A case study of Vietnamese teachers' beliefs and practices. Unpublished Ph.D Thesis, The University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand.

Carless, D., 2004. Issues in teachers' reinterpretation of a task-based innovation in primary schools. TESOL Quarterly, 38 (4), 639-662.

Chapman, C., 2001. Changing classrooms through inspection. School leadership and Management, 21 (1), p.59-73.

Charmas, K. (2006). Constructing Ground Theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis. London Sage.

Cheng, S., Lam, T. and Hsu, C. H. C. (2005), Testing the Sufficiency of the Theory of Planned Behaviour: A Case Study of Customer Dissatisfaction Response in Restaurants. Hospitality Management, 24, pp. 475-492.

Cochran-Smith, M., and Lytle, S. (1999). 'Teacher Learning Communities'. Review of Research in Education, 24, 24-32.

Cohen, L and Manion, L. (1994). Research Methods in Education, 4th edition. London: Routledge.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2007). Research Methods in Education. (6th ed.). London: Routledge.

Clarke, D J, and Hollingsworth, H (2002) Elaborating a model of teacher professional

growth Teaching and Teacher Education, 18(8), pp. 947-967.

Cochran-Smith, M., and Lytle, S. (1999). Relationships of knowledge and practice: Teacher learning in communities. In A. Iran-Nejad and P. Pearson (Eds.), Review of Education, 24, pp.249-305.

Collis, J. and Hussey, R. (2003), Business Research: A Practical Guide for Undergraduate and Postgraduate Students, Palgrave Macmillan, Hound mills, Basingstoke, Hampshire.

Condie, R. and Munro, B. (2007). The impact of ICT in schools - a landscape review (Report to Becta). DfES. The National Curriculum online (http://www.nc.uk.net/nc/contents/Ma-home.htm, accessed 2015).

Conner, M. Povey, R. Sparks, P. and James, R. (2003). Moderating the Role of Attitude Ambivalence within the TPB. British Journal of Social Psychology, 42(1), pp. 75-94.

Cortazzi, M. and Jin, L. (1997). Culture of learning: Language classrooms in China. In H. Coleman (Ed.), Society and the language classroom, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp.169-206.

Cowan, R. (2008). The Teacher's Grammar of English. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Crookes, G. and Arakaki, L. (1999). Teaching idea sources and work conditions in an ESL program. TESOL Journal, 8, pp.15–19.

Creswell, J. (2012). Educational Research: Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating and Qualitative Research. London: Pearson.

Creswell, J, (2003). Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches. Sage Publications, Ltd.

Crotty, M. (1998). The Foundation of Social Research: Meaning and Perspective in the Research Process. London: Sage.

Crumley, J. S. (2009). An Introduction to Epistemology, second edition, Toronto (ON): Broadviewpress.

Day, C. (1999). Developing Teachers: The challenges of lifelong learning. London: Falmer.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2000). How teacher education matters. Journal of Teacher Education, 51, pp. 166-173.

Darling-Hammond, L., Chung, R. and Frelow, F. (2002). Variation in Teacher

Preparation – how well do different pathways prepare teachers to teach? Journal of Teacher Education, 53, (4), pp.286-302.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2003). Keeping Good Teachers: Why It Matters, What Leaders Can Do. *Educational Leadership, 60*(8), pp.6-13.

Dawson, C. (2002). Practical Research Methods: A user-friendly guide to mastering research. Oxford: How to books Ltd.

Deng, C., and Carless, D. R. (2010). Examination preparation or effective teaching: Conflicting priorities in the implementation of a pedagogic innovation. Language Assessment Quarterly, 7(4), pp. 285-302.

Denscombe, M. (2002). Ground Rules for Good Research: a 10-point guide for social researchers. Philadelphia, Open University Press.

Denscombe, M. (2007). The Good Research Guide: for small- scale social research, (4rd edition). McGraw: Open University Press.

Denzin, N. K., and Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.) (2000). Handbook of qualitative research (2nd edition). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. K. Denizin and Y. S. Lincoln (Eds), The Sage handbook of qualitative research, (3rd edition), pp. 1-32. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Department of Foreign Information (DFI), (1991). Al Jamahiriy: A horizons and prospects (2nd edition) Libya: Dar Elmarf.

Dörnyei, Z. (2003). Attitudes, orientations, and motivations in language learning: Advances in theory, research and applications. Language Learning, 53(1), pp. 3-32.

Desforges, C. (1995). An Introduction to Teaching: Psychological Perspectives. Oxford: Blackwell.

Desimone, L. M. (2009) Improving impact studies of teachers' professional development: toward better conceptualisations and measures. Educational Researcher 38, 181-199.

Duffy, G. (2005). Metacognition and the development of reading teachers. In C. Block, S. Israel, K. Kinnucan-Welsch, and K. Bauserman (Eds.), Metacognition and literacy learning, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, pp. 299–314.

Elabbar, A. A. (2011). An investigation of influences affecting Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs), teaching approaches in the language classrooms. Unpublished PhD Thesis, University of Glasgow.

316

Elbaz, F. (1981). The teacher's practical knowledge: A report of a case study. Curriculum Inquiry, 11(1), pp. 43-71.

El-Fathaly, O. and Monte, P. (1980). Political Development and Social Change in Libya. Massachusetts: Lexington.

Ellis, R. (2006). Current issues in the teaching of grammar: An SLA perspective. TESOL Quarterly, 40, pp.83–107.

Ellis, R. (2001). Introduction: Investigating form-focused instruction. Language Learning, 51 (Supplement s1), pp. 1-46.

Elmabruk, R. (2008). Using the Internet to Support Libyan In-service EFL Teachers' Professional Development. PhD Thesis: University of Nottingham.

Erkmen, (2010)

Eslami, Z. and Fatahi, A., (2008). Teachers' sense of self-efficacy, English proficiency, and instructional strategies: a study of non-native EFL teachers in Iran". TESL-EJ, 11(4), pp. 1-19.

Fang, Z. (1996). A review of research on teacher beliefs and practices. Educational Research, 38(1), pp. 47-65.

Farrell, T. S. C. (2007). Reflective language teaching: From research to practice. London: Continuum Press.

Farrell, T. S. C., and Lim. P. C. P. (2005, September). Conceptions of grammar teaching: A case study of teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. TESL-EJ, 9(2). Retrieved November 6, 2008, from http:// tesl-ej.org/ej34/a9.pdf

Farrell, T.S.C. and S.T.K. Kun (2008). Language policy, language teachers' beliefs, and classroom practices. Applied Linguistics, 29(3), pp.381-403.

