THE ROLE OF ENGLISH IN LIBYA AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR SYLLABUS DESIGN IN LIBYAN HIGHER EDUCATION

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Abstract

The aim of this sociolinguistically-oriented study is to determine the elements of a suitable English Language syllabus for university students in Libya. The syllabuses currently being used to teach English Language in the Libyan Higher Education sector were originally designed back in the 1980s. In view of the sweeping changes which have taken place both in the role of English in the world and also in Libya itself since that decade, and in view of concurrent developments in language teaching practice, this thesis starts from the presumption that these syllabuses and the materials used to implement them are unlikely to be adequate. It attempts to achieve its aim by three means. Firstly, using observational accounts and fieldwork, it seeks to provide a sociolinguistic profile of this major world language in Libya in order to ascertain the domains in which it is used and the role which it currently plays in Libyan society (and therefore what it is that Libyan university students might need to be able to do with it). Secondly, using an attitudinal questionnaire, it investigates the attitude of Libyan students in higher education towards learning English, the English language, and towards those who speak it as their mother tongue since research suggests that attitude can be of crucial importance in the language learning process. Thirdly, it conducts a critical evaluation of the English language syllabus and teaching materials presently in use at one university in order to identify the extent to which they follow current recommended practice in EFL course design and match the needs of learners.

Findings suggest that although English does not enjoy any official status in Libya and its use in some domains remains restricted, it is currently expanding at an unprecedented rate and has already acquired the status of a second language in some domains. Questionnaire results indicate that Libyan university students hold favourable attitudes towards English, native speakers of this language and learning EFL. Crucially, many view a good level of English as a prerequisite for success in their chosen career.

The evaluation of current EFL teaching materials and course syllabus reveals that these materials no longer reflect the current role of English in Libya or the needs of university learners. In addition, in methodological terms, they are out-dated, following the traditional grammar-based syllabus rather than the contemporary emphasis on the communicative approach.

The thesis concludes by recommending that an integrated syllabus approach could be used to address the problems with the existing syllabus and proposes a multi- or integrated syllabus which aims to integrate grammatical components and linguistic skills to meet the needs of the learners and to address the language needs of Libyan society.

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to

my beloved parents Awad El Bajegny and Zeinab Muftah

For in the midst of all our homeland's troubles

Their thoughts, prayers and encouragement were always
for their absent daughter

This thesis is also dedicated to

My beloved husband for his patience and support

and

to my darling children Aisha, Mohammed, and Zeinab

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.0 Introduction

Gallowy and Rose (2015: x) have written that:

> *English is now a globalized phenomenon and the numbers of English speakers around the globe have risen dramatically. Today, non-native English speakers outnumber native English speakers…, and English has become the world's foremost lingua franca, dominating the world stage in a number of domains.*

Some 400 years ago, Richard Mulcaster, a schoolmaster and linguist (cited in Melchers and Shaw, 2003: 6) noted that "*The English tongue is of small reache, stretching no further than this island of ours, nay not there over all*". A century later John Adams (1735-1826), the second President of the United States of America, was predicting that English would become "*the most respectable language in the world and the most universally read and spoken in the next century, if not before the close of this one*" (cited in Kachru, 1992a: 2). A 1998 BBC broadcast (Analysis, 12.3.98) estimated that at the start of the twenty-first century, there would be one thousand million people learning English, four hundred million speaking it as a second language and another four hundred million speaking it as their mother tongue (cited in Arndt et al.: 2000: 212). Estimates of numbers of those using English for the purposes of communication vary but as Arndt et al. (2000: 212) have observed:

> *It is generally accepted that English is currently the most widely used language in the world in terms of the number of countries where it is the first or second language of the population, where it has some official status, or where it is the major foreign language taught in schools.*

In Libyan society, too, the usage of English has become widespread in a range of different settings and its importance is growing in a wholly unprecedented manner despite the fact that it is neither a national nor an official language there.

This ever-increasing spread in usage of English on a global level raises a fundamental question regarding the nature of the role and status of English in non-native contexts such as Libya, the focus of this research. The aim of this sociolinguistic study, therefore, is to investigate the spread and use of the world's most commonly used language, English, in this foreign language context. It seeks to provide a sociolinguistic profile of this major world language in Libya by investigating the uses for which this language is employed, ascertaining the domains in which it is used and the functions which it fulfils. This investigation also considers Libyan users of English, drawing on a survey of Libyan student attitudes towards English and English-speaking societies which also explores

student motivations for learning this language. Finally, it will evaluate the English language teaching materials and course syllabuses presently used in a Libyan Higher Education institution in order to identify their underlying assumptions. Drawing on the findings of this analysis, a series of recommendations aimed at syllabus designers, materials writers, and other relevant educational practitioners in Libya will be proposed with the intention of creating relevant English language syllabuses for use in Libyan universities.

1.1 The Spread of English

Phillipson defined language spread as the adoption of a given language by individuals (1992:78). Cooper (1982b: 6 cited in Phillipson) stated that language spread can be explained as "*an increase, over time, in the proportion of a communication network that adopts a given language or language variety for a given communicative function*." It is noted that the spread of a language is generally defined as an increase both in the number of users and of the uses to which that language is put.

Ferguson (1981 cited in Kachru 1992) stated that: "*The spread of one language in relation to others is a phenomenon which presumably goes as far back in human history as the existence of a multiplicity of languages*." The most successful case of language spread to date is the global spread of English. Wardhaugh (1987: 2) explained that every language is continuously in a state of change, meaning that it might become less attractive and lose speakers, or it might spread and expand, expanding its number of functions and users. The factors that affect these changes in the state of a language may be conscious or unconscious. According to Wardhaugh, the conscious factors affecting the state of a language are strongly connected to government policy in the sense that a government may decide that one particular language should be used in certain circumstances rather than another one. The government may also be responsible for controlling the spread of a particular language within a society. In the case of Libya, Gaddafi's government stopped the teaching of English throughout the whole of the educational system and prevented the use of English names in street signs and shop names from 1986 to1996.

It is worth considering briefly how English spread from the British Isles to the rest of the world. The English language was originally spoken in England and South Eastern Scotland. By the Middle Ages, it had spread to other areas of southern and eastern Scotland and during mediaeval times, it was introduced to Ireland from the west of England. English started to spread to other regions of the world, including parts of Africa, at the end of the fifteenth century, and then to India in 1600. Britain was to maintain its colonial interests in both areas for a long period of time. In the seventeenth and eighteenth century, the English language was taken to North America and by 1640,

in New England alone there were some estimated 25,000 English speakers (Trudgill and Hannah, 1982, 1985:4). The latter half of the eighteenth century marked the start of the story of English in Canada. Although Canada was under British rule from 1763, there were no English-speaking settlers there until after the American War of Independence when the number of English speakers increased rapidly due to mass migration. The number of those having English is their first language today in Canada stands at some 20 million, from a total population of 29 million (Trudgill and Hannah, 1982, 1985: 4). The end of the eighteenth century witnessed the export of the English language to new locations such as Australia and New Zealand. It also spread to Wales at about the same time (Trudgill and Hannah, 1982, 1985: 4).

During the nineteenth century, and as a consequence of the success of the Colonies and successive waves of migration, the number of English speakers grew rapidly. (Melchers and Shaw, 2003: 6). Today there are an estimated 15 million native speakers of English in Australia and 3.5 million in New Zealand (Melchers and Shaw, 2003: 7).

Jenkins (2003: 5) summarises the above history of the spread of English into two main dispersals or diasporas. The first occurred when about 25,000 people emigrated from England, Scotland, and Ireland to America, Australia and New Zealand, leading to the creation of new varieties of mother-tongue English which are known today as American and Antipodean English respectively. The second diaspora resulted from the large-scale colonisation of Asia and Africa, prompting the formation of a number of different varieties of ESL, generally referred to as the "New Englishes", a term which is defined by Gallowy and Rose (2015:256) as: "a *term used to describe varieties of English that have emerged in former colonies or territories of English_ speaking nations*.", Jenkins (2003) notes, however, that this simple type of classification of the English language fails to capture the complexity of the spread of English, particularly in the twentieth century, when it began to be used increasingly as a foreign language.

1.2 English as a Global Language

English is now frequently referred to as a global language and, according to Crystal (2003:3), a language achieves this status "*when it develops a special role that is recognised in every country*". Thus, a language does not attain global status simply by being used as the mother tongue of vast numbers of individuals. It must also be adopted for use by other countries and communities around the world and then occupy a special place within those nations, enjoying official status and being used by government officials, the media, the law courts, and the educational system. In certain countries such as India, Nigeria and Ghana, English functions as a second language. Finally, to be considered a global language it also needs to "*be made a priority in a country's foreign language teaching even though this language has no official status*" (Crystal 2012:4).

According to Crystal (2003: 106) this global status of English has two main causes. Like other authors, he identifies "*the expansion of British colonial power, which peaked towards the end of the nineteenth century*" as the initial cause. However he then highlights "*the emergence of the United States as the leading economic power of the twentieth century*" as the second cause, adding that: "*It is the latter factor which explains the position of the English language today.*"

Svartvik and Leech (2006: 227) agree with Crystal that the vast expansion of the British Empire played a crucial role in the global spread of English but they point to two further periods in world history which have further assisted the expansion in use of this language. The second era is associated with the technological, industrial and electronic revolution which was mainly led by the English-speaking countries of Britain and the United States. Svartvik and Leech argue that partly as a result of these innovations, in the late twentieth century we have entered an era of globalization in which the whole world acts like a small village in terms of political, economic and environmental issues and, most noticeably, communication. They conclude that:

> *These three processes [the technological, industrial and electronic revolution] have piggy-backed on one another so that, for example, the electronic revolution has given birth to the Internet, and thereby generated e-mail, e-commerce, e-business and numerous other 'e-activities', which have furthered globalization* (Svartvik and Leech 2006: 228).

According to Kachru (1992: 75) the result of this globalization is that:

> *In recorded history there has never been a language to match the present global spread and use of English [...]. Crystal (1985) has estimated that as many as two billion people have some ability in English. Whether we accept Crystal's figure or not, it is certain that, whatever the total number, non-native users of English outnumber the native users.*

1.3 English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)

Lingua franca is defined by Richards and Schmidt (2002: 309) in the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics as:

> *A language that is used for communication between different groups of people, each speaking a different language. The lingua franca could be an internationally used language of communication (e.g. English), it could be the native language of one of the groups, or it could be a language which is not spoken natively by any of the groups but has a simplified sentence structure and vocabulary and is often a mixture of two or more languages [...]. The term lingua franca (Italian for "Frankish tongue") originated in the Mediterranean region in the Middle Ages among Crusaders and traders of different language backgrounds. The term **auxiliary language** is sometimes used as a synonym for lingua franca.*

Today, English language is used as a lingua franca in many different places around the world. It also acts as a global lingua franca, a status that has never been attained by any language previously. I was made aware of this fact in 2011, when I travelled to

Saudi Arabia to perform hajj (pilgrimage), one of the five Pillars of Islam. During the month I stayed there, an estimated two million pilgrims of different nationalities from all over the world gathered together. I noticed that English was used a means of communication in hotels, in the street and even inside the mosque. When, for example, pilgrims sought to find a particular exit from the many alternatives available, they would seek out a member of the cleaning staff found throughout the place of worship, most of whom are Pakistani or Indian. In these encounters between individuals of different nationalities, English was the only language used. I myself only spoke Arabic with individuals who could clearly be identified as Arabs.

Richards and Schmidt (2002) also note that when English is used as a lingua franca to act as a mediator between people with different native languages, it develops some distinctive features or systematic codes which differ from the form used in inner circle countries. These include:

- *Dropping the -s in third person verb formation e.g. She **cook** a great paella.*
- *Omitting definite and indefinite articles where native speakers would normally use them, e.g. You have **new car**?*
- *Using invariant tag questions, e.g. I'll see you tomorrow, **isn't it**?*
- *Using verb patterns of the type want + that-clause, which do not occur in native speaker English, but have common parallels in other languages e.g. I want **that you visit** us.*

The same authors further observe that "*For a lingua franca, it makes sense to aid intelligibility […] by replacing a 'difficult' sound, one rather rare among the world's languages, by an 'easy one'*" (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 309). A typical example would be the pronunciation of 'three' as 'tree' because the sound /th/ is difficult for some non-native speakers of English as it does not exist among the sounds of their mother tongue. Other substitutions of this type which occur in ELF as a result of non-native speakers seeking to simplify English pronunciation include the use of /b/ instead of /p/ (a common feature amongst Arabic speakers), /t/ or /s/ to substitute for /Ɵ/ and /d/ or /z/ for the sound /ð/.

1.4 Speakers of English Today

The expansion of English throughout the globe led in the 1970's to a distinction being made between different groups of users of English as follows: (1) those who use English as a mother tongue or native language (ENL); (2) those who use English as a second language (ESL), and (3) those who use English as a foreign language (EFL). In the first group, Jenkins (2003) places people who were born and raised in the British Isles, the United States, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. Kachru (1992: 356) refers to these contexts as providing the "*traditional cultural and linguistic bases of English*". Jenkins (2003) estimated the number of ENL speakers at approximately 350 million. ESL speakers usually live in those countries which were formerly occupied by the British including India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nigeria, and Singapore. According to Graddol

(1997) ESL speakers number approximately 375 million. With regard to EFL speakers, traditionally people learnt English in order to communicate with British and American ENL speakers, but in recent times increasing numbers of people have begun to learn English as a medium for communicating with other non-native speakers as a result of globalization. Jenkins points out that it is very difficult to measure the number of EFL speakers since levels of competence can vary considerably but puts the estimate at approximately one billion "*if the criterion of reasonable competence is adopted*" (2003: 15).

The following extract from the 1995 press release for the launch of the British Council's English 2000 (cited in Graddol 1997:2) gives an idea of the impact of English around the world:

> *One out of five of the world's population speak English to some level of competence. Demand from the other four fifths is increasing.[…] English is the main language of books, newspapers, airports, and air-traffic control, international business and academic conferences, science, technology, diplomacy, sport, international competitions, pop music and advertising.*

The British council has recently estimated that over 1 billion people are learning English worldwide, 750 million of whom are learners who are traditionally defined as EFL speakers. (British council, 2014). If this is the case, there are now more non-native English speakers a gap that will increase as English continues to grow as a global lingua franca.

Although Libya was occupied by the British for a period of time, English is not considered to be a second language there nor is this the case in the neighbouring country of Egypt which was also once under British occupation. However, in both cases, the period of occupation was a brief one, unlike the long period of colonisation which existed in countries such as India. In Libya, as in many other countries, English language is taught as a foreign language in the school system.

1.5 Kachru's Model of the Spread of English

The Indian-American scholar Braj Kachru created a model (Figure 1) which he used to describe the spread of English around the world. Although this model is still referred to by many linguistics scholars as the standard framework, more recent work in this area has established that it cannot adequately account for the many recent changes witnessed in the types of users and uses of English around the world today. A critique of Kachru's model and a detailed discussion of other models will follow in Chapter Three. Here a brief overview of his model is provided.

Kachru explains his model thus: "*The current sociolinguistic profile of English may be viewed in terms of three concentric circles. These circles represent the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition, and the functional allocation of English in diverse cultural contexts*" (Kachru, 1992: 356).
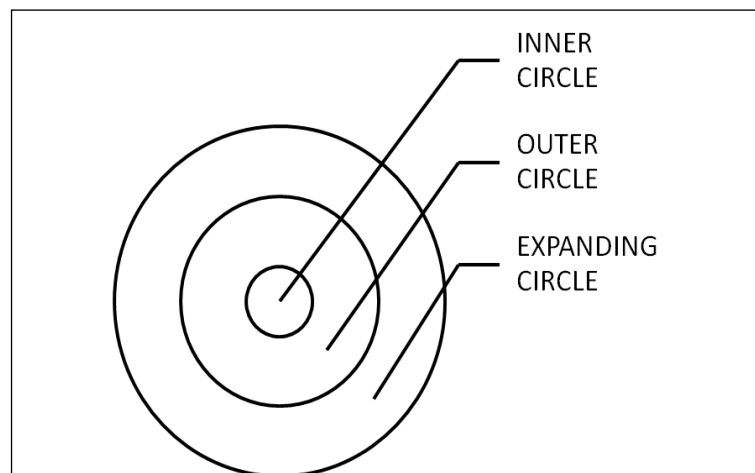
Figure 1: Kachru's concentric circle model (1992: 356)

According to Kachru, the 'Inner Circle' includes native speakers of English born and raised in countries such as the British Isles, the United States, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand who speak English as a first language.

The 'Outer Circle' in Kachru's model includes those countries that were once colonised by the inner circle countries, especially those that were part of the British Empire including Ghana, Kenya Bangladesh, and India, the latter being the most influential example of outer circle countries due to the fact that it was a British colony for an extended period of time. More than a billion citizens speaking 200 languages between them make up this outer circle, but they continue to use English as a second or official language and it is used as the medium of instruction in the educational system of the country. In India in particular, English continues to play a significant role and is used widely in the country's political administration, in the law courts and its media, and at all levels of education (Svartvik and Leech 2006: 4). The English spoken in the outer circle "represents the institutionalized non-native varieties (ESL)" (Kachru, 1992: 356).

The so-called 'Expanding Circle' in Kachru's paradigm includes "*the regions where the performance varieties of the language are used essentially in EFL contexts*" and the varieties used in these countries "…*lack official status and are typically restricted in their uses*" (Kachru, 1992: 357).

Jenkins (2003: 16) explains that in Kachru's model:

> *English-language standards are determined by speakers of ENL, but while the ESL varieties of English have become institutionalised and are developing their own standards, the EFL varieties are regarded, […] as 'performance' varieties without any official status and therefore dependent on the standards set by native speakers in the inner circle.*

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For this reason the English spoken in the setting of the inner circle is considered to be 'norm-providing', that used in the outer circle as 'norm-developing', whilst the varieties of English used in the expanding circle are deemed to be 'norm-dependent'.

1.6 The Spread of English in Libya

The initial contact of Libyans with the English language began after the Second World War. The occupation of Libya by the Italians in 1911 put an end to the period of Ottoman colonization which had begun in 1551. During the period from 1940 to 1943 Libya was a theatre of war but the defeat of Germany and Italy in 1943 by the Allied Forces brought to an end the era of Italian colonialism there. After the war, it was decided that Libya would be split into three provinces, with the two coastal provinces of Cyrenaica and Tripolitania being administered by Britain whilst Fezzan, the vast Saharan province, was placed under French rule (Mursi 1974 cited in El Fiki 1982: 93). The English language was introduced for the first time in a very small number of schools that were opened by the British administration in 1948, this being the first formal contact between the Libyan people and the English language. An attempt to trace the development of English Language Teaching (ELT) within the Libyan educational system will be presented in Chapter Two.

Kachru (1992) has rightly pointed out that: "*What draws an increasing number of people in the remote parts of the world to the study of English is the social attitude toward the language*." In Libya, my home country and the context for this research, people generally display favourable attitudes towards the English language and towards English-speaking societies. As Chapter six illustrates, when a sample of about 894 Libyan university students participated in a survey to examine their attitudes towards this language and those who speak it, the results were generally positive. Further research is needed to investigate the attitude of other groups within Libyan society including, for instance, adults in employment or older people.

The Libyan people have become aware of the power of the English language, recognising that it functions as the dominant language of trade, commerce, banking, tourism, technology, and scientific research (Kachru, 1992: 355). Therefore, parents throughout Libya, even those in rural areas, now do their utmost to ensure that their children learn this powerful language which for various historical, economic and political reasons, they themselves were unable to learn. As a consequence, Libyans are now doing whatever they can to acquire English, which has become a language of prestige. Speakers of English are regarded as being more educated. Private primary and preparatory schools in Libya now highlight in their advertisements the amount of English tuition pupils receive per week in order to attract parents to register their children. It is common to hear Libyan parents state: "I don't have any faith in the public school system" or "In a private school, children will be provided with a solid foundation in the

early stages of their education." the only difference between the two systems is the amount of English students are exposed to and the early age.

Moreover, those Libyans who can communicate well in English and have certificates showing their competence in this language have a better chance of obtaining good jobs in companies and elsewhere than their non-English speaking counterparts. As a result, everyone, even older people, is now trying to learn English. Teaching English has become good business in Libya; private institutions providing courses in English at levels from ab initio to advanced level have sprung up all around the country. Following graduation, I obtained a job in one of these institutions, teaching English to older people who were absolute beginners. They proved to be even more serious and highly motivated than the younger students as a result of their positive attitudes towards this language.

1.7 Rationale for the study

The catalyst for selecting Libya as the focus for a sociolinguistic study of English was, first and foremost, that Libya is located in the expanding circle of Kachru's model, those countries where English is used as a foreign language. There is a pressing need to investigate these contexts of World Englishes in which English is widely and increasingly spread. There is already a vast body of research about English in the inner circle, relating largely to English in the British Isles and the United States. Moreover, there is also a significant amount of research concerning English in the outer circle such as English in India and Nigeria. On the other hand, there are very few references concerning English in the expanding circle, and most of these materials do not focus on English in these countries from a sociolinguistic perspective. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, no previous sociolinguistic study on English language in the North African countries including Libya, the context of this research, has been conducted. This sociolinguistic investigation will be critical in assisting designers of EFL materials and teachers in making well-informed decisions relating to English language education in this region.

The second reason for choosing Libya to investigate the role of English is that it is the researcher's home country, allowing her to be able to provide a full picture of the uses and users of English in Libyan society and to identify the various domains in which English is used there.

The third reason is Libya's history of colonization. Although it was part of the Ottoman Empire for more than 300 hundred years, it was the more recent colonization by Italy which left a lasting legacy in linguistic terms since many Italian words are still used in the Libyan dialect of Arabic (for example *kojena* = kitchen). However, Italian is not taught in the Libyan educational system and English has become the first foreign language.

The fourth reason for this study is to chart the stormy history of ELT during the 42 years of Muammar Gaddafi's regime in Libya. Gaddafi linked ELT to political relations with English-speaking countries, especially the United Kingdom and the United States. Thus, following the American airstrike on Tripoli in 1984, he had ELT removed entirely from the Libyan educational system, and closed all the English language departments in Libyan universities. All schools were ordered to burn their English language books and curricula in the school yard in front of their pupils.

The last reason for conducting this study is to reflect on the increasing changes in the role of English language in Libya following the 17 February 2011 revolution which led to the collapse of Gaddafi's regime. One of the significant factors in its success was the use of English language to attract the attention of the whole world to what was happening during the first few bloody days of the revolution in Libya. The people peacefully demonstrated in the streets carrying banners and placards bearing slogans written in English which included "GADDAFI, GAME OVER, and "FREEDOM FREEDOM"

1.8 Statement of the Problem

Although English does not currently enjoy any official status as a language in Libya, the role that it plays there is rapidly growing. Libya is a country that is situated within the expanding circle of Kachru's model and English is characterised as a foreign language, however, in some domains it is used as a second language. In addition to being used to facilitate international communication with the world, its uses in a range of settings in Libyan society have been recognised.

Therefore, the present study investigates the current state of the English language in Libya, with the aim of providing a comprehensive sociolinguistic profile of the users of English there and the uses for which they employ this language in present-day Libyan society.

1.9 Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to provide a sociolinguistic profile of English language in the Libyan context regarding its current role, with the aim of identifying the potential implications for English language education there, especially with regard to the nature of the English language syllabus offered to university students. The specific objectives of the study are as follows:

1. To determine the role played by English in Libyan society and to identify the users of English and the uses for which this language is employed, ascertaining the domains in which it is used.

2. To investigate the attitudes of Libyan university students towards English, towards native speakers of English and towards learning English, together with their reasons for learning English.

4. To analyse the syllabuses and materials used to teach English at Benghazi University and their underlying assumptions concerning the purpose of learning English.

5. To propose a series of recommendations aimed at syllabus designers, materials writers, and other relevant educational practitioners in Libya drawing on the findings of this research regarding the role of English in present day Libya.

1.10 Organization of the Thesis

Chapter One of this thesis provides an account of the importance of the role played by English both internationally and, more specifically, in the Middle Eastern and North African context, with particular emphasis on Libya. The chapter also presents the research questions to be addressed by this study, establishes the scope of the research and outlines its significance.

Chapter Two provides contextual information about the focus of this study, Libya, in terms of its geographical location, population, religion and languages. It also traces the development of English Language Teaching (ELT) within the Libyan educational system. The chapter also considers the challenges faced ELT.

Chapter Three provides a sociolinguistic profile of English in Libya. It examines the users of English and the domains of uses for which they employ this language in Libyan society, focusing especially on the city of Benghazi.

Chapter Four presents the results of a study investigating the attitude of Libyan university students towards English and learning it and also towards native speakers of English. First year Libyan Student attitudes towards learning English were also explored, together with their reasons for learning English. The instrument used to collect the relevant data was a five-point Likert scale questionnaire which was distributed to some 894 students (males and females) who at that time were in the first year of their university studies in six of the University's main faculties.

Chapter Five presents the results of the analysis of the content and design of a sample of English language syllabuses currently used with university level students. The chapter reviews the various types of syllabuses that exist and examine the current ELT syllabus used with university students in one of the Libyan universities.

Chapter Six offers an evaluation of the materials currently used to teach English in a representative Libyan university, namely Benghazi University (previously known as Garyounis University). The ELT materials used there and their underlying assumptions concerning the purpose of learning English are compared and contrasted with the findings regarding the current role played by English in contemporary Libya.

Chapter Seven includes a summary of the research findings and of the conclusions drawn from previous chapters and their implications for syllabus design. It also presents (the multi (integrated) syllabus approach to be used with university students. Finally the

chapter makes suggestions relating to further research which would be of benefit in this field.

1.11 Research Questions

This study addresses the following questions in order to achieve its purpose:

1. What is the role and value of English in contemporary Libyan society and how has this role evolved over time?

2. What attitudes do Libyan university students hold towards the English language, towards learning it and towards English-speaking societies?

3. To what extent do existing ELT materials used at Benghazi University and their underlying assumptions fulfil the needs of Libyan society at the present time and to what extent do syllabus designers and curriculum planners take into consideration the role played by English in Libya and its value there?

4. Having established the role of English and the attitude of university students towards this language, what are the implications for those involved in syllabus design at university level?

1.12 Conclusion

This chapter provided an introduction to this thesis, presenting the research rationale for this study with reference to the spread of English throughout the world. It established in general terms the status of English both as a global language and as a lingua franca. The chapter also discussed some widely used categorisations of English speakers including ENL, ESL, and EFL before outlining Kachru's (1992) concentric circles model to explain the global spread of English. This was followed by a brief consideration of the spread of English in Libya, the focus of this study. The closing sections of the chapter explain the rational for this research, presenting a statement of the problem being considered and the aim of the study. These are followed by an outline of the thesis contents and the guiding research questions.

CHAPTER TWO

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND ON THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

2.0 Introduction

Chapter one provided an introduction to the whole study, outlining the spread of English worldwide and categorising the various types of English speakers. It also presented the aims of the study and the research questions which this study addresses. This chapter contextualises the sociolinguistic study conducted in Libya which forms the focus of this research. Since the main aim of this work is to analyse the role of English language in the Libyan context, this chapter aims to provide an overview to this study by providing relevant background information about this country, in particular highlighting key events in Libya's history which have served to influence its educational system with specific reference to the teaching of foreign languages including English language. This is followed by an overview of the English language teaching materials which have been used there and the chapter concludes with a discussion of the challenges which face the teaching of English in Libya.

It is important to note that during the compilation of this research, major political changes took place in Libya following the revolution of February 17 2011 that overthrew Gaddafi's regime and inevitably some of the information provided in this chapter may be subject to change in the very near future.

2.1 Libya: The Research Context

2.1.1 The Name

Some historical sources indicated that: "*the troublesome tribesmen on the Egyptian western marches were called the Teheno and the Lebu*" (Nyrop et al. 1973 cited in El-Fiki 1982:8) and it is probably this single Berber tribe, who were known to the Ancient Egyptians, which led to the name Libya subsequently being applied by the Ancient Greeks to the whole of North Africa which lay west of Egypt (Wright 1969: 21). In addition, in classical times "*the term Libyan was used to refer to all of its Berber inhabitants*" (Metz 1989: 3) and became a general name for all the tribes in the area to the west of Egypt (Sharaf 1963:1 cited in Wright 1969:9). It was not until c.300 A.D. that the Roman Emperor Diocletian "*gave the name 'Libya' to specific territories, when he created the Provinces of Libya Superior and Libya Inferior in northern Cyrenaica*" (Wright 1969: 21). During the Islamic period, Libya was referred to as Barka and Tripoli by the Arabs (Habib 1973 cited in Wright 1969: 21).

During the first European occupation ordered by the Italian dictator Mussolini in 1911, the territory became known internationally as Libya. After the period of Italian colonisation and then the Anglo-French administration, Libya finally gained its

independence on December 24th, 1951 and the three provinces of Tripolitania, Cyrenaica and Fezzan were united to produce the United Kingdom of Libya. During the period of Gaddafi's regime, the country became known officially as the Libyan Arab Republic. The official name of the country changed again to the Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriya from 1977 to 1986, and to the Great Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriya from 1986 to 2011. In 2011, at the outbreak of the popular uprising against the rule of Gaddafi, the name Libya was once again used as the official name of the country by the National Transitional Council. Since 2013 it has been officially known as the State of Libya.

2.1.2 Geographical Location

Libya is the fourth largest country in Africa, bordered by the Mediterranean Sea to the north, Chad and Niger to the south. To the east, it shares borders with Egypt and a small corner of Sudan and its western neighbours are Tunisia and Algeria. It occupies a huge land area of some 1, 750, 000 square kilometres but since some 85% of Libya is desert, most of the country's population are concentrated along its 1,768 km Mediterranean coastline. This coastal strip has a Mediterranean climate, meaning hot, dry summers and cool, wet winters for the most part. Occasionally, a hot, dust-laden wind from the desert, known as the Ghibli, reaches the coastal area. Away from the coast, however, rainfall becomes increasingly scarce and the Libyan interior has a hot desert climate, with greater extremes of temperature, making it a less favourable area for human habitation.

Due to Libya's geographical position, it is often referred to as a bridge between Africa and Europe. This made Libya and its sea ports a key Mediterranean trading post between Europe in the north and Africa in the south. It also made it a desirable target for foreign invaders from the earliest times who have left their mark on Libyan culture.

2.1.3 Demographic Profile

Based on the preliminary results of the General Census of total inhabitants of Libya in 2009, the current population of Libya was 6,419,925 (Libyan General Information Authority, 2011; Atlas of Vital Statistics:105) showing that when compared to its large land area, the Libyan population is a relatively small one. Citing from a 1994 report on the development of education in Libya, Al. Moghani (2003: 17-18) notes that:

> *Libya had a very high rate of population growth, 4%, between 1973-1984, dropping to 3.6% during 1984-1992. The apparent reason for this high rate of growth is the availability of the high percentage of young people (0-14 years old) in the total population which reached 50.2% in 1995. The percentage of the population involved in economy activities was only 23.4%.*

According to the Central intelligence Agency, the population of Libya in 2014 is 6,244,174. (The Worldfactbook: 2014)

2.1.4 Languages

<u>2.1.4.1 Arabic</u>

The Arabic spoken in Libya can be classified into three varieties. The first, Classical Arabic, is the language of the Qur'an and is used by Muslims in performing all religious rituals and saying daily prayers. The second variety, MSA, is the only official language of Libya. This is a somewhat simplified form of Classical Arabic which is used in the Press, broadcast media, public speeches, formal settings, including the education system, and in all writing (Cowan 2000: 29). The third variety is the Libyan Arabic dialect, the

informal variant which is used for everyday communication. This is very different from both Classical Arabic and MSA. It also varies from city to city and region to region in Libya, meaning that the dialect spoken in western Libya is very different to that spoken in the east of the country. The Libyan dialect is the first form that children acquire at home before starting school when they begin learning MSA when they start formal schooling. Classical Arabic is also introduced during the study of Qur'anic subjects and Arabic literature. This means that when children enter school, they are exposed to a language which is different from that of their usual everyday speech.

2.1.4.2 Berber

Berber (or Tamazight) varieties are spoken by only 5% of the population and do not currently enjoy official status. This group of closely related languages is mainly spoken in Morocco and Algeria. The Berber are a small minority in Libya living in Jabel Nafusa (Nafusa Mountain), the coastal town of Zuwara, and in some oases such as Ghadames, Awjilah, and Sowknah, and most speak both Arabic and Berber. The estimated Berber population in Libya is 150,000 and this small minority speak their language among themselves and pass it on to their children.

During the 42 years of Gaddafi's regime, "*He denied the existence of indigenous Berbers as an ethnicity alongside the now-dominant population of Arab origin*" (Allafrica 2011) considering them to be a product of colonialism, created by the west to divide Libya. Following the overthrow of Gaddafi in 2011, the new official governing body, the National Transitional Council, reached out to the Berber people who had been keen participants in the revolution against the Gaddafi regime and were asking to have their rights recognised. Their involvement in the struggle against Gaddafi helped them to regain their dignity and their rights as part of Libyan society. Having succeeded in helping to overthrow Gaddafi's government, the Berber are now asking the new government to guarantee their rights in the new state. This involves a demand for their language to be taught formally in schools in their regions and to be used alongside Arabic in official government transactions. The Berber people are also demanding the right to political representation in Parliament and to including the Berber language in the Libyan constitution. A number of Libyan television channels are already broadcasting in Berber varieties.

2.1.4.3 Foreign Languages

With regard to foreign languages, English is the most frequently used foreign language mainly due to its importance in business and commerce and it is generally used by the younger generation in some domains which will be discussed in chapter three). Italian is still known by some older people. It is also noteworthy that this language has contributed significantly to the distinctiveness of the Libyan variety of Arabic.

2.2 Historical Influences on Libyan Education

2.2.1 General Overview

In order to fully understand how the English language started to be taught formally in Libyan schools, it is useful firstly to provide a general overview of the history of education in Libya bearing in mind, as El-Fiki (1982: 63) notes, that it is conventionally assumed that the educational system in any country is strongly linked with the political, economic, and the social system of that nation. It is also the educational system that political regimes depend upon to achieve their goals and maintain their system. Education in Libya throughout the centuries has thus reflected the ideologies of all the different regimes that have governed there.