Fives, H. and Buehl, M. M. (2012). Spring Cleaning for the "Messy" Construct of Teachers' Beliefs: What are They? Which have been examined? What can they tell us? In K. R. Harris, S. Graham, T. Urdan, S. Graham, J. M. Royer, and Zeidner (Eds), APA educational psychology handbook: Individual differences and cultural ad contextual factors (Vol.2, pp. 4sigto, 71-499). Washington, DC: America Psychological Association.

Fives, H. and Gill, M. G. (2015). International Handbook of Research on Teachers' beliefs. London and New York: Routledge.

Flick, U. (1998). An Introduction to Qualitative Research. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Flick, U. (2002). An Introduction to Qualitative Research. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Flores, M. A. (2001). Person and context in becoming a new teacher. Journal of Education for Teaching, 27(2), pp.135-148.

Flores, M. A. (2005). Mapping New Teacher Change: findings from a two-year study. Teacher Development, 9(3), pp.389-412.

Fontana, A. and Frey, J.H. (2000). The interview: from structured questions to negotiated text. In N.K. Denzin and Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), Handbook of Qualitative Research, pp.645-672. London: Sage.

Freeman, D., and Richards, (1996). Teacher Learning in Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Fullan, M., and Stiegelbauer, S. (1991). The new meaning of educational change. New York: Teachers College Press.

Fullan, M. (2001). The New Meaning of Educational Change (3rd ed.). London: Teachers College Press.

Fullan, M. (2007). The New Meaning of Educational Change. London and New York: Routledge

Furinghetti, F. and Pehkonen, E. (2002). Rethinking characterizations of belief. In Leder, G., Pehkonen, E. and Törner, G. (ed.), *Beliefs: A hidden variable in mathematics education?* Dordrecht: Kluwer, pp. 39–57.

Gadour, A. (2006). Libyan children's views on the Importance of school factors which contributed to their emotional and behavioural Difficulties. School Psychology International, Vol. 27(2), pp. 171-191.

Gahin, G. H. (2001). An investigation into EFL teachers' beliefs and practices in Egypt: An exploratory study. Unpublished PhD thesis. University of Exeter, UK.

Garcia, L. and Quek, F. (1997). Qualitative Research in information systems: Time to be subjective? A paper presented at the proceedings of the IFIP TC8 WG 8.2 International Conference on information system and qualitative research, Philadelphia, PA.

Gardner, D. and M. Davis (2014) A New Academic Vocabulary List. Applied Linguistics 35(3), pp.305-327.

Gass, S. M., and Mackey, A. (2007). Input, interaction, and output in second language acquisition. In B. Vanpatten, and J. Williams (Eds.), Theories in second language acquisition (pp. 175-200). London: LEA.

Gerring, J. (2004). What is a case study and what is it good for? American Political Science Review 98 (2), pp. 341-54.

Glenn A. Bowen, (2009). Document Analysis as a Qualitative Research Method, Qualitative Research Journal, Vol. 9 Iss: (2), pp. 27-40.

Gordon, S. P., and Maxey, S (Ed.). (2000). *How to Help Beginning Teachers Succeed* (2 ed.). Alexandria -Virginia.

GPCE (General People's Committee of Education) 2008. The development of education: national report of Libya. For the Session (48) of the International Conference on Education. Geneva, from 25-28 November 2008.

Graves, K. (2008). The language curriculum: A social contextual perspective. Language Teaching, 41(2), pp.147-181.

Gray, J. (2000). The ELT Course book as cultural artefact: how teachers censor and adapt. ELT Journal 54(3), pp.274-283.

Greenbank, P. (2003). The Role of Values in Educational Research: The case for reflexivity, British Educational Journal, 29 (6).

Greenlee, B., and Dedeugd, Inez S. (2002). From hope to despair: the need for beginner teacher advocacy. *Teacher development, 6*(1), pp.63-74.

Guba, E. G. And Lincoln, Y. S. (1989). Fourth Generation Evaluation. Newbury Park, London and New Delhi: Sage publications, Ltd.

Guba, E. G. and Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing Paradigms in Qualitative Research. In N. K. Denzin and Y. S. Lincoln (Eds), Handbook of Qualitative Research. London: Sage Publications. pp. 105-117

Gusbi, M. (1966). English for Libya. University of London Press Ltd.

Gusbi, M., 1984. Living English for Libya: Teacher's Handbook 3. Tripoli: General Publication Distribution and advertising Co.

Guskey, T. R. (2000). Evaluating professional development. Thousand Oaks, Ca., Corwin Press.

Guskey, T. R. (2002). Professional development and teacher change. Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 8(3), pp. 381-391.

Haider, M. Z., and Chowdhury, T. A. (2012). Repositioning of CLT from Curriculum to Classroom: A Review of the English Language Instructions at Bangladeshi Secondary Schools. International Journal of English Linguistics, 2(4), p.12.

Hall, G. (2011). Exploring English Language Teaching. London: Routledge

Hammerly, H. (1982). Contrastive phonology and error analysis. International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 20 (1-4), pp. 17-32. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/iral.1982.20.1-4.17

Hammersley, M. and Traianou, A. (2012). *Ethics in Qualitative Research: Controversies and contexts.* Los Angeles, London, and New Delhi: SAGE.

Hargreaves, A. (2000). Four ages of professionalism and professional learning. Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 6 (2), pp. 151-182, doi:10.1080/713698714, Retrieved from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/713698714.

Harris, A. (2003). Behind the classroom door: The challenge of organizational and pedagogical change. Journal of Educational Change, 4(4), 369-382.

Harwell, Sandra H. (2003). Teacher professional development; It's not an event, It's a process. CORD. Retrieved from http://www.cord.org/uploadedfiles/HarwellPaper.pdf

Hatano, G. and Inagaki, K. (2000). Domain-specific constraints of conceptual development. International Journal of Behavioural Development, 24, pp. 267-275.

Hedge, T. (2000). Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hennink, M. M., Hutter, Inge., and Bailey, Ajay. (2011). *Qualitative research methods.* London; Los Angeles: Sage.

Higgs, J., Horsfall, D. and Grace, S. (2009). Writing Qualitative Research on Practice. Sense Publishers.

Hinkel, E., and Fotos, S. (2002). New perspectives on grammar teaching in second language. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Hismanoglu, M., and Hismanoglu, S. (2010). English language teachers' perceptions of educational supervision in relation to their professional development: A case study of Northern Cyprus. *Research on Youth and Language, 4*(1), pp. 16-34.

Hopkins, D. (2002). School Improvement for Real. London: Falmer Press.

Hord, S. (2004). Learning together, leading together: Changing schools through professional learning communities. New York: Teachers College Press and NSDC.

Houghton, W. (2004). Constructive Alignment and why it is important to the learning process. Loughborough: HEA Engineering Subject Cater.

Hussein, F. (2006). Exploring Attitude and Difficulties in School Chemistry in the Emirates. Glasgow UK, PhD Thesis, University of Glasgow, Glasgow.

Huberman, M. (1992). Teacher development and instructional mastery. In A. Hargreaves and M. Fullan (Eds.), Understanding teacher development, New York, NY: Longman Publishers. pp. 216-241

Hunjan, R. and J. Pettit (2011). Power: A Practical Guide for Facilitating Social Change. Dunfermline, Carnegie UK Trust, Democracy and Civil Society Programme.

Hymes, D. (2001). On Communicative Competence. In A. Duranti (Ed.). *Linguistic anthropology: A reader*. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishers Ltd. pp. 53-73.

Ingvarson, L., Meiers, M. and Beavis, A. (2004). The effects of structural and process features of professional development programs on teachers' knowledge, practice and efficacy. Proceedings of the Australian Association for Research in Education Conference, Melbourne.

Jalova, M. (2013). Speaking in Tongues across Lingua Cultural Boundaries. GSTF International Journal on Education (JEd), Vol.1 No.1. pp.71- 75.

Johnson, K. (1994) The emerging beliefs and instructional practices of preservice English as a Second Language teachers. Teaching and Teacher Education, 10 (4), pp.439-452.

Joseph, S. and Juwah, C. (2012). Using constructive alignment theory to develop nursing skills curricula. Nurse Education in Practice, 12, pp. 52-59.

Kennedy, Mary M. (1997). Defining an ideal teacher education program. Washington, DC: National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education. pp. 1-29.

Kinnucan-Welsch, K., Rosemary, C. A., and Grogan, P. R. (2006). Accountability by design in literacy professional development. The Reading Teacher, 59, pp.426–435.

Klapper, J. (1992). Preliminary Considerations for the Teaching of Foreign Language Reading. Language Learning journal. Vol. 6 (53), pp.27-30.

Krashen, S. (1981). Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Kuzborska, I. (2011). Links between teachers' beliefs and practices and research on reading. Reading in a Foreign Language, 23(1), pp.102-128.

Lackey, J, (2007). Why we don't deserve credit for everything we know? Synthese,

p.156.

Layish, A. (1998). Legal Documents on Libyan Tribal Society in Process of Sedentarization, Pt. I: The Documents are in Arabic, with an anthropological critique by John Davis. Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz.

Layish, A. and Borg, A. (2005). Sharyiah and Custom in Libyan Tribal Society: An Annotated Translation of Decisions from Sharyiah Courts of Adjabiya and Kufra. Brill Leiden: Boston.

Levy, P., Ford, N., Foster, J., Madden, A., Miller, D., Baptista Nunes, J., McPherson, M. A. and S. Webber (2003) Educational informatics: An emerging research agenda'. Journal of Information Systems 29(4), pp. 298–315.

Lewis, H. (1990). A Question of Values. San Francisco: Harper and Row.

Lightbown, P. and Spada, N. (1999). *How languages are learned* (2nd ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.

Lincoln, Y. S. and Denzin, N. K. (2003). *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Lindsay, C. and Knight, P. (2006). Learning and Teaching English: A course for teachers. Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press.

Littlewood, W. (1981). Communicative Language Teaching. Cambridge University Press.

Mac Naughton, G., Rolfe S. A. and Siraj- Blatchford, I. (2001). Doing Early Childhood Research: International perspectives on theory and practice. Australia: Allen and Unwind.

Maiklad, C. (2001). The beliefs and practices of Thai English language teachers. Unpublished PhD thesis. University of Exeter, UK.

Markee, N. (1997). Managing Curricular Innovation. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Marshall, C. and Rossman, G. (1999). Designing Qualitative Research, 3rd edition. London: Sage Publication.

Martin, E., Prosser, M., Trigwell, K., Ramsden, P. and Benjamin, J. (2000). What university teachers teach and how they teach it. Instructional Science, 28(5), pp. 387-412.

Mason, J. (2002). Qualitative Interviewing: Asking, listening and interpreting. In T. May (Ed.), Qualitative Research in Action (PP.225-240). London: Sage Publication.

Matthews, B. and Ross, L. (2010). Research Methods: A practical guide for the social sciences. England, Pearson.

Maxwell, J. (1996). Qualitative Research Design. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Maxwell, J. A. (2012). Qualitative Research Design: An Interactive Approach: An Interactive Approach: Sage.

May, T. (1997) Social Research: Issues, methods and Process (2nd Edn.). Buckingham: Open University Press.

May, T. (2001). Social Research: Isues, Methods and Process, 3rd edition. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

McGrath, I. (2013). Teaching Materials and the Roles of EFL/ESL Teachers: Practice and Theory. London: Blooms

McIntyre, E., Kyle, D. W., Chen, C, T., Kraemer, J. and Parr, J. (2009). 6 Principles for Teaching English Language Learners in all Classrooms. California: Crown Press.

Mertens, D. M. (2005). Research Methods in Education and Pcychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative and qualitative approaches, 2nd edition. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Metcalfe, B. D., 2006. Exploring cultural dimensions of gender and management in the Middle East. Thunderbird International Business Review, 48 (1), pp.93-107.

Mingers, J. (2001). Combining IS research methods: Towards a pluralist methodology. Information Systems Research, 12(3), pp. 240-259.

Morrison, M. and Scott, D. (2007). Keys ideas in Educational Research. Continuum International Publishing Group.

Myers, M. D. (2009). Qualitative research in business and management. London, UK: Sage

Najeeb, S. (2013). The business of teaching English as a second language: A Libyan case study. Proceedings of social and behavioural science, 70. pp.1243-1253.

Nassaji, H., and Fotos, S. (2004). Current Developments in Research on the Teaching of Grammar. Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 24, pp. 126-145.

Nespor, J. (1987). The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching. Journal of Curriculum Studies, 19(4), pp. 317-328.

Newton, H. Z. (2011). Chinese Teachers' Self-Reported Beliefs and Practices Related to Majority and Minority Students in Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region. Ph.D. Thesis, University of Washington.

Nightingale, D. and J. Cromby (Eds.) (1999) Social constructionist psychology, Buckingham: Open University Press.

O'Connor, R. E., Fulmer, D., Harty, K. R., and Bell, K. M. (2005). Layers of reading intervention in kindergarten through third grade: Changes in teaching and student outcomes. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 38, pp.440 –455.

O'leary, M. (2014). Classroom Observation: A Guide to the effective observation of teaching and learning. London: Routledge.