As previously noted, due to its strategic position, for a major part of its history, Libya has been subjected to foreign rule, beginning with the Phoenicians, the Greeks, the Romans, and the Byzantines. These were followed by the Arab Muslims who spread their language and religion throughout this country during the Islamic conquests. They were eventually followed by the Ottoman Turks, the Italians, and then finally, during World War II, Libya came under the control of a British and French administrative condominium. Unfortunately, there are very few sources that provide detailed information about the history of education in Libya particularly on a period-by-period basis especially in more modern times when the country was under the direct rule of foreign powers.

2.2.2 Education during the Islamic Conquest

In one way or another, all these different cultures left their mark on Libyan society, but it was the Arab conquest which was to have the most profound and long-lasting effect (El-Fiki 1982: 63). Metz (1987:4) agrees, arguing that the introduction of Islam and the Arabization of Libya during the Middle Ages represented: "*the most significant milestones in Libya's history*."

In general terms, the emergence of Islam represented an important step in the history of education in the whole Arab Muslim world since as part of its religious teachings, Islam encourages Muslims to pay great attention to education, thus, there was an educational renaissance in the countries conquered by the Muslims at that time including Libya. The indigenous peoples of Libya were all Berber-speaking communities until the Arab conquest in the eleventh century under the leadership of two large and influential tribes, the Bano Saleem and the Bano Hellal. They settled in Libya where they spread their religion, Islam, and their language, Arabic. This language was accepted by the indigenous tribes because Berber does not have a written form and it was a useful way of recording information. They also embraced Islam without any need for coercion or force because they found it provided them with practical moral guidance (Al Sheikh

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1972: 11).[1] Initially, education was limited to Islamic religious sciences, including the interpretation of the Qur'an, the development of jurisprudence (Figh) and legitimate fatwa (Kaaer 2008: 49-50). This religious education also of necessity involved teaching Arabic which was the language of Islamic scriptures and was also the language of the Islamic empire. Later, further sciences were included such as mathematics, medicine, law, astronomy, history and other disciplines.

During this period, the mosques which had spread throughout the country by that time, played a significant role in education since in addition to being places of worship, Muslim theologians would conduct lectures and lead discussions there for anyone who sought knowledge, and educational debates between students and their professors were held to discuss other subjects apart from Islamic theology.. This could be considered the first formal educational system which existed in Libya, with the network of mosques being one of the main reasons for the spread of Arab Islamic culture in Libya. (Al Sheikh 1972).

2.2.3 Education in the Ottoman Period (1551-1911)

According to Steele-Greig (1948:9): "*Very little information is available on education during the Turkish occupation of Tripolitania. Most of the records that were kept have been destroyed*." In 1551 the Ottoman Empire gained control of Libya and as Al-Sheikh (1972:65) notes, unlike the case with the Arab conquest, there was no immediate flourishing of education and learning:

> *Education suffered, like the rest of the aspects of the lives of citizens, from neglect and lack of interest by the governors or the State itself which inherited the country with its accompanying poor conditions without making any serious attempt to change or embrace progress and seek renaissance.*

Farely (n.d. cited in El-Fiki 1982: 75) goes even further and suggests that at the beginning of the Ottoman period, the new Turkish rulers were only interested in establishing their domination over the Libyans and collecting taxes from them and that education (or the lack of it) formed part of a deliberate strategy aimed at exercising control over the population:

> *The interest of the aggressors was not to provide education for the Libyan people, but rather to deprive them of it and to keep them underdeveloped. Furthermore, they channelled whatever education they provided to serve*

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[1] Most Libyans are Muslims with the majority following the Sunni Islamic tradition. Foreign communities of Christians also exist in Libya with the longest established religious tradition in Libya being Coptic Orthodox Christianity. According to the Britannica Encyclopaedia of World Religion (2006) there are small congregations of Roman Catholics, Anglicans and Unitarians. Small numbers of other minority religions including Hindus, Buddhists, and Baha'is also exist throughout the country. There was also a Libyan Jewish minority, based mainly in Tripoli, most of whom left the country in the late 1960s, to migrate to Italy.

their own purposes. They created an elite group who would be able to identify themselves with the aggressors' interests.

The Turkish rulers established the first Turkish schools for Libyans in 1553 in Tripoli. Known as *Madrassa*, these schools were usually attached to large mosques and were funded by collecting taxes from the people. These included the Qur'an, Arabic grammar, Islamic theology and Turkish, which can be considered as the first foreign language to be introduced to the Libyan people after Arabic. In 1835, the arrival of a new ruler named Mustafa Negib Pasha, marked the start of a more enlightened era. His first act was to establish basic laws to govern education which were the same as those used in Turkey. He also ordered the first newspapers to be printed and then used the Press to publish adverts telling parents that they needed to send their children to school. Due to a lack of teachers, the ruler also ordered members of the State administration to allot a specific time daily to teaching and training teachers.

Pre-1895 F. Coro (cited in Steele-Greig 1948: 10) writes:

> *The only instruction imparted to the children was the reading and writing of Arabic. Even this was very primitive, all instruction being based on the Koran. In every quarter of the town and in every inhabited locality a Fighi (teacher) collected a number of small boys, each bringing with him a small wooden black-board on which was inscribed verses from the Koran, teachers and pupils would squat on rush mats placed on the floor and at a sign from the Fighi - who maintained discipline with a long Gerida (cane) which he often used – repeated in chorus, hour after hour, in a monotonous singsong, verses from the book of the believers. These schools which had been in existence from time immemorial, and continued after the Italian occupation, are known as Kuttabs.*

In 1895, the Turkish government built and established a number of modern schools, following the same system as that of Turkey. These schools were organised as follows:

- Primary school for boys (three classes): Subjects taught were Arabic, Turkish, Islamic religion, Turkish history, Arithmetic and Geography.
- Secondary school for boys (four classes): French and Persian were taught in addition to the primary school subjects.
- Girls school: (six primary classes and three secondary ones). The subjects taught were the same as at the boys' school.
- Teacher-training school (*Dar el-Mualimin)* which offered a two-year course for training village teachers.
- Military Academy (five classes): Subjects were the same as those taught in boys' secondary school in addition to some military subjects offered by the Turkish Ministry of War. (ibid)

Finally in Tripoli there was a group of schools which offered three years of religion instruction, aimed at boys who wished to work in a religious career. After successfully completing these three years, students were able to go on to El Hazar University in Cairo to obtain the title of Ulema (Islamic scholar).

A French traveller in Libya E. Bernet, cited in Steele-Greig (1948: 10) observed at the time that: "*Only twenty-six schools existed to cater for more than a million inhabitants. Education had been neglected and the population lived in profound ignorance. The situation was deplorable; civilisation could not advance; trade could not develop*."

At the end of the nineteenth century, the Libyans felt the need to educate their children so they started to build their own schools. The role of the Turkish government was simply to give them a licence to open these schools and supervise them. Various towns or villages across Libya. It was obligatory for those schools to teach Turkish as well as the history of Turkey in addition to Arabic, the study of Islam, mathematics, and geography. The Ottoman government also established some specialized schools mainly aimed at producing students will the necessary skills to be employed in the different positions required by the Turkish administration.

The second type of education which existed in that period was the European schools for the children of the foreign communities living in Libya. Steele-Greig (1948: 11) notes that few references exist to this form of education and bases his descriptions on work by Marc Fournel (written in 1886). Fournel mentioned four schools that were attended by European children in Tripolitania at that time. The first was a school for boys which had some 125-150 pupils, from various races and religions; children enrolled there were taught to read and write Italian and French. The second was a nursery school for children aged between three and five years old who were taught basic literacy skills by a Catholic order of Franciscan nuns. The third school, for girls, catered for 350 pupils. Finally, there was a type of conservatoire, based in Tripoli, which specialised in teaching music, especially the piano.

The Italian community was the largest of all the European communities in Libya during the Ottoman period. In the late nineteenth century, as increasing numbers of Italian immigrants arrived in Libya, the Italian government made great efforts to encourage them to settle in there. This meant there was an urgent need for a number of Italian schools to be established to cope with this influx and this marked the beginning of Italian education in Libya. By 1888, a number of new schools had been opened including an infant school and primary schools for boys and for girls. In that year, two secondary schools specialising in technical-commercial subjects also opened, one for boys and one for girls. The medium of education in those schools was Italian which was the language used by most European residents at that time, especially those in Tripoli. According to Steele-Greig (1948: 13):

> *By 1904 the pupils attending the Italian government schools were drawn from many races and creeds- with the exception of Moslems. In order to attract the latter, a special course was opened which included the teaching of Arabic, Italian, and French. Forty-five Arab boys were enrolled in the first year. The Turkish government being jealous of this ambitious scheme, did all it could to persuade the Arabs not to attend, going so far as to post*

police at the school entrance. Notwithstanding, the course continued until 1910.

2.2.4 Education under Italian Colonisation (1911-1943)

Following the Italo-Turkish War which led to the defeat of the Ottomans, Italy occupied Libyan territory in 1911. After the First World War, under the leadership of the Italian leader Benito Mussolini, Italy decided to make Libya into an Italian colony as part of their imperial ambitions. During the early years of the colonization, all educational institutions were closed whilst the Libyans mounted a fierce resistance against their Italian occupiers who had settled not only in large cities but also in the countryside. Wright (1980 cited in St John 2001) noted that this Libyan opposition to Italian occupation provided: "*Modern independent Libya with the invaluable credentials of battles, national heroes and 'martyrs', and the almost mystical prestige of a prolonged people's 'anti-colonialist struggle' waged against heavy odds*."

In 1912, schools were reopened after the war. One of the Italian government's key priorities was to Italianize the country both in terms of education and culture, in accordance with Italy's imperialistic plans (Ministry of Education 1970 cited in El-Fiki 1982: 80). As previously noted, there were a number of private Italian schools supported by Italians, Maltese, and Jews before the Italian occupation, and these were built mainly for Italian children and other non-Libyan children. Only a few Arab pupils studied in these schools which followed the same educational system as the schools in Italy (El-Fiki 1982: 82).

Most Libyan pupils continued to attend the Qur'anic schools which had existed before Italian colonisation, following the same traditional curriculum. This form of education was preferred by most of the Libyan parents as it reflected Arab culture and language as well as Islamic tradition. Many Libyans were determined not to send their children to modern Italian schools which they considered to be a threat, believing they would Italianise their children and made them loyal to their enemy.

The third type of schools which existed in the colonial period were established by the Italian government especially for the children of those Libyans who worked for the Italian authorities as civil servants or military officers. In these Arab/Italian schools the teaching of Italian was obligatory and Italian culture and values were transmitted via the curriculum and textbooks. These schools also taught Arabic, mathematics, and other sciences.

Italian was the only language that was officially accepted by the governing authorities in Libya in all transactions with the Libyan people. Therefore, Libyans were expected to

learn Italian. The government also ordered the renaming in Italian of all the streets and provinces throughout Libya's cities, towns and villages.[2]

2.2.5 Education during the British-French Administration (1943-1952)

Libya was a theatre of war during the period 1940-1943 in the Second World War which ended with the defeat of the Axis powers, Italy and Germany. The Libyans fought with the Allied forces and the Arabs from Egypt to liberate their country from Italian colonialism and the Nazis, suffering losses in the many bloody military battles between the belligerents.

When the war ended, and the Italian authorities had been expelled from Libya, it was agreed that Britain and France would jointly administer Libya, with the provinces of Tripolitania and Cyrenaica under British rule while Fezzan in the south came under the French authorities (Mursi 1974 cited in El-Fiki 1982: 93). This administrative arrangement was only intended to be a temporary measure until the country was able to recover from the chaos into which it had been plunged with the collapse of Italian rule and the conflict and could eventually be given its independence (Villard 1956 cited in Zarrug 1973: 36). For six months, British and French troops occupied most of the schools as the administrative powers attempted to resolve the complex political, social, and financial difficulties during their rule of Libya and education was not seen as a high priority; as a consequence, more destruction and ruin occurred, especially in the rural areas.

As a consequence, in the period immediately following the conflict, like all aspects of life, education in Libya was badly affected by these events, and despite all their other problems, Libyans felt it was crucially important to address the education of their children and make a start on rebuilding its education system (Al-Sheikh 1972: 269). However, the country faced two major challenges with this task during this period. The first was that the Italian colonisation period had left the country without a national educational system that was fit for its own purposes (Zarrug 1973: 36). In addition, to compound matters, the physical infrastructure for delivering education was also missing, with many school buildings closed, destroyed or damaged as a result of the conflict and its aftermath (El-Fiki 1982:93).

As a result of the insistent demands of Libyan parents for schools to be reopened a committee was set up by the British government to discuss four key issues. The first focused on establishing a set of general principles which were to be followed in the new educational system. Secondly, the committee needed to make a decision concerning the number of schools which were to be reopened and where. It was also essential for the committee to draw up an estimate of the expenditure which would be required to enable

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[2] A number of these Italian street names such as Via Toreno still remain in spite of the return to Arabic names during Gaddafi's regime.

the education system to become fully functional once more. Finally in terms of detail, decisions needed to be taken regarding the syllabus to be followed by pupils and the textbooks which they were to use (Steele-Greig, 1948:32).

Much of the information which appears in this chapter concerning Libyan education in the period before and during the British-French Administration was provided by Steele-Greig who was selected to be the Educational Officer for Libya, and subsequently wrote about his findings and experiences there. The post to which Steele-Greig was appointed had the following terms of reference:

> *1.   To open primary schools for the teaching of pupils through the medium   of the Italian and Arabic languages.*
> *2.   To survey existing school buildings.*
> *3.   To prepare estimates of expenditure and a suitable curriculum.*
> *4.   To screen and appoint teaching and administrative staff (1948:32)*

According to Steele-Greig by September 1943, enough schools had been re-opened for some 6632 pupils to be enrolled. Of these, 1804 were Arabs, and the rest were Italians or Jews. During the period of the British and French condominium, the Italian schools which mainly served the children of the Italian community and other non-Arab nationalities in Libya were re-opened. In addition, primary schools aimed at the local Arabic-speaking Libyan population were created. In order to establish this new provision, an educational system and curriculum based on the Egyptian system was applied in Cyrenaica, the eastern part of Libya, and in Tripolitania. Teachers were recruited from Egypt and Egyptian textbooks were obtained for use.

Fezzan, the desert district, which was under the French administration, adopted the same French educational system that was applied in Tunisia and Algeria (Ministry of Education, cited in El-Fiki 1982: 97).

Initially, during this period, there was no secondary education for the Libyans because of the shortage of teachers, materials and money. In 1948, the British government established four secondary schools in the two big cities of Tripoli and Benghazi (Ministry of Education cited in Zarrug 1973: 46). In addition to that, two teacher-training institutions were also built, one in Tripoli, the other in Benghazi in 1948/49 (ibid.). This period also witnessed an improvement in girls' education compared with the absolute neglect this received during the previous era of Italian colonisation. By 1949, there were 14 primary schools for girls spread throughout the country (Steele-Greig 1948 cited in Zarrug 1973: 46). Zarrug (1973:48) concludes that:

> *At this stage, it may be fair to say that Libya under the British and French administration was able, for the first time in its modern history, to establish the foundations for its national educational system. The achievements in terms of number of pupils and establishments were generally small, but could certainly be appreciated when the short period, the serious difficulties, and the circumstances of a temporary rule are remembered.*

2.2.6 Education during the Independence Period (1951 – 1969)

Libya finally gained its independence on December 24 1951, being established as a constitutional and hereditary monarchy under King Idris I. A number of major problems faced the new Libyan government following this declaration of independence, not least the low educational standards of the country. The Libyan population at independence numbered just one million and El-Fiki (1982: 109) claims that only five thousand of these inhabitants had completed five years or more of schooling. The second major problem which further exacerbated this situation was the nation's extreme poverty with Libya being one of the poorest countries in the world at that period. [3]

In his speech from the throne which opened the very first session of the new Libyan Parliament, King Idris not only emphasised the key importance of education but also outlined its future direction in the newly created United Kingdom of Libya:

> *My government fully realizes that education is the only factor apt to make the nation an effective force keeping abreast with the procession of dignified life and modern civilization; it is the beacon which guides the people and enables them to realize their ideals and grasp the effective means of progress towards perfection. The first step worthy of great care is to unify the curriculum of education in the United Kingdom of Libya on the basis of the Egyptian programmes, and to make its purpose clear and definite, that purpose being to create a good, fruitful generation, straightforward in its morality, organized in its thinking, believing in God and loyal to its fatherland. Therefore, my government is now proceeding to establish a higher Council of Education, composed of those who are most efficient and best qualified to achieve results, in order thus to secure for the country the unity of curriculum and methods of teaching, bearing in mind the environment, nationality and religion of the land* (cited in Higgins 1952: 14).

This concern regarding education was also reflected in the fact that under Chapter II of the new Libyan constitution (1951) which proclaims the Rights of the People, two specific articles related to education were included:

> *Every Libyan shall have the right to education. The State shall ensure the diffusion of education by means of establishment of public schools and of private schools which it may permit to be established under its supervision,*

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[3] Estimated per capita income at the time was $35 (Higgins: UNESCO, p.8.

> *for Libyans and foreigners. (Article 28, Libyan Constitution, 1951 cited in*
> Al-Sheikh 1972: 289)

> *Elementary education shall be compulsory for Libyan children of both sexes; elementary and primary education in the public schools shall be free (Article 30, Libyan Constitution, 1951 cited in Ibid).*

At the time, the United Nations acknowledged it had a responsibility to help strengthen the economic development, raise the standard of living and promote the social welfare of the newly independent Libya which at that time was heavily reliant on foreign financial aid (Higgins, 1952 cited in El-Fiki, 1982: 110). Thus, in 1951, a mission of specialists from various United Nations agencies was tasked with studying the economic and social problems of Libya in order to offer advice on the nation's future development. This group was led by Professor Benjamin Higgins of McGill University (Canada) and his report provides a revealing snapshot of the state of education in Libya at that time.

According to figures compiled by Higgins (1952) which are appended to the UNESCO report,[4] there were a total of some 350 primary schools providing modern education across all of the Libyan provinces (Tripolitania, Cyrenaica and Fezzan) which came under the authority of the Libyan Ministry of Education. The traditional Qur'anic schools were also scattered everywhere throughout the three provinces. With regard to secondary education, the UN mission found just five secondary schools in operation (four in the province of Tripolitania and one in the city of Benghazi) where the students had obtained their primary school-leaving certificate. The members of the mission were encouraged by the fact that despite all the many difficulties, nearly 3,000 girls had been enrolled to attend public schools in 1951-1952. The continuing influence of the United Kingdom in Libyan education was evident in the fact that the Libyan Minister of Education at that time was assisted by a Director and a Deputy-Director, both of whom were British. The UNESCO fact-finding mission also noted that the Egyptian school curriculum was still being followed without modification, even for history and geography, at both primary and secondary level; English was also being taught from the fifth year of primary studies onwards.

Having suffered successive waves of foreign conquests, when Libya finally gained its independence, it faced particular challenges in terms of deciding "*how to improve education and design a curriculum that [served] the interest of the citizens, the national community, and society in general*" (Al-Moghani 2003: 17). Formulating a new

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[4] The Report of the Mission to Libya (1952, Paris: UNESCO) can be accessed in its entirety from the virtual archives of UNESCO and is available at:
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0005/000590/059048EB.pdf

educational system different from the ones used in the pre-independence period which was responsive to national needs inevitably meant introducing "*Major changes in the philosophy of education, the educational system, and educational curricula*" (Al-Moghani 2003: 17).

Given the myriad problems facing the Libyan government at the time, it was clear that devising a completely new Libyan education system and national curriculum from scratch on the basis of the limited finance and other resources it had at its disposal was simply not feasible. In addition, there was also a desperate shortage of appropriately qualified and trained Libyan teachers. Thus, the Egyptian government agreed it would cooperate in helping to develop the Libyan education system. A new suitably modified version of the Egyptian system of teaching methods and curriculum was to be used at primary and secondary levels and Egypt would provide further assistance by sending teachers and textbooks to Libya (Hajjaji 1967: 84 cited in Al-Mansouri 1983: 23).

According to Zarrug (1973: 46), a number of alterations were made to the Egyptian curriculum which was to be delivered in Libya. The first of these entailed replacing the Egyptian history and geography in the syllabus with Libyan history and geography at both primary and secondary stages, although it was some time before appropriate replacement materials were written, printed and distributed. The other changes were of direct relevance to the teaching of English. The decision was made that no foreign language was to be taught during the primary stage of education, even though during the British administration English had been taught from the fifth year of this stage. One of the key reasons for this decision was to avoid having to employ non-Libyan specialist staff at primary level once sufficient numbers of locally trained teachers were available. However, it was clear that the ability to speak English was still viewed as being of crucial importance since English was to be taught as the first foreign language during the secondary stage of schooling throughout the whole of Libya. French, previously taught as the first foreign language in the province of Fezzan, was to be treated as the new second foreign language.

El-Fiki (1973: 133) concludes that in spite of all the circumstances facing the fledgling state, Libya made remarkable progression in education throughout the period from its independence to the coming to power of Gaddafi in 1969. The main achievements of Libyan education during the period of independence have been summarised by Al Gomati (1978) as follows:

- For the first time, education was conducted entirely in Arabic instead of the old system, in force before 1940, of parallel teaching in Italian and Arabic.
- The education system witnessed expansion, both in the quantity of students enrolled at primary and secondary stages, and in the range of educational services on offer.
- Attention was directed to the education of girls, particularly in regions where this had traditionally been neglected.

- Significant improvement was made to the quality of the education on offer by employing better educated and trained teachers (some from other parts of the Arab world including Egypt and Palestine) and to curricula provision which was targeted more towards the specific needs of the Libyan population.
- Attention was also given to university education with the founding of the first university in Libya with colleges in Tripoli and Benghazi.
- There was an expansion in the numbers of teacher-training institutes intended to prepare local teachers and reduce the country's reliance on non-Libyan teaching staff.

In terms of educational policy, the Libyan authorities continued to focus their efforts on improving what Higgins had identified as "*Libya's major untapped resource: the latent skills of its people*" (1952: 13). However, the discovery of oil in Libya during this period, leading to the country's first oil exports in the last quarter of 1961, has been referred to as "*the turning point in the contemporary history of Libya*" (Ali, 2011: 2). For it could be argued that this discovery was to be responsible not only for transforming the country's economic fortunes but also for mapping out its political destiny for decades to come. As we shall see later, this would, in turn, have a dramatic impact on future decisions regarding educational policy, specifically the teaching of English.

2.2.7 Education during the Gaddafi Regime (1969- 2011)

On September 1 1969, a small group of army officers staged a military coup, under the leadership of Muammar Gaddafi, and his dictatorial regime was to remain in power for 42 years. Although Gaddafi's new Libyan Arab Republic, as it was initially referred to, had little, if anything, in common with the previous political system of Constitutional Monarchy which it overthrew, it did however enshrine the importance of education in its new Constitution which was issued on December 11 1969. Article 14 states that:

> *Education is a right and duty for all Libyans. It is compulsory until the end of the primary school. The State guarantees this right through the establishment of schools, institutes, and universities, and of pedagogical and cultural institutions in which education is free. The creation of private schools will also be regulated by law. The State is particularly anxious to enhance the physical, intellectual and moral development of the youth.*

It was clear by the late 1960s that the new-found prosperity which the discovery of oil had brought to Libya would mean that these well-intentioned words could be transformed into reality for its citizens. The profits from oil exports would allow the State to finance a programme of free education, stretching all the way from primary to tertiary level, and also to tackle the issue of adult illiteracy, which in some parts of the country still remained at the level of 90% which had been observed by the UNESCO mission in the early 1950s (Higgins: 1952).

Although the general structure of the educational system in Libya underwent few fundamental changes from its original pattern, changes driven by political ideology and external events were to influence educational policy, philosophy, and the curriculum to a massive extent. As promised in the wording of the 1969 Constitution, public education in Libya continues to be free of charge for everyone who desires it from elementary stage to the university level.

The most recent set of aims for education in Libya reflect the underlying principles of the regime's educational philosophy:

1. To help students to master the proper use of Arabic in all areas with interest in foreign language to communicate with the world.
2. To develop the students' sense of national identity, and deepen their pride in the Arab Nation and Islamic world civilization.
3. To provide educational opportunities for all and assist students to choose the specialization that is in conformity with their orientations and abilities, and meet the needs of the society to achieve sustainable human development.
4. To enable students to acquire the skills of thinking and scientific analysis to keep pace with science and technical development in the contemporary world.
5. To achieve a balance between theoretical information and its practical application and to establish linkage and integration between different fields of knowledge which help to employ them in their lives (General Peoples' Committee, 2008: 4-5).

LEVEL	DESCRIPTION	ENGLISH
KINDERGARTEN	Age: Four or five Duration: Two years Not compulsory	No English is introduced in this level in the state kindergarten (private schools start teaching English at this level)
BASIC EDUCATION: PRIMARY	Age: 6-12 Grades: 1-6 Duration: Six years Compulsory.	No English teaching was introduced to this level until 1999/2000
BASIC EDUCATION: PREPARATORY	Age: 13- 15 Grades 7,8,9 Duration: Three years Compulsory.	English language teaching started at grade 7
INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION (SECONDARY)	Age: 16-19 Grades 10,11,12,13 Duration: Three-four years Non-compulsory specialism	Since 1999/2000 English was taught according to the different specialism
HIGHER EDUCATION(	Age: 19 +	General English is

undergraduate	Duration: Four-six years	taught to all departments
HIGHER EDUCATION (POSTGRADUATE MASTERS)	Age: 24 + Duration: One-three years	English terms are introduced according to the specialism

Table 1: The Educational System in Libya

Children are enrolled at **kindergarten** at the age of four or five. This level is not compulsory and some cities and villages do not have any kindergarten. Instead, parents start to teach their children at home, passing on some basic knowledge like numbers and the Arabic alphabet before they begin formal education at primary school.

The first level of formal compulsory education, **basic education** is divided into two stages. Basic education is compulsory for all Libyan children. The first stage, **primary education**, lasts for a total of six years. Children are enrolled at the age of six and remain until the age of 12. The second stage, **preparatory** (or pre-secondary) **education** lasts for three years and students normally enrol at the age of 13 to 15 years old. All students who have completed the basic education level and passed the national exam can enrol in secondary education.

Secondary Education starts at the age of 16. Following major changes to the education system in Libya in 2000 a new form of secondary education was introduced which meant that students were expected to choose specialist areas of study which would be the focus of their secondary school learning and would also define their future academic route (Asker 2011: i).

Secondary Education Pre-2000 consisted of just two routes, with all students studying Arabic and EFL.

- *Arts:* including subjects such as History, Geography, and Islamic Studies. Students who successfully complete this route can gain access to study in the Faculty of Arts (comprising twelve departments such as Arabic, English, History, Geography, Psychology, and Philosophy) or the Faculty of Law.
- *Sciences:* including subjects such as Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Statistics, and Algebra. Students who successfully complete this route can enrol in the Faculties of Medicine, Engineering, Sciences, or Economics.

Secondary Education Post-2000 was more applied with students choosing their area of specialization from the second year of this stage, secondary education having been divided into four different majors or fields of study, namely:

- Social Sciences
- Basic Sciences
- Engineering Sciences
- Life Sciences (Suwaed, 2011: 25).

Each of the different specialised majors has its own specialised subjects with EFL being considered a core subject in each major.

Students can also opt to study **technical or vocational education in a Higher Institute**. Any students who successfully completes their secondary education or technical or vocational education can seek admission to higher education. **University** undergraduate courses typically last for four years although in certain faculties (such as Medicine), the university course lasts for six years. Appropriately qualified students may undertake postgraduate study which includes taught **Masters** Courses or in some fields it is also possible to complete a doctoral research degree (**PhD**).

Since 2000, Libyan students start learning English as a compulsory school subject in the fifth grade of primary school at the age of 11 onwards. During secondary education, lasting four years in specialist school, students follow one of the four specialised majors with its own subjects but English is considered as a core subject for every major. Thus, when they finish secondary school, Libyan students have been studying English for a total of eight years.

2.3 The History of ELT in Libya

2.3.1 Introduction

This section will trace the history of ELT in Libya beginning with its introduction as a school subject during the British and French administration. In addition to briefly presenting the core materials that have been used by Libyan learners of EFL and the extent to which they mirrored the prevailing trends in ELT methodology at that time[5] it will also explore how the fortunes of ELT have been closely linked with political ideology and foreign policy over the course of this time.

2.3.2 The 1940s

After the defeat of Italy, English was introduced in the British-administered provinces of Tripolitania and Cyrenaica in the 1940s, replacing Italian as the first foreign language. Many people wanted to learn English in order to try and secure a job working with the British administration therefore the aim of teaching EFL was to meet this need (Ministry of Education, 1973 cited in Mahgoub, 1977: 1) and the focus was very much on reading and writing skills. The first EFL textbooks introduced in Libya during that period were *The Basic Way to English* by W. B. Mumford and *the Basic Reading Books 1 and 2* by L. W. Lockart. Each textbook included 850 basic words which students were meant to memorize. Mahgoub notes that the method of teaching English at that time was

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[5] This part of the chapter draws on research by Mohammed Mahgoub (1966, 1977), one of the first EFL teachers in Libya who also wrote EFL textbooks for Libyan learners of English. He formed part of one of the first groups of Libyans sent to the US to undertake postgraduate studies, gaining a Masters degree in English there. In his dissertation, he traced the history of ELT in Libya from its introduction to the 1960s.

standardised across all schools, requiring teachers to help students memorize the main grammatical rules presented in the allocated textbooks and to assist them with writing English. Tests, based entirely on the content of the assigned textbooks, were held periodically (ibid: 2).

In the late 1940s, *Essential English for Foreign Students Books 1-4* (1938–1942, London: Longmans, Green) by C. E. Eckersley were introduced. *A Teacher's Handbook* with a Key to the Exercises was also available. According to the 'Preface' of the 1955 edition, these books designed for adult learners were aimed at "*giving the student a sound knowledge of the essentials of both spoken and written English and taking him well on the way to a mastery of idiomatic conversational and literary English*".[6] Eckersley's books placed great emphasis on vocabulary building and grammatical rules but he claimed that "*every effort has been made to cover the linguistic pill with the jam of gaiety*" by introducing the characters of an EFL teacher, Mr. Priestley, his household and his group of students. However, as the title of the series indicates, these textbooks were aimed generically at 'foreign students' and there was no attempt to focus on any specific problems which Arabic speakers might face with English or to address the environment in which they were likely to be using the language (see Figure 4).

2.3.3 The 1950s

These textbooks were replaced in the early 1950s with a recently published new five-level series (Classbooks One-Five) entitled *New Method English for the Arab World* (1952-1955 London, Longmans, Green). These textbooks, authored by Dr. Michael West, had recently been introduced for Egyptian learners of EFL and they came along with the teachers from Egypt brought in to teach English in Libya as part of the Egyptian government's aid agreement (Mahgoub, 1966: 3). Clearly targeted at an Arabic-speaking audience, these books also emphasized the skills of reading and vocabulary memorization but drew on the learner's native language to help them understand the meaning of specific vocabulary.

Another new series called *Modern Reader* (Books 1-4) by A. Johnson, containing short passages/stories composed using a limited vocabulary, was introduced into Libya to supplement the *New Method English for the Arab World* textbooks. Johnson's books were also originally intended for Egyptian learners, and the Egyptian environment was

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[6] Illustrations of much of the older material here plus quotations are taken from the excellent ELT archives made available online by the University of Warwick which contains information, extracts and illustrations from early ELT materials which can be accessed at: http://www2.warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/al/research/collect/elt_archive/.

evident in their content. Learners were also provided at end of the textbooks with a glossary of new words explained in Arabic (Mahgoub, 1966: 3). By that stage, the Libyan and Egyptian EFL teachers had also been joined by trained Palestinian and Iraqi staff, and the grammar translation method was used in teaching the newly introduced materials. Although Johnson suggested other newer methods might be used in teaching, the Libyan teachers were largely unfamiliar with these.

As Mahgoub (1966:3) observes, the textbooks and readers initially used to ELT in Libya were not well-suited to this purpose since:" *None of [these] textbooks was especially designed and prepared for Libyan learners of English or took into consideration the Libyan environment or the phonological, grammatical, and lexical problems of the Libyan learners when learning English".*

2.3.4 The 1960s

As a result, in 1965 the textbooks and readers which had previously been used were replaced by a new series of ELT materials and a syllabus specifically designed for the first time for Libyan learners of English. These textbooks, officially approved by the Libyan Ministry of Education at that time, were written by the first Libyan ELT materials designer, Mustafa Gusbi. In Mahgoub's (1977:4) opinion, Gusbi's series of textbooks, which were entitled *English for Libya*, represented "*the first serious attempt to bring up-to-date methods and materials into the classrooms of the preparatory schools of [Libya] and to improve considerably the language taught there".*

In designing and preparing his textbooks, Gusbi took into consideration the Libyan environment as well as the learners' native language reflecting these in the choice of vocabulary and in the presentation of grammatical structures (Mahgoub 1977: 7). Moreover, Mahgoub (1977:6-7) argues that in an attempt "*To create healthy conditions favouring success in teaching English to Libyan learners*", Gusbi also considered the broader socio-linguistic context in which English was being taught, bearing in mind "*the attitudes of the Libyan learners toward his native culture and toward the foreign culture and the people speaking the foreign language*".