O'Neill, S. and Gish, A. (2008). *Teaching English as a Second Language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Oniaba, A. (2013). Investigating the Wash-back Effect of a Revised EFL Public Examination on Teachers' Instructional Practices, Materials and Curriculum. PhD Thesis, University of Leicester

Orafi, S., M. S. (2008). Investigating Teachers' Practices and Beliefs in Relation to Curriclulum Innovation in English Langauge Teaching in Libya. Unpublished PhD, University of Leeds.

Orafi, S. M. S. And Borg, S. (2009) Intentions and realities in implementing communicative curriculum reform. System 37(2). pp. 243-253.

Oxford, R. L. (1990). Language learning strategies. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle publishers.

Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' Beliefs and Educational Research: Cleaning up a messy construct. Review of Education Research, 62(3), pp. 207-332.

Patton, M.Q. (2002) Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Peacock, M., 1998. Exploring the gap between teachers' and learners' beliefs about 'useful' activities for EFL". International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 8 (2), pp. 233-250.

Peacock, M. (2001). Pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about second language learning: A longitudinal study. *System, 29* (2), pp.177-195.

Philipp, R. A. (2007). Mathematics teachers' beliefs and affect. In Lester, F. Jr. (ed.), Second handbook of research on mathematics teaching and learning. Charlotte (NC): Information Age Publishing, pp. 257–315

Phipps, S. and Borg, S. (2009). Exploring tensions between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. System, 37(3), pp. 380-390.

Polkinghrne, D. E. (2005). Language and Meaning: Data Collection in Qualitative Research. Journal of Counselling Psychology, 52, pp.137-145.

Powell, R. P. (2002). The influence of prior experiences on pedagogical constructs on traditional and non-traditional preservice teachers. Teaching and Teacher Education, 8(3), pp.225-238.

Pridham, B. A., Deed, C. and Cox, P. (2013). Workplace-Based Practicum: Enabling Expansive Practices. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 38*(4), pp.50-64.

Punchihetti, S. (2013). First, Second and Foreign Language: how distinctive are they from one another? A paper presented at the proceedings of the European Conference on Language Learning. The International Academic Forum.

Randall, M. (2007). Memory, Psychology and Second Language Learning. Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Rehm (2010). Interprtive data management and analysis, (Chapter 15: pp.142-153). The book: Improving Health through Nursing Research. Editor: Holzemer, W. L. (2010). Wiley- Blackwell.

Richards, J., and Renandya, W. (2002). Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice. Cambridge: Cambridge University press.

Richards, J. C., and Lockhard, C. (1994). Reflective teaching. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C., and Rodgers, T. S. (1986). *Approaches and methods in language teaching: A description and analysis.* Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C., and Rodgers, T. S. (2001). Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Richardson, V. (1996). The role of attitudes and beliefs in learning to teach. In J. Sikula (Ed.), The handbook of research in teacher education (2nd ed., pp.102-119). New York: Macmillan.

Richardson, V. (1994). Teacher change and the staff development process: A case in reading instruction. New York: Teachers College Press.

Robson, C. (2002). Real World Research. 2ed edition, Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Rodrigues, S. (2010). Using analytical Frameworks for Classroom Research: Collecting Data and Analysing Narrative. London: Routledge.

Rothenberg, C. and Fisher, D. (2007). Teaching English Language Learners: A differentiated approach. New Jersey and Ohio: Pearson.

Sandelowski, M. and Barroso, J. (2002). Finding the Findings in Qualitative Studies. Jurnal of nursing scholarship, 34(3), pp. 213-220.

Sapsford, R. and Jupp, V. (2006). Data Collection and Analysis. The Open University. Sage Publications Ltd.

Sato, K., and Kleinsasser, R. C. (2004). Beliefs, practices, and interactions of teachers in a Japanese high school English department. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 20*(8), 797-816.

Sawani, F. (2009). Factors affecting English teaching and its materials preparation in Libya. Unpublished PhD Thesis, University of Essex.

Schmitt, N. (1998). Tracking the incremental acquisition of second language vocabulary: A longitudinal study. Language Learning, 48(2), pp.281–317.

Schmitt, N., X. Jiang and W.Grabe (2011). The percentage of words known in a text and reading comprehension. The Modern Language Journal95(1), pp.26-43.

Schulz, R. (2005). The Practicum: More than Practice. *Canadian Journal of Education 28* (1 and 2), pp.147-167.

Schwandt, T. A. (1994). Constructivist, interpretivist approaches to human inquiry. In N. K. Denzin and Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), Handbook of qualitative research (pp. 118-137). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Schwandt, T. A. (2001). Dictionary of qualitative inquiry (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Scotland, J. (2012). Exploring the philosophical Underpinnings of Research: Relating Ontology and Epistimology to the Methodology and Methods of Scientific, Interpretive, and Critical Research Paradigms. Journal Article. English Language Teaching. Vol. 5, No. 9, pp. 9-16.

Shihiba, S. E. S. (2011). An investigation of Libyan EFL teachers' conceptions of the communicative learner-centred approach in relation to their implementation of an English language curriculum innovation in secondary schools. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Durham University, England.

Shulman, L. (1986). Those Who Understand: Knowledge Growth in Teaching. Educational Researcher, 15 (2), pp. 4-14.

Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and Teaching: Foundations of the New Reform. Harvard Educational Review, 57(1), pp.1-22.

Sinosi (2010). Linguistic and textual analysis of classroom English interaction at Altahadi University. Ph.D. dissertation. Western Cape University, South Africa.

Sparkes, A. C. (1992). The Paradigms Debate: An extended review and celebration of difference. In: Sparkes, A. C. Ed., Research in Physics Education and Sport. Exploring Alternative Visions. The Flamer Press, Lewes, pp. 9-60.

Stern, H. H. (1983). Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Sultana, F. (2007). Reflexivity, Positionality and Participatory Ethics: Negotiating Field Work Dilemmas in International Research. ACME: An international E-journal for Critical Geographies, 6(3), pp. 374-385.

Tang, C., and Biggs, J.B. (1995). 'Letters to a friend: Assessing conceptual change in professional development', paper given to Annual Conference, Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia, Rockhampton, July 3-7.

Tantani, A. (2005). Assessment of English as a foreign Language in Libyan Universities, Unpublished MA dissertation, University of Sunderland.

Taylor, P. C. and Medina, M. N. D. (2013). Educational Research Paradigms: From Positivism to Multiparadigmatic. The Journal of Meaning-Centred Education. Volume 1, No. 2.