The first series of locally produced ELT materials were introduced to preparatory stage students in 1966 and covered seventh, eighth, and ninth grade. Each textbook was also accompanied by a Teacher's Book to help those using the textbooks to deliver and exploit the new materials effectively and successfully. The content and approach of the textbook was also designed to reflect the shift in emphasis in the aims for the preparatory stage outlined by the Libyan Ministry of Education:

> *The aim of teaching English in the preparatory stage is to produce, in three years, an individual who is able to **listen** with understanding to spoken English, to **speak** current English correctly, to **read** with recognition the basic common structures and words of English, and to **write** a few sentences about a simple topic or incident. […] Those students whose education terminates by the end of the third year preparatory stage will have acquired the basic knowledge of the language which will help them in*

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> *their various vocations while those proceeding to secondary stage will have established a sound basis of English and will be able to build their secondary education on it*. Ministry of Education cited in Mahgoub(1977)

Whereas previously the skill of reading had been stressed, students were now expected to have a much broader repertoire which included the ability to listen, speak, and write and it was acknowledged that what was learnt at the preparatory stage formed an important foundation not only for possible use in a work environment but also for further academic study.

Changes to the preparatory stage inevitably entailed modification of the secondary stage syllabus and this took place in the mid-1960s when the Ministry of Education and National Guidance proposed the following general aims for secondary stage EFL in the mid-1960s (1970: 1 cited in Mahgoub, 1977:12). In 1970, a modification to the planning and organization of the syllabus and also to the textbooks used at the secondary stage occurred.

> *To extend considerably the range of patterns and vocabulary of conversation and the fluency with which pupils use them; to widen the range of subjects about which they can read, so that they feel **English as a gateway to knowledge***; *to increase the speed and efficiency of their reading, and to enable pupils to express themselves in simple but accurate written English.*

Again, it is interesting to note that English is increasingly viewed as important for those wishing to study at a higher level, reflecting the spread of English as the lingua franca of science and technology. As a result, in 1966, West's *New Method English for the Arab World* (1952-1955) was replaced by *The Oxford English Course for Iraq, Books III-V.*[7] This series of textbooks was co-authored by A. S. Hornby and an Arabic speaker, Selim Hakim (1956-1958), a pattern which was to become commonly adopted in the preparation of ELT materials for a specific readership. This was supplemented by *English Pattern Practice*, *Establishing the Patterns as Habits* (R. Lado and C. Fries, 1961. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press cited in Mahgoub, 1977:13), a book which provided students with exercises targeting specific grammatical structures or patterns of usage. This adoption of a textbook aimed at students of EFL in Iraq also reflects a shift in Libya's economic position. The textbooks were originally intended for use in another oil-producing nation, the resource which was in the process of transforming Libya, and although Egyptian teachers continued to play a major role in the Libyan education system, Egypt was no longer providing ELT materials for Libya as it had previously done.

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[7] This series was the second edition with a revised title of the earlier series The Oxford English Course for Western Asia.

2.3.5 The Gaddafi Era

The Oxford English Course for Iraq series essentially acted as a stop-gap until it could be replaced by more locally produced materials, designed especially for secondary stage Libyan EFL learners. *Further English for Libya Book One*, co-authored by Mustafa Gusbi and Roland John (Prentice Hall) was introduced to first year secondary school students in the 1970/1971 academic year whilst *Book Two* was used for students following both Arts and Sciences routes at secondary school. (As described later, under the new system, separate books are used for each specialism route). Once again, the authors of these materials took into account the important factors concerning the specific needs of Libyan learners and the broader educational context and socio-linguistic environment in which EFL was being taught and learnt. According to the authors, the pedagogical approach adopted is based upon "*a form of the Direct Method and upon aural-oral work*", reflecting the move away from purely grammar-based methods. The authors also produced a *Teacher's Guide* to accompany the textbooks which offered general advice on teaching approaches and made suggestions about ways of introducing new vocabulary and structures:

> *The Teacher's Guide 1 makes no attempt to suggest to the teacher how he should introduce new words; it merely points out the words that may be new to the students. Teachers are expected to explain these by using the vocabulary already known to the students, to use appropriate teaching aids to drive the meaning home, and to practise the use of such words in simple sentences. New sentence patterns are also given, and there are notes on the suggested procedures to be followed* (Gusbi and John, 1970: 5 cited in Mahgoub, 1977:13).

It is interesting to note that there is an expectation that teachers will be using English rather than Arabic in the classroom at least part of the time, reflecting a shift away from the direct translation method previously favoured.

The English for Libya and *Further English for Libya* series were not replaced until the 1980s when a new series of materials were introduced to Libyan students. This course *Living English for Libya* (Salem Zayat, 1980, Tripoli) was designed for use in intermediate/secondary schools in the public sector. Each unit typically starts with a reading text to introduce new words followed by comprehension questions. The stories and dialogues it contains are set in Libya and focus on the Libyan environment, including the everyday activities of Libyan farmers and the difficulties they face, and feature two characters, Nuria and Salma. According to the memoirs of Dennis L. Carlson (2012),[8] an American Peace Corps volunteer who taught EFL in Libya in the 1980s

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[8] Carlson's memoir Volunteers of America: The Journey of a Peace Corps Teacher (Rotterdam: Sense 2012) provides an interesting insight into a Westerners' experience of the Libyan education system and specifically the teaching of EFL in the early 1980s.

before relations between the two countries broke down entirely in 1986, Zayat's textbook was "*A celebration of Western culture and subtle put-down to traditional Libyan culture*" (2012: xv). He describes his impression of the book thus:

> *On the cover was a painting that showed Nuria and Salma walking home from school in very western clothes, passing by a man herding sheep dressed in traditional clothes. Two huge oil derricks loom in the background as a commercial jet flies overhead. Here in a highly symbolic form was the narrative of the text, the journey of Nuria and Salma, and thus of the Libyan people, from a tradition-bound past to a bright, new modern future looming on the horizon, a future that the exploitation of Libyan oil reserves and the teaching of English would make possible (Carlson 2012: 97-98).*

As detailed later, it was to be more than a decade before new ELT materials were to re-appear in Libya as a result of Gaddafi's anti-Western stance which led to complete banning of the teaching of EFL in Libya for many years.

It was not until the 1990s, that a new series of EFL textbooks entitled English for Libya (Philips et al., 2000) were introduced to replace the previous ELT materials. This course, written and designed by a team of native speakers of English, is intended for secondary school students who have already successfully completed three levels of a general English language series written specifically for Libyan learners, namely, English for Libya: Preparatory Stage. *The English for Libya*: Secondary series were planned by Philips and his co-authors as a multi-level formal subject-specific EFL courses intended to be taught to students following particular specialist strands at secondary school. According to the authors, these materials are based on a communicative methodology which views language as a social phenomenon and uses a multi-syllabus approach, integrating vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, notions, functions, situations, topics and all four language skills. As the covers below show, the books are specifically targeted for Libyan students, reflecting the country's physical environment and also the area of specialism chosen.

Figure 3: Covers of English for Libya: Secondary (Philips et al., 2000)

Although it is the University sector which forms the specific focus of this study of ELT materials and learner attitudes, it is important to have this background information about textbooks which students have been exposed to in their previous levels of study as this will influence their attitudes and experiences as EFL learners in Higher Education.

2.4 The Challenges of ELT in Libya

English language education in Libya has witnessed many highs and downs since the military coup led by Gaddafi in 1969 and ELT has been shaped by the critical role of politics, particularly during the four decades of his regime (Asker 2011: 15). The fact that for a large part of his regime, the State's official stance towards the two main Anglophone countries, the USA and the UK, was one of outright hostility, with Gaddafi himself claiming, in many of his public speeches, that their aim was to force Libya to yield to their colonial aims and objectives (Al-Moghani 2003: 3). This meant that in the minds of the Libyan people, the British were represented as old-style colonialists who had occupied Libya in the past, hindering its development and progress, whilst the Americans with their oil-fuelled imperialistic ambitions posed their own threat to the country. In a country which had suffered successive waves of invasion and within living memory survived attempts at Italianisation, it was not difficult to gain support for such notions. Ideas of this kind were also taught to children at an early stage of the curriculum (ibid.). This had a long-lasting negative effect on the teaching of English in Libya and many of the current challenges that English language education faces are the result of perceptions and attitudes formed during the Gaddafi years. ELT has also been directly impacted at times by government legislation or even outright prohibition.

Anti-Western attitudes were sometimes reflected overtly in regulations and legislation concerning the use of English. Al-Moghani (2003) notes that such laws were aimed at "*increasing people's awareness of the importance of their language, culture, and history*" and from the perspective of Gaddafi's regime they were intended to assist in "*immunizing people against all forms of cultural invasions in the form of using foreign languages in the daily life of people, […] regarded as a threat to national identity*.". In 1973, one of the other challenges facing English language education in Libyan universities was a decision applied to all Libyan universities and higher institutes of education that the scientific curriculum and syllabuses should be taught using entirely Modern Standard Arabic, a decision developed by the Arab linguists at the Arab League Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organisation (ALESCO) (Asker 2011:15). Libyan university students were only exposed to English during the EFL classes. This situation continued until 1998 when Libyan university lecturers in scientific subjects received permission to integrate English in their teaching. This modification only occurred because of the insistent demands by educationalists and university tutors who argued that Arabic is no longer capable of coping with the rapid increases in the terminology coined in the world of science and technology (Ibid). This anti-English stance was often

explained in terms of the need to maintain the use of the mother tongue, Arabic, which has a particular significance throughout the Arab World due to its link with the Qur'an.[9]

In the mid-1980s, in the run-up to what was to be an extended period of outright hostility by Gaddafi's Libya towards the Western world, in particular the Anglophone US and UK, several pieces of language-related legislation were issued. In December 1984, the Libyan authorities issued a law which was introduced by the constitutional declaration of 1969, emphasized by law 12/1984 and reinforced by law no. 24/2001 cited in Asker 2011:4) forbidding the use of any foreign language in all local transactions and correspondence, even with overseas companies and organisations working on Libyan territory. Although English was not specifically named, the intention was clearly to target this language as it was generally accepted as the lingua franca of international business.

This was followed by a more draconian law issued by the General Public Committee in 1985 which listed a series of specific prohibitions on the use of languages other than Arabic. Again English was not specifically mentioned but it is clear that this was the language most likely to be affected under the terms of the law:

> *It is prohibited to use a language other than Arabic in all transactions and in particular the following:*
>
> 1. *Publications and correspondence.*
> 2. *Documents and records.*
> 3. *Writing on the means of transport and other machinery; on buildings, roads, and elsewhere.*
> 4. *Signals, signs, advertisements, and declarations on banners.*
> 5. *The names of streets and provinces.*
> 6. *Medical prescriptions except for the name of medicine and the type of disease.*
> 7. *The names of shops and administrative units, bodies and institutions and legal entities (public or private) and all the tools of economic activity.*
>
> *All affected parties must conform to the provisions of this law within a maximum period of six months from the date of this law (*General Public Committee, 1985*).*

In 1986, Libya's already poor relationship with the USA appeared to have reached its nadir, when all diplomatic and economic ties were severed as a reaction to US air strikes on Tripoli and Benghazi in April 15 1986 which were themselves in retaliation for the Libyan government's alleged bombing of a Berlin nightclub ten days previously. The location was frequented by US marines and two of the dead and 79 of the injured had been American servicemen. Relations with both the UK and the USA were to deteriorate

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[9] Interesting parallels can be seen with Gaddafi's treatment of the languages spoken by the Berber peoples. See previous information on the on-going struggle to gain recognition for these minority languages in Libya.

further following the bombing of Pan Am Flight 103 over Lockerbie on 21 December 1988 with the loss of all passengers and crew on board and also 11 residents of the Scottish town.

As a direct result of the US air strike, the Libyan Ministry of Education halted the teaching of English in all State schools throughout the whole country and in addition to the existing prohibition on the use of foreign languages, University English departments were also closed. It also arranged for the burning of all English language textbooks. Parents concerned by the impact of this decision started to employ private tutors in secret who could teach their children English at home as private English language schools were also closed. This situation lasted until 1996, creating enormous problems of various kinds with regards to ELT including the shortage of EFL teachers since they had been forced to find alternative employment when their subject was removed from the curriculum and most did not return to their previous job.

Eventually, political relations between Libya, the USA and the UK thawed and diplomatic relations and trade links were re-established. Since then, English has been actively and officially encouraged in Libyan society. EFL now played a key role in Libyan education from primary school onwards and for the first time in Libya, there are now secondary schools in where students can choose to specialise in EFL. In addition, the Ministry of Education is finically sponsoring thousands of students to obtain higher degrees in Anglophone countries including the USA, the UK and Australia. (I myself am one of the beneficiaries of this scheme.) Finally, as an indication of the sea change which has occurred in thinking in Libya, a decision was taken in 2010 to consider making English the official second language in Libya, though this matter is still under examination and it is not clear what its application might mean in practice.

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter has provided contextual information about the focus of this study, Libya, tracing the history of its many foreign occupations and the effects of colonization, independence and political isolation during Gaddafi's regime on its educational system. This chapter has also shown that English has played an important role in Libya since its introduction during the British and French administration in 1949 and throughout the decades since, thanks in large part to the development of the Libyan oil industry in the second half of the twentieth century and the growing prominence of English as the international language of science and technology (Petzold 1994: 57). Finally, this chapter has also explored how socio-economic and political conditions in the country have help to shape the history of ELT in Libya and the materials that have been used with Libyan EFL learners over the course of nearly seven decades.

The next chapter will provide a socio-linguistic profile of the current role of English in Libya, examining the spread and penetration of this language by attempting to identify the domains of uses of English in contemporary Libya.

CHAPTER THREE

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN LIBYA: A SOCIOLINGUISTIC PROFILE

3.0 Introduction

As previously mentioned, currently the only official language in Libya is the Modern Standard of Arabic, whilst English is studied as a foreign language at school. Although the English language has been in Libya for more than six decades, having been introduced into the educational system under the period of Anglo-French administration in 1948, for a variety of reasons outlined in Chapter Two, its functional range has been restricted until recently, when it has witnessed an unprecedented spread especially after the collapse of Gaddafi's regime in 2011. Therefore, the aim in this chapter is to outline the sociolinguistic situation of English in Libya which will be used in making decisions about syllabus design in Libyan higher education.

Although a large number of materials and sources focus on English in the inner and outer circle of Kachru's model (1992), references relating to the spread and use of English in countries which might possibly be placed in the Expanding Circle are more limited. Moreover, in relation to Arab countries, there are even fewer sources that can be used in relation to this particular context. For this reason, there is an urgent need for further research to explore these phases of English language expansion, and describe the uses and users of English in this region, by carrying out sociolinguistic profiling of the various Arab countries. This chapter aims to make a contribution to filling these gaps in knowledge. In addition to that, the aim of this chapter is to use the information related to this context when considering ELT and syllabus design for higher education in Libya.

It begins by examining the models which have been proposed since the 1980s to describe how English has spread throughout the globe and to represent the role which it plays in the lives of users in various countries. It then presents an in-depth sociolinguistic profile of post-Gaddafi Libya, using a framework developed by O'Driscoll (1999) which divides all language use into three macro domains: the interpersonal domain, the role-based domain and the general public domain. This sociolinguistic profile draws heavily on materials which were collected during the researcher's fieldwork trip to her home city of Benghazi.

3.1 Models of the spread of English

This section examines a number of models which have been proposed since the 1980s to describe how English has spread throughout the globe and to represent the role which it plays in the lives of users in various countries.

3.1.1 Strevens' (1980) map-and-branch model

A number of different models and descriptions have been proposed by various scholars in order to represent the spread of English around the world. The earliest model of this kind was developed by the British Applied Linguist Peter Strevens in 1980, in which he attempted to explain the spread of English by superimposing an inverted tree diagram on a world map which shows the influence of British and American English on other varieties of English (Marino 2011: 129). In his map-and-branch model, which resembles the branching models of Indo-European (McArthur 1998: 95), Strevens divides English into two main branches, namely British English and American English, and gives them equal prominence, showing that since these two became separate varieties, all subsequent Englishes which have emerged in Africa, the Caribbean, the Indian Subcontinent, the Far East and Australasia, have had affinities with either one or the other (Figure 3.1).

3.1.2 McArthur's (1987) wheel model

Later, in 1987, McArthur constructed another model known as the Circle of World English intended to show the relationship between different varieties of World Englishes. He himself described his diagram as "*A wheel with a hub, spokes, and rim*" (1998: 95) and placed at its centre a variety of the language he referred to as "*World Standard English*". In the next band he placed the regional varieties of English which included "*standard and other forms of African English, American*

English, Canadian English and Irish English" (1998: 95). Lying beyond these but still linked to them, he added numerous sub-varieties of English, dividing these into eight global regions. This area he described as:

> *A crowded (even riotous) fringe of sub-varieties such as Aboriginal English, Black English Vernacular, Gullah, Jamaican Nation Language, Krio, Singapore English, and Ulster Scots* (1998: 95).

In his work *The English Languages*, McArthur (1998: 95) refers to another wheel model developed by the German Anglicist Manfred Görlach. In his Circle of the English Language, he placed International English at the centre of the model with regional Standard Englishes such as African Englishes, Antipodean English, British English, and United States English, moving outwards from the centre. These were followed by sub-regional semi-standard varieties including Australian English, Irish English, Jamaican English, and Southern US English. Beyond these, lay forms such as Aboriginal English, Black English vernacular and Yorkshire English (McArthur 1998: 98). At the outer edge, Görlach placed pidgins, creoles, and mixes involving English, such as Anglo-Romani, Krio, Saramaccan, Scots, and Tok Pisin.

McArthur's and Görlach's models are reasonably similar attempts to show the status of varieties of English and related languages world-wide, and both have at the centre of their models a language which exists only in theory, namely World Standard English and International English, respectively.

3.1.3 Kachru's (1988) three-circle model

In 1988, the Indian-American linguist Braj B. Kachru produced what has become the most influential model to represent the spread of English. In his model, he represented the current sociolinguistic profile of the spread of English around the world as three concentric circles which he labelled as the Inner, the Outer, and the Expanding Circle respectively, explaining that: "*These circles represent the types of the spread, the patterns of acquisition, and the functional allocation of English in diverse cultural contexts*" (1988,1992: 356).

The Inner Circle includes those countries where English is used as the mother tongue of the population which are thought of as the traditional cultural and linguistic bases of English, namely, the United Kingdom, the United States, Australia, New Zealand, and Canada (1988: 356). Kachru refers to the English spoken in these countries as "*norm-providing*". At the time of writing, he estimated the number of speakers in the Inner Circle to be 380 million.

The Outer Circle includes countries in which English is not considered the native language but is sometimes an official language of the country. These include India, Nigeria, Malaysia, and Pakistan, with estimated numbers of users ranging from 150 to 300 million. The Outer Circle represents the institutionalized non-native varieties of English (ESL) in regions that have passed through extended periods of colonization, and Kachru refers to this language as "*norm-developing*".

The Expanding Circle refers to those countries in which English is not classed as an official language or used as a medium of international communication but learned as a foreign language (EFL) within the school system of the country. Examples include Japan, China, most of continental Europe, and the Middle East. The number of the speakers in this circle is difficult to count or even to estimate. Kachru described the English spoken within the Expanding Circle countries as "*norm-dependent*". By definition, Libya currently belongs to the so-called Expanding Circle because English is now taught there as a foreign language and at present it has no official status.

Although Kachru's model is still very influential and has made a major contribution to our understanding of what the spread of English means in terms of sociolinguistic realities, a number of limitations of the three-circle model have been identified by various scholars.

In broad terms, some of these express concerns about the impossibility of attempting to represent the complexity of English use and its users by using what they view as essentially a tripartite categorisation of English as national language, second language or foreign language which lacks subtlety. According to Bruthiaux (2003), for example, grouping together a set of countries within a particular circle suggests that the way English is used there is uniform across the whole group when, in fact, there may be very great diversity in how it used and the extent of its use. Citing the example of India and Singapore, which are both categorised as Outer Circle, Bruthiaux (2003) notes that whereas in the case of the former, English is spoken only by the élite classes, in the latter, its usage is much more widespread. Bruthiaux (2003: 161) concludes that Kachru's model "*conceals more than it reveals and runs the risk of being interpreted as a license to dispense with analytical rigou*r".

Others point to the many changes which have occurred since Kachru originally developed his model and suggest that this calls for it to be revised since it does not represent the way speakers currently use and identify with English. Mesthrie (2008:32) draws attention to the growing use of English as a medium of instruction in education at both secondary and tertiary levels, noting that whereas traditionally this was associated with European universities, more recently this practice has spread to Expanding Circle countries such as China. Jenkins (2015) and Graddol (1997) both note the difficulties involved in neatly categorising countries within the circles. Jenkins (2015:15)[10] points to the grey areas between Inner and Outer circles, as English is increasingly taught as a first language and is now used in the home environment and not just for institutional purposes, as may previously have been the case. Graddol (1997: 11) highlights the growing number of countries where the status of English is shifting from EFL to ESL, marking a transition from Expanding Circle to Outer Circle.[11]

Kachru (2005: 220) himself has responded to the many criticisms levelled at the limitations of his model, dealing with these on a point-by-point basis, arguing that his model can accommodate the many sociolinguistic changes which critics have highlighted. He concluded that the concerns which have been raised about his model's capacity to adapt to change are "*constructed primarily on misrepresentations of the model's characteristics, interpretations and implications*".

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[10] Jenkins (2015:16-17) offers a clear overview and summary of these debates.

[11] Graddol (1997: 11) estimates this number at twenty and notes that this is not an exclusively European phenomenon as it includes countries such as Argentina and Costa Rica (South America) and Sudan (Africa).

Despite the various problematic elements of Kachru's model which have been noted, it is still used here as a major influence on the thinking in this chapter about the sociolinguistic profile of English in Libya, not least because, as Jenkins (2015: 15) notes, the three-circle model continues to offer "*the most convenient framework we have for thinking about different kinds of English use*".

3.1.4 Modiano's (1999a; 1999b) centripetal circles model

Many scholars have responded to Kachru's model by devising their own attempt to represent alternative viewpoints on the spread of English around the world. Tripathi (1998) argued that Kachru's model needed to be re-thought on the grounds that the so-called Third World nations need to be placed in a separate category since the usual distinction made between ESL and EFL does not apply there. Yano developed two models (2001; 2009) which focused on levels of proficiency and types of usage and it is this emphasis on proficiency which has

increasingly dominated thinking about models of Englishes. As Graddol (2006: 110) has observed "*in a globalised world [...] there is an increasing need to distinguish between proficiencies in English rather than a speaker's bilingual status*" and Jenkins (2015: 19) agrees that: "*Degree of proficiency or expertise is an eminently (and most possibly the most) useful way to approach the English of its entirety of speakers nowadays, regardless of where they come from and what other language(s) they speak*."

> Bearing this in mind, it is worth focusing here in more detail on Modiano's (1999a) model of International English, in which he decided to ignore the usual historical and geographical basis for categorising English and, instead, based his model on notions of proficiency in English. In his centripetal circles model, International English is placed at the core, occupied by those proficient speakers of English as an International Language who function well in cross-cultural communication contexts where English is the lingua franca; they will not necessarily have English as their L1.

Moving outwards, in the next grouping Modiano includes speakers who have proficiency in their own variant of English for whom this may be L1 or L2 (Jenkins 2015: 17) whilst beyond this, he places learners of English who are not considered to be proficient in English yet. Outside of these, there are those who do not know English at all. A number of limitations of the model were noted, with Jenkins (2015: 18) highlighting two key issues which emphasised the difficulties of categorisation:

> *[W]here do we draw the line between a strong and non-strong regional accent? Presumably a strong regional accent places its owner in the second circle, thus categorising them as not proficient in international English. But at present, we have no sound basis on which to make the decision. And who decides? Again, given that international English is not defined, what does it mean to be proficient in 'international English' other than the rather vague notion of communicating well? Where do we draw the line between proficient and not proficient in international English in the absence of such a definition?*

In response to such comments regarding various elements of his initial attempt at a model, Modiano made a number of alterations to his original model (see Figure 3.5). As previously, EIL is centrally placed in what he refers to as "*the common core*" which is intended to represent "*features of the English language which are used and are comprehensible to the majority of native and competent non-native speakers of English*" (1999b: 10). In the middle circle, Modiano placed features which he acknowledged were "*hard to define*" as they "*may be in the process of becoming commonplace in the international context, or else they may be in the process of becoming obscure*" (1999b: 10).

Finally, lying beyond these circles but interconnecting with them, he places other groupings of English-speakers represented by five circles of varying size, which he divides into speakers of American English; speakers of British English; speakers of major (native) varieties, speakers of other (local) varieties and "*Foreign Language Speakers*" i.e. those who speak foreign varieties of English. The implication of the model is that every group has features of English which can be considered to be specific to their speech community and that people from the other four groups are likely to struggle to understand these.

Jenkins (2015) notes that there are still problems with the revised model relating to Modiano's continuing lack of definition of EIL, and by the terms which he assigns to some of the groupings (major vs. local).

When comparing the previous models, they adopt different criteria for classification. For example Strevens seems to be historical and formal, McArthur and Gorlach are more purely formal, whereas Kachru's classification is based on Kachru use-based and user-relation, Modiano, on the other hand, based his classification on ability.

At this point, it is important to mention that the aim of this sociolinguistic study is to find out what is the content of the English language syllabus for higher

education should look like. In order to do this, we need to determine the uses to which English will/could be put by such people and this can be done by surveying all of the uses to which English is put by people in Libya and adopting a radically use-based framework. Therefore, the next sections of this chapter will investigate the totality of language use (all languages) in the Libyan context now.

3.2 Sociolinguistic profile of Libya

3.2.1 Sociolinguistic profiling

The term 'sociolinguistic profile' was originally coined by Ferguson (1964), who understood this to be a descriptive summary about a language situation, referring to the entire shape of language use at a particular time and in a specific place. He further suggested that this should include information not only about what languages are spoken and by how many people but should also consider the attitudes of people towards those languages which are in use (1964: 309). Kachru (1992:356) adopted the term sociolinguistic profile and he defined it with reference to English as follows:

> *Sociolinguistic profile: an overview of English in its world context with discussion of selected major varieties, their users and uses. A clear distinction to be made between the use of English in a monolingual society, as opposed to a multilingual society: and its implications (e.g., mixing, switching*) (1992: 356)

Therefore, Ferguson and Kachru used the term differently, for Ferguson it is predicated of a place, whereas for Kachru it is predicated of a language.

3.2.2 O'Driscoll's (1999) Framework

In order to achieve the main aim of this research which is to facilitate the design of a syllabus for university students in Libya who are non-English specialists, it is necessary to establish the current role of English in Libya and how this has evolved. The current EFL syllabus at Benghazi University was designed in the 1980's and no longer reflects the current role of the language in Libyan society, if indeed it ever did. Hence, it was necessary to establish this role in order to use this to make informed decisions about the content and design of the syllabus in Libyan higher education. This was achieved by producing a sociolinguistic profile of language use in Libya, with special attention to the role which English now plays in the lives of the Libyan people

In order to examine how English has spread in Libya, Kachru's model was used. Kachru (1988) used a model consisting of three concentric circles to represent the spread of English around the world, labelling these as the inner, outer and expanding circles (see section 3.1.3). This model is still one of the most influential..

According to Kachru, in those countries placed in the expanding circle, English is not classed as having any status as an official language. Traditionally, the role of English is confined to being taught and learned as a foreign language within the school system of the country. However, in the last fifty years, its role has been expanding into areas of public life and professional life. In terms of this definition, then, Libya would currently be designated as belonging to Kachru's (1988) expanding circle. That is, it clearly belongs within this outermost circle of Kachru's model rather than being completely outside it.

However, as the basis for the sociolinguistic profile of the uses and users of English in the contemporary Libyan context, this study adopts O'Driscoll's (1999) framework. His study of the sociolinguistic profile of languages in Europe is organised according to scales of interaction which he refers to as domains: (1) the interpersonal; (2) the role-based and (3) the general public domain. The sociolinguistic profile of this study investigates the use of languages by individuals in these three macro domains in Libya, as a way of determining the uses to which English might be put by the student learners of EFL.

3.2.3 Data collection

The sociolinguistics profile described in the sections below was built using a number of different methods. To gather data on the use of language in interpersonal domains, as a Libyan with experience of living in Libyan society, my personal knowledge of that society as an insider and my critical reflection as a linguist and teacher formed the basis of the method used to collect the relevant data. After relevant linguistic interactions in a variety of situations and contexts, I made field notes on my observation of language usage which fed into this sociolinguistic profile. The method used was thus the anthropological one of participant observation. One of the drawbacks of using this methodology is that it is limited to my own experience, which is a one person knowledge. Another is that ideally it should be preceded by specialist training (Walliman, 2006), which I did not have. However, I am quite confident that what emerged is the knowledge of any educated native and inhabitant of Libyan society.

In the case of the role-based domain, data was sourced from various kinds of documents which were publicly available. Some of these were official government statistics and some were from the websites of foreign companies working in Libya, which provided statistics about the number of employees and the language used for communication with the Libyan authorities and other business organisations (see section 3.2.3.2.2 English in Libyan business and industry). The limitation of the methodology used in this domain and the difficulty I faced was

that the information was not always updated because it was gathered during the war in Libya and many foreign companies and employees were asked to leave the country. Nevertheless, they provide a credible general impression.

The description in section 3.2.3.3 English in the General Public Domain below of the Libyan public domain is based largely on direct observation using photography and field notes. Observation is a method of "watching" and "paying attention to" and then recording events, behaviour, activities and qualities of the cultural and physical environment (Gil and Johnson 2002). The role of the researcher in this method is to start by looking and then to ask questions (Walliman 2006).

The intention here was to record the visual impact of non-Arabic language use in the Libyan public domain and to capture some of the change occurring in the visibility of the use of languages in this domain and to illustrate the changing sociolinguistic landscape of the urban environment. I selected specific locations in my home city of Benghazi during a fieldwork trip in 2012-2013. It is this visual impact of English in the general public domain which has been the most dramatic shift in the sociolinguistic landscape for the average member of the Libyan general public. The images here which I took during this period literally act as a snapshot of what was to be a crucial moment in Libya's contemporary history and document the changing reality of its public spaces in which English was visible, in some ways never previously witnessed in Libya e.g. political slogans. The difficulties and the limitation of applying the method is that the country was still facing a difficult time and was not safe and was experiencing a transition period. It was an exciting and at times worrying time to be in Libya.

After conducting this period of observation to capture the visual presence of English or other languages in the public domain, it was clear that although Arabic clearly dominates and still remains the language most frequently heard and seen within this domain, the visual presence of English is rapidly spreading. It is now particularly visible on the high street in the cities with the use of English words appearing in the names of businesses such as shops, restaurant and cafes.

3.2.3.1 The interpersonal domain (the private individual level)

O'Driscoll states that:

> *The private-individual level comprises all events in which at least one participant is playing a private role, for example as mother, friend, colleague or member-of-the-public. Interaction at this level is often 1:1 and any 'audience' has no ratified status (they simply overhear)* (1999: 54).

This section will thus examine the language use in domains which are neither instrumental nor public; more information on the role-based domain will be given in the following section.

Before considering the everyday use of languages by Libyans, it is important to offer some clarification concerning diglossia in Libyan society. This term was first introduced into sociolinguistics by Charles Ferguson in 1959 who defines diglossia in the following terms:

> *Diglossia is a relatively stable language situation in which, in addition to the primary dialects of the language (which may include a standard or regional standards), there is a very divergent, highly codified (often grammatically more complex) superimposed variety, the vehicle of a large and respected body of written literature, either of an earlier period or in another speech community, which is learned largely by formal education and is used for most written and formal spoken purposes but is not used by any sector of the community for ordinary conversation*.

Thus in a diglossic society, the high (H) and low (L) varieties of the language are for different functions; the H variety tends to be used in formal situations whilst the L variety is used in informal situations. The diglossic situation exists in numerous countries across the globe and throughout the Arabic-speaking world, including Libya.

Although Berber is also spoken in specific areas in Libya (as discussed in Chapter One), the Libyan variety of Arabic dominates in this officially monolingual country. For ordinary spoken communication with family members, friends, and colleagues, most Libyans will generally choose the L variety of the Arabic dialect which is spoken in their own region of Libya (either eastern or western). Everyday use includes what O'Driscoll (1999:66) classifies as local or neighbourhood use. This L variety of Arabic is used in local shops, restaurants, cafes "*and other service contacts of an essentially local and non-institutional nature in working lives or social lives*" (O'Driscoll 1999: 66). It is also used in soap operas and folk literature.

The H variety known as Modern Standard Arabic is used in all written communication and literary writing, and is used in formal situations such as conferences, lectures interviews, or news broadcasting. Furthermore, like all Muslims, when performing religious practices, Libyans use Classical Arabic which is the language of Islam and of its holy scriptures, the Qur'an. It is very important to use the right variety in the right situation, otherwise, it is considered to be unacceptable.

Kachru (1992: 580) noted that English can be used for different interpersonal functions within a particular society. Firstly, it can act "*as a link language*

between speakers of various (often mutually unintelligible) languages and dialects in linguistically and culturally pluralistic societies". Unlike some other societies, English is not used routinely as a lingua franca between fellow citizens in Libya. However, there are instances in which English serves an important function "*as an international and intranational link language*" (Berns, 1990:53). For example, amongst members of Libya's multinational workforce and their employers, it is highly likely that communication is carried out at least partly in English. More will be said about this topic in a later section which focuses on the use of English in Libyan business and industry.

In many countries, tourism would provide interaction between locals and English language speakers. However, despite the existence in Libya of many sites of major archaeological interest relating to Greek and Roman civilizations, such as Leptis Magna and Cyrenaica, there is very limited tourism there as the Libyan government has badly neglected the heritage of its ancient civilisations. It preferred instead to focus on its oil fields and consequently, visitor numbers declined and the sites themselves have been subjected to looting and vandalism.

Following the recent conflict, the situation has deteriorated and due to fears for personal safety, tourists are no longer travelling to Libya. As a result, it is currently rare for Libyans to have the opportunity to use English to interact with foreign tourists in Libya. Most foreigners who speak English tend to be oil company workers, construction workers, nurses and doctors, or non-Arab university lectures in addition to diplomats.