Thompson, A.G. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and conceptions: A synthesis of the research. In Grouws, D.A (Ed.), Handbook of Research on Mathematics Teaching and Learning, New York, NY: National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. pp.127-146

Troudi, (2014). Using Technology in Foreign Language Teaching. Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Truscott, J. (1999). The case for "the case for grammar correction in L2 writing classes": A response to Ferris. Journal of Second Language Writing, 8, pp.111–122.

Tsui, A. B. M., (2003). Understanding Expertise in Teaching. Cambridge: CUP.

Tudor, I. (2001). The Dynamics of the Language Classroom. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Turbill, J. (2002). The role of a facilitator in a professional learning system: 'The Frameworks Project' . In Garry Hoban, Systems Thinking for Educational Change, [pp. 94-114] New York: Open University Press.

UNESCO. 1968. Libya: English teaching: a report written by L.C Parton, an English language specialist, for the government of Libya. Serial No. 899/ BMS.RD/EDM. Paris,

November 1968.Vanderstoep, S. W. and Johnston, D. D. (2009). Research Methods for Everyday Life: Blending Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches. San Francisco, CA: Jossey/ Bass-Wiley.

Van Keer, H., and Verhaeghe, J. P. (2005). Comparing two teacher development programs for innovating reading comprehension instruction with regard to teachers' experiences and student outcomes. Teaching and Teacher Education: An International Journal of Research and Studies, 21, pp.543–562.

Vanderstoep, S. W. and Johnston, D. D. (2009). Research Methods for Everyday Life: Blending Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches. San Francisco, CA: Jossey/ Bass-Wiley.

Verloop, N., Van Driel, J. and Meijer, P. (2001) Teacher knowledge and the knowledge base of teaching, International Journal of Educational Research, 35(5), pp. 441-461.

Vespoor, A. (1989) Pathways to change: Improving the quality of education in developing countries. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Vygotsky L S (1978) Mind in Society: The development of higher psychological processes. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wajnryb, R. (1992). Classroom Observation Tasks: A Resource Book for Language Teachers and Trainers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wacker, J.G. (1998). A definition of theory: research guidelines for different theory-building research methods in operations management. Journal of Operations Management 16 (4), pp. 361-385.

Wegner, D. M. and Wheatley, T. P. (1999). Apparent mental causation: Sources of the experience of will. American Psychologist, 54(7), pp. 480–492.

Wegner, Daniel (2002). The Illusion of Conscious Will MIT Press. "Précis of the Illusion of Conscious Will" Behavioural and Brain Sciences 27, pp. 649-692.

Weir, C. 1990. Understanding and Developing Language Tests. London: Prentice Hall.

Willig, C. (2001). Introducing qualitative research in psychology: Adventures in theory and method. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Willis, J. W. (2007). Foundations of qualitative research: Interpretive and critical approaches. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Williams, M., and Burden, R. (1997). Psychology for Language Teachers, Cambridge University Press.

Wilson, R. (2000). Teacher Development: an opportunity for cross-cultural cooperation. *ELT Journal, 54*(1), pp.65-71.

Winograd, P., and Johnston, P. (1987). Some considerations for advancing the teaching of reading comprehension. Educational Psychologist, 22(3 and 4), pp.213-230.

Wiseman, L. D., Knight, S. L. and Cooner, D. D. (2002). Becoming a Teacher in a Field based Setting: An Introduction to Education and Classrooms. London: Thomson Learning.

Woods, D. (1996). Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wu, W. (2008). Misunderstandings of communicative language teaching. English Language Teaching, 1(1), pp.50-53.

Yin, R.K. (2014). Case Study Research: Design and Methods. London: Sage Publication.

York-Barr, J., W. A. Sommers, G. S. Ghere, and J. Montie. (2001). Reflective practice to improve schools: An action guide for educators, Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Corwin Press.

Yousif, O. M., Osman, M. F., and Alhadrami, G. A. (1996). Evaluation of Date and Date Pits as Dietary Ingredients in Tilapia (Oreochromis aureus) Diets Differing in Protein Sources. Bioresearch Technology, 57, pp. 81-85. Retrieved From: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0960-8524(96)00054-5.

Appendix 1

The Standard Evaluative Form provided by the Libyan MoE to be used by Inspectors of English

Form, N9 Education	Ministry of Education

Administration of Education Inspectorate

Certificate for Evaluating

Teacher of English Language Performance

Area of Educational Inspection Office ....

School:- .... Name of Teacher:- ....

Nationality : - .... Qualification:- ....

Date of Graduation :- .... Date of Appointment: - ....

Specialization : - ....

Classes he/ she is in charge of : - ....

Number of classes per week : - ....

Date of Visit	Classes being visited	Lesson / Unit	Attendees	Absentees

Details on the visit	1st visit	2nd visit	3rd visit	4th visit	average	remarks
Intellectual performance and written lesson plan (15 marks)						
Follow up of written activities (7 marks)						
Use of audio - visual aids / materials (8 marks)						
Methods and procedures (12 marks)						
Application of syllabus and its effect on students progress						
a : Amount of syllabus being taught (7 marks)						
b : Student's competence (12 marks)						
Teacher's language ability						
a: Pronunciation (5 marks)						
b : Structure (5 marks)						
c : Fluency (5 marks)						
Teacher's character and conduct						
a: Appearance (5 marks)						
b : His / Her relation with students (5 marks)						
General activities related to the subject (5 marks)						
Teacher's cooperation with the inspector (9 marks)						
Total Marks 100 marks						
Average						

327

Appendix 2

Questionnaire Questions

Section A:

Place of graduation: College of Teachers Training .... College of Arts ....

 Others/ please specify ………………………

Year of Graduation: ....

Qualifications: Bachelor ....   Deploma ....   Master .... Others ....

Gender: Male ....   Female ....

School: …………………………   **Number of students in your class:** ....

Students Level: (Preparatory) .... (Secondary) ....

Total years of teaching English: 1-5 .....   6-10 .....   11-15 .....   16-20 ......   21+ .....

Section B:

1- What is your main aim when teaching English for your students?

 a) Ensure they pass their exams successfully. (.....)

 b) Assist them to interact effectively using English language. (.....)

 c) I just teach them and they do what they like. (.....)

 d) Other. ....

 ....

 2- What teaching and learning strategies do you employ in your English classes?

 ....

 ....

....

Why?

....

....

....

....

3- What is the main thing you do to help your students to learn English?

....

....

....

Why do you think so?

....

....

....

<u>**Section C:**</u>

Have you ever attended any training courses about teaching English?

....

....

....

If so, what was the main focus of those courses?

....

....

....

Were they useful?

....

....

....

How did those courses help you in your teaching career?

....

....

....

<u>Note:</u>

Please identify if you are interested in being observed when delivering a lesson and willing to be interviewed. Please read the following notes before you make a final decision:

a) The observation will be three times when you are delivering a lesson. Every observation session will be followed by an interview at your convenience.

b) The interview will be between 30 to 45 minutes long.

    Yes ...... (If yes, please complete the information below)   No ....

c) Recording the interview is preferable, but it will be left to you to decide.

    Yes ....   No ....

d) The language used in the interview will be left to your choice (Arabic, or English)

Appendix 3

Samples of Observations' Written Field Notes

Observations Transcripts

Because they are semi-structured observations, the following points were always present in the observer's mind in every observation:

1- The classroom environment, just in case of being a factor affecting the teaching and learning process in any way.

2- The teacher's practices (behaviours) inside the classroom.

- The role she or he plays as a teacher (instructor or facilitator/ traditional or innovative)

- Teaching techniques and strategies

- Teacher and students' relationships

- Does the teacher follow the instructions provided in the teacher's book?

3- The way students respond to all of the teacher's practices (behaviours).

4- The way a teacher best employs his or her diary.

Mona: is 33 years old, female English language teacher. She graduated with a grade of 84% from the Faculty of Arts, English Department in 2004/2005; bachelor level. She has been teaching English for 14 years. The training she received was only one; it was organized by the Ministry of Education and delivered by inspectors of English. The English curriculum she was doing at her secondary school level was the general old curriculum (Gosbi).

First Semi-Structured Classroom Observation

Date: 18/2/2015, Wednesday   **Time:** 9:30 – 10:15   **No of Students:** 29 females

Class: Preparatory 3   **Unit No:** 4   **Unit Title:** Science and Nature

Lesson No: 7 and 8   **Topic:** Food / (Listening)

➢ The class is large with <u>ten desks</u> divided in <u>three queues</u> facing the front. Every three female students sharing a desk. There is a small table and a chair at the front for teacher. The class contains left side 16 middle size windows, 5 of them <u>are broken</u>. There are drawers for the students fixed on the wall next to the <u>blackboard</u>. There are some at the back as well. <u>Twenty-nine female students</u> are present in class. All of them were wearing dark blue uniform with white scarves.

330

- When the teacher entered the classroom, she greeted the students "good morning". The students stood and responded "good morning teacher". Then the teacher thanked them and asked them to sit down. I greeted the students too. The teacher asked a student to take the only chair available to the back of the class and then pointed to me by her hand meaning that the chair is form me. I thanked her and walked to sit on that chair at the back of the class.
- The teacher opened her diary and wrote 13 vocabularies with numbers on the board.

1. Dates	2. Lettuces	3. Grapes	4. Lime	5. Apricots	6. Oranges
7. Potatoes	8. Tomatoes	9. Apples	10. Almond	11. Peanuts	

- The teacher asked the students in Arabic if they have already prepared the lesson at home as usual. And they replied all together in Arabic "yes we did".
- The teacher asked in Arabic the students to look at the board and concentrate on the way she pronounces every word. She read the words written on the board in a slow rhythm and then again in Arabic asked students to repeat after her every word she read and they did. (16 minutes)
- Then the teacher asked the student if they know any of those words. Students in a noisy way started naming different Arabic words referring to the words on the board.
- With a big smile reflecting satisfaction about the student performance, the teacher asked them to open the course book on page No. 37. She asked them (In Arabic) to match each word written on the blackboard with the pictures at the bottom of that page.
- She gave them 5 minutes to do so. While all students are engaged in this activity the teacher was walking around them.
- Before the 5 minutes ends, the teacher suddenly in a loud voice asked (In Arabic) who can tell us which word from those on the board match the first picture? She added raise your hands and do not answer in groups. Students raised their hands and then the teacher chose one to give the answer. This activity took 21 minutes and students kept focusing on translating to Arabic though there were pictures reflecting their meanings.
- The teacher spent the left time asking students to stand up one by one to read all of the words on the blackboard. At this time, she was walking around their desks and marking their notebooks.
- The bell rang with three students left and the teacher was still standing and doing the marking for students' notebooks at the third desk in the middle queue.
- The teacher walked towards her table to take her bag, said good bye and see you tomorrow to her students. An in Arabic she added "do not forget to do the homework in the workbook page No. 40/41/42".
- End of the lesson

Second Semi-Structured Classroom Observation

Date: 22/2/2015, Sunday   **Time:** 8:45 – 9:30   **No of Students:** 29 females

Class: Preparatory 3   **Unit No:** 5   **Unit Title:** Saving the Planet

Lesson No: 5   **Topic:** Conditional Type 1 (Grammar)
- The teacher entered the classroom; she greeted the students "good morning". The

students stood and responded "good morning teacher". Then the teacher thanked them and asked them to sit down.

➢ She divided the blackboard into two parts. She started with the first left part writing the conditional Type 1 rule with two examples.

> If + present simple + coma (,) + will
>
> - If the clouds are tall and gray, the weather will be storm.

➢ The students started copying every single word the teacher wrote on the blackboard.

➢ The teacher, in Arabic, asked the students to stop writing and to carefully listen to her. She read the rule with the examples on the blackboard. Then she started explaining in Arabic when to use conditional one and for what reason. She said "conditional type one is used to talk about facts, real and possible situations". The she orally added few more examples saying, "If I am hungry, I will eat". "If you work hard, you will pass".

➢ She asked the students if they understood this rule the replied "No". Then she started explaining it again in Arabic. When she asked again "is it clear now?" They replied "yes".

➢ The teacher started writing an exercise on the other part of the board and asked the student to start copying all that she is writing.

> Q- Fill in the blanks with the appropriate form of the verb given in the brackets:
>
> 1- If you .... (be) late, we .... (go) without you.
> 2- If she .... (win) the prize, her mother .... (be) happy.
> 3- If he .... (invite) me, I .... (go).
> 4- If I .... (have) 200 dinars, I .... (buy) her a nice present.
> 5- If my brother .... (be) here, you .... (be) able to take it.

➢ When she finished writing on the board, she asked the students to take 5 minutes and try individually and silently to answer these questions using pencils in their notebooks.

➢ After 5 minutes, she said "ok now let's see what form the verbs in the brackets will take?"

➢ The teacher, in a random way, started calling students by their names; one in every time to give an answer. Some were standing silently, some gave wrong answers and very few who managed to give the right form of the verb.

➢ The teacher asked those who could not give any answer or wrongly answered, if they want her to explain the rule again or just give more examples. They replied "explain the rule". The teacher started explaining (in Arabic) the rule again and she was giving more examples. Then she asked them again, "is it clear now? They replied "yes".