Kachru (1992: 58) observes that English can also be used by members of a society for a second purpose which is not related to the practical ends to which it can be put as a lingua franca. In the second case, English provides "*a code which symbolizes modernization and elitism*." With respect to Kachru's observation, it is becoming increasingly common in Libya for individuals to insert English words, phrases or clauses into a conversation to demonstrate their knowledge of English. Based on my own experiences and also those of my informants, it is clear that the connotations which this usage carries vary from one context to another, depending on the speakers involved. Some examples are briefly discussed here.

In Libya, as in many Islamic societies, same-sex socialising is very common, and women will often gather together in someone's home to spend the evening talking together, an event known in Libyan Arabic as a '*lammah*'. The researcher has noticed that it has become increasingly common during these events for certain of her female friends and acquaintances to drop English words into their conversation. Invariably, these are related to the world of women's fashion (*coat, shoes, perfume, make-up, eye-shadow, eyeliner*) or to cuisine (*juice, soup*). In

many cases, they appear to have acquired these words from reading women's magazines such as *Cosmopolitan* either in the English or in Arabic translations which often leave items of this kind in the original English, particularly in advertising. The aim (conscious or not) seems to be a wish to suggest an air of sophistication and to create a link with the glamorous world of their Western sisters, suggesting that they travel abroad regularly.

It is also common to hear Libyan teenagers insert English words or phrases when chatting with each, either face-to-face or on mobile phones. Often examples such as '*big problem*', '*Hi*', '*O.K.*' '*wassup*' and '*dunno*' are pronounced with a noticeably American accent or intonation. Again, by using this form of code-switching, Arabic speakers are hoping to project something about themselves and their values to others. Although Kachru referred to this as modernization and elitism (1992: 58), it is likely that this 'teenspeak' serves a number of purposes, marking them out as being aware of the latest trends, demonstrating their allegiance to a particular subculture and also distinguishing their language from that of their parents. As Labov (1992: 339) notes:

> *Adolescents face the same problems of self-identity, of the onset of puberty; of choosing friends to fit (and ultimately to change) values and attitudes; and of talking about everyday experiences with each other in ways that are special to them and a little cloudy to the adults surrounding them.*

Another of the reseacher's informants who works as a teacher of English at a private primary school in Benghazi[12] observed intrasentential code-switching on a fairly frequent basis between her young Libyan pupils who are from rich upper-class families. She explained:

> *I noticed that while they are playing, they use the Libyan variety of Arabic with each other but then insert English words such as* **'bag', 'coat', 'school', 'Miss', 'story'** *in their sentences, for example: "**Miss,** tell us a **story**". "Where is my **bag?",** "Our **school** is big". [The bolded words are uttered in English].*

It is possible in cases of this kind that the children may simply be imitating what they hear at home, given what was said about the use of English by females at *lammah*, since as Hammink (2000: online) notes "*children's attitudes toward code switching are greatly affected by the attitudes of their caregivers*". Hammink (2000: online) also observes that it is usually adults and older children who

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[12] Increasingly, it is not the quality of the education that children receive that determines the parents' choice of school, but the amount of EFL classes and the age at which these begin. EFL teaching starts at pre-school level in private schools as opposed to preparatory level (13+) in the State system so those who can afford it prefer to educate their children in the private sector, believing this will ultimately lead to the chance of a better job, a higher standard of living, and social prestige. This point will be examined in the chapter on attitudes to English.

typically switch languages to convey social meanings whilst younger children react *"to more immediate aspects of the social interaction, such as the language actually being spoken".* Thus, if the children are being addressed in English, they will pick up on this, responding to what they hear and it is noticeable that the words they use are clearly related to the classroom environment.

From personal experience, the researcher is aware of the prestige associated with being able to speak English in Libya. When still an undergraduate, my parents would ask me to speak English in front of friends and family, even though they did not understand me, never having had the opportunity to study this foreign language. Even now, when I return home to Libya to visit relatives, they ask me to converse with my children in English so that they can hear the "English accent" we have acquired after living abroad for five years.

Intriguingly, in the aftermath of the Arab Spring, the American business magazine, *Fortune*, published an article about what the American journalist Erin Burnett referred to as the "Arab world's love affair with English" (2012: online), in which she claimed that the fact that English is rapidly becoming the lingua franca amongst educated Arab élites may actually be damaging Arabic as a language. Although the article was concerned largely with the situation in the Gulf States where, as the journalist observed *"the wealthier the family, the less likely its members speak Arabic at home"* (Burnett, 2012: online), the point it made was an interesting one about the association of English with wealth and privilege to the detriment of Arabic.

A later section of this chapter will deal in depth with the topic of the use of English language in the political and media domain, with specific reference to the events of the 17th February revolution in Libya in 2011 and its aftermath.

3.2.3.2. The Role-based Domain

This section examines the use of English in role-based domains and O'Driscoll (1999:55) emphasises that the use of English at this level "*includes all those types of interaction in which it is assumed that both/all participants are playing a specialist role*". Unlike the case with the interpersonal domain, which involves everyday life events in which the participants in the communication are functioning purely as private citizens or members of the public at large, "*the language produced in these situations is not private, it is not in reality intended for the general public but rather for a clearly restricted group of fellow-specialists*" (O'Driscoll 1999:55). This section will focus at two specific areas. Firstly, it will consider the use of English in academia, where this language is both taught for specialist purposes, preparing students for their professional roles on graduation,

and used by faculty members as a lingua franca. Then, it will examine the use of English in Libyan business.

3.2.3.2.1 English in tertiary education and academia

According to Crystal (2003: 110): "*English is the medium of a great deal of the world's knowledge, especially in such areas as science and technology. And access to knowledge is the business of education.*" It is not surprising then that English plays an increasingly significant role in the curriculum in university faculties such as Medicine, Engineering and Sciences and, as described in Chapter Two, even secondary school pupils are now following ESP courses to prepare them to cope with the demands of studying an academic discipline through the medium. Those studying Medicine, Engineering or Sciences must study English as a subject throughout their university course; this language is also used as a medium of instruction in those faculties. In other faculties, it is taught as a mandatory subject only in the first year.

In Libya, there are nine main public universities, and Benghazi University has been chosen here for more detailed analysis to explore the uses of English language within the Libyan higher education system. Benghazi University (previously known as Garyounis University) was the first university to be founded in Libya in 1955 and currently consists of six main faculties. These are:

- The Faculty of Arts and Education
- The Faculty of Engineering
- The Faculty of Law
- The Faculty of Economics
- The Faculty of Sciences
- The Faculty of Medicine

The Faculty of Arts and Education is made up of ten main departments (Arabic, English, French, Italian, History, Archaeology, Geography, Philosophy, and Psychology) and has the largest intake of students of all the faculties. In all these departments, with the exception of English, Arabic serves as the only medium of instruction whilst English is only taught as a mandatory subject in the first semester of the first year in the form of a two-hour lecture course known as General English. In this Faculty, all the teaching materials, course books, exams, announcements, assignments and reading lists are provided in Arabic, and lecturers here are usually Libyan or from other Arabophone countries, except in

the three foreign languages departments.[13] For these reasons, a large number of students choose to study in this faculty. English language has always been thought of by Libyans as the language of the future, and is still generally considered to be the best qualification needed to obtain a good job. Graduates from the English Department can teach in State schools, private schools, private language institutions, and in the many international oil companies based in Libya. As a result, every year large numbers of students apply to study there. As a result, an advanced placement test was introduced which is used to measure and evaluate the background knowledge of applicants for the English course, in order to control these numbers. Those students who are enrolling in other university faculties are not required to take an English exam.

As one might expect, in the English Department, English is the medium of instruction for all of the English seminars and for academic conferences, and thesis vivas are carried out in English. Most of the staff are Libyans with small numbers of staff from other Arabic-speaking countries but there are no English native speakers teaching there. After successfully completing their first year in the English department, students can choose from two specialisms: Translation Studies or Literature.

Students following Translation Studies take courses which will qualify them to become sworn legal translators[14] since there is a growing demand for this specialism. In Libya, in order to be legally valid, all documents originally written in English have to be translated into MSA by an officially recognised translator and must be provided together with the English original. All documents written in any other foreign languages must be translated into both MSA and English by a sworn legal translator in order to be valid.

According to Berns' (1990: 57) definition, English in the context of the English Department is taught as EFL since this:

> *reflects the pedagogical status of English as a language which is learned formally, outside of the native context and with reference to a native-speaker model. This status implies that the main learning objective is providing learners direct access to native speakers and their cultures.*

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[13] Italian and French are used as the medium of instruction in the Italian and French Departments respectively which attract much smaller numbers of students than the EL Department.

[14] This is the official term used for a qualified translator who has proven competence in a particular area. It does not imply that they take an oath but simply that they agree to uphold specific professional standards when dealing with translation.

However, in the other Faculties of Engineering, Medicine, and Science, English does not serve quite the same function as there it serves as the medium of instruction by which students gain knowledge about their chosen discipline and must learn how to operate in a professional context using that medium.[15]

The first of the researcher's three University informants studied Civil Engineering in the Faculty of Engineering at Benghazi University. She explained that a large number of the staff members in these faculties are not Arabic-speaking, with many coming from India and Pakistan. These lecturers conducted their lectures in English, provided reading lists of materials in English and students were expected to use English as the medium of expression in all the assignments and exams. She also added that Libyan and other Arabic-speaking lecturers in the department conducted their lectures using a mixed medium of instruction, combining Arabic with some English engineering terminology. She also observed that most, if not all, of the professional publications, scientific periodicals, journals, textbooks, and instruction manuals she read were in English. She explained that this exposure to English also affected the students since "*Even most of our informal conversations with other students in our department outside the classroom include English engineering terminology*" Due to the presence of many non-Arabic-speaking faculty members, English also acts as the lingua franca in these faculties, meaning that formal meetings, announcements and timetables for both students and staff members are all produced in the medium of English.[16]

The second informant studied Dentistry in the Faculty of Medicine and is now a qualified dentist. He told me that English was the medium of instruction for the four successive years of the course and that all teaching materials, exams, and assignments were in English. He also provided some interesting information about his use of English in the professional context post-University.

Kassem and Zahran (cited in Schaub 2000: 232) noted that when Libyans visit a doctor, they usually find that the communication between the doctors themselves or between the doctor and nurse is carried out in English. This includes both spoken and written communication about the patient's condition, their treatment or prescription. According to Kassem and Zahran (cited in Schaub 2000: 232), in this context English can sometimes be used as a language of prestige, to impress a patient about the level of their competency. Another reason might be that

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[15] Riemer (2002:91) notes that engineering graduates need a wide range of attributes to make them into the 'global engineer' required for the 21st century and amongst those he highlights fluency in English as being "*essential for an engineer who aspires to carry out his/her professional practice in the global arena*".

[16] See Appendix B for an example of an exam from the Faculty of Engineering at Benghazi University.

because of the severe condition of the patient's health, they prefer to speak in English medical terms as a possible way of shielding individuals and their family from the truth concerning an illness.

These uses of English by health-related professionals were confirmed by the informant who currently works as a dentist. He told me: "*To be honest, it is more prestigious to speak in English and to give a good impression to the patients and show confidence*." He also explained that he used English because: "*I do not want patients to understand what I am going to do in their mouth to avoid frightening them*". He also noted that English operated as a form of lingua franca in the context of professional-to-professional communication:

> *My assistant nurse and I speak English while I am treating the patient's teeth. That is because all of the instruments that I ask her to provide me with during the treatment have been known to us in English since I was a student.*

This points to the influence of English as a medium of communication in University education, as noted by the first informant.

The third informant now works as a lawyer and although he is a university graduate, he still knows very little English. When he was a student in the Faculty of Law, Arabic was the only language of instruction. All the staff who lectured there were Arabic-speaking, being mainly Libyans with a few Egyptians, Iraqis, and Palestinians. He told me that if they encountered any English terminology they were unsure of in the textbooks they were using, they asked the lecturer for a translation. It is still the case that in the Faculties of both Economics and Law, the medium of instruction is Arabic. Some, but by no means all, of the materials students need to read are in English. Sometimes lecturers will help students to translate the materials they have chosen to teach, others expect students to be capable of doing that for themselves or to have materials translated at their own cost.

3.2.3.2.2 English in Libyan business and industry

The discovery of oil in 1955 followed by the start of oil exports from Libya in 1961 not only transformed the country's economic situation, but was also to have a significant impact on its sociolinguistic profile. Until that time, English language use in this domain was very restricted, since most trade transactions which were carried out tended to involve either Arabic to communicate with neighbouring states and the Arabian Peninsula countries, or Italian, since the former colonial

power maintained business links with Libya.[17] However, in order to exploit its oil reserves, Libya needed to cooperate with those nations which already had expertise in exploiting its hidden reserves of this valuable commodity and at that time, the United States was the leader in this field. Since then, oil companies from many other nations have started up operations in Libya. An article written in March 2011, noted that the following foreign oil companies were operating in Libya:

> *France's Total, Italy's ENI, the China National Petroleum Corp (CNPC), British Petroleum, the Spanish Oil consortium REPSOL, and American multinationals ExxonMobil, Chevron, Occidental Petroleum (Oxy), Hess, and Conoco Phillips* (Chossudovsky2011:online).

This gives an idea of the international nature of the oil business and of the importance of English as a lingua franca in this context for Libya. As is the case in many of the oil-producing Arab states, the mismatch of the Libyan educational system with market demand for specific technical qualifications has created a large pool of skilled expatriate workers, with the appropriate education and experience. Knowledge of English is usually a prerequisite for such posts.

Libya has also attracted important numbers of less skilled immigrants willing to do hard manual labour in return for relatively high wages, in what are often hazardous and physically demanding conditions in the oil, gas and construction sectors. This influx of foreign workers began in the 1990s, when, in response to UN trade sanctions, Libya started to rely increasingly on labour from Sub-Saharan Africa to work in its oil economy. As Libya's relations with the United States and Europe began to improve, the numbers of migrants started to rise. When Gaddafi announced plans to privatize Libya's economy in 2003, this attracted hundreds of thousands of workers from Bangladesh and the Philippines, as well as from other countries in North Africa and the Middle East. Some entered the country on legal work permits, but the vast majority came illegally (Human Rights Watch, 2011: online).

During Gaddafi's regime, there were no officially recorded figures on numbers of foreign nationals working in Libya but according to Human Rights Watch, in 2011 up to 2.5 million non-Libyans were employed there, making it one of the biggest importers of foreign labour in the MENA region (2011: online). The collapse of Gaddafi's regime, and the subsequent reports of evacuation operations mounted

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[17] Italy is now also an important business partner in the hydrocarbons sector as ENI, the Italian oil consortium, produces 244,000 barrels of gas and oil per annum, which represents almost 25 percent of Libya's total exports in this sector (Chossudovsky, 2011:online).

by foreign governments and humanitarian organizations, provided a revealing insight into the nature of Libya's multinational and multilingual work force. Gurman (2011: online) collated newspaper reports and information from the Red Crescent for one week on foreign workers evacuated or stranded in Libya when conflict broke out and calculated that in addition to the thousands of workers from neighbouring Arabic-speaking countries, the following numbers of foreign nationals were caught up in hostilities:

Chinese (30,000)[18]

EU (10,000)

Vietnam (500-600)

Ghana (400)

Thailand (300-400)

Philippines (100)

Pakistan (100)

Somalia, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Niger, Mali, Burkina Faso, Nigeria, Cote d'Ivoire, Cameroon, Haiti*

*No figures available.

They were working in various sectors of the Libyan economy, including construction, agriculture, the oil industry, and other services including the health sector, at different levels ranging from managerial positions and skilled occupations to unskilled and undocumented day labourers (Gurman, 2011: online).

There is a significant split in terms of language usage between those Africans and Asians who work as unskilled and undocumented day labourers and those expatriates who are employed in managerial positions and skilled occupations, who are often Westerners or educated Asians. In the former case, these largely single male labourers speak their own language at home and in their social gatherings with friends. Often, one worker who has English or Arabic will act as an interpreter and spokesman for the whole group, acting as a go-between with employers or other workers. However, those who work for multinational corporations are expected to use English as a lingua franca in their dealings with colleagues and business contacts in the workplace and will also tend to use this language with other members of the expatriate community. Multinational companies often provide for all their employees'

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[18] The China National Petroleum Corp (CNPC) plays a central role in the Libyan oil industry and 11% of Libyan oil exports are channelled to China (Chossudovsky, 2011: online).

needs and contact with local Libyans tends to be limited outside of the work environment.

It is still not very common, but in some instances, Libyans or other Arabic speakers will use English or a mixture of Arabic and English to communicate with non-Arabic speaking foreigners when necessary.

In addition to the development of English as a lingua franca for the purposes of communication amongst diverse nationalities of immigrant workers and expatriates, changes to the economy have had a broader impact on the status of English. For many older Libyans, their main (and possibly only) contact with English was as a student in the classroom. For some, there was no contact at all since, as explained in Chapter Two, for nearly a decade when Libya's relations with the West were at their lowest ebb, all teaching of English was suspended. However, when relations finally began to improve and Gaddafi opened the doors to Foreign Direct Investment in the country, many foreign companies started to invest in Libya, given the country's strategic position for trading. As noted above, all official dealings by these foreign businesses with the Libyan government must be translated into Arabic and an English version is also required. As a result, English in Libya started to play an official role in the proceedings of most of the companies and their main requirement was for Libyan workers with knowledge of English. This is now also the principal requirement for gaining a good job in other sectors.

Not surprisingly, this has led to an unprecedented boom in the demand for English classes in Libya. As a result, language learning is no longer restricted to the school system as previously, with other opportunities now available, both in the State and the private sector. Many Libyan and foreign companies offer English courses to employees who need to use this language to communicate with colleagues or customers including those who work in banks, the oil industry, the hospitality and health sector, air transport etc. Some companies even bring native speakers of English to teach English to their employees, targeting the instruction towards the specific needs of the group and their specialisations, while others grant scholarships to allow workers to study in English-speaking countries to improve their knowledge and language skills.

Finally, it is worth saying a little about the use of language in Libya's official institutions since in spite of the growing role of English in the Libyan business community, the use of English or any other foreign language is not permitted for dealings with the country's legal system and for transactions with official administration in Libya. In addition, court trials and debates carried out in the Parliament of Libya are all conducted entirely in the vernacular. MSA is the only

form used for all routine interactions with the authorities and in all Libyan documents such as birth certificates and national identity cards. English does appear in the final page of Libyan passports, providing personal information as required for international travel.

Dealings with the authorities for businesses also involves significant quantities of paperwork, most of which must be supplied in both MSA and English. Contracts between Libyan companies or institutions and foreign companies are in MSA with an English translation (see Appendix C for an example of a contract). As a consequence, a large number of officially recognised legal translation offices can be seen in all the main cities of Libya and these are registered with Libyan government.

3.2.3.3 English in the General Public Domain

The final category in O'Driscoll's (1999: 95) framework is referred to as the general public domain. This domain covers all forms of interaction with the general public, such as media output, including advertising, and publishing. It also covers the political realm more specifically those "*activities in government and politics to which the public are assumed to be privy*" (1999: 95). Announcements to the public in public places, which could be in written or spoken form, are also involved. As O'Driscoll notes, it can be particularly difficult to monitor this language usage when conducting a sociolinguistic profile as by its very nature "*the number and identity of participants in any one language activity are basically unrestricted […] language production is typically one-way, the majority of interlocutors constituting simply an audience*" (1999: 95).

The description here of the Libyan public domain is based on observational accounts and field notes that recorded the presence of English in different venues in this particular context over the course of several visits to my home city of Benghazi in 2012-2013, which was an exciting and at times worrying time to be in Libya. After conducting this period of fieldwork to provide an overall picture of the use of English language or other languages in the public domain, it was found that although Arabic dominates and is still most heard and seen within this domain, there has been a noticeable shift towards the use of English which is rapidly spreading. It is now particularly visible on the high street in the cities with the use of English words appearing in the names of businesses such as shops, restaurant and cafes. The focus in this section is mainly on the visual impact of English in the general public domain since this has been the most dramatic shift in the sociolinguistic landscape for the average member of the Libyan general public. The images here which I took during this period literally act as a snapshot

of what was to be a crucial moment in Libya's contemporary history and document the changing reality of its public spaces.

The following sections will explore the current use of English in the Libyan public domain. This analysis begins by examining the high street, and then looks at private and public institutions and businesses. The focus then shifts to its use in the Libyan media and concludes with a consideration of the use of English in the context of air travel.

3.2.3.3.1 The high street

1. Political slogans and graffiti

When this fieldwork started in Benghazi, one of the largest cities in Libya, the most obvious and striking evidence of English was to be found on the walls in streets and public spaces. Political graffiti of the kind seen in Figure 11 often combined an English slogan with a visual representation. In this case the simple FREEDOM LIBYA FREE is accompanied by an image symbolising V for victory. Additional comments have been added later in Arabic but the English slogan remains untouched.

The phenomenon of writing political slogans with accompanying graphics on walls began during the events of 2011 that resulted in the end of Gaddafi's regime which have become popularly known in the West as the Arab Spring. The visibility of this English graffiti increased after these political changes and spread rapidly throughout almost all of the cities, towns and even villages of Libya.

The drawings often include caricatures of the former leader Gaddafi in various guises, including that of a wanted criminal which would have been previously

unthinkable (Figure 12). Most of these drawings include words and phrases in Arabic and/or English but no other language. These graphic representations with English slogans became a useful means for Libyans to send their message to the whole world, as they attracted attention from the media and the journalists who were documenting the events in the Libyan streets during the war. Their writings invariably express the Libyans' desire for democracy and freedom after four decades of silence and dictatorial rule.

A   **B**

Originally the words and pictures were produced by Libyan rebels expressing their feeling by writing on the walls. It is important to note that when these photographs were taken on the streets of Benghazi, there were no other foreign languages visible in public spaces or on the high street. "Libya is free" became the most common English phrase used during the events of 2011. In addition to the English phrases in Figure 3.8, there is what appears to be an attempt to transliterate Gaddafi's name into the English characters XDAFY suggesting that the person who wrote this was eager to express themselves in English but lacked the necessary language skills to do so.[19]

At the start of the revolution, protesters wrote on the walls and held up banners while demonstrating in the streets using English words and phrases in spite of the fact that these events and issues were occurring in Libya and concerned the Libyan people. They knew that English serves as an international language and as such could be used to attract the attention of the whole world. This was clearly their purpose as they wanted the international community to know what was happening in Libya and to make them aware of the massacres that had been carried out on peaceful protestors who asked for their freedom and an end to the Gaddafi regime. Libyans who were interviewed by different television channels often attempted to speak in English; some even gave interviews in English to Arab channels, possibly reasoning that this would ensure a more global audience for their words or

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[19] Gaddafi's name was notoriously difficult for Westerners to transliterate.

fearing that their meaning might be altered by subtitling. This use of English had an instrumental function – they wanted the whole world to hear what was happening.

Banners show these protesters did not use any other foreign languages. For example, although France was the first country to support the Libyan rebels at the start of the 2011 revolution and to recognise the National Transitional Council as the legitimate government of Libya in Benghazi, while Gaddafi still controlled the whole of western and southern Libya, not a single word of French appeared. Moreover, French fighter planes were first to carry out military strikes against Gaddafi's forces. French is one of the most spoken languages, widely used in North Africa, language of diplomacy and UN. However, protesters still used English, suggesting they thought this carried greater weight than French as an international language. See Figures 3.9-3.12 as examples of these banners that include English words.

Many graffiti and images which appeared on the walls across Libya were later white-washed over following the end of hostilities (Jawad: 2011, online).

2. Advertising: Billboards

Following the end of the civil conflict, English began to be seen in a different context on the streets of Benghazi, this time on billboards promoting both Libyan and imported products and services. For Libyans, this was considered a new trend since under Gaddafi, these billboards were usually filled with images of their leader and quotes in Arabic from his Green Book. Although the text of these advertisements is still mostly in Arabic, there are increasing examples of bilingual Arabic/English. It is also now possible to encounter advertising which is wholly in English although Libya is still officially a monolingual country. When elections were held for the National Transition Council in July 2012, many candidates used billboards to gain supporters and some included English translations displaying their intentions for reform, a clear use of language to mark a break with the past under Gaddafi and to suggest a modernising agenda.

D

C

Three of the billboard advertisements (Figures 14 A, B D) have connections with the construction sector, which is currently experiencing a boom in Libya. [20] Figure 14 C shows an advertisement for JOTUN paint (a multinational company) which is solely written in English. Figure 14B advertises a local brand of paint and is bilingual. Most of the information about the product is written in Arabic but the phrases YES WE CAN[21] and NEW have been added in English. Figure 14D advertises a forthcoming event, the International Building and Construction Exhibition and seems to be aimed not at consumers but those in the construction industry. Since many of those involved are likely to be Western exhibitors and contracting firms, Arabic features only in the logo of one of the sponsors. Figure 14C advertises a carpet and rug manufacturer and all the text is written in English except one phrase in Arabic printed on a German flag which translates as "German quality made by Libyan hands". The only languages visible on billboards during my fieldwork were Arabic and English and no attempt was made to include any other languages, even single words, regardless of the national origin of the product.

C   **D**

3. Street names and traffic signals

One area in which there has been no change in that street signs in Benghazi continue to be written only in MSA and are not bilingual as one might see in other MENA countries or the Gulf States. Figure 15 shows the signage on the main road welcoming travellers to Benghazi. Other signage, including that regulating traffic flow, are also in MSA (see figure 15). As noted in Chapter Two, under Gaddafi, no foreign language was permitted in naming streets,

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[20] According to the website for the exhibition http://www.buildexpolibya.com/why-libya.html (which has both English and Arabic versions) Libya is currently viewed as the number one growth market in Africa and the GCC region within the construction sector and the Libyan government is planning to invest about USD 100 billion on a comprehensive improvement to public housing, hospitals, schools, and infrastructure.
[21] There is perhaps a double reference here with this phrase which has been used not only as the catchphrase for the BBC children's television character Bob the Builder (a link with the product) but was also the political slogan used by Barack Obama.

roads, or avenues. Even though some streets were renamed to remove their original Italian names, such as Via Toreno which became Omar Ben Al Kattab Street, the old name persisted in popular usage. Although the government of Gaddafi's changed the entire streets names specially the one that hold foreign names, yet, Libyan still use the same Italian street names.

3.2.3.3.2 Names of public and private institutions and businesses

1. Names of hospitals and institutions

In Libya, for many years under the former regime, the signage related to key institutions and governmental buildings was in Arabic only since it was forbidden by law for any visible English transcription to be used to identify them. With the change in Gaddafi's anti-Western policy from 2000 onwards, English began to appear on the signage of some buildings and key institutions. Now, many official institutions, universities and hospitals have bilingual Arabic/English signage in addition to main signage in Arabic. Other phrases of welcome are also sometimes included (as seen in Figure 16.A) English rather than German is used even on the Libyan German Hospital which is noted for its German staff (Figure 16.B). But most State buildings and hospitals still only have Arabic signage, due to the continuous political change in Libya or have used temporary signage (Figures 16C and D). Other private hospitals and institutions invariably have bilingual Arabic/English signage or English transliteration of Arabic names.

D

B

A

2. Restaurants

As with other high street signage, the appearance of bilingual Arabic/English on restaurant and café street frontage is a fairly recent development. A noteworthy feature in Benghazi was that even restaurants serving Turkish or Italian food, which are owned and staffed by foreign nationals, have bilingual

signage in Arabic and English, rather than Turkish or Italian as one might imagine. In Figure 17, the name of restaurant is also transliterated into English.

Most restaurants in Libya continue to use Arabic names and combine this with English translation and transliteration on their signage as in the case of 18. The result in linguistic terms is somewhat odd, since Ali Zoby is the owner's name and one would expect to see "Ali Zoby's Restaurant". In this case an additional English phrase has been added "Fast Food" which again seems slightly at odds with the use of the word "Restaurant".

Other restaurants have taken a different approach and simply transliterated their original Arabic name into English. In Figure 20 "Kudu" is a direct transcription of the Arabic without any explanation and is clearly aimed at young people who will find the English script appealing and will not be put off

by this. In the second case "Diafa" means "Hospitality" but this fact would be lost on non-Arabic speakers and without the original Arabic, might also prove confusing for Libyans who cannot read English. This implies that the owner is perhaps aiming at an Arabic-speaking clientele who are also literate in English, implying they will be middle-class.

It is now rare in Libyan cities to find only Arabic script and names on the external signage of an eating place, regardless of whether it is a fast-food takeaway or an exclusive restaurant. Some establishments, such as the one shown in Figure 20, use only English script and words, although "Toscana" suggests Italian to an English reader. Again, a middle-class Libyan clientele will be attracted by signage in English which suggests a European-style eating experience.

Some of the multinational fast-food chains such as Pizza Hut and KFC have recently opened in the bigger cities of Libya. However, other international restaurants have not opened yet because of the unsecure circumstances and the civil war events that are currently occurring in Libya. Since the fast-food multinationals started to arrive, Libyan look-alikes also began to appear in city centres (see Figure 21).

ost of the coffee shops in Libya are locally owned but have now been given English names. In the case of "Friends" (Figure 22B), this could simply be the English word or could be a reference to the long-running American television series which was largely set in a coffee-shop, suggesting an establishment aiming to attract younger clientele. Here the signage also uses pictograms but combines these with the English ampersand character. "Good Morning"(Figure 22C) shows how even very ordinary neighbourhood cafes are trying to project a particular image by using an English phrase as their name, probably the first phrase which every Libyan student of EFL learns. Like the previous example shown in Figure 22A, "Gloria Café" shows some Italian influence in its naming but everything is written in English, including the byline "The Italian Taste".

When the multinational coffee shops such as the British-based Costa (ironically with an Italian-sounding name) and the American Starbucks arrived in the largest Libyan cities, Benghazi and Tripoli, they maintained

their original English names and simply transliterated these into Arabic (see

        A   **B**   **C**

Figure 23)

In Libya's largest cities, a number of American-style shopping malls have been established in recent years. Some of these malls have Arabic names transliterated but not translated into English such as Mazya (bargains) Mall and Hayat (life) Mall (Figure 24); other are called by English names only (Benghazi Mall, City Mall). They have attracted many well-known international brands names such as Mothercare, Marks and Spencer, Mango, Zara, United Colours of Benetton, Nike, Adidas, Body Shop and BHS which maintain their signage with transliteration. The locally owned shops in the mall also tend to use English names.

When I returned to Libya a year after the collapse of Gaddafi's regime to conduct this field work, the most noticeable feature was the sheer quantity of English signage in evidence where previously there had been none. Virtually all of the shops in the main cities of Libya have bilingual signage, some of it

Figure 4: American-style shopping mall and transliteration

in neon lights, intended to convey a number of qualities depending on the nature of the goods sold. In the case of clothes shops, the owner usually wants to create the impression that they fashionable, stylish and possibly that their clothes are not local but imported, implying good quality. The use of English appears to carry the same connotations in the context of fashion as French words and phrases such as chic or haute couture, do in English. Figure 25 is a good example of the sheer quantity and variety of English signage visible on a typical Libyan high street. English translations of Arabic words or phrases (sale, fashion, kids shop) and different type faces all create an eye-catching display.

Sometimes the owner's lack of linguistic ability in English is apparent as in Figure 25. The Arabic phrase Alhetha aletali means Italian shoes. Once again, although the suggestion is that Italian products are stylish and good quality, no attempt is made to use Italian, probably due to the negative connotations which the language still carries from colonial times, although the colours of the Italian flag are incorporated into the sign. However the English appears to read as Italian Shooe.

Figure 5: English signage on locally owned Libyan shops

In the case of the final image, there is little that marks this out as being a locally owned Libyan shop. As with the previous use of Friends as the name for a coffee show, the name of the shop may or may not be taken from the similarly titled Hollywood film (1990) which has many memorable scenes of shopping sprees for expensive designer clothes.

It is possible when walking in certain areas of Benghazi such Venicea Gallery or Dubai Street to feel that you are not in Libya since there are entire rows of shops with English names. These areas are considered the most modern, fashionable, and prestigious places to shop in Benghazi. All the shops stock internationally known designer brands which are prohibitively expensive as they are imported. In this context English definitely connotes elitism. Interestingly, though, two of the shop signs shown here (Figure 27) actually feature French words which are used in English in the fashion context. The first is CHIC; the second, Botic, appears to be an incorrect transliteration of the word boutique.

3.2.3.3.3. Transport

The international air terminals of the main Libyan airports situated in Tripoli and Benghazi Airport are one of the very few public places where English is not only seen but also heard. Nearly all of the signage and advertising is in MSA and English and all of the written information given to passengers is in MSA followed by English. In addition, all public announcements regarding departures and arrivals are in Arabic followed by an English version.

Libya's media environment has undergone a dramatic transformation in recent years. Gaddafi's regime lasted over four decades during which the media sector was under almost total state control and independent or critical voices were not tolerated. The presence of English language media in Libya was always closely controlled but it has finally begun to penetrate the Libyan media, providing another opportunity for Libyans to encounter this language outside the classroom. The media sector has seen the mushrooming of both independent and state-owned outlets and can be considered a useful means of spreading the English language throughout the country. This includes access to English language newspapers, a large number of English language TV channels and programmes, bilingual websites, films and programmes via satellite, and regional English-language radio channels.

3.2.3.3.4 Media and books

1. English in the Libyan Press

During Gaddafi's regime, there were two official English language newspapers published on a monthly basis in Libya: The Tripoli Post and Al-Jamahiriya News. Both were closely monitored by the Libyan government and available mostly in the big cities. These were intended for foreigners in the country, but many Libyans (especially students of EFL) also read these, not for their information content but to improve their English. The Tripoli Post continues publication.

A number of new privately owned English language newspapers are now available in Libya including The Libyan Post, The Libyan Times, New Libya, Benghazi Post together with English language magazines such as The Youth,

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Watch and Chat. The international English language newspapers/magazines such as The Times, The Newsweek, US News or London Times are not available at Libyan bookshops or newsstands yet but editions of English newspapers from neighbouring countries can be obtained in certain places (for example the Egyptian-based Al-Ahram, Middle East Times, and Gazette). The percentage of Libyan readers of English newspapers and magazines is increasing and these publications now appeal to a broader range of Libyan readers whereas previously these were limited to students, EFL teachers in search of classroom materials, and business people (Petzold 1994: 58).