➢ The teacher now asked the student that she wants every one of them to pick up their pencil and white papers with their names on, and write three sentences using this rule. She told them that it is just 10 minutes' quiz.

➢ After ten minutes, the teacher asked students to stop writing and turn up their papers on the back. All students did so.

➢ The teacher told the students that every one of them will choose one of the three sentences she wrote, and will write it on the blackboard. Most of the students did not welcome this activity and preferred to give their papers to the teacher whom refused and told that every one of them will write her sentence on the board.

➢ In turn every student wrote her sentence on the board and submitted her paper to the

teacher.

- ➢ It was a time consuming activity it took about 27 minutes.
- ➢ The teacher came near to the blackboard and started reading the sentences one by one, showed the error and gave the correct form/ answer. The bell rang in the middle of the sentences, but the teacher carried on so quickly and finished them all.
- ➢ In a hurry, I and the teacher went out of the classroom, because the other period teacher was standing outside waiting for us to go out.
- ➢ End of the lesson

Third Semi-Structured Classroom Observation

Date: 26/2/2015, Thursday   **Time:** 10:15 – 11:00   **No of Students:** 29 females

Class: Preparatory 3   **Unit No:** 5   **Unit Title:** Saving the Planet

Lesson No: 6   **Topic:** Tropical Rainforests (Reading)

- ➢ The teacher entered the classroom and greeted the students "good morning". The students stood and responded "good morning teacher". Then the teacher thanked them and asked them to sit down.
- ➢ The teacher opened her diary and started copying vocabularies from it on the blackboard.
- ➢ The teacher asked in Arabic the students to look at the board and concentrate on the way she pronounces every word. She read the words written on the board in a slow rhythm and then again in Arabic asked students to repeat after her every word she read and they did. (10 minutes)
- ➢ The teacher asked students to open their course books on page No. 43, and they all did.
- ➢ The teacher asked students to carefully follow and listen to her reading the text. She told them in Arabic that all of the words on the board are used in this text, and asked them while following with her reading they have to underline any word from those on the board used in the text. She read the text twice.
- ➢ The teacher asked read the first sentence in the text (Tropical rainforests grow near the equator.) and asked student "who can explain it and tell us what does this sentence mean?" Students were enthusiastically raising their hands to answer. The teacher was smiling happily repeating (good, good, good), then she called one of the students by her name to answer. The student gave the correct translation for the sentence.
- ➢ Translation was the explanation the teacher asked students to provide.
- ➢ The teacher said "now we will do as usual starting from the first queue stand up Jamila, read and explain the next sentence". And she did so; reading and translating the sentence. Then the student next to her stood and did the followed sentence.
- ➢ With students doing the reading and translations, and the teacher kept correcting their wrong pronunciation or translation, the bell rang to inform the end of this period and the start of another with a different teacher and a different subject.

- ➢ The whole situation reflects that all students and the teacher are programmed to follow the same strategies in teaching and learning English.
- ➢ Though the teacher seems to have a well-developed linguistic competence, and speak fluent English, but about 80% of her talk, instructions and explanations inside the classroom are in Arabic.

➢ As this is the last observation, I could say that this teacher enjoys good relationships with her students, other teachers, and the manager of the school whom praised her a lot to me before I meet her. He said that "she is the best English language teacher they have in this school."

➢ Also while I was looking to this teacher's diary, I have noticed that the dates written on its margins are old ones; all are 2013 dates. What was shocking was that there were 4 signatures made by an inspector of English, one signature with a complement to the teacher was in 2013 where as the other three signatures were in 2014. I am saying shocking because I was a teacher and I know how much is important the teacher's diary; therefore, it must be updated in every academic year. Inspectors get upset and refuse to check any old dated diary. When an inspector visits a teacher of any school subject, the first thing s/he asks for is to see a teacher's diary.

Appendix 4

Semi-structured Interview Questions

Q1- What is your main aim when teaching English?

Q2- Why did you follow X strategy or technique?

Q3- When planning lessons, how do you decide which elements you will focus on, and how do you perform so?

Q4- Would you mind to tell me what does the word 'grammar' mean to you?

Q5- What role do you think grammar could play in teaching and learning English?

Q6- Do you think that teaching grammar is necessary, why?

Q7- Which kinds of curricula you taught during your teaching career?

Q8- How do you find the current English curriculum?

Q9- Do you follow the teachers' book instructions?

Q10- From your own point of view, who is the good teacher?

Q11- If you had to choose one area to focus on for development as an EFL teacher, what would it be? How?

Q12- Could you please describe your own language learning experiences, where and how did you

Learn English? And was it a positive or negative experience?

Q13- Can we talk about how you obtained knowledge and experience to deal with any difficulties you may encounter you when delivering a lesson?

Q14- If the teaching approach you follow has changed in any way in the future, what do you think might be the **most** responsible source or motive for such change? (e.g. Inspectors' feedback, students' feedback, trial and error collaboration with other teachers, self-discovery, in-service training programmes, a published research, etc)

Q15- Would you like to add anything?

Appendix 5

Samples of Teachers' Diaries

Monday

الفصل | موضوع الدرس

The Gerund   1/3 The
                                                        4th

* What is the gerund?   2/3 The
It's the ing form of a verb used as
a noun.   5th

* What's the gerund form of the verb
read?
The gerund form is reading

The different use of gerund.

It's used as the subject of a sentence.
Reading is my hobby.
Driving too fast is dangerous.

It's used the object after certain
rbs: such as.   want - like -
d - be worth - enjoy - feel like -
sh - imagine - look forward to -
p - mind - practise - risk

336

Thursday

Wish + clause

The verb wish is followed by
1. The past perfect
When referring to the things in the past
Example
          He was so noisy/rude at school
He wishes he hadn't been rude "

2. The past simple
When referring to things in the present
Example:- I am not well
          I wish I was well
    I can't speak English
    I wish I could speak English

Fact	wish	Well done
positive	negative	Aisha
Negative	positive	15th Dec 2014
present simple	Past simple	
Past simple	Past perfect	

Certainty and Uncertainty

We use different adverbs to show certain or uncertain we are.

Certainly	uncertainly
actually	possibly
clearly	probably
definitely	apparently
	likely
	unlikely

The correct place of the adverbs:

① After verb to be.
2- Before the main verbs.
3- Between the auxiliary/modal verbs and the other verbs in positive sentences.
4- In negative sentences, it's used before the auxiliary/modal verb.
- It can also be used at the begining or end of a sentence.