2. Books

An English-language book publishing industry does not exist in Libya. The only exceptions to this has been English course books printed for Libyan EFL students such as *Text Book Evaluation and Designing a Syllabus: An Evaluation of a First Year English Textbook for Libyan Learners* (2001) by Nuwara Imssalem, or materials which are used for teaching EFL to non-English major first year university students in different faculties such as Learn and practice English, also written by a Libyan lecturer, Muftah Latiwish. (This book will be evaluated as part of this thesis). These English course books were published by the University of Benghazi Press.

In the past, EFL books were mostly available in university libraries for consultation by EFL students and teachers. However, following the dramatic upsurge in numbers or EFL learners and the growth in private EFL institutions, the demand for buying English language books has increased accordingly. English language books are now commonly available, and in most bookshops in the major cities, one can find a shelf of two of English language novels, reference material, dictionaries books and general EFL courses such as Headway or English Language. Specialist bookshops and second-hand bookshops also exist. In general, however, Libyans are not avid readers, even of Arabic books.

3. TV and Radio

Since Libyans do not pay any license for watching television, virtually every home in Libya has a television. During Gaddafi's rule, Libyan television channels were constantly monitored by the government and there was one government-controlled English language channel known as channel two which broadcast local and international news, documentary films and cartoons for just five hours a day.

Since 2011, a number of private Libyan channels, some of them broadcasting in English, have been launched. These English language channels originally

began broadcasting nationally from the eastern parts of Libya which were the first to be free from Gaddafi's rule. Following the government shut-down of communications including the internet, phone lines and other television channels at the outbreak of the war and during the conflict, these private channels played a significant role in broadcasting events from Libya to the whole world using the medium of English. The first Libyan English language channel, FREE LIBYA, was established by some Libyan engineers who had studied broadcasting and communication system techniques. After that a number of private Libyan English channels start broadcasting in English language.

During Gaddafi's regime, most Libyans did not watch their own national channel which mainly focused on the achievements of their leader. Instead they preferred to watch satellite channels such as MBC1, MBC2, MBC3, and MBC 4, together with Egyptian and Lebanese channels. These channels provided a diverse range of programming including soap operas, Arabic films, and cookery programmes. MBC2 broadcasts English language programmes as well as English and American films, all subtitled in Arabic. Moreover, most Libyan homes have both cable and satellite television, allowing them access to a large number of English language channels, including CNN, BBC, and ALJAZERA English.

Like other media, radio stations in Libya were controlled by the Libyan government throughout Gaddafi's regime. They were licensed and sponsored by the government and broadcast only in Arabic. However, during the last three years, a number of privately owned Libyan channels have started to broadcast, some having English language only content.

Libyan Youth Channel FM began broadcasting in Benghazi 2011 during the early days of the revolution. Originally established by Libyan students, it is aimed at young and is independent. It broadcasts music, news, chat shows focusing on social issues and interviews concerning political developments, all in English language.

Tribute FM was another privately owned independent Libyan channel that was launched in Benghazi during 2011 Libyan revolution. It was originally established by three British Libyans who broadcast in English language over the internet and from June 2011, on the radio. It aimed to inform Libyan expatriates and the international community about the on-going daily events during the revolution, including the NATO attack. It has a sister channel called Tribute Tripoli FM and both of these private channels are still operating.

They currently broadcast programmes in English language such as chat shows, news and views and non-Arab music.

Radio Zone is a private radio station, founded in the spring of 2012 by Libyan media figures. It mainly broadcasts non-Arab music interspersed with news and educational and cultural programmes in both English and Arabic. It produces public service announcements and aims to provide balanced criticism of the political establishment.

Tripoli FM is an English-language radio station broadcasting music and entertainment programmes. In general Libyans prefer Arab music and songs particularly those from Egypt and Lebanon. However, younger people show a marked preference for English and American pop music, even if they do not understand the lyrics.

4. Cinema

Most cinemas fell into disrepair during Gaddafi's rule, having been originally opened during the heyday of cinema-going in the 1950s, but a new privately financed three-screen cinema opened in Benghazi in 2012. Two of the theatres show new releases from Egypt and they are very popular with young people who now go there regularly. Older English and American films are shown in the remaining theatre and these are popular with non-Arab migrant workers such as Filipinos and Pakistanis. Given the range of in-house entertainment options available, few older Libyans go to the cinema. If they want to watch a film, they download this, buy a DVD or watch it on MBC2.

3.2.3.3.5 Models and standards of English

Libya currently draws on both British and American models of English, and there is no consensus of opinion amongst Libyan English Language teachers about which should be chosen as the preferable norm for Libya (Shaub 2002 : 234).

British-produced textbooks written by English native speaker authors have been used at levels of study in Libya since 2000. Prior to that, EFL textbooks written by Libyan authors such as Gusbi (see Chapter Two) were used throughout the educational system in Libya. The reason for depending on the United Kingdom for the model of English dates back to the historical influence of the British mandate in Libya and its influence on education which established English as the main foreign language taught in the school system. The private language schools also tend to use materials produced in the UK such as the *Headway* series, Cambridge, and *Cutting Edge*.

Interestingly, most of the new generations of EFL learners prefer the American English accent which they are used to hearing in American films and television series. They consider this to be more fashionable and modern whilst the older generations think that British Received Pronunciation (RP) is more prestigious. When I was studying English at university in Benghazi, the students admired those lecturers who had studied in the USA and preferred their accent in contrast to those who had studied in the UK. This issue concerning the preferable native language model is still very much a live debate in the Libyan ELT community and one which merits further investigation.

3.3 Conclusion

English is now the main foreign language in Libya, which like some other Arab countries, Egypt and Saudi Arabia, can be categorised as belonging to Kachru's (1992) Expanding Circle. The sociolinguistic profile which followed the model devised by O'Driscoll (1990) analysed the use of foreign languages in three key domains: the interpersonal, the role-based and the public domain. Data gathered form this profile indicates that the role of English in the Libyan context is expanding at an unprecedented rate for several reasons including its central role in the secondary education system, curriculum reform, and the increasing need for English language skills in the academic and workplace domains.

Although English does enjoy official status in Libya and its use in many domains is still restricted, it is still expanding faster than at any time before in the history of this country. In addition, in certain domains of science and technology, English has already acquired the status of a second language.

For over three decades of Gaddafi's rule, the English language was rigidly controlled and only began to gain popularity post-2000 when there was a thawing of relations with the US and UK. Since the collapse of Gaddafi's government, interest in English has significantly increased. Hundreds of EFL courses and private institutions have spread around the country and establishing EFL institutions has become one of the most profitable business sectors in the country. Its role is also expanding because of the involvement of international organisations and companies in different sectors that require staff with expertise in English.

Within the interpersonal domain, use of English is still limited to certain groups who code-switch between Arabic and English to convey various social meanings. On the other hand, when examining the role-based domain, we

can say that there is an unavoidable trend towards an increasing usage of English, fuelled to a great extent by the increasingly diverse workforce of Libya for whom English provides a convenient lingua franca in many situations. The penetration of English in Libya is most obviously visible in the public domain of the high street, which is now dominated by English signage. English is now also heard on television and radio. The English language in Libya appears to be highly valued and is enjoying more prestige than any other foreign language.

It is worth mentioning that the penetration of English in Libya is still greatest in the major cities of Tripoli, Benghazi and Misrata, and another study would be needed to explore to what extent these metropolitan patterns are reflected in the smaller towns and villages of the Libyan interior. However, all the indications are that English is now firmly rooted in Libya, to the extent that there have been tentative suggestions that it might become the second language of the country.

This snapshot of the extent of penetration of the English language seems all the more remarkable when set against the backdrop of over forty years in which there was not only little encouragement for this language but at times overt hostility to it, leading eventually to the long-term ban on its being taught at all.

Now, however, as these images have graphically illustrated, as far as English is concerned in Libya "the writing's on the wall". The younger generation of Libyans have embraced this language as their own, using it to express their hopes, fears and aspirations in street art, graffiti, slogans and placards. It now has a place in their hearts as well as their heads.

However, I also believe that despite the depth of this penetration, the English language will co-exist peacefully with Arabic, the language of the Qur'an and of Libya's Islamic heritage, with each occupying their own rightful domains.

Chapter Four

The Attitudes of Libyan University Students towards the English Language

4.0 Introduction

It was judged important to devote a part of this thesis to studying of the attitudes of Libyan EFL learners as research findings suggest that when studying a foreign language, the learner's attitudes towards that language can play a key role in affecting the process of learning because learner attitudes can serve to stimulate motivation and interest in learning a particular language. Attitudes which learners possess towards the target language, whether positive or negative, need to be assessed before designing course materials in order to take these factors into consideration (Dublin and Olshtain 1986).

The results of this questionnaire survey will be of help generally to higher institution syllabus designers in Libya intending to produce syllabuses, curriculum and teaching materials which are appropriate to the needs of present day EFL learners. The results of this survey will also feed into the suggestions for changes to the current syllabus which is made here in Chapter Seven. Since the syllabuses which are currently used date back to the 1980s, a revision of these is needed to reflect the fundamental changes which have taken place not only in language teaching methodology and approaches but also within the Libyan secondary education curriculum. Finally and more importantly, there is a need to consider the role which EFL now plays in Libyan society which has transformed radically since the 1980s.

Moreover, as other reviews of empirical studies on attitudes to foreign language learning (FLL) shows, to date relatively little research has been conducted on this topic in the Arab world in general and in North African countries in particular, at a time when the popularity of EFL there is high.

This chapter begins by considering the importance of 'attitude' in the context of FLL and then examines the findings of previous empirical studies which have focused on attitudes to EFL learning. A detailed description of the methodology for the questionnaire survey of student attitudes then follows. The results of the survey are then presented and discussed, comparing and contrasting these where relevant with findings from previous studies. Finally, concluding remarks will draw out salient points relating to attitudes amongst the sample of Libyan students surveyed and the implications of these for syllabus design in the Libyan context.

4.1 The Study of attitudes in FLL

4.1.1 Definition of attitude

The term 'attitude' was originally defined by the creator of the attitudinal scale, Likert (1932: 9 cited in Gardner 1980: 267), as "*an inference which is made on the basis of a complex of beliefs about the attitude object*." Gardner himself elaborated on this definition in the following terms, arguing that attitudes represent "*the sum total of a man's instincts and feelings, prejudice or bias, preconceived notions, fears, threats, and convictions about any specific topic*." (1980: 267). Elsewhere he explains that attitude is "*A psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour*" (cited in Eagly and Chaiken 1993: 1). Baker (1992:10) defined attitude from a behaviouristic angle, arguing it is "*a hypothetical construct used to explain the direction and persistence of human behaviour*". He also explains that unlike height or weight, attitude cannot easily be accurately measured because it cannot be straightforwardly watched and noticed because "*A person's thoughts, processing system and feelings are hidden*" (Ibid., 11). Like Baker, Ajzen (1988: 117 cited in Bartran 2010: 34) links the notion of attitude to behaviour, considering 'attitude' to be "the individual positive or negative evaluation of performing the particular behaviour of interest".

More specifically in reference to applied linguistics, it is noted in the Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics that "Language attitudes may have an effect on second language (L2) or FLL":

> *Expressions of positive or negative feelings towards a language may reflect impressions of linguistic difficulty or simplicity, ease or difficulty of learning, degree of importance, elegance, social status, etc. Attitudes towards a language may also show what people feel about the speakers of that language*. (Richards& Schmidt 2002)

From a sociolinguistic perspective Crystal (1997: 256) notes that the feelings that people have about their own language or someone else's language may be positive or negative and explains that: "*some may particularly value a foreign language (e.g. because of its literary history) or think that a language is especially difficult to learn (e.g. because the script is off-putting)*". According to Al-Mamun (2012: 200):

> *Language attitude is a construct that explains linguistic behaviour in particular. It may be positive or negative as well as instrumental and integrative. It varies from favourable to unfavourable or vice-versa in language learning and acquisition,*

choice and use of language in different domains and hence, it is important in the question of survival and development.

Chambers (1999:27 cited in Bartran 2010: 35) makes the following points concerning the importance of attitude in FLL:

Attitude is taken to mean the set of values which a pupil brings to the FLL experience. It is shaped by the pay-offs that she expects; the advantages that she sees in language learning. The values which a pupil has may be determined by different variables, such as the experience of learning the target language, of the target language community, experience of travel, the influence of parents and friends, and the attitudes which they may demonstrate and articulate.

Baker (1988) outlined the main features of FLL attitudes as follows:

They are both cognitive and affective.
They are dimensional in that they vary in their degree of favourability/unfavourability.
They incline a person to act in a certain way.
They are learnt.
They often persist; however they can be modified by experience.

4.1.2 The classification of attitude

Gardner and Lambert (1972) classified FLL attitudes into three main categories:
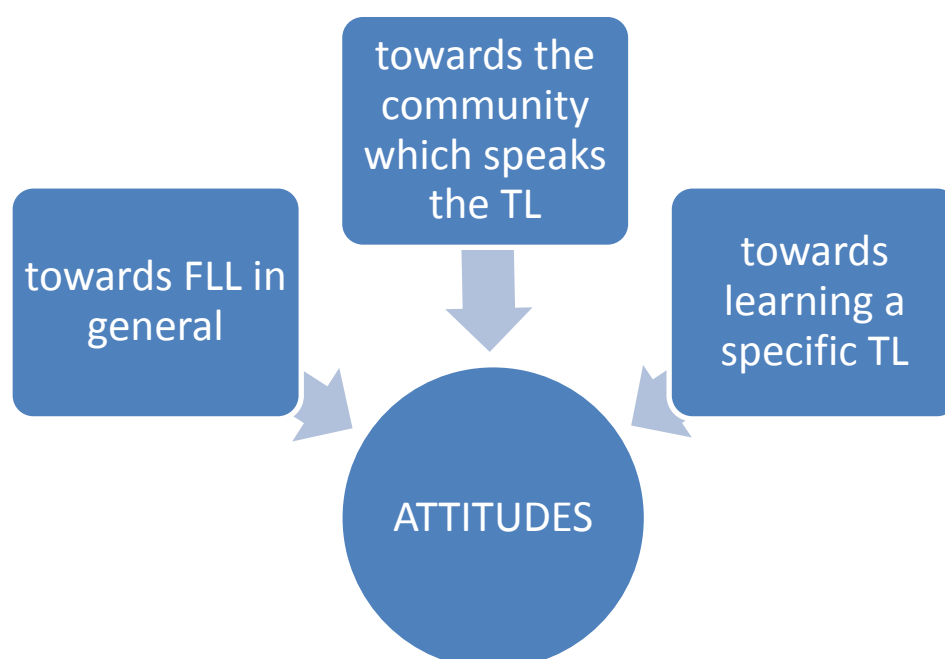
Figure 6: Gardner and Lambert's (1972) classification of FLL attitudes

The present study will adopt Gardner and Lambert's (1972) tripartite classification of attitudes, investigating attitudes to learning EFL amongst Libyan university students under these three main categories.

4.1.3 Components of language attitude

Research has identified two main orientations with respect to FLL attitudes which have been labelled: instrumental and integrative (Baker 1992:31-32). The former is defined by Gardner and Lambert (1972: 14 cited in Baker 1992:31-32) as "*a desire to gain social recognition or economic advantages through knowledge of a foreign language*". Thus, for instance, when learners are asked about their reasons for learning a particular language and they choose "to help me to get a good job", or "to make me a more educated person" they can be said to have an instrumental orientation in their FLL. Baker also adds that instrumental motivation is mostly "*self-oriented*" and "i*ndividualistic*" and is strongly linked to a need for achievement. Consequently, an instrumental orientation to acquiring a TL is always related to occupational reasons, position, achievement and personal success.

The second orientation to language is the integrative attitude. Gardner and Lambert (1972: 14 cited in Baker 1992:32) define this as "*a desire to be like representative members of the other language community*". A learner is said to have an integrative attitude when he or she explains the reason behind learning another language in the following terms: "it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people" (Gardner 1985b cited in Baker 1992:32). A further useful categorisation with respect to attitudes is that of Baker (1992) who identified three key components to an attitude.
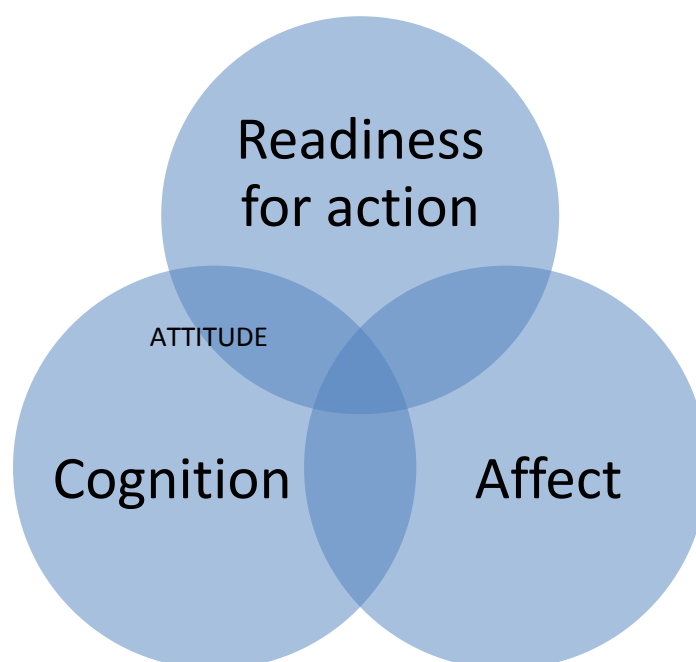
Figure 7: Baker's (1992) classification of FLL attitudes

The first is the cognitive constituent which includes those parts of attitudes which are linked to thoughts and beliefs. Thus a person possessing a favourable attitude towards English might believe in the importance of it being a compulsory subject of study in all schools. The second is the affective element which refers to those aspects of attitudes which are related to feelings and emotions. This is usually reflected in an individual declaring a passionate enthusiasm for, say, learning English and watching Hollywood films. The third and final element, the conative part, relates to "*desire, volition and striving*" and concerns how we act on our thoughts, beliefs, feelings and emotions. This aspect of attitude is linked to behavioural intention and is normally referred to as '*readiness for action*'. Thus if a student has a favourable attitude towards English, he or she may wish to make contact with native speakers to practise the language and/or learn more about their culture. Baker also recognises that these three components are interconnected and combine "*at a higher level of abstraction*" (Baker 1992:13) to produce attitude.

4.2 The importance of attitude in FLL

According to Gardner (1985) who views motivation as intrinsically linked to attitudes, the relation between motivation and attitudes is that motivation includes favourable attitudes towards learning the language. Gardner also argues that learning a foreign language is affected by the degree of a learner's attitude towards foreign people in general and his/her attitudes towards the target group and the target language in particular. Starks and Paltridge (1996: 218) agree with Gardner's view and they claim that learning a language is closely related to the learner's attitudes towards the language. Therefore, the degree of favourability of the attitudes that learners hold towards the language, to learning it, and also towards the target language group and their culture can be a crucial factor in determining success or failure when learning English.

4.3 Empirical Studies of Attitudes to EFL Learning

A plethora of research has been carried out to investigate the attitude of learners towards FLL and specifically towards learning EFL. This section will review some of the studies considered to be of most direct relevance to this work, discussing both those which were conducted in non-Arabic speaking countries and in the Arab world. Lafaye and Tsuda (2002) studied the attitudes towards learning EFL from a sample of Japanese students in higher education and also the place of English as a language in Japan. After

surveying 500 Japanese students, their findings revealed that the majority of students responded positively to the usefulness of English but negatively to their perception of their EFL learning experience. Some 85% thought that English would be important for their children, and 75% said that they envied and admired good speakers of English. In the same EFL context, Al-Tamimi and Tsuda (2009) conducted another study to investigate the attitudes of higher education students towards learning EFL in Japan. Their questionnaire was distributed among first-and second-year students in the Faculty of Humanities in May 2001. The findings of the questionnaire reflect that two-thirds of group A and B students did not like studying EFL because they had not experienced many feelings of success in their learning experience.

Karahan (2007) carried out a similar study regarding attitudes to learning EFL in Turkey. The research was motivated by the continuous complaints raised by learners, teachers, and administrators about the low level of English proficiency among Turkish students. According to Karahan, the main aim of the study was to explore the relationship between attitudes towards English and towards language learning. The study also examined the relationship among attitudes, the age at which learners started language study, and where the individual started to learn EFL. A questionnaire adapted from previous studies examining attitudes to language was used to collect the relevant data and it was distributed to 190 eighth-grade students (94 females; 96 males) in a private primary school in Adne, Turkey. The final results showed that although the sampled students were exposed to EFL more frequently than State school students were, these learners reflected only mildly positive attitudes. The results also indicated that students were aware of the importance of EFL, yet did not indicate high level orientation towards learning the language.

The attitude of Arab EFL learners has been the topic of numerous research studies and many of these are commented on here since they are closely related to my work since the MENA (Middle East and North African) countries share a common language and Islamic culture and for historical and political reasons many have similar opinion towards EFL and its native speakers. Al-Mutawa (1986, 1994) studied the attitudes of Kuwaiti students towards learning EFL. 1030 secondary school students participated in this survey by responding to a five-point Likert scale questionnaire. The findings revealed that the majority of students did not have favourable attitudes towards learning EFL. Over 75% of participants surveyed disagreed with the following statements:

I want to pursue studies in Arab or foreign universities.
I consider English to be a means of finding out about foreign cultures and ways of life.
I regard English to be beneficial to my chances of obtaining a better job and for future business.

Malallah (2000) investigated the attitudes of Kuwaiti undergraduates towards EFL and also considered their levels of motivation for learning EFL in a predominately Arabic-speaking and Islamic environment. Unlike Al-Mutawa's (1986, 1994) studies, that concluded that Kuwaiti learners had unfavourable attitudes towards English and to learning EFL, Malallah found that university students held positive attitudes towards English as a language and to learning EFL, and that they also had a favourable attitude towards native speakers of English. Malallah's survey of 409 Kuwaiti university students concluded that English is highly valued by Kuwaiti society and the students' level of achievement in learning English is strongly related to their attitudes and motivation towards English.

Al-Zubeiry's (2012) study was aimed at studying the socio-psychological orientation of Saudi learners of EFL. His sample includes 120 students (male and female) studying EFL in the Department of English at Al-Baha University. A questionnaire based on Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) was adapted for use in the Saudi context and Al-Zubeiry's findings revealed that the surveyed students were highly motivated in both their instrumental and integrative orientation. The findings also suggested that the students' utilitarian and academic reasons for learning English ranked higher than their social and cultural reasons in other words, more instrumental than integrative. The results also showed that students manifested positive attitudes towards learning EFL and towards native speakers of English.

In the UAE a number of related studies have been carried out to investigate student attitudes towards foreign language learning. The first by Al Bassam took place in 1978 and revealed that levels of student achievement in learning English were closely related to learners' attitudes and motivation. Musa (1985) conducted an attitudinal study with EFL students in the UAE using a five-point Likert scale questionnaire. The results showed that they displayed positive attitudes towards learning EFL and that they value the English efficiency. Suliman (2006) also explored student attitudes to learning English and their motivation. This study indicated that instrumental motivation was most important for UAE state secondary school students and that they also had some unfavourable attitudes towards the language.

A similar study was conducted in Dubai (UAE) by Qashoa (2006) in which the researcher aimed to examine the students' instrumental and integrative

motivation for learning EFL and to identify the factors affecting levels of learner motivation. The data was collected in two ways: quantitative data was gathered from a questionnaire which was distributed to 100 secondary school students whilst qualitative data came from interviews with 20 students, 10 Arabic-speaking EFL teachers, and three supervisors. The results of Qashoa's study showed that the sampled students had a higher degree of instrumentality than integrativeness and that the most de-motivating factors for the students were subject-related difficulties including vocabulary load, grammatical structures, and spelling.

In Jordan, Abu-Ghzaleh and Hijazi (2011) surveyed 200 graduate and undergraduate students studying EFL at Yarmouk University, using a five-point Likert scale questionnaire to collect their data. Their results revealed that student were generally positive in their attitudes towards EFL and towards learning this language. Their study also compared the attitudes of male and female student and they found that gender was not a significant factor in student attitudes towards EFL. However, they did find that academic specialization and level of study were both influential on student attitudes. More specifically, their findings revealed that graduates and science students developed more positive attitudes than students who were undergraduate and specializing in the Arts (Abu-Ghzaleh and Hijazi 2011: 625).

Unfortunately, to date no study of this type has been conducted in any of Libya's neighbouring North African countries such as Algeria, Tunisia, Egypt, or Morocco which share some of the characteristics of Libyan society. Only one study had been carried out in Libya itself and this focused on secondary school students in Southern Libya. Abidin et al. (2012) carried out a study which examined behavioural, cognitive, and emotional aspects of attitudes towards learning EFL in a sample of 180 secondary school students. Respondents from three different specialist secondary schools (Basic Sciences, Life Sciences, and Social Sciences) were surveyed using a five-point Likert scale questionnaire. The results revealed that students generally had negative attitudes towards learning EFL same as Kuwaiti secondary students.

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, then, this study will be the first in a Libyan context to investigate the attitude of university students towards English as a language, towards its speakers, and towards learning EFL.

After reviewing previous empirical studies of attitudes to EFL learning, it is possible to identify attitude and motivation as two important factors which may potentially affect levels of achievement in language learning. It is also clear that most researchers adopted the survey method using a five-point

Likert scale questionnaire to collect the data. All the previous studies and their results provide significant insights for the present study, highlighting some key issues and helping to establish the foundation on which this present study which aims to provide a comprehensive picture of attitudes to learning EFL in another context, namely, Libya, has been built.

4.4 Methodology

Dörnyei (2007, pp. 32) argues that the most significant distinguishing feature of quantitative research is that it is centred on numbers. He observes, however, that although numbers can be useful in mathematical terms, they are "*faceless and meaningless*" without contextual backing in research. This chapter begins then by presenting the context for this quantitative element of the study, a questionnaire survey of Libyan university students which aimed to gain an insight into (1) their attitudes towards the English language in general, (2) towards native speakers of English and (3) towards learning EFL. Quantitative research is also interested in identifying the common features of groups of people rather than individual differences. Thus the questionnaire also aimed to establish if the questionnaire survey revealed any obvious differences in these attitudes depending on the students' area of academic specialisation.

The University of Benghazi (previously known as Garyounis University) in the city of Benghazi, Libya was chosen for this study because the researcher has well-established personal and professional links with this institution. The researcher herself studied there as an undergraduate and postgraduate and then went on to work at the university as a lecturer, gaining experience of teaching EFL to students specialising in English and those taking the obligatory General English course.

The University of Benghazi is comprised of six faculties: Arts, Law, Economics, Science, Engineering and Medicine. Undergraduate degree courses there last for four successive years of instruction, each year being divided into two semesters. In the Faculties of Medicine, Engineering, Economics and Science, English is the official medium of instruction with university lecturers having a diverse range of nationalities. These include Libyans, Arabs (mainly Iraqis, Egyptians and Palestinians) and non-Arab staff from India and Pakistan. The other two faculties (Arts and Law) use Arabic as the medium of instruction and all staff members are Arabic-speaking (being Libyan, Iraqi, Egyptian or Palestinian). In the first semester of the first year of undergraduate programmes, all students in most faculties, with the exception

of those linguists who are specialising in EFL, are required to take an obligatory course known as "General English", regardless of their subject specialisation.[22] The syllabus of this EFL course and the course book *Learn and Practise English* which is used at the University of Benghazi are evaluated in Chapter Five and the ELT syllabus is discussed in chapter three). The English Department, based in the Faculty of Arts at the University of Benghazi is responsible for teaching this compulsory course.

4.4.1 Sampling

This section will discuss the various issues which must be considered when selecting a sample for a study of this type.

4.4.1.1 The sampling design

As previously mentioned, this study aimed to investigate a specific population, namely, the 2012/2013 cohort of first-year undergraduates at the University of Benghazi. Two key issues were taken into consideration before recruiting participants for this study: the sampling scheme and the sample size.

4.4.1.2 The sampling scheme

Collins et al. (2007: 271) define a sampling scheme as "the explicit strategies used to select units (e.g. people, groups, settings, and events) for the study" and they identify two strategies. The first is random sampling, in which "*every member of the wider population has an equal chance of being included in the sample; inclusion or exclusion from the sample is a matter of chance and nothing else*" (Cohen et al., 2007: 110). However, in the second type, non-random sampling: "*some members of the wider population definitely will be excluded and others definitely included (i.e. every member of the wider population does not have an equal chance of being included in the sample*)" (ibid.). Due to the nature of this study, a non-random (or purposive) sampling scheme was selected.

4.4.1.3 The sample size

Cohen et al. (2007: 101) emphasise that there is "no clear-cut answer" regarding the correct size for a sample as it depends both on the nature of the study and of the population which is being investigated. However, there is a consensus that in quantitative studies the larger the sample is, the better, since this enhances reliability and enables the use of more sophisticated statistics). The decision was made to target one group from each faculty of

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[22] All students must also follow an obligatory course in MSA.

first-year undergraduate students in the 2012/2013 with the exception of those students in the English Department (Arts Faculty) who were specialising in the study of EFL since they, unlike all the other students, do not follow the obligatory General English course and their relation to the language is fundamentally different.

4.4.1.4 Recruiting the sample

The study was carried out in the University of Benghazi. University officials were contacted and permission was asked to conduct the research and support was sought from lecturing staff as the optimal way to gain access to the numbers of participants needed for this study. Due to the researcher's existing professional links with the University of Benghazi and the nature of the research project, few problems were experienced in gaining permission from lecturers to distribute questionnaires for completion during lectures (See 4.4.3) below and all promised to cooperate. After obtaining permission from the relevant University authorities, it was decided to distribute the questionnaires over the course of one week to undergraduate students during lectures. The number of returned questionnaires was 894

4.4.2 Data collection instrument: The questionnaire

4.4.2.1 Advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaire method

Collecting data by questionnaire has a number of advantages. Firstly, when large sample sizes are required for a quantitative study, a survey employing a questionnaire is relatively quick to administer and provides an inexpensive and efficient method of gathering data about attitudes (Walonick, 2004). Secondly, most people are familiar with this data collection format so participants usually do not need lengthy explanations about what they are required to do. Furthermore, if closed or multiple choice questions are used, it is fairly easy to enter the responses into a software package such as SPSS, which greatly facilitates the analysis process.

However, this method of data collection also has some disadvantages. Walonick (2004) notes that survey response rate can range from 10% to 90% depending on the type used and there is a high risk of obtaining a low response rate to questionnaires. However, owing to the method of distribution and administration of the questionnaire (see 4.4.1.4 above and 4.4.3 below), this risk was avoided and the response rate was 100%. According to Walonick (2004) design can play a key role in determining the success of this research method so careful thought was given to the design of the questionnaire to make it easy for respondents to complete questions. Poor design and ambiguous language may cause

respondents to misunderstand questions so that these are incorrectly completed. Also it is important to plan how the questionnaire will be administered to maximise the numbers of responses. In this study, the questionnaire was piloted to ensure the optimal design and to eliminate any potential problems with administration.

4.4.2.1 Questionnaire development process

The questionnaire was chosen as the main tool used for collecting quantitative data. The process of development and validation of questionnaire is based on the approaches recommended by Churchill and Iacobucci (2002). Figure 38 illustrates the simple procedure that was used as a guideline for constructing an effective questionnaire.

1 • Specify Information Sought

2 • Create questionnaire items

3 • Decide form of response to the questions

4 • Determine wording for each question

5 • Establish question sequence

6 • Design layout and physical characteristics of the questionnaire

7 • Validate questionnaire
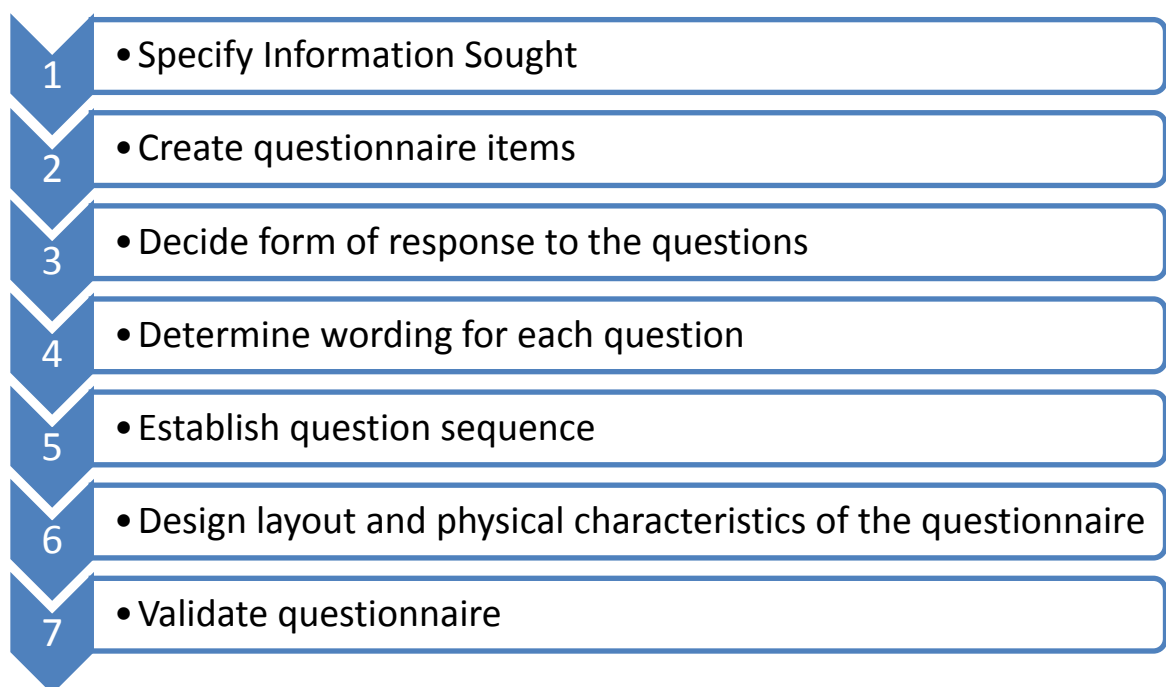
Figure 8: Guideline for constructing an effective questionnaire (based on Churchill and Iacobucci 2002).

In terms of specifying the information sought, as previously noted the questionnaire was designed to investigate student language learning attitudes and needed to ascertain:

Students' attitudes towards the English language in general

Students' attitudes towards native speakers of English and

Students' attitudes towards learning EFL.

For the purposes of this study, attitude will be considered to be a combined construct made up of a student's understandings, perceptions, beliefs, and previous experiences of learning EFL as previously explored in the literature review.

In terms of creating questionnaire items, the initial pool of items was created from the review of literature dealing with empirical studies on attitudes towards FLL and was adapted from examples used in previous studies which aimed to explore the attitude of students towards English as a language, towards native speakers of English and towards learning EFL (Gardner: 1979; Clement and Kruidenier: 1983; Gardner and Lambert: 1972; Gardner: 1985; Al-Busairi: 1992; Mallalah: 2000). Where necessary, the wording of questionnaire items was modified to suit the target population of the study and to make them more relevant to the specific research context. (See Appendix D for the English version of the questionnaire)

With the exceptions of some personal data questions and the final section of the questionnaire, a predetermined response accompanies each closed-ended item. In order to maintain uniformity, regardless of response type, a five-point Likert scale was applied to all the items in the questionnaire, each response being allocated a score ranging from one to five. Thus, strongly disagree = 1 and strongly agree = 5. This is the most frequently used scale in studies examining attitudes.

The original draft of the questionnaire was in English, since this was based on instruments used in previous studies published in this language. This also meant that feedback on this draft could be provided more easily. Although it was originally designed in English, the final version of the questionnaire was provided to participants in MSA, their mother tongue, for a number of reasons. Most importantly, there was a concern that some of the learners would not fully understand all of the questions and this might hinder their comprehension and prevent them from responding freely, or in a way which failed to accurately reflect their attitude towards a particular item. (See appendix G for the Arabic version of the questionnaire). It was also considered a possibility that respondents with lower levels of English proficiency might have felt intimidated if faced with an English language version and in addition that this might have made them feel they were being tested in some way, meaning that responses might have been less honest. Moreover, in the final section of the questionnaire, section E, students were asked to provide any further comments and individuals usually feel most at ease expressing their thoughts in their L1. Although it would have been possible to provide the questions in English and ask for responses in Arabic, the single language solution was deemed to be less confusing for the respondents.

In order to validate the questionnaire, after this had been constructed, the researcher's supervisor provided detailed feedback on an initial draft. Other students in the School of Education at the University of Huddersfield, particularly those with research interests in L2 motivation, were asked to give their opinion about the questionnaire's wording, comprehensibility and suitability of the questionnaire items and to provide comments on its general user-friendliness.

Following their feedback and discussion, any necessary changes were made. Attention was also given to producing a user-friendly questionnaire that could be relatively quickly and easily completed by participants. The final pilot version took approximately 25 minutes to complete. In addition, following Ryan (2008, p. 151), special attention was paid to ensure that: "*Clear instructions were given regarding the administration of the questionnaire".* The anonymity of participants was assured.

The first draft of the questionnaire, which consisted of 38 items was then translated from English into MSA (the mother tongue of the target participants) by the researcher herself and this version was checked by two Arabic/English translation specialists based in the Department of Translation at the University of Benghazi to ensure it accurately rendered the sense of the original questionnaire items and there were no linguistic or typographical errors or ambiguities in the text of the questionnaire to be distributed to the study participants. They checked the translation and suggested rewording of some items. This Arabic version was then finally submitted to the scrutiny of a professor of Education at the University of Benghazi to ensure that it was fit for purpose. The questionnaire used in the study was piloted before distribution.

4.4.2.2 The pilot version

Conducting a pilot study before the main study allows any potential problems in the form of the questionnaire to be identified and corrected. It also helps the researcher to refine data collection plans with respect to both the content of data and the procedures to be followed (Gill and Johnson, 2002). The Arabic version of the questionnaire was piloted in January 2012 with 56 first-year students (males = 49; females = 7) from the Faculty of Engineering, who like the target participants were in their first year of studying full-time at the University of Benghazi. This pilot study was used to check whether distribution, completion and collection of the questionnaire was feasible in the allotted length of time, thanks to the collaboration of a colleague who distributed the questionnaire to students in their faculties and departments. It

also provided the opportunity to check whether the instructions are sufficiently clear, any questions might prove to be ambiguous or misleading and need modification. After completing the questionnaire, students were invited to provide any suggestions they had concerning possible improvements to any aspect of the questionnaire. The pilot study raised several issues. A number of items were added, rewritten, or removed.

<u>4.4.2.3 The final version</u>

The final version of the questionnaire consisted of five parts. Section A requires personal information regarding age, gender, and department/faculty, self-assessed level of proficiency in English, length of time learning EFL and the circumstances under which students began studying EFL. This information was used to provide a snapshot of the cohort and to identify any potentially unusual features of the sample. It also provides the opportunity for future research to be carried out which would map variables such as age, gender or subject discipline against the other dimensions of the questionnaire. Students were asked to respond to series of statements, 30 in total, on the basis of a five-point Likert scale, ranging from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree. All questionnaires were anonymous. Section E gave respondents the opportunity to make any comments they wished on any aspect of the questionnaire. The English version of the final questionnaire can be found in (Appendix D). Each section of the questionnaire was designed to examine a main theme as follows: Section B was used to measure respondents' attitudes towards the English language in general; Section C served to gauge student attitudes towards learning EFL and Section D looks at student attitudes towards native speakers of English. Table 2 provides a brief commentary on each of the items Q1-30. **See appendix D for the English version of the questionnaire**

Table 2: Questionnaire items

	SECTION B	
	PURPOSE	ITEMS Q1-10
POSITIVITY/NEGATIVITY OF FEELINGS TOWARDS ENGLISH	Measures degree of positivity of feelings towards English as a language.	Q1. I find the English language interesting.
		Q2. I like speaking English.
	Measures degree of positivity of feelings towards the culture of English language-speaking countries.	Q3. I like watching English and American TV channels.
	Measures degree of positivity of feelings towards English as a language in relation to mother tongue. It does not ask respondents to do this in relation to a particular domain (e.g. I prefer English to Arabic for X activity) so is purely measuring feelings not instrumental orientation.	Q4. I prefer English to Arabic.
	Measures degree of positivity of feelings towards students' own language and culture. Students with a high degree of positivity towards their own language/culture will not necessarily have negative attitudes towards other languages/cultures but this may imply a more instrumental rather than integrative attitude to FLL.	Q7. I have strong ties with my native language and culture.
	Measures degree of negativity of feelings towards English as a language and the culture of English language-speaking countries. Students answering Agree/Strongly Agree may wish to learn EFL for purely instrumental reasons but will not have integrative attitudes to FLL.	Q8. I feel that English poses a threat to my mother tongue and culture.
	Measures degree of positivity of feelings towards students' own language.	Q9. I believe that Arabic is more beautiful than other languages.
INSTRUMEN	Measures degree of instrumental orientation related to social recognition (Gardner and Lambert 1972: 14 cited in Baker 1992:31-32)	Q5. I believe that being able to speak English enhances my status.

		Measures degree of instrumental orientation related to a need for achievement, albeit that of one's children. It is also linked to behavioural intention and indicates the degree of 'readiness for action' in relation to FLL attitudes.	Q6. In the future, I hope to put my children in a private English school so that they will learn to speak English fluently.
		Measures degree of instrumental orientation and is likely to be related to occupational rather than personal reasons since most Libyans currently travel for study or work.	Q10 I think English will be very useful when travelling abroad.
		SECTION C	
		PURPOSE	ITEMS Q11-20
INSTRUMENTAL	ORIENTATION TO EFL	Measures degree of instrumental orientation focusing on general perception of utility of EFL.	Q11. I feel that learning English is very useful to me.
		Measures degree of instrumental orientation focusing on a specific skill which is not currently taught on the course but might usefully be included in the new syllabus.	Q19. I wish I could read magazines and newspapers in English.
	AFFECTIVE	These two 'mirror image' statements (Gendall and Hoek 1990) measure the affective dimension in relation to learning EFL but are also intended to give an indication as to whether in general terms students' responses are valid. If students are responding truthfully and thoughtfully to these items they should produce 'mirror' image results.	Q12. I dislike learning English.
			Q15. I like learning English.
POSITIVITY/NEGATIVITY OF FEELINGS	TOWARDS	Measures degree of positivity/negativity towards learning EFL. However, since no element of instrumentality is specified, this item emphasises "love of learning for learning's sake" and may indicate high intrinsic motivation for EFL learning.	Q13. I would like to learn as much English as possible.
		Measures degree of positivity/negativity of feelings towards learning EFL in relation to perceived utility, indicating an instrumental orientation to language learning.	Q14. I would rather spend my time studying subjects other than English.

	Measures degree of positivity/negativity of feelings towards learning English and may also indicate instrumental orientation in language learning.	Q16. It is of no benefit for me to learn English.
	Measures degree of positivity/negativity of feelings towards learning English and may also indicate instrumental orientation in language learning since it focuses specifically on continuing EFL studies in relation to study.	Q17. I plan to continue learning English after my obligatory EFL studies at University have ended.
	Measures degree of positivity/negativity of feelings towards learning English and may also indicate instrumental orientation in language learning since it implies commitment to continuing EFL studies in relation to study.	Q18. When I leave the university, I shall give up the study of English entirely.
	Measures degree of positivity/negativity of feelings towards learning English and may also indicate degree of positivity of feelings towards students' own language.	Q20. I think learning English from an early age will have a negative impact on proficiency in Arabic.
SECTION D		
PURPOSE		**ITEMS Q21-30**
CONATIVE	Measures the conative or readiness for action component in terms of how students act in relation to their thoughts, beliefs, feelings and emotions concerning native speakers. Items Q29 and Q25 might also indicate an integrative orientation to learning EFL whilst Q21 which specifies a purpose for meeting English speakers might also suggest an instrumental orientation to learning EFL.	Q21. I would like to meet native speakers of English and engage in conversations with them.
		Q29. I would like to meet as many native speakers of English as possible.
		Q25. In the future, I would like to live in an English-speaking country.
AFFECTIVE	All these items are intended to gauge the affective element of attitude related to feelings and emotions about English speakers, either favourable or unfavourable. Items Q22 and Q23 also function as	Q22. I have an unfavourable attitude towards English speakers.

		Q23. I like English speakers.
	'mirror image' statements (Gendall and Hoek 1990). These items also indicate the general degree of positivity/negativity of feelings towards native speakers of English.	Q30. I like watching English-language films that reflect the culture of British and American societies.
		Q28. I hope Libya will maintain good relations with English-speaking countries.
COGNITIVE	Gauges the cognitive constituent of attitude linked to thoughts and beliefs about English speakers, either favourable or unfavourable.	Q24 I think native speakers of English are dishonest.
		Q26. I think English speakers are well educated.
		Q27. I think English speakers are sociable.

Feedback was sought on the final English and Arabic versions of the questionnaire as previously and any necessary changes made or errors corrected in keeping with suggestions provided.

4.4.3 Procedure

When the final version of the questionnaire was ready, this was distributed over the course of one week in lectures in all six faculties. Libyan colleagues had cautioned against using email to distribute the questionnaires as many students had limited internet access. Questionnaires accompanied by consent forms and briefing sheets were distributed by the researcher herself plus a colleague before the lecture commenced, and some 20 minutes were allocated for the students to complete the questionnaire in every lecture. Participants were re-informed about why the information was needed, how it would be used and stored, and how it related to the study. Although the fact that the researcher herself administered the questionnaires proved time-consuming, it had a number of advantages. Distributing the questionnaire personally allowed the researcher to clarify any queries. It also facilitated explanation of items which were not understood, to put respondents at ease,

answering any queries and reminding them about the importance of the research and reassuring them about confidentiality.

There was a danger that this method of administration, with the researcher in face-to-face attendance, caused some respondents to give more 'accommodating' (pro-English) responses than they otherwise would have done if the questionnaire had been conducted by distance means. To minimise this possibility, the researcher tried to put the students at ease and assured them, that completed questionnaires could not be traced to individuals. Both the conduct of the researcher while they were completing the questionnaire (chatting at the front to the room with the lecturer) and the large size of the groups completing the questionnaire at any one time (50+) should have increased their assurance. Nevertheless, the possibility of some faint effect of this face-to-face method cannot be completely discounted.

All questionnaires were collected again at the end of the session by the researcher herself plus a colleague. This considerably shortened the overall time required for data collection as it eliminated the time needed to allow participants to complete and return questionnaires and also meant 100% response rates.

4.4.3.1 Ethical considerations

This research needed to take into account a number of ethical considerations. A report on any ethical issues raised by this study was submitted to the University of Huddersfield School Research and Ethics Panel and ethical approval for this research was granted in December 2011. Once this clearance had been received, a process of informed consent was undertaken which involved University officials, faculty staff and students. First, written information about the study's aims and processes and copies of consent forms were sent to relevant officials and staff at the University of Benghazi and the necessary permission was obtained, with the aim of gaining access to student participants in each faculty. All students were given appropriate information on a briefing sheet that was included with the questionnaire and were asked to sign informed consent forms. Before giving their consent to participate, students were asked to read the information sheet ensuring that they understood the study's aims and processes and that their participation was entirely voluntary and that they were free to end their involvement in the research without any implications. Clear instructions were also given in Arabic regarding the administration of the questionnaire.

Participants were assured that all personal data would be appropriately protected and were informed about how their data would be stored. Special

attention was paid to ensure that information supplied by questionnaire respondents was anonymised using a coding system to link test results with questionnaire responses (Ryan 2008, p.151).

Paper-based information was stored securely in a locked room at all times and all digital information was kept in password protected files. Only information relating directly to the aims of the investigation was collected and stored, and any additional personal information was disposed of safely.

4.5 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics are used to "describe the characteristics of the sample" (Pallant, 2010, p. 53). This section begins by presenting the data relating to Section A of the questionnaire.

4.5.1 Demographic profile of the sample

<u>4.5.1.1 Age</u>

The respondents ranged in age from 18 to 45 but all were first-year university students at the time of the survey. As expected the vast majority of the students, some 74.5 %, fell into the age bracket 18 to 21, since mature students are relatively unusual in Libyan higher education. For more details regarding the age profile of the participants see Table 3

Table 3: Distribution of participants according to age

AGE	N	%
18	98	11.0
19	210	23.5
20	234	26.2
21	124	13.9
22	77	8.6
23	65	7.3
24	24	2.7
25	29	3.2
26	14	1.6
27	2	.2
28	3	.3
29	3	.3
30	3	.3
31	1	.1
32	1	.1
37	2	.2

43	2	.2
45	2	.2
	TOTAL = 894	TOTAL = 100

4.5.1.2 Gender

As shown in Table 4, with regard to gender, the majority of the participants were females (61%). This may initially appear to be a surprising finding given commonly held stereotypes about the role of women in Arab societies. However, recent research indicated that the overwhelming majority of Libyan women intended to pursue higher education (77%) compared to 67% of men, and that Medicine, Applied Science, Languages and Law were the most favoured subject areas.[23]

Table 4: Distribution of participants according to gender

GENDER	N	%
Female	547	61
Male	347	39
	TOTAL = 894	TOTAL = 100

4.5.1.3 Faculty

As previously established, the target population of the study was the cohort of undergraduate students who were not specialising in EFL as their major subject in the academic year 2012/13. Some 894 students participated in the questionnaire survey and came from six different faculties as shown in Table 5

Table 5: Distribution of participants according to faculty

FACULTY	N	%
Economics	111	12
Arts*	228	26
Law	238	27
Sciences	108	12
Engineering	102	11
Medicine	107	12
	TOTAL =	TOTAL =

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[23] See Rola Abdul-Latif, 2013, Libya: Status of Women Survey 2013 Washington: International Foundation for Electoral Systems, pp.38-47.

894	100

*Students studying EFL as their major subject were not included.

4.5.2 Linguistic profile of the sample

4.5.2.1 Self-assessed level of proficiency in EFL

It is perhaps surprising given the age profile of the participants that nearly a third of the respondents should choose to assess their level of proficiency in EFL as that of 'beginner' given that most of the sample must have studied EFL for several years prior to entering University. However, the label 'beginner' can be used by language learners to apply to a broad range of levels and in this instance it is unlikely that respondents mean they have never studied EFL previously. Rather they can be classified as 'false beginners' who have had some exposure to EFL but do not consider themselves to have reached the level of 'intermediate'.

Table 6: Distribution of participants according to self-assessed level of proficiency in EFL

N		%
289	Beginner	32.3
522	Intermediate	58.4
83	Advanced	9.3
TOTAL = 894		TOTAL = 100

This spread of levels also indicates some of the difficulties which teachers might face using the current coursebook with such a diverse ability range within the first year groupings.

4.5.2.2 Age at beginning study of EFL

Findings indicate a surprisingly wide range of ages at which participants began studying EFL. At one extreme, some students had started at pre-school or primary school age whilst others at the opposite extreme were clearly true ab initio beginners in EFL when they started their university studies. However, as anticipated for this cohort, over half of the students (55.8%) had started at the Age of 12-13 see table 7

Table 7: Distribution of participants according to age when beginning study of EFL

AGE	N	%
3	2	.2

4	7	.8
5	16	1.8
6	15	1.7
7	27	3.0
8	13	1.5
9	11	1.2
10	40	4.5
11	59	6.6
12	251	28.1
13	248	27.7
14	47	5.3
15	80	8.9
16	27	3.0
17	20	2.2
18	15	1.7
19	1	.1
20	12	1.3
21	1	.1
23	1	.1
24	1	.1
	TOTAL = 894	TOTAL = 100

Table 8: Distribution of participants according to place/context in which the study of EFL began

	N	%
As a subject at school	714	79.9
At home, with help of parents/family	67	7.5
In a private language institution	86	9.6
Born/brought up in an English-speaking country	11	1.2
Other (specify)	10	1.1
Nil response	6	.7
	TOTAL = 894	TOTAL = 100

<u>4.5.2.3 Place/context in which the study of EFL began</u>

In terms of their prior experience of learning EFL, the vast majority of the students (79.9 %) had started learning EFL at school. However, nearly 10% had begun at a private language institution which could suggest that parents place great importance on ensuring that their children get a head start with English before beginning this at school. Alternatively, some of these individuals might also be older students who were denied the opportunity previously to learn English at school and opted instead for private tuition. Some 11 of the students surveyed had effectively started learning English as a L2 since they had been born or brought up in an English-speaking country.

4.5.3 Attitudes of Sample: Section B

The questionnaire asked the sample of students about their attitudes toward the English language. Ten items were listed and students were invited to indicate their attitudes on a five-point Likert scale which allocates scores as follows:

Strongly Disagree = 1	Disagree = 2	Neutral = 3	Agree = 4	Strongly Agree = 5

Neutral implies that the participant has no particular feelings either negative or positive to the statement as expressed. Three of the questionnaire in Section B items 5, 6, and 10 also indicate the level of students' instrumental orientation to English as language. The full profile of results for each item by category and faculty is provided in Appendix E. An overview of mean scores by faculty for Section B is presented in table 9

Table 9: An overview of mean scores by faculty for Section B

		FACULTIES AT UNIVERSITY OF BENGHAZI					
		ECONO MICS	ART S	LA W	SCIE NCE	ENGINEE RING	MEDI CINE
B	POSITIVITY/NEGATIVITY TOWARDS ENGLISH						
Q 1	I find the English language interesting.						
		3.8739	3.4 693	3.6 891	3.81 48	3.8137	4.280 4
Q 2	I like speaking English.						
		3.6893	3.1 305	3.6 752	3.87 51	3.9903	3.984 0

	I like watching English and American TV channels.					
Q3	3.6434	3.4101	3.5989	3.6971	3.8966	3.8942
	I prefer English to Arabic.					
Q4	2.0811	2.1009	2.0924	2.7315	2.3725	2.5514
	I have strong ties with my native language and culture.					
Q7	4.1532	3.9737	4.1092	3.9444	3.9706	3.9706
	I feel that English poses a threat to my mother tongue and culture.					
Q8	1.9730	2.3816	1.9748	2.1667	1.8333	2.0000
	I believe that Arabic is more beautiful than other languages.					
Q9	4.2072	4.1886	4.1176	3.8611	4.0980	4.0841
B	INSTRUMENTAL ORIENTATION TO ENGLISH					
	I believe that being able to speak English enhances my status.					
Q5	3.6036	3.1140	3.6303	3.5370	3.7549	3.4112
	In the future, I plan to put my children in a private English school so that they will learn to speak English fluently.					
Q6	4.4054	4.0395	4.5042	4.5926	4.4902	4.5607
	I think the English language will be very useful when travelling abroad.					
Q10	4.6306	4.4430	4.6723	4.8148	4.7843	4.8692

Table 9 suggests that student attitudes across the faculties are predominantly in favour of the English language. In general terms it can be said that the English language is viewed by most of the questionnaire participants as being interesting, likeable, status-enhancing (prestigious) and useful when travelling. However, there are some marked differences between faculties in certain areas and it worth highlighting some of these. Whilst 85.1% of medical students agreed or strongly agreed that they found English interesting as a language, amongst their Arts faculty counterparts this percentage was only 56.2%. Furthermore in both the Law and the Arts faculty

approximately one in five of the students (21% and 21.9% respectively) did not think English was interesting. A similar percentage of Arts students disliked speaking English (20.2%). Means show that students of both Engineering and Medicine had particularly positive feelings towards English language television.

One of the most striking results of the questionnaire is the degree of positivity expressed by students across all faculties regarding the usefulness of English when travelling abroad. This is probably due to the fact that most Libyans currently travel outside the country for study or work rather than personal reasons and their destinations tend to be English-speaking countries or contexts in which English will be used as a lingua franca such as conferences or business meetings. A similarly high level of positivity was also recorded regarding students' intention to ensure that in the future their children would learn English at private schools. This response reflects their strong belief in the instrumental importance of the English language in Libya society. At the same time, it may also suggest a lack of faith in State education in Libya, at least as regards the effectiveness of EFL teaching. In terms of whether students view English as prestigious or not, the Engineering students scored most highly on this item with nearly 63% agreeing or strongly agreeing that English enhanced their status, probably in terms of their future careers. However, this figure dropped to 38% for students in the Arts faculty, indicating they did not view this factor as being of great importance to them.

In section B of the questionnaire, students show positive attitudes towards the English language, but not to the extent that they preferred it to their own language. As the means show, students in all faculties disagreed with the statement that says, 'I prefer English to Arabic'. Most students also said they had strong ties with their native culture and language, although nearly 30% of Engineering students were neutral on this subject. Students in general also thought that Arabic was more beautiful than other languages. Given the specific importance of Arabic in Islamic culture as the language of the Qur'an, these results were perhaps to be expected. However, it is interesting that despite their high level of positive feelings towards their own language and culture, students did not perceive English as posing a threat to Arabic or to Libyan cultural values. Given that for over a decade during Gaddafi's regime English was vilified as representing Westernisation and being anti-Islamic, this seems to indicate an interesting shift in the younger generation of Libyans.

4.5.4 Attitudes of Sample: Section C

The questionnaire asked the sample of students about their attitudes toward learning English as a foreign language. Ten items were listed and the same five-point Likert scale was used. Whilst all of the items generally indicated levels of positivity or negativity towards learning English, items 11 and 19 also indicate the level of students' instrumental orientation to learning English whilst items 12 and 15 are intended to gauge the affective element of attitude related to feelings and emotions about learning English, whether this is viewed favourably or unfavourably. As previously, the full profile of results for each item by category and faculty is provided in Appendix E. An overview of mean scores by faculty for Section C is presented in Table 10

Table 10: Mean results for Section C

	FACULTIES AT UNIVERSITY OF BENGHAZI					
	ECONOMICS	ARTS	LAW	SCIENCE	ENGINEERING	MEDICINE
C	INSTRUMENTAL ORIENTATION TO EFL					
Q 11	4.7207	4.3728	4.6303	4.6759	4.8235	4.8505
Q 19	4.2973	3.7939	4.3697	4.1759	4.5196	4.4860
C	AFFECTIVE					
Q 12	1.6757	2.0439	1.6891	1.6759	1.5686	1.4112
Q 15	4.4505	4.0395	4.3950	4.5093	4.5686	4.6262
C	POSITIVITY/NEGATIVITY TOWARDS LEARNING EFL					
Q 13	4.5315	4.0000	4.4370	4.6574	4.5980	4.7103
Q 14	2.6577	2.9518	2.5378	2.7407	2.6569	2.4953
Q 16	1.9820	2.1930	1.9328	1.8519	1.9510	1.6729
Q 17	4.3333	3.5789	4.0840	4.2963	4.5000	4.5047
Q 18	1.9099	2.1798	1.8319	1.9074	1.6078	1.5234

Q 20	2.1802	2.6009	2.2689	2.2037	2.0392	2.2617

Results suggest that the dominant attitude is one of favourability towards learning EFL. Item 11 can be viewed as perhaps the clearest indicator of the degree of instrumental orientation towards learning EFL in that it refers specifically to the usefulness of learning English. In five of the six faculties surveyed, over 70% of the students strongly agreed with the statement "I feel that learning English is very useful for me" with medicine scoring 86.0% in this category. Although overall the Arts faculty students were positive about the usefulness of learning a considerably lower percentage of these respondents strongly agreed with this statement (51.3%). Item 19 examined attitudes towards a specific skill which is not currently taught on the course, namely reading magazines and newspapers but might usefully be included in the new syllabus. Once again, Arts students were markedly less convinced by the utility of this skill, whereas students from the other faculties perhaps reasoned that the English-language press often carries reports of recent scientific, medical and technological advances and dedicates a lot of coverage to economic and business matters.

As the previous literature review showed, feelings and emotions can play an important role in levels of motivation towards learning a foreign language so items 12 and 15 provide a general indication of whether students are favourable or not towards learning EFL. Response show that students in all faculties generally manifest favourable attitudes towards learning EFL and also respond negatively to negative statements about learning English, confirming that they are generally supportive of EFL learning. As mentioned previously, these two items "I like learning English"/"I dislike learning English" also function as 'mirror image' statements (Gendall and Hoek 1990) which can be used to give an indication as to whether in general terms participants are responding truthfully and thoughtfully to the questionnaire. Analysis of the detailed breakdown of results reveals no anomalies, suggesting that students' responses are indeed valid and a true representation of their feelings. As with previous items, Arts faculty students are less likely to hold strong positive opinions about this topic and for both items 12 and 15 had the largest percentages of neutral responses. It is difficult to interpret this particular result but perhaps may be related to the fact that since EFL study is obligatory some students do not view personal preference as relevant.

Responses to item 13 " I would like to learn as much English as possible" indicate not only a high level of positivity towards learning EFL but may also suggest that students are intrinsically motivated to study EFL and may enjoy this for its own sake rather than it being purely for instrumental purposes. Their generally negative responses to the statement "I would rather spend my time studying subjects other than English" confirms that they see learning EFL as being as important as their other studies in terms of its perceived utility. This finding is supported by the results for item 16 "It is of no benefit for me to learn English" with the general trend being one of strongly rejecting this statement and thus confirming the perception of the utility of learning EFL. When asked for their opinion on whether learning English from an early age would have a negative impact on proficiency in their mother tongue, student responses suggest they did not perceive this as being a threat to Arabic.

Most students also seem sure about their short-term and long-term future plans concerning the study of EFL. Item 17 "I plan to continue learning English after my obligatory EFL studies at University have ended" focused on students' plans concerning studying EFL during the remainder of their time at University. Perhaps not surprisingly there was a marked difference here in the attitudes of the Arts students who seemed less sure about their intentions, probably because unlike the students in some other faculties, they have no immediate incentive for improving their English as it does not form a key part of their academic studies. Item 18 " When I leave university, I shall give up studying English entirely" had a longer-term focus, and may be related to students' career aspirations in terms of pursuing postgraduate study in English-speaking countries or needing to use English in the workplace. Again, responses from Arts faculty students suggest that they are more likely to give up studying EFL.

It should be noted that in general, Section C responses revealed a clear distinction between the attitudes of Arts faculty students and those of their counterparts in the remaining faculties. On the one hand, this might have been expected given that this is not a faculty which uses English as a medium of instruction. However, the Arts faculty is not the only one which uses only Arabic so this suggests that there may be some other factors involved, perhaps relating to career aspirations following university. This is an area which merits further investigation in future research.

4.5.5 Attitudes of Sample: Section D

The questionnaire asked the sample of students about their attitudes towards speakers of English. Ten items were listed and the same five-point Likert scale was used. Whilst all of the items generally indicated levels of positivity or negativity towards speakers of English, items 21, 25 and 29 also indicate the conative or readiness for action component in terms of how students act in relation to their thoughts, beliefs, feelings and emotions concerning native speakers. Items 22, 23, 28 and 30 are intended to gauge the affective element of attitude related to feelings and emotions about English speakers and whether they are viewed favourably or unfavourably. The remaining items, 24, 26 and 27, gauge the cognitive constituent of attitude linked to thoughts and beliefs about English speakers and whether these are favourable or unfavourable. As previously, the full profile of results for each item by category and faculty is provided in Appendix E. An overview of mean scores by faculty for Section D is presented in Table 11.

Table 11: Mean results for Section D

	FACULTIES AT UNIVERSITY OF BENGHAZI					
	ECONOMICS	ARTS	LAW	SCIENCE	ENGINEERING	MEDIC INE
D	CONATIVE/READINESS FOR ACTION					
Q2 1	4.3423	3.627	4.138	4.3519	4.4902	4.4486
Q2 5	3.3604	2.758	3.428	3.3981	3.5294	3.3925
Q2 9	4.2613	3.763	4.226	4.3796	4.4412	4.4206
D	AFFECTIVE					
Q2 2	2.1802	2.228	2.193	2.2407	1.9412	1.7850
Q2 3	3.9459	3.627	3.958	4.0278	3.8824	3.9813
Q2 8	4.3153	4.013	4.437	4.5370	4.3137	4.3925
Q3 0	3.5766	2.890	3.563	3.7130	3.7059	3.7757
D	COGNITIVE					
Q2 4	1.9820	1.934	1.974	1.8241	1.9804	1.9159
Q2 6	3.6036	3.197	3.680	3.6944	3.5882	3.1402

Q2 7	3.3514	3.118	3.453	3.2778	3.3529	3.0935

In general terms, the overall picture with regard to attitudes towards speakers of English is one of positivity from the students, though perhaps not so strongly positive as their attitudes towards the language itself and to studying EFL. Once again, the results of the Arts faculty students also present marked differences in a number of categories.

With regard to the specific items, numbers 21 "I would like to meet native speakers of English and engage in conversations with them" and 29 "I would like to meet as many native speakers of English as possible" both focus on readiness to engage with native speakers but with a slightly different focus, with the former item specifying an underlying instrumental purpose for meeting English speakers i.e. to practise speaking skills. Interestingly, students appeared to be slightly less instrumentally oriented, rating the opportunity of simply meeting with large numbers of native speakers more positively than meeting English speakers for a specific purpose. Students from five of the faculties had no particularly strong feelings towards item 25 which explored whether they would like to live in an English-speaking country.

However, as previously mentioned, responses from Arts students to these items showed marked differences. For items 21 and 25 concerning contact with native speakers, nearly 20% did not wish to converse with native speakers and over 15% did not wish to meet native speakers; both of these percentages were considerably higher than for the other faculties. In addition, whereas nearly half of the students in each of the other faculties manifested strongly positive attitudes to both these items for Arts students this fell to about a third. The most striking difference came in responses to item 25 where 47% of the students expressed negative attitude towards living in an English-speaking country, more than double the percentages registered in this category for the other faculties.

Moving on to consider those items that are intended to gauge the affective element of attitude related to feelings and emotions about English speakers, either favourable or unfavourable, a similar distinction could be observed between the opinions expressed by Arts students and those of their counterparts in the other five faculties, although this was less marked for this group of items. Items 22 "I have an unfavourable attitude towards English speakers" and 23 "I like English speakers" indicate the general degree of

positivity/negativity of feelings towards native speakers of English and should also function as 'mirror image' statements (Gendall and Hoek 1990). It was interesting in this instance to see how positive or negative statements can influence participant responses, for whereas students showed high levels of negativity to item 22, their feelings of positivity were less strongly expressed for item 23. In the case of students in the Faculty of Medicine, they most strongly rejected item 23. However there was a striking difference in their 'neutral' responses to items 22 and 23. These showed 8.4% for the negative statement concerning native speakers of English as opposed to 26.2% for the positive one, demonstrating how opinions can be swayed by the wording of a questionnaire item.

Students from all faculties were generally positive about item 28 "I hope Libya will maintain good relations with English-speaking countries". However a breakdown of the categories within each faculty shows another interesting distinction in the Arts faculty profile, where nearly 11% of the students had negative or strongly negative attitudes towards this statement. This percentage was double that for any of the other faculties. At the opposite end of the spectrum, considerably fewer Arts faculty students held strongly positive opinions towards this item.

Finally, in relation to item 30 "I like watching English-language films that reflect the culture of British and American societies" opinions of most students were somewhat positive towards this cultural form but there were also some substantial percentages of students who expressed no strong feelings at all, with over a fifth of the students choosing a "neutral" responses in the faculties of Economics, Law and Science. The most marked element within this category of responses regarding feelings and emotions about English speakers was observed in the negative responses of Arts faculty students with over 40% of the students disagreeing or strongly disagreeing with this statement. Once again this was at least double the negative responses recorded in all five of the other faculties.