338

Appendix 6

A sample of Initial Codes and Themes

Research Questions	Theme		Code	Sub-Code	Code	Sub-code
	(DO)	(Believe)	(DO)	(DO)	(Believe)	(Believe)
1) What do Libyan teachers do and believe in regards with teaching English as a foreign language?	-Adopting Grammar Translation Method without realization	-Grammar Translation Method as a key to learn English	**1**-Depending on translation to explain every thing	-So much use of Arabic -Translating disconnected words and disconnected sentences -All of the reading texts are translated word by word -Focusing on explaining the Arabic meanings of texts -Very limited use of English	**1-Arabic Language** -Arabic to ensure learning -Arabic as a time consumption technique -Arabic for a motivated classroom environment	-Using Arabic helps to easy and better understand all lessons -Ensure Students Learning -Students never forget anything explained for them in Arabic -Arabic explanations stick in students' minds for ever -Consume time -Shortest way to explain things -Good to use Arabic to explain everything within the scheduled 45m periods -Motivate students to learn more -Students never get frustrated -Students feel confident and want to learn -Explain things in English as a challenge for both teachers and students -Students will not understand when using English
					-Use of English as a challenge	-the use of other techniques to explain meanings such as guessing is a waste of time -Guessing could develop some mental skills but not learning a language -Using pictures is useless

				-Very limited use of English		-Students will not understand when using English

			2-Focusing on teaching vocabulary		-Use of English as a challenge	-the use of other techniques to explain meanings such as guessing is a waste of time -Guessing could develop some mental skills but not learning a language -Using pictures is useless and students will forget -Using pictures could be good for primary levels just to make them like English and like the teacher
					-Challenging techniques and strategies	-Vocabulary is the main significant tool when learning English -Words for a 2L learner are like money for people to live -To start learning a language, one must start with memorizing as much words as possible -If students do not memorize words, they will never learn English -Learning a language is addresses by learning words
				-Teaching many isolated words in a		-When introducing new grammatical rule, students

				form of lists -Teaching synonymy and antonyms -Students are required to memorize vocabulary lists -Dictation is employed a lot -Fill in the blanket with the suitable word exercises, with a focus on knowing the Arabic meanings, are used.	**2-Vocabulary** -Vocabulary as the core element to learn English -Vocabulary as the first core element to speak English	who are equipped with a huge number of words, will be able to form their own sentences -To say something in English, one should have a store of words -knowing and memorizing large number of words is good for them to speak the language -Students who keep memorizing all new words, with the passage of time will develop a fluent speaking skill -encourages and increase students' motivations -makes students feel comfortable and encouraged to learn -students who regularly memorize the new words of every lesson, are always the most confidant and enthusiastic ones. -helps students to feel confident and motivated. - Grammar is the main

			3-Focusing on teaching grammar			element and has to be taught at first -Grammar for a language is like the soul to body. -Teaching and learning grammar is essential. -Teaching and learning grammar is a "must"

Appendix 7

A Formal Letter issued by the Educational Office of the region (Southern Libya)

Appendix 8
Samples of Grammar Components presented in the course book

A Match the words with the pictures.

> ice   information / kilometre   moon

B Discuss these questions with a partner.

1. Which words can have a plural with -s?

2. Why can some words not have a plural form?

3. Which words are countable and which are uncountable?

Example: You can't say 'one oxygen - two oxygens', because oxygen is a mass. It is uncountable.

1

2

3

Jupiter
Distance from sun 779 million km
Gravity 2.358g
Atmosphere 90%
H₂ 10%
Meri-rings 4 very thin
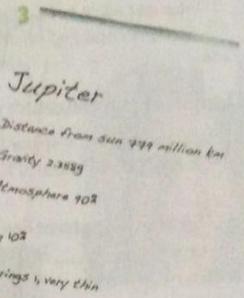
C Look at the box. Complete the sentences.

> **Much and many**
>
> *Much* is used with uncountable nouns.
>
> Examples: 1. We don't have much time.
>   2. How much water do you need?
>
> *Many* is used with countable nouns.
>
> Examples: 3. We didn't take many photos.
>   4. How many people are coming to the party?

In examples 1 and 2, *much* is used because *time* and *water* are _____ nouns.

In examples 3 and 4, *many* is used because *photos* and *people* are _____ nouns.

D Complete these sentences with *much* or *many*.

1. How _____ planets are there, eight or nine?

2. She's lucky – she has _____ good friends.

3. We won't need _____ time to finish this.

4. The space probe *Voyager 2* found _____ new moons in the solar system.

5. I haven't found out _____ facts about the topic yet.

6. There isn't _____ oil in the south of the country.

E Look again at the text in the Reading Lesson on Course Book page 19. Read paragraph 6 and underline a sentence with *much* and a sentence with *many*.

F Complete these sentences so that they mean the same as the sentences you underlined.

1. Jupiter _____ more moons _____ any of the other planets.

2. Europa has _____ water than any of Jupiter's other moons.

G Now do Exercises A to D on Workbook page 11.

Lesson 4: Grammar 1: Continuous tenses

A **Study the grammar box.**

> **Continuous tenses**
>
> We use continuous tenses to describe actions that are **in progress** and **unfinished** at a point in time.
>
> Examples:
> In 1990, the buildings in Venice were *sinking* quite fast.
> Now they are *sinking* more slowly.
> Hopefully, ten years from now they *will be sinking* even more slowly.

B **What do you think is happening to the six things below? Describe each one using verbs in the box in the present continuous form.**

> rise / fall   expand / shrink   increase / decrease

Example: *The Sahara Desert is expanding.*

1. the size of families in Libya _____
2. pollution from cars _____
3. the Sahara Desert _____
4. the world's temperature _____
5. the amount of fish in the Mediterranean _____
6. the number of languages in the world _____

C **Discuss the same six things as a class. This time:**

1. What do you think was happening 100 years ago?
2. What do you think will be happening in 100 years from now?

D **Study the grammar box.**

> **Future continuous**
>
> We often use this to talk about an action in progress in the future around a particular point in time.
>
> Examples:
> *At this time tomorrow, I'll be taking my English exam.*
> *I'll be wearing a white shirt (when I meet you).*

E **Think about how the future simple and the future continuous tenses are used in this telephone conversation. Then practise the conversation with a partner. Finally, practise the conversation again, this time substituting your own words for those in bold.**

A: I'll phone you **at six o'clock**.
B: That's a bad time. I'll be **playing football**.
A: At **eight** o'clock?
B: No. We'll be **eating** then. I'll phone you when we've finished.
A: That's no good. I'll be at **Jamal's house** then.
B: Oh. So will I! I'll see you there.

F **Now do Exercises A to D on Workbook pages 25–26.**

344