The remaining questionnaire items, numbers 24 "I think English speakers are dishonest", 26 "I think English speakers are well educated" and 27 "I think English speakers are sociable" were used to gauge the cognitive constituent of attitude linked to thoughts and beliefs about English speakers, either favourable or unfavourable. For all three of these items, use of the 'neutral'

category was much greater than it had been for any of the other questionnaire items. This probably reflects either the students' reasoning that it was difficult to generalise on such issues or indicating that they felt they had insufficient knowledge to make any informed judgment on the topic. Again, however, a slight difference in this trend was observed when a negative statement was used, as in item 24, where there was a much more marked trend to express an opinion, which was overwhelmingly 'disagree' or 'strongly disagree'.

4.5.6 Section E: Reasons for Studying English

In the final section the students were asked to give their reasons for studying English. Unfortunately, due to a problem with the photocopying of the questionnaire, the final section was omitted from the copies given to two groups of students, one in the Faculty of Science and one in Faculty of Engineering. As a result, the sample for this section of the questionnaire was only 822 in total, the number of Science students being reduced from 108 to 85, for Engineering from 102 to 53 (see Table 12)

Table 12: Sample for Parts A-D and Part E

	SAMPLE PARTS A-D	SAMPLE PART E
Economics	111	111
Arts	228	228
Law	238	238
Science	108	85
Engineering	102	53
Medicine	107	107
TOTAL	894	822

All the student responses for the Part E sample were analysed and then categorized into five broad groupings as shown in Table 13. Some students wrote up to four of these reasons, but most gave two.

The following diagram shows how the broad categorizations were derived from more specific reasons given by students. Some of these reasons were cited by many students e.g. to talk to lecturers who don't speak Arabic at University. Others were clearly much more specific to individuals and particular situations e.g. acting as interpreter in a business context, talking to archaeologists. In addition, some students were already using English in a working environment whilst others were focusing on a possible future career

in which English would serve as a lingua franca. The overarching category devised in this case was: to talk to foreigners in Libya. A similar process was used in each case to identify an overarching category.
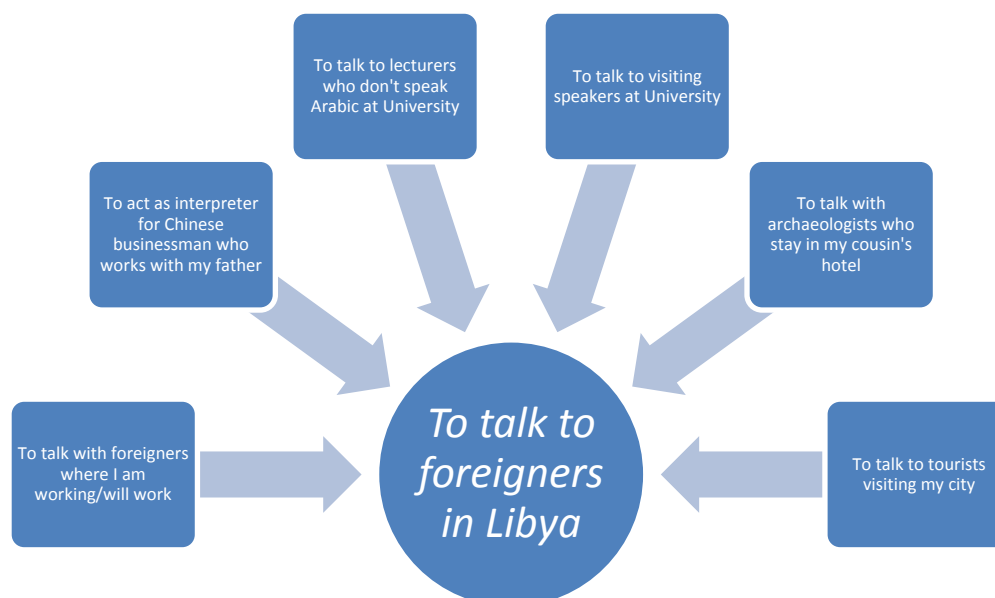
Figure 9: Devising the categories

In this case, the numbers and percentages show how many students mentioned the reason from the whole sample.

Table 13: Composite totals for percentages of reasons cited from all six faculties

SECTION E: REASONS FOR STUDYING ENGLISH			
1.To talk to foreigners in Libya	N	566	822
	%	68.9	100.0
2.To attend lectures and conferences	N	561	822
	%	68.2	100.0
3.To watch English speaking channels	N	537	822
	%	65.3	100.0
4.To chat with foreigners on the Internet	N	496	822
	%	60.3	100.0
5.To help when travelling to a foreign country	N	441	822
	%	53.6	100.0

Table 14: Number and percentage of students' answers to reasons for learning English.

		FACULTIES AT UNIVERSITY OF BENGHAZI

		ECONOMICS	ARTS	LAW	SCIENCE	ENGINEERING	MEDI CINE
	TOTAL	1. To talk to foreigners in Libya					
N	566	70	155	176	62	30	73
%	68.9	63.1	68.0	73.9	72.9	56.6	68.2
		2.To attend lectures and conferences					
N	561	74	177	174	47	30	59
%	68.2	66.7	77.6	73.1	55.3	56.6	55.1
		3.To watch English speaking channels					
N	537	69	175	154	50	28	61
%	65.3	62.2	76.8	64.7	58.8	52.8	57.0
		4.To chat with foreigners on the Internet					
N	496	59	151	150	48	26	62
%	60.3	53.2	66.2	63.0	56.5	49.1	57.9
		5.To help when travelling to a foreign country					
N	441	49	134	124	53	11	70
%	53.6	44.1	58.8	52.1	62.4	20.8	65.4
		111	228	238	85	53	107
		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Of the five reason categories mentioned by students, only number 2 "To attend lectures and conferences" appears wholly connected with the academic domain. In some cases, as previously noted, students' motivation is an immediate one for example, watching English-speaking television channels or chatting with foreigners on the Internet. It was clear in the first case that many students are not necessarily interested in films but want to watch news programmes, current affairs and also documentaries which may be related to their academic subjects or personal interests. In the case of chatting with non-Arabic speakers on the Internet, this sometimes involved using English as a lingua franca to connect with contacts via Facebook or social media sites whilst others mentioned using Skype for one-to-one chatting. Other students, however, were clearly focusing on longer-term goals in their study of English, mentioning plans to work, study or travel outside Libya and the Arab-speaking world after their University studies had been completed.

4.6 Conclusions

This chapter presented the results of the questionnaire which was used to analyse the attitudes of a sample of Libyan students at the University of

Benghazi towards English as a language, learning English and towards speakers of English. This study confirms some of the previous research findings from studies conducted in Middle Eastern and North African countries relating to attitude of Arab EFL learners. Similar to Malallah's (2000) findings concerning the attitudes of Kuwaiti undergraduates towards EFL, the group of Libyan students surveyed held generally positive attitudes towards English as a language and to learning EFL, and also had favourable attitudes towards native speakers of English. The findings also highlighted, however, some marked differences in attitudes between the Arts faculty students and their counterparts in the faculties of Science, Engineering and Medicine. This was similar to the findings of Abu-Ghzaleh and Hijazi (2011:625) who reported that academic specialization had an influence on attitudes towards EFL and towards learning this language, with students studying science developing more positive attitudes than students who were in the Arts.

In the case of the undergraduates at the University of Benghazi, this may perhaps be related to the split there between those faculties which have English as the medium for instruction and those which have Arabic. However, students specialising in Law or Economics do not appear to share the same degree of negativity which these students expressed in relation to some specific areas.

Attitudes of Arts faculty students may also have been influenced by their lack of personal contact with speakers of English, the fact that these students do not perceive any real immediate need for English in their present academic studies nor in the longer term for their future careers. Many of these students were specialising in Arabic language and literature, and perhaps like the Kuwaiti Law students in Malallah's (2000) study, who emerged as the most negative in terms of their attitudes towards English, they saw their future firmly oriented within an Arabic-speaking context.

With regard to students' own reasons for studying EFL, within the five broad categories which emerged, individual reasons could relate to work, study or personal motives, with evidence of both instrumental and integrative orientations. It was also clear that whilst some students were learning English to pursue immediate short-term goals, others were focusing on longer-term ambitions of a professional, academic or personal nature.

Chapter Five

Syllabus Design and Analysis

5.0 Introduction

The thesis began by examining the historical context of English language in Libya and its evolving status since it was introduced into the school system there in 1948. Following that, a socio-linguistic profile of English in Libya highlighted its current role for Libyans.

The aim of this chapter is to provide the theoretical framework for the analysis which follows. It begins by considering the various meanings of 'syllabus' and differentiating this concept from the related term 'curriculum'. It also examines the various types of traditional and non-traditional syllabuses which exist, in order to identify those factors that require consideration when designing a syllabus. This chapter also discusses previous research in the field of syllabus design, examining the two theories of language teaching which have been most influential in this area.

The second part of this chapter will be devoted to an analysis of the content of the EL syllabus currently used with non-English specialist first year students at Benghazi (formerly Garyounis) University, Libya. Firstly, given that these learners have already been exposed to the specialised EFL syllabuses and materials which are used at secondary level, this analysis will determine the extent to which this course builds usefully on students' previous knowledge and adequately prepares them to follow their academic discipline. Secondly, it will also consider the extent to which this syllabus reflects the current role of English in Libya based on the results of the sociolinguistic profile detailed in Chapter Four.

5.1 Towards defining a (good) syllabus

The intention in this section is not simply to define terms, although it is useful for our purposes to briefly outline some of the debates concerning the need to differentiate between 'syllabus' and 'curriculum'. Rather, the aim here is to arrive at a working definition of a 'syllabus' in order to use this as the basis for creating a set of criteria against which the syllabus which forms the focus of this study can be usefully evaluated. The final goal, then, is produce a

checklist of elements or desiderata which it is agreed make up an ideal syllabus based on the literature reviewed.

5.1.1 Syllabus vs. Curriculum

According to Hanna Pitkins (1972: 11 cited in Gerring 2001: 42) "*the meaning of an expression is delimited by what might have been said instead but wasn't*". Thus, it is relevant in this case to consider attempts by experts in the field to differentiate between 'syllabus' and 'curriculum' since this is a useful means of attempting to mark out, or delimit, the characteristics of these two concepts. According to White (1988: 4), 'curriculum' denotes "*the totality of content to be taught and aims to be realised within one school or educational system*" whereas 'syllabus' refers to "*the content or subject matter of an individual subject*".[24] This suggests a difference which relates to the respective scope covered by each term. Nunan (1988: 8) also emphasises this aspect in his attempt to distinguish between the two concepts, noting that the former is concerned with "*the planning, implementation, evaluation, management, and administration of education programmes*". On the other hand, the latter "*focuses more narrowly on the selection and grading of content*". Nunan's definition highlights the breadth of areas which ought to be covered in a curriculum and is reproduced by Harmer (2003) in his attempt to outline the key differences between syllabus and curriculum design. Harmer (2003: 295) observes that constructing a syllabus involves "*the selecting of items to be learnt and then grading these into an appropriate sequence*" whilst curriculum design is concerned with the five aspects Nunan (1988) identifies, "*not just with lists of what will be taught and in what order*".

Taylor (1970 cited in Nunan, 2004) asserts that designing a curriculum should involve three steps. The first of these is "*to identify goals and objectives*" and, for Taylor, this stage constitutes the syllabus. The second step he labels as the methodology which entails "*listing, organising, and grading the learning experience*". Lastly, he argues that it is necessary to identify ways of determining whether students have succeeded in meeting the aims and objectives which have been set and this involves specifying forms of assessment and evaluation. It is clear from this description that Taylor views the syllabus as one element within the broader concept conveyed by the term 'curriculum'.

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[24]White (1988:4) notes a further complication, namely, that researchers need to be aware of the fact that in the USA the term 'curriculum' tends to be synonymous with 'syllabus' in the British sense.

Shaw (1977:217) begins his discussion of syllabus and curriculum design by stressing those features which are common to producing both a syllabus and a curriculum, noting firstly that both require that their authors put effort into planning what should be taught, in order to produce a statement of goals, objectives, and content. Secondly, designers should also describe how the syllabus or curriculum is to be taught, which entails explaining the process to be followed and the resources to be used, in greater or lesser detail. Shaw (1977:217) then identifies one key distinguishing characteristic which in his opinion differentiates a curriculum from a syllabus, namely, the former must also include an element of **evaluation** in reference to either institutional or classroom goals.

This discussion, then, highlights two key salient distinguishing features between these two concepts. Firstly, a curriculum is broader in scope than a syllabus. Secondly, although there is no consensus on exactly which elements should be included in a curriculum, there seems to be general agreement amongst these writers regarding the fact that evaluation falls outside the remit of the syllabus.

5.1.2 Characteristics of a Syllabus

Having explored the differences between the related terms of 'curriculum' and 'syllabus', the focus now shifts fully onto establishing what the distinguishing features of the ideal syllabus should be in order to provide an evaluative framework which can be usefully applied later as part of the analysis of the EFL syllabus currently used with non-specialist first year students at Benghazi University.

According to the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (2002), in the simplest terms, a 'syllabus' can be defined as "*A description of the contents of a course of instruction and the order in which they are to be taught*." However, basic definitions of this type are of little practical assistance for the purposes of analysis. Whilst Richards' (2001: 2) actual definition of the term itself as "*A specification of the content of a course of instruction [which] lists what will be taught and tested*" is similarly vague, he follows this with a helpful example of the elements that a syllabus might contain:

> *Thus the syllabus for a speaking course might specify the kinds*
> *of oral skills that will be taught and practiced during the course,*
> *the functions, topics, or other aspects of conversation that will*
> *be taught, and the order in which they will appear in the course.*

Several authors have adopted a similar approach to the one sought here, in that they have attempted to identify the key components which should ideally appear in a syllabus, often as ditto of offering guidance to those wishing to design a new syllabus or to those needing to evaluate existing syllabuses. Syllabus design can entail much more than simply selecting content to be taught, and then grading and sequencing this content appropriately. It may also involve giving thought to the audience for a syllabus since as, Dubin and Olshtain (1986: 27-28) note, the information which this contains may be of interest to policymakers, course book authors, materials' designers, teachers, examination committees, and, of course, the learners themselves. Dubin and Olshtain (1986: 27-28) produced their own checklist of items which should ideally be included in a syllabus, identifying five main desiderata which can be summarised as follows:

1. List of the course objectives (i.e. what the course designers expect learners to know by the end of the programme of study).
2. Outline of the content of the course (i.e. what is to be taught or learnt during the programme of study).
3. Schedule of the order in which the course content is to be taught and at what rate of progress.
4. Suggestions concerning how the course content is to be taught (i.e. procedures, techniques, and materials).
5. Recommendations concerning the evaluation and assessment process (i.e. proposals concerning testing and evaluation mechanisms.

There is a problem here in that their fifth point directly relates to evaluation which it was previously concluded did **<u>not</u>** fall within the remit of the syllabus! Point four can be considered something of a grey area since this appears to be concerned with methodology which may or may not lie within the scope of the syllabus. It is interesting to note that Dubin and Olshtain (1986: 27-28) claim there are a wide number of terms "which are **synonymous** with syllabus including 'curriculum'". This illustrates the necessity of making the effort to delimit what is meant by a term since otherwise there is a risk of slippage occurring in our understanding of the concept which can prove confusing. Nonetheless, this attempt by Dubin and Olshtain (1986) forms a useful starting point in terms of how to proceed in designing a checklist framework.

Brumfit's (1984 cited in White 1988: 3) attempt at describing a syllabus is less prescriptive than the previous one but raises a number of interesting areas of relevance for the purposes of the evaluative analysis to be carried out later:

1. *A syllabus is the specification of the work of a particular department in a school or college, organised in subsections defining the work of a particular group or class;*
2. *It is often linked to time, and will specify a starting point and an ultimate goal;*
3. *It will specify some kind of sequence based on sequencing intrinsic to a theory of language learning or to the structure of specified material relatable to a theory of language acquisition; sequencing may be constrained by administrative needs, e.g. materials.*
4. *It is a document of administrative convenience and will only be partly justified on theoretical grounds and so is negotiable and adjustable;*
5. *It can only specify what is taught; it cannot organise what is learnt;*
6. *It is a public document and an expression of accountability.*

Brumfit's first point suggests that a syllabus is targeted at a specific group of learners. Given that the same syllabus is used for most non-EFL specialist students across Benghazi University, regardless of their academic discipline and the Faculty in which they are studying, this may raise issues about the feasibility of one syllabus serving such a broad group of learners. The reference to a syllabus being "*organised in subsections*" is a useful reminder of the need to ensure that it is well-laid out and user-friendly (bearing in mind, as previously noted, that there may be multiple users for a document of this nature). This does not necessarily imply that the document has to be a lengthy one, though, to be considered effective. In his analysis of a selection of syllabuses, Taylor (1970: 32 cited in White 1988: 3) found that these could vary significantly in terms of length (from just one to 100 pages) and layout, with some being well organised and carefully planned, while others were overcrowded.

Brumfit's third point highlights the fact that there should be a rationale underpinning the sequence in which the elements are organised within a syllabus, even if this is not explicitly stated. This will relate to a theory of language learning or of language acquisition. When evaluating the Benghazi University syllabus it will be important to determine the nature of this underlying theoretical framework in order to assess the extent to which the suggested sequencing of linguistic elements is coherent with these principles. At the same time it will be necessary to bear in mind Brumfit's fourth point, namely, that a syllabus is ultimately "*a document of administrative convenience and will only be partly justified on theoretical grounds and so is negotiable and adjustable*". Stern (1992: 31) likens the syllabus to a road map which works as a guide towards the final destination for teachers and

also believes that a syllabus should be flexible enough to allow for change from time to time. Furthermore, he argues that it should be subject to continuous revision. Given the range of students to whom the Benghazi University non-specialist EFL syllabus is taught, it would be useful to consider the extent to which this allows for flexibility in approach and the degree of revision which the syllabus has undergone since its initial creation.

Finally, Brumfit emphasises that a syllabus is "a public document" and is also "an expression of accountability". This raises broader issues about the availability and accessibility of a syllabus and to what extent it is open to critical scrutiny by various stakeholders in the educational setting to which it applies.

Ur's (1991: 176) approach to describing the features of a syllabus combines some of the features of Richards' (2001: 2) definition of the term (illustrative examples), Dubin and Olshtain's (1986) checklist (concision) and Brumfit's recognition of the broader educational context into which a syllabus fits (his reference to theoretical principles and accountability). According to Ur:

- A syllabus includes a comprehensive list of items to be taught during the period of the course, which may include content (such as words, structures, or topics) or processes (such as tasks or methods).
- Syllabus content should be ordered so that easier components are taught before more difficult and complex ones.
- A syllabus usually begins by stating clear and direct goals.
- A syllabus is a public document which is subject to examination by teachers, learners, parents, writers of textbooks and teaching materials.
- Some syllabuses indicate a time schedule, specifying when each component should be completed.

Although Ur's (1991) description is less wide ranging than Brumfit's, it does provide a good example of how by adding certain details such as qualifying adjectives (*clear and direct goals*) or by providing specific illustrative examples (*such as words, structures, or topics*) a description of this type can be transformed into a checklist which can be used for evaluative purposes.

The following section examines the factors which need to be taken into consideration when designing a syllabus. This discussion will also feed into the analysis which concludes this chapter.

5.2 Factors to consider when designing a syllabus

According to Krahnke (1987: 1), syllabus design and development has always received the least attention amongst the various aspects of language teaching, despite the fact that those teaching EFL (or any other language)

must inevitably start by making decisions about what is to be taught to students and on what basis this selection to be made, which are vital elements of syllabus design. This section discusses some of the fundamental variables that should be taken into account when syllabus designers start to think about constructing a syllabus. These factors are shown in Figure 34.
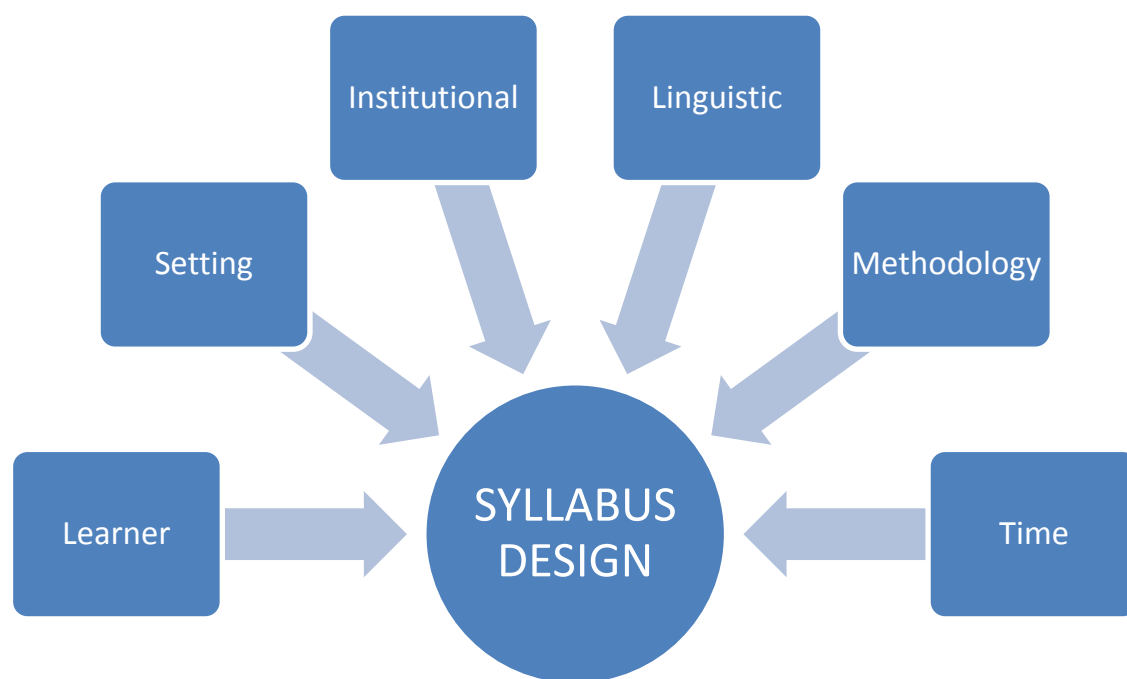
Figure 10: Important factors when designing a syllabus

5.2.1 The learner variable

Learner variables are of great significance for the designer to bear in mind and carefully consider when they come to construct a syllabus. Due to the central role which learners play when attempting to design an effective course, Celce-Murcia et al. (1996:25) recommend that teachers should carry out a formal or informal analysis of these variables at the outset of the course, emphasising that: "*Such a needs analysis certainly is most essential when a course is being first implemented in the curriculum*".

These learner-related variables cover a diverse range of areas including age, sex, proficiency level, linguistic and cultural background, prior exposure to the target language, previous exposure to a second language, aptitude, learning style, and attitude towards the target language. Last but no means least is the learners' purpose for learning a foreign language (Celce-Murcia et al. 1996).

Looking at the first of these variables, Celce-Murcia et al. (1996:25) outline how classifying learners as children, young learners, adolescents, young

adults, or adults would affect the selection of the topics and the suitability of the learning activities such as games and role play. Likewise, in terms of aptitude of specification talent, students are sometimes better at some skills than others. Moreover, the learner's mother tongue will need to be taken into consideration when identifying potential sources of error and the choice of the syllabus components.

McDonough and Shaw (2003: 7) think that it is of great importance for syllabus designers to measure students' attitudes to learning, to the target language and its speakers, and also to their teachers and the institution in which they learn. Another important variable which needs to be analysed and stated directly at the beginning of the syllabus is the learners' purpose for learning. For reasons relating to personality and learning style, McDonough and Shaw (2003: 7) argue that a syllabus should include a range of different activities since some students prefer role-play to studying alone and vice versa.

5.2.2 The setting variable

Another vital factor which requires consideration when devising a syllabus is the setting (discussed earlier in chapter one and three). Celce-Murcia et al. used the word 'setting' to refer to the whole teaching and learning environment, and the general context rather than the specific institution in which a teacher works. Throughout teaching careers, many teachers will have to teach in a variety of scenarios (foreign language and second language settings). Celce-Murcia et al. (1996:321) describe the two different setting thus. In the foreign language setting: "*The target language is not an official, a semi-official or a native language of the country. Most often, the language teaching occurs within a school or institutional setting to homogeneous groups of first language learners.*"

In the second language setting, "*The target language is a native or an official of the country and is being taught to speakers of other languages.*" Many syllabus designers assert that there is a need to investigate the role of English in the country for which the syllabus is being implemented before even starting the initial steps. McDonough and Shaw (2003: 7) recommend that when constructing the syllabus designers should take into consideration the following issues:

> *Whether English is a regular means of communications or primarily a subject taught in the school curriculum. Whether in turn, it may or may not be the first foreign language […]*

whether English is spoken outside the class in the community or alternatively never heard.

5.2.3 Institutional variables

McDonough and Shaw (2003: 8) emphasise the significance of the institutional variables when designers start to construct a syllabus as there may be different restrictions which are connected to a particular teaching situations and these show what is possible. McDonough and Shaw identify the following institutional variables:

5.2.3.1 Teachers' issues

These issues relate to the teachers' experience, their first language or mother tongue, training, attitude to their job, their status both at national and institutional levels (Ibid.: 8).

5.2.3.2 Curriculum and materials issues

McDonough and Shaw emphasise that it is crucial to establish whether the curriculum is based on a single or a multi-skill approach, and what importance is given to each skill. In addition, availability of appropriate teaching materials for the learners' needs and level of proficiency must be taken into consideration. Finally, there is the teacher's' own proficiency in developing materials.

5.2.3.3 Other institutional issues

Before starting to design a syllabus, designers should think of the range of facilities and equipment which is accessible including language laboratories, computer laboratories, audio/video recordings, books, etc., all of which will affect the design and choice of teaching materials.

5.2.3.4 Learner numbers

McDonough and Shaw (2003:8) argue that class size needs to be borne in mind. Large numbers in classes is a very common problem in many settings worldwide and this can make it difficult to cater for the needs of individual students. In addition, the total number of students may affect how many teaching hours are available.

5.2.4 Linguistic variables

This relates to the crucial role which can be played by the transfer of features from the students' first language to their perception and production of English (Ibid.)

5.2.5 Methodological variables

As Richards (1990 cited in Celce-Murcia et al. 1996: 32) points out: "the conception of a syllabus is inextricably linked to the syllabus designer's view of language and second language learning, and hence to a method." These methodological factors are associated with the specific teaching approach which is approved by the teacher or institution.

5.2.6 The time variable

When constructing a syllabus, many syllabus designers would consider that time is an essential factor.

5.3 Links between Language Theories and Syllabuses

Krahnke (1987: 4) claims that in order to design a syllabus a decision must be made about what gets taught and in what order and thus: "*The theory of language explicitly or implicitly underlying the method will play a major role in determining what syllabus is adopted*".

Different views of language and learning have led to the existence of a range of language theories, each of which produces a particular type of syllabus since they have differing views of language and learning. This section will consider the two principal language theories that have strongly influenced language teaching namely, Structuralism and Functionalism. The work of both these theorists is considered to be of great value to modern linguistics and most theories of language teaching and learning are based on them. Saussure considered language to be a system of structures which he referred to as Langue, while Parole was the term he employed to refer to the use of language in utterances (Stern 1983: 127). Chomsky, on the other hand, distinguished between competence and performance. For de Saussure, the repository of Langue is the speech community, whilst for Chomsky the repository of competence is the Ideal speaker/hearer. In essence, then, de Saussure's distinction is a sociolinguistic one, whereas Chomsky's is psycholinguistic. Therefore, both see language as a system though viewing this differently; both also distinguish between system and use, and concentrate on the former.

5.3.1 Formal Theory (Structuralism)

Formalism or Structuralism appeared in the 1930's thanks to the work of de Saussure. According to Bell (1981: 92), structuralists view language as a closed system of items to be learnt, seeing it "*as a system of speech sounds, arbitrarily assigned to the objects, states, and concepts to which they*

referred, used for human communication." He also outlined four key principles that can be derived from the structural view of language.

The first of these is that structuralists view language as speech and in holding this viewpoint they contradicted the view of traditional philologists which had previously placed the primary focus on writing and gave secondary importance to speech.

The second principle espoused by structuralists is that language is a system of forms or elements which are joined together in a regular way to create sentences. For structuralists then, "*The role of the linguist was to build up a description of this system without having recourse to meaning i.e. the analysis was to be observable and distributional*" (Bell 1981: 92).

Thirdly, structuralists considered that the connection between words and the things they refer to is not natural but arbitrary and merely a question of convention.

Finally, as far as structuralists are concerned, the main goal of language learning is to master this arbitrary system or in other words, the formal aspects of language. These are generally defined in terms of phonological units (such as phonemes), grammatical units (such as clauses, phrases, sentences), and grammatical operations (such as adding, shifting, joining). In brief, in Formalism or Structuralism, language is understood to be a closed system of codes and the aim of these linguistic theories is to study this system without reference to the context in which it occurs. These views led to language study which focused on grammar rather than on semantics. As we will see later, the structural or grammatical syllabus has been influenced by this theory in that it considers language to be a system of forms to be mastered by the learner.

5.3.2 Functionalism

The second theory of language examined here is Functionalism which emerged as a reaction to formalist theory and contrasts with that theory's formal attitude to the nature of language. Following Chomsky, a number of linguists such as Firth and Halliday were interested chiefly in the description of the language system (and this has led to what is known as systematic-functional linguistics).

Dell Hymes, however, concentrated on language in actual use and discussed the relationship between competence and performance. His studies had a major influence on the development of second language learning theory and practice. He criticized the distinction originally made by Chomsky on the grounds that the two categories of competence and performance pay no heed

to whether what is said is appropriate to any given social context, leading him to conclude that "*there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless*". As a result, he came up with the term 'communicative competence'.

The work of Halliday was of central importance in the emergence of functional theory, since he emphasizes the use of language as playing the most important role. The functionalists concentrate more on the semantic and communicative dimension of language rather than merely focusing on the structural side. For them, language is considered to be a medium for expressing functional meaning. This new view in the field of linguistics emerged in the 1960's. Bell (1981: 112) defines functionalism as "*a view of language as a dynamic, open system by means of which members of community exchange information*". This can be contrasted with: "*The static, closed-system view of language which has been, until recently, the commonly accepted orientation since De Saussure (1951), seeing language as a code made up of elements and their relationship with each other.*" (Bell 1981: 112).

The models of language which were produced and invented by functional linguists increasingly concentrated on semantics with functionalists believing that "*part of the meaning of a word or a sentence lies in the situation in which it is used*". Lyons (1981: 224) describes functionalism as being "*Characterized by the belief that the phonological, grammatical, and semantic structure of language is determined by the functions that they have to perform in the societies in which they operate.*"

Firth worked in the School of Oriental and African Studies in London as a professor of linguistics, and together with his group, he was the first to establish the basis of Functionalism in Britain and Structuralism in America was losing its popularity by the time that the Firthian ideas which were to become Functionalism emerged. Firth (cited in Stern 1983:138) argued that:

Language must be studied at all levels in its context of situation and with an emphasis on meaning. The linguist has to study the 'text', i.e. the corpus of utterances, (a) in their linguistic environment or context, i.e. in relation to surrounding language items, and (b) in their context of situation, i.e. in relation to nonverbal constituents which have bearing on the utterance, such as persons, objects, and events.

Stern and many other linguists also praised Firthian ideas, regarding this theory to be useful for language teaching since it "*presents an integrated theory to cover all levels of language*" (Stern, 1983: 164). They also regarded

it as providing a sound basis for language teaching because it placed an appropriate emphasis on meaning at all levels of language with Functionalists believing that meaning cannot be isolated from form (Stern, 1983: 164).

Functional theory views the learning process as a mental activity. Dubin and Olshtain (1986: 70) added that: "*Communicative competence entails knowing not only the language code or the form of the language, but also what to say to whom, and how to say it appropriately in any given situation*."

Functionalists proposed a new form of organisation for syllabus design. The syllabus shifted from being merely based on structural elements and grammatical operation to being organised around notional and functional categories. As a result, the situational, notional/ functional, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) syllabuses emerged.

5.4 A Syllabus Typology

Krahnke (1987:6-7) maintains that:

> The choice of a syllabus is a major decision in language teaching, and it should be made as consciously and with as much information as possible. There has been much confusion over the years as to what different types of content are possible in language teaching syllabi and as to whether the differences are in the syllabus or method.

This section aims to dispel some of this confusion regarding different types of language teaching syllabuses.

Wilkins (1976) classified syllabuses into two groups: those which follow the synthetic approach to syllabus design (structural syllabus) and those which follow the analytical approach (situational and notional syllabuses). Bell (1981) also suggested that there were two main approaches to syllabus design: those influenced by formalism (structural or grammatical) and those influenced by functionalism (functional/notional and situational). In the case of White (1988), the two approaches to syllabus design which he distinguishes are referred to as Types A and B. Type A is teacher and content-led, as reflected in structural, situational, and functional syllabuses whilst Type B is learner-led and is manifested in process and procedural syllabuses. Nunan's (1988) syllabus classification identifies product-oriented syllabuses (structural and notional) and process-oriented syllabuses (procedural and process). Therefore, it can be argued that Wilkins and Bell focus on talking about what while White and Nunan are interested in how.

The next section will start by looking at what White referred to as Type A syllabuses which are variously known as traditional or product-oriented syllabus. These can be further subdivided into (1) structural, (2) situational,

and (3) notional/functional syllabuses. It is vital to begin by examining those syllabuses which represent the older approach to syllabus design because in the past, materials' designers and course-book authors were heavily reliant on this traditional type of syllabus and many materials are still based on one or more of these syllabuses.

5.4.1 Traditional or product-oriented syllabuses

Throughout the history of the development of English Language Teaching (ELT), it is possible to identify three main types of English Language syllabuses: structural, situational, and notional/functional. These syllabuses are based on different views of language learning, and they differ in terms of the underlying principles by which they choose and grade content.

5.4.1.1 The structural syllabus

The structural syllabus has traditionally been the most widespread type of syllabus and its popularity continues. Most ELT materials have been based on this type of syllabus which is also variously known as grammatical, formal or linguistic. Bell (1981: 53) argues that the assumption underlying such a syllabus is that "*the learner's need is for items which can cope with, what is, after all, a grammatical demand*." As Nunan (1988: 29) notes, those involved in designing grammatical syllabuses assume that "*Language consists of a finite set of rules which can be combined in various ways to make meaning*". A further important assumption which they make is that "*these rules can be learned one by one, in an additive fashion, each time being mastered on its own before being incorporated into the learner's pre-existing stock of knowledge*" Nunan (1988: 29).

5.4.1.1.1 View of language and learning

In keeping with the structural theory, the structural syllabus is based on the view that language is a structural system and that learning a language entails mastering that system. The structural syllabus is produced by the synthetic approach as described by Wilkins (1976: 2): "*A synthetic language teaching strategy is one in which the different parts of language are taught separately and step-by-step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of the parts until the whole structure of the language has been built up*."

5.4.1.1.2 Syllabus content and examples

A structural syllabus focuses on the language as a whole, meaning that the inclusion of structures is based solely on the fact that they exist in the language, not on their communicative value to learners. As McKay (1980: 75

cited in Krahnke, 1987: 25) notes, the selection of the contents of the syllabus "*can be made in reference to a finite body of knowledge, i.e. the grammatical components and rules of the language*". The selection and grading of content in this type of syllabus is based on four criteria: simplicity, regularity, frequency, and contrastive difficulty (Yellden 1983: 23). According to Yellden (1983: 23), teachers following the grammatical syllabus use the grammar-translation or audio-lingual method or a combination of both, but whichever method is employed, teaching the grammar of the language is given priority.

New English 900, published by Collier Macmillan, is an example of a textbook series for ESL beginners that uses a structural syllabus as cited by Krahnke (1987: 25):

Questions
- *Yes/no*
- *Wh-questions*
- *Negative questions*
- *Tag questions*

Singular and plural
Subject-verb agreement
Pronoun agreement
Some singular, plural usages of nouns-irregular noun plurals,
Count and no count nouns, etc.

Verb tenses
Irregular verbs and spelling
An overview of English verb tenses- simple, progressive, perfect, etc.
Using verb tenses-simple present, present progressive, etc.

The passive
Modal auxiliaries
Gerund and infinitives
Adjective clauses
Noun clauses
Conjunctions

Adverb clauses and related structures
Time, cause, and effect
Opposition and condition
Comparison
Conditional sentences
Gerund and infinitives (advanced)

5.4.1.1.3 Disadvantages of the structural syllabus

As Bell (1981) notes, there are a number of problems facing structural syllabus designers. The first of these relates to the fact that in a syllabus of this type, the context in which the grammatical forms to be learnt are located is ignored. Consequently, as Bell (1981: 53) explains:" *The unit is the*

isolated sentence and the assumption is that the essential problem for the learner is to master <u>linguistic</u> form and only secondarily the social meaning and <u>use</u> of such forms (emphases in original)."

The second problem with this type of syllabus is that grammatical forms which follow the same rules tend to be presented together on the grounds that this will provide more efficient learning, although as Bell (1981: 54) argues: "The skilful use of language demands the ability to use and comprehend grammatically mixed forms." He provides an example which illustrates this well, noting that in a grammatical syllabus statements are taught separately from questions, despite the fact that in any normal conversation, questions and answers would be intrinsically linked.

A third disadvantage of the grammatical syllabus is the potential for demotivation if learners feel overloaded by having to cope with a high burden of grammatical forms which do not necessarily correspond to their specific needs. Finally, teaching the whole grammar of a language in order to use that language is inefficient and unnecessary.

<u>5.4.1.2 The situational syllabus</u>

The situational syllabus is less common than some other types of syllabus, in spite of the fact that it has a long history in language teaching and learning, with Dubin and Olshtain (1994: 37) noting that the tourist phrase book provides a classic example of this. This syllabus was an attempt to improve the negative characteristics of grammar-based instruction, by attempting to connect language structures to the social settings in which they might realistically be used, with the ultimate aim of providing "*learners with the knowledge and skills they would need to deal with social demands*" (Bell 1981: 54). The situational syllabus focuses on language use, with structural forms being of secondary importance.

5.4.1.2.1 View of language and learning

The situational syllabus is based on the functional theory of language which views language as a social phenomenon used for communication. Situationalists focus on the notion that language is normally used in particular situations and consequently learning a language entails learning about the situations in which native speakers would use this language. By teaching students these situations in the classroom, the expectation is that they will apply them in real life situations.

5.4.1.2.2 The content of the situational syllabus

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Designers of a situational syllabus organise language within a situational syllabus by providing learners with a collection of real or imaginary situations drawn from everyday language use.

Examples of the content of a situational syllabus may include: dialogues likely to take place in particular settings (at a bank, supermarket, restaurant, or travel agent), or in particular circumstances (seeing the dentist, meeting a new student, buying a book or a second-hand car. Bell (1981: 56) cites this example of a situational syllabus for Swahili (based on Banathy and Dale 1972: 60):

A visitor to East Coast Africa is expected to be able in the L2, to:

i.   *Initiate and respond to standard greetings formulae.*

ii. *Tell the time to the nearest minute.*

iii. *State where he, or another person, lives.*

iv. *Give directions for getting to a place he knows.*

v.   *Understand a price and pay a bill presented in speech.*

vi. *Find out the price of an article.*

vii. *Find out how far one place is from another.*

Therefore, structural items are chosen on the basis of their occurrence in a particular social context and not on the basis of their place in the grammar of the language (Bell, 1981: 54)

5.4.1.2.3 Disadvantages of the situational syllabus

The choice of situations in the situational syllabus is based mainly on the designer's prediction of what situations students are likely to need to deal with. This can be problematic when dealing with a group of learners with diverse interests, backgrounds, ages, jobs, and cultural backgrounds. Richards (2001: 15) criticized the situational syllabus on the grounds that the way in which language items are selected "*is typically based on intuition*".

Bell (1981: 55) argues that although situational syllabus designers assume that there is a predictable relationship between situations and language use, this is not necessarily the case "*except for highly ritualized language use; prayers, greetings, leave- taking, thanking, etc*."

Moreover, the forms of language used in one situation may not transfer to other situations, and because grammar is not dealt with systematically, this may cause gaps in the grammatical knowledge of the learners.

Harmer (2001: 298) notes that a situational syllabus is appropriate for use with groups of students who have the same communicative needs, for

example those learning the language to enable them to work in fields such as tourism or the hospitality sector. In this case, the designers will be able to determine the situations required based on the learners and their goals. However, it is not helpful for use with students of general English.

For the above mentioned reasons, the situational syllabus is not appropriate for use as the main organizing principle in general syllabus design; situations are important but need to be integrated with other language components.

<u>5.4.1.3 The Notional/Functional Syllabus</u>

The notional/functional syllabus emerged as a reaction to the structural and situational syllabus in the 1970's and is considered to be the product of the communicative shift in language teaching (Richards and Rodgers 2001). According to the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (2002:365), the notional syllabus in language teaching can be defined as: *"A syllabus in which the language content is arranged according to the meanings a learner needs to express through language and the functions the learner will use the language for."*

Thus, unlike the structural/grammatical syllabus which consists of a sequence of graded language items, or the situational syllabus which focuses on situations and related language items, the notional/functional syllabus does not focus solely on the grammatical aspects of the language, but takes semantic knowledge as its starting point and addresses the question: "What do users of the language need to express?" (White 1988: 75). Bell explains that functions are things you can do with language such as identifying, denying, promising, apologising, asking permission, etc. The aim of such a syllabus is to ensure that the students know how to express different types of meaning such as disagreement, disbelief, etc. According to Brown (2001: 32), there are two categories of notions: General and Specific. The former are abstract concepts such space, time, number, colour, etc. whereas the latter cover topic-specific vocabulary items relating for example to health, travel, education, etc.

5.4.1.3.1 Content of the Notional/Functional Syllabus and Examples

As previously noted, the primary focus of the notional/functional syllabus is on learners' semantic demands and what they should be able to communicate in the foreign language and this determines the content, since the most appropriate forms of each type of communication can be decided. Therefore, structures are of secondary importance and selected according to the function being taught (Wilkins 1976: 8). According to White (1988: 75) the first trials

produced of this syllabus are *The Threshold Level* (Van Ek (1975) and *Waystage* (Van Ek, Alexander and Fitzpatrick (1977) syllabuses prepared by the Council of Europe. The following examples are taken from *Waystage* cited in White (1988: 75):

Topics	*Functions*
Personal Identification	*Identifying*
Health and Welfare	*Reporting*
Food and Drink	*Greeting People*

Brown (2001: 33) provides an example of some functions which are covered in the first few lessons of an advanced beginner's textbook:

1. Introducing self and other people.

2. Exchanging personal information.

3. Asking how to spell someone's name.

4. Giving commands.

5. Apologizing and thanking.

6. Identifying and describing people.

7. Asking for information.

5.4.1.3.2 View of language and learning

Bell (1981: 55) believes that the notional/functional syllabus is based on the view of language as a system of meaning rather than forms, and according to the designers of such an approach, learning a language consists of learning how to convey meaning, as Bell indicates: "*The notional syllabus attempts to define the communication needs of the learner and then to display the ways in which each communication need can be appropriately expressed*."

5.4.1.3.3 Disadvantages of the notional/functional syllabus

Wilkins (1976: 19) criticises the notional/functional syllabus on the grounds that the designers of this type of syllabus rely on the learners' needs to construct the syllabus. This means they must decide what meanings the learner will need to communicate from a huge number of semantic categories. Another major difficulty with using this syllabus is the difficulty of grading the functions in the syllabus on the basis of complexity.

Nunan (1988: 36) argues that when language syllabus designers follow the notional/functional approach, without reference to a grammatical syllabus, the selection and grading of items become more complicated. In the opinion

of Widdowson (1979 cited in Nunan 1988: 36) notions and functions are only inventories of structural points and lexical items and do not reflect the nature of how languages are learned. He also considers that breaking the language into separate pieces and isolated units, regardless of their form or function, misrepresents the nature of language as communication.

5.4.2 Non-traditional syllabuses

Non-traditional syllabuses were classified by White (1988) as Type B syllabuses whilst Nunan referred to these as process-oriented, and they emerged as a reaction to the traditional product-oriented syllabuses. They reflect a shift in focus from the outcomes of the knowledge and skills that the learners should master to the process by which learners gain these knowledge and skills (Nunan 1988: 46).

5.4.2.1 Task-based syllabuses

This type of syllabus was first designed by the Indian scholar Prabhu (1987: 26) who developed it for use in Bangalore, India, and although his experiment advanced our understanding of task–based learning, the main difficulty he encountered lay in grading the language tasks. As Richards et al, (1985: 289 cited in Nunan 1988: 42) explain, task-based syllabuses (also known as procedural syllabuses) are "*organized around tasks, rather than in terms of grammar or vocabulary*". Syllabuses of this kind typically suggest:

> *A variety of different kinds of tasks which the learners are*
> *expected to carry out in the language, such as using the*
> *telephone to obtain information; drawing maps based on oral*
> *instructions; performing actions based on commands given in*
> *the target language; giving orders and instructions to others,*
> *etc.*

According to Richard, Platt, and Weber (1985: 289 cited in Nunan 1988: 42) task-based language learning is more effective since it provides a real purpose for learning and using a language, rather than simply learning language items for their own sake. As Nunan (1988: 42) explains such tasks "*were seen as a way to promote classroom learning that focused on the process of using language rather than language products and on meaning as opposed to form*." The range of tasks and activities or "*interactions whose purpose is to get something done*" (Graves 2000: 46) are intended to be

more motivating for learners who are expected to carry out these tasks in the target language, producing meaningful communication.

In task-based instruction, language items are not taught per se, but the necessary items are supplied as needed for the completion of the activity in question. Proponents of this syllabus claim that although grammar teaching is not central in the task-based syllabus it will be acquired by students as they carry out the designated tasks (Krahnke 1987: 57).

5.4.2.1.1 Syllabus content and examples

The content of this type of syllabuses is composed of multifaceted and purposeful tasks (activities) that students are provided with during the course to perform in the target language. According to Karal (1999: 3) whilst the purpose of the situational approach is to teach the particular language content that might occur in a specific situation (a predefined product), task-based teaching has the goal of teaching students to draw on resources to accomplish an activity (a process).

Willis' (1996 cited in Harmer 2001: 299) list of the varied examples of the different tasks that the learners can be provided with and are expected to carry out in the target language demonstrates the breadth of activities which this can include:

> *Map reading, doing scientific experiments, story writing, listing, problem solving, comparing, sharing personal experience, using the telephone to obtain information, drawing maps based on oral instruction, finding a solution to a puzzle, giving directions, performing actions based on commands given in the target language, etc.*

Krahnke (1987: 60) provides other examples of task-based syllabuses, suggesting how these might be graded for use at different levels of instruction with learner of varying abilities. Thus, at beginners' levels, he recommends that the tasks might include the following:

- Prepare profiles for all of the students in the class, to be used by teachers or administrator
- Plan and carry out a trip
- Organise dinner for the class
- Fill out forms and applications for driving license, social security cards and so on.

Language learners, who are considered to have reached intermediate level, might be set tasks which entail:

- Producing school newsletters for other students

- Writing different kinds of letters such as complaints, applications, and requests.

By the time that students have reached advanced level, they would be capable of carrying out tasks such as:

- Writing term papers
- Doing surveys of food stores to compare prices.

5.4.2.1.2 Disadvantages of the task-based syllabus

As mentioned previously, the main problem facing those attempting to design a task-based syllabus is the difficulty which they face in grading these language activities in terms of their level of complexity. Harmer (2001: 299) notes that this problem has been encountered by many designers, and he thinks that is the reason why this syllabus is not more widely used by teachers and methodologists who found it challenging to decide which task should go where in the sequencing of activities, since what might prove demanding for one learner might be too easy for another.

Krahnke (1987: 62) also highlighted some of the problems which the task-based method presents for the process of evaluation since "*Traditional discrete-point achievement tests are often not a good measure of the language that is acquired in task learning*". However, he added that "*Overall language proficiency […] should be as easy to measure as with any other type of instruction*". Krahnke also believes that another potentially negative characteristic of the task-based syllabus lies in the fact that in order to implement it extra time and resources are required from teachers and the instructional setting beyond the usual textbooks.

5.4.2.2 The Topic-based syllabus

This is another widely used syllabus in which the designer focuses on themes, topics, or other units of content as a method of organisation (Richards 2001: 157). Krahnke (1987: 65) defines the topic-based syllabus as: "*the teaching of content or information in the language being learned with little or no direct or explicit effort to teach the language itself separately from the content being taught*". Harmer (2001: 298) provides the following as examples of topics: the weather, sport, survival, literature, music. He also adds that each topic can be subdivided into smaller components, so for instance, weather as a topic might be subdivided into "*the way weather changes, weather forecasting, weather and mood, and the damage that weather can cause.*" (ibid.). Nunan (1988: 48) explains that the content-based syllabus is another type of analytic approach to syllabus design. In this case, "*Experiential content […] provides the point of departure for the syllabus*". The material

which forms the basis of the content is usually derived from a well-defined subject area. As Nunan explains (1988: 48), this subject matter might be drawn from areas of the secondary school curriculum such as science or social studies, or at University level it could be based on the specialist subject matter which relates to an academic discipline or technical field, such as mechanical engineering, medicine, or IT.

Harmer is supportive of topic-based syllabuses, on the grounds that topics provide a useful organising principle since they can be based on what interests students. In addition, it may be possible to identify which topics are most relevant to the communicative needs of learners.

5.4.2.2.1 View of language and learning

Krahnke (1987:68) points out that the content-based syllabus is based on acquisition theory which centres on the idea that learning can still take place without explicit instruction (Krashen, 1982; Krashen and Terrell, 1983).

5.4.2.2.2 Syllabus content and examples

White (1988) suggested three criteria which could be used for the purposes of grading the topics in terms of difficulty. Firstly, content can be graded on the basis of its degree of generality when designing a syllabus meaning that it is possible to distinguish between the more general and superficial treatment of a topic to dealing with material in a highly detailed manner, as a specialist would do. Secondly, grading can be carried out on the basis of the length of the topics selected (White 1988: 67). Finally, topics can be selected and graded from the learner perspective, according to levels of interest and motivation and also in relation to the students' need, and the perceived utility and relevance of this content (White 1988: 67).

White (1988: 66) cites the example of Fein and Baldwin (1986) who tried to implement the topic-based syllabus approach with pre-university level students with an interest in learning English for the purpose of gaining University admission. The two teachers decided to construct their syllabus around topics that were judged to be relevant to their students and likely to stimulate their interest. They organised a course which was module-based with each one covering a different content area (i.e. topic). Examples included:

1. 'Marketing' (creating products, advertising, marketing abroad, consumer protection)
2. 'The Environment' (ecology, mankind's negative and positive impact on the environment, future problems)

3. 'The Brain' (physiology, behaviour modification, memory, abnormality, cognition, and altered state of consciousness)

They concluded that the content-based approach proved to be a useful way of motivating this group of students "*as a way of providing 'free validity' to their English instruction*" (Fein and Baldwin 1986 cited in White 1988: 66).

5.4.2.2.3 Disadvantages of the topic-based syllabus

Richards (2001: 158) identified a number of potentially problematic issues relating to the design and implementation of a topic-based syllabus. The first relates to how decisions are to be made about which themes, topics, and content should be included, although it could be argued that this issue is not specific to this type of syllabus as designers face a similar set of decisions when drawing up any language learning syllabus. Secondly, Richards (2001) was concerned about how a balance was to be struck between content and grammar or other possible strands of the syllabus. His third concern was particularly relevant to higher level specialist courses, as he queried whether language teachers would have the necessary depth of knowledge to teach such content-based courses at University level, for example. His final worry centred on assessment and to what extent students should be evaluated on their learning of the content or their learning of language.

Harmer (2001) concluded that whilst he thought good syllabus designers would be able to provide a series of relevant and engaging topics which would help to motivate learners, he thought it unlikely that a topic-based approach on its own would be sufficient for syllabus organization.

5.4.2.3 The Lexical Syllabus

Designers occasionally construct their syllabus around "*A list of lexical items […] with associated collocations and idioms, usually divided into graded section*s" in order to produce a lexical syllabus (Ur 1991: 178). The type, quantity and range of vocabulary to be taught in the second language are all dependent on the aims of the course and the time allocated to it (Richards 2001: 5).

5.4.2.3.1 View of language and learning

Lewis (1997: 3) asserts that the lexical approach is based on the belief that traditional grammar and vocabulary are not the components of language, but rather that language consists of "*multi-word prefabricated chunks*" including collocations, fixed and semi-fixed phrases which form an essential part of the

language. According to Lewis, fluency is the product of acquiring a huge store of fixed and semi-fixed prefabricated items which then serve "*as the foundation for any linguistic novelty or creativity*" (1997: 15). As a result, the lexical approach to syllabus design does not concentrate on syntax and tense usage but rather on "*teaching phrases which show words in combination*" (Lewis (1997: 15). For example, in this type of syllabus, teaching the auxiliary 'will' does not focus on teaching the grammatical use of this as a means of expressing the future tense, but concentrates instead on its use in a series of utterances such as: I'll be back in a minute, I'll give you a ring, I'll be in touch (Harmer 2001: 92).

5.4.2.3.2 Syllabus content

In the case of EFL, Willis (1990:124) explains that: "*the lexical approach […] is firmly based on real language*", since syllabuses of this type are able to draw on the COBUILD (Collins Birmingham University International Language Database) Bank of English. This provides an analysis of a corpus of natural language of 650 million words which represent "*the commonest words and phrases in English and their meanings*" allowing syllabus designers to make appropriate selections (Collins: online). Richards (2001: 154) suggests that lexical syllabus designers need to grade the vocabulary targets to be taught at different levels. The classifications of typical vocabulary items for a general course are:

Elementary level: 1,000 words

Intermediate level: an additional 2,000 words

Upper Intermediate level: an additional 2,000 words

Advanced level: an additional 2,000+ words (Hindmarsh 1980; Nation 1990 cited in Richards 2001: 154)

5.4.2.3.3 Disadvantages of the lexical syllabus

According to Harmer(2001: 297), it can be difficult to apply the usual syllabus design criteria to a lexical syllabus since lexis can have multiple aspects such as:

- – *The vocabulary related to topics(e.g. art, clothes, crime)*
- – *Issues of word formation(e.g. suffixes and other morphological changes)*
- – *Word-grammar triggers(e.g. verbs which are followed by certain syntactic patterns)*
- – *Compound lexical items(e.g. walking-stick, multi-storey car park)*
- – *Connecting and linking words(e.g. when, if, he/she)*

- – *Semi-fixed expressions (e.g. Would you like to …?, If I were you I'd…)*
- – *Connotation and the use of metaphor.*

This complex relationship between lexis and grammar illustrates the difficulties facing the lexical syllabus designer who must decide what grammar should be included with new words, how this should be selected and graded, and many more issues. Richards (2001: 154) recommends that the lexical syllabus should form part of a more comprehensive syllabus as it cannot adequately serve as the only organizing principle.

5.4.2.4 The Skills-Based Syllabus

A syllabus can also be organised around different language skills but this approach is not widely mentioned in ELT literature. In ELT, the word 'skill' usually refers to one of the four language modes (reading, listening, speaking and writing); however, in this approach, the term is used to refer to specific techniques and abilities employed in using the language.

According to Richards (2001: 159) the skills-based syllabus is: "*one that is organized around the different underlying abilities that are involved in using a language for purposes such as reading, writing, listening, or speaking*." Some of the examples identified by Chastain (1976 cited in Krahnke 1987: 49) include skimming and scanning; writing specific kinds of discourse (such as memos or research reports); giving instructions; delivering public talks; giving personal information for bureaucratic purposes; getting specific information over the telephone; listening to foreign radio broadcasts for news or military information; and taking orders in restaurant.

Richards (2001: 161) highlights three key advantages of syllabuses which are constructed around skills, namely:

1. *They focus on specific types of behaviour or performance.*
2. *They teach skills that can be transferred to many other situations.*
3. *They identify teachable and learnable units*.

5.4.2.4.1 View of language and learning

Krahnke (1987: 52) noted that there is no specific theory of learning associated with skill-based instruction. Rather, as Richards (2001: 159) explains, constructing a syllabus around skills is based on the general theory that "*learning any complex activity involves mastering a number of skills and*

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micro skills which are combined together to perform that activity, such as listening to a lecture and taking notes". According to Krahnke (1987: 52) "*This notion is shared by many approaches to instructional content in language teaching*".

5.4.2.4.2 Syllabus content and examples

Selecting the content of this type of syllabuses is based on the designer's perception of the usefulness of the skills, whereas the ordering of the syllabus is usually based on sequencing these according to "*chronology, frequency, or relative usefulness*" (Richards 2002: 159).

Richards (2001: 160) provides the following example of a skills-based syllabus:

> *Writing: Creating a topic sentence*
> – *Distinguishing between main ideas and supporting sentences*
> – *Self-editing*
> *Listening: Recognizing key information*
> – *Using discourse markers to identify the flow of discourse*
> – *Following rapid speech*
> *Speaking: Recognizing turn-taking signals*
> – *Introducing a topic*
> – *Using communication strategies*
> *Reading: Reading for gist*
> – *Guessing words from context*
> – *Reading and making inferences*

5.4.2.4.3 Disadvantages of the skill-based syllabus

Richards (2001: 161) identified two main disadvantages to the skill-based syllabus. Firstly, since as previously noted there is no specific theory of learning associated with skill-based instruction, there is no serious means by which necessary skills can be determined. Secondly, this type of syllabus place emphasis on discrete aspects of learner performance which may be at the expense of developing "*more global and integrated communicative abilities*" (Richards 2001: 161).These disadvantages suggest that the skill-based syllabus is not suitable for use as the only strand in a course, but should be integrated and combined with other language syllabuses.

5.5 Syllabus Analysis

According to Dubin and Olshtain (1986: 27): "*Most new programmes are designed either to remedy the deficiencies in existing ones or to expand and improve them. It is imperative, therefore, to begin any new endeavour with a thorough survey of existing conditions.*" They also recommend that the first element that should be examined when analyzing any educational programme

in order to introduce improvements is the syllabus. Therefore, this concluding part of Chapter Four will be devoted to the analysis of the syllabus for the course known as English for Other Departments (EfOD). This course is taught to first-year students from all the faculties and departments at the University of Benghazi, one of Libya's largest and oldest universities, who are not following English as their main degree programme, therefore, it is for students who are not planning to become language specialists but who nevertheless envisage using English in their future lives. This syllabus is also meant to serve as a teaching guide for all those tutors from the English Language department who are expected to deliver this course using the related materials which are provided. The EFL teaching materials used to implement to syllabus are analysed in the following chapter.

5.5.1 The syllabus fit-for-purpose checklist

As previously noted, after analysing several definitions and descriptions from relevant literature concerning what a syllabus is, different types of EL syllabuses, and what a syllabus should consist of, the following is the desiderata which have been produced in order to draw up a fit-for-purpose checklist which will be applied to the existing EfOD syllabus used at the University of Benghazi.

A syllabus which is fit for purpose and likely to serve as an effective form of guidance for users should:

❒ Begin by stating clear aims for the course (i.e. what the course designers expect learners to know by the end of the programme of study).
❒ Include a clearly presented outline of the content of the course (i.e. what is to be taught or learnt during the programme of study) which includes content (such as words, structures, or topics) and/or processes (such as tasks or methods).
❒ Follow a sequence in which (a) easier components are taught before more difficult and complex ones and (b) this sequencing is based implicitly or explicitly on a recognised approach or approaches to language acquisition and to theories of learning.
❒ Suggest how the course content is to be taught (i.e. procedures, techniques, and materials).
❒ Indicate a time schedule, specifying (a) when each component should be completed and (b) at what rate of progress.
❒ Be a formal public document and an expression of accountability which is available for examination by concerned parties/stakeholders (including teachers, learners, parents,

writers of textbooks and teaching materials, policymakers, funders of education).

❐ Should be periodically reviewed/revised to ensure that it remains fit for purpose, serving the needs of (a) the learners for whom it is designed (b) the teachers who are expected to deliver it and (c) other relevant stakeholders in Libyan society

5.5.2 The content of the syllabus

The existing EfOD syllabus is laid out as follows:

English for Other Departments

The aim

The aim of this course is to teach the students the following grammatical topics in order that the student will be able, to some extent, to produce and understand topics of his/her area of specialization written in English.

Syllabus

I. Present Simple Tense

A. Affirmative Statements

B. Negative Statements

C. Yes/No Questions

D. information Questions

E. Adverbs of Frequency

II. Present Continuous Tense

A. Affirmative Statements

B. Negative Statements

C. Yes/No Questions

D. Information Questions

III. The "Going to" Future Tense

A. Affirmative Statements

B. Negative Statements

C. Yes/No Questions

D. Information Questions

IV. Past Simple Tense

A. The Verb "to Be"

1. Affirmative Statements

2. Negative Statements

3. Yes/No Questions

4. Information Questions

B. The Regular Verbs

1. Affirmative Statements

2. Negative Statements

3. Yes/No Questions

4. Information Questions

C. The Irregular Verbs

1. Affirmative Statements

2. Negative Statements

3. Yes/No Questions

4. Information Questions

V. Past Continuous Tense

A. Affirmative Statements

B. Negative Statements

C. Yes/No Questions

D. Information Questions

VI. Prepositions

A. Prepositions of Place

B. Prepositions of Time

VII. Nouns

A. Count Nouns

B. Non Count Nouns

C. Quantifiers used with Nouns (e.g., many, much, a few, a little, few, little, etc.)

VIII. Articles

A. The Indefinite Article A and AN

B. The Definite Article THE

C. The "Zero Article" (i.e., omission of the article)

5.5.3 Analysis of the EfOD syllabus

This analysis will deal with each of the points on the checklist, in the order in which they are presented.

With reference to the first item concerning the inclusion of the course aim in the syllabus it is relevant to remember here that Brumfit's definition suggested that a syllabus should be targeted at a specific group of learners. The syllabus does begin with an aim but perhaps not surprisingly, given that the syllabus the same EfOD syllabus is used for all non-EFL specialist students across the whole of Benghazi University, regardless of their academic discipline and the Faculty in which they are studying, this aim is rather vague and it would be difficult to assess exactly what the course designers expect learners to know by the end of the programme of study. It is also difficult to

understand how the grammatical topics listed relate to the skills and vocabulary to be taught.

The course content is clearly presented and itemised but seems far from comprehensive in terms of describing the specific content (such as vocabulary, structures, or topics to be studied) or the processes involved (such as tasks to be completed or methods to be employed). The main shortcoming of this syllabus is that it is based purely on the grammar of English and does not include functions, topics, skills, or activities. It places emphasis on form to the expense of meaning. It needs to focus not on only one component of the language but to integrate grammar functions, topics, skills, etc. in an integrated syllabus. Whilst grammatical syllabuses continue to be widely used in language teaching, typically, they are now seen as one stream of a multiskilled or integrated syllabus rather than as the sole basis for a syllabus. White (1988:92) comments: "A complete syllabus specification will include all five aspects: structure, function, situation, topic, skills."

In terms of sequencing, the syllabus is graded on the basis of complexity, meaning that grammatical items that are considered easier for these Arabic-speaking students to master are introduced before complex ones. It is important to determine the nature of the underlying theoretical framework which has informed this syllabus in order to assess the extent to which the suggested sequencing of linguistic elements is coherent with these principles.

According to Imssalem (2000: 25) the EfOD syllabus is mainly based on the structural approach and audio-lingual practice also had a major influence on its content. As previously noted, structural theory views language as a closed system of grammatical items, meaning that to learn a language is to master all that system. Another problematic issue related to this is that the syllabus is limited to the sentence as the largest unit of discourse. For instance it includes a classification of types of sentences, statements, questions, negatives, although in real communication English speakers do not speak in isolated sentences. Furthermore, overloading students with this amount of grammatical items can prove demotivating. The reason for selecting this grammatical syllabus and accompanying materials is because the course is intended for general English students in other non-English departments, and not for students who are specialised in English.

The syllabus does not make any suggestions concerning how the course content is to be taught (i.e. procedures, techniques, and materials), although in reality all teachers use the same set of materials which have been created centrally. Clearly, for teachers, this presents a major difficulty as it leaves

them unclear about these areas which would be important in order to ensure continuity and consistency in the learning experience. On the other hand, it could be argued that given the range of students to whom the Benghazi University EfOD syllabus is taught, this lack of prescription allows for flexibility in approach.

No time schedule has been included in the syllabus, which could be highly problematic when multiple groups are being taught in parallel across one institution. Specifying when each component should be completed and indicating an expected rate of progress would allow tutors to ensure that uniform expectations are being made of language learners and also that the content is completed before the end of the academic session.

As previously noted, a syllabus is a public document which may have multiple end-users. This document was obtained from the departmental administration office but it was in hard copy. This document cannot be accessed online or via mobile technology which would help to make it more accessible for examination by any concerned parties/stakeholders. Since as Brumfit emphasises a syllabus is "an expression of accountability", this raises broader issues about the extent to which this document is open to critical scrutiny by various stakeholders in the educational setting to which it applies.

The EfOD syllabus was originally devised in the 1980's and has never been reviewed or revised since, in spite of the fact that English language in Libya has witnessed a dramatic change from the late 1990's onwards, in terms of its spread to the interpersonal, instrumental and public domains. and the degree of revision which the syllabus has undergone since its initial creation. This is clearly one of the major shortcomings in terms of its fitness for purpose.

Firstly, it is clearly unfit for the purposes of the learners for whom it is designed, thanks to the sweeping changes which have taken place in the teaching of EFL within the Libyan school system in recent years. The Libyan state realized the global role of the English language and responded to it at the local level by a taking a number of significant steps. Firstly, it replaced the old school curriculum and syllabuses with new ones. Secondly, it introduced English language to students at the primary school level. Thirdly, it converted the general secondary school system into a specialized secondary school system which also includes specialist English provision at secondary school level. Moreover, ESP materials are used with the different sectors. These steps were of great importance to ensuring the spread of English in Libya and in producing English speakers with the appropriate linguistic skills

to be proficient in their respective fields. As a consequence, English language syllabuses at university level need to be adapted to cope with the current role of English in Libya and to satisfy the needs of the new students who have graduated from the specialized secondary school system. As the linguistic profiling exercise showed, students in many faculties including now need English to study reference material and find articles to help in their field. As a result, this should be reflected in the English language syllabus and the materials used to implement them. A syllabus should correspond to student needs.

With regards to its fitness for purposes with regards to other relevant stakeholders in Libyan society, a syllabus of this kind is unlikely to produce the type of English speakers who are needed for the Libyan economy, able to secure a good job in most of the national and international business bodies in the oil industry or any other sector. It is also clearly a waste of government funds to have invested considerable resources in overhauling the teaching of EFL within the State school system only to find that the university sector fails to build on any of the advances made at lower levels of the education system. Currently, students who find the English classes with which they are provided are insufficient mostly go to extra evening English classes in private schools which have mushroomed in Libya since the late 1990's to help them either in their general education or as a tool to assist with other subjects where they are usually taught with communicative materials and integrated syllabuses using courses such as *Cutting Edge*, and *Face To Face*.

5.6 Conclusion

This chapter started by differentiating between the meanings of the terms syllabus and curriculum. The chapter also discussed some important factors that syllabus designers should consider before devising any type of syllabus. Later, two main theories, structuralism and functionalism, were examined briefly since they are the basis of the different types of syllabuses that are used in language teaching. The different types of syllabuses (traditional or non-traditional) were studied together with their respective views of language and language learning and the disadvantages that they represent in order to provide a theoretical context for evaluating the EfOD syllabus. In the second part of the chapter the existing EfOD syllabus for students at the University of Benghazi was examined in order to assess the degree to which it is fit for purpose by evaluating this in terms of a checklist developed for this task. This analysis has shown that in many respects the current EfOD syllabus is no

longer fit for purpose. It is argued that the syllabus does not reflect current trends in language teaching towards a syllabus which integrates functions, topics, skills, situations, and also includes the teaching of new grammatical points and lexical items through the skills.

Dubin and Olshtain (1986: 27) observed that: "*Course designers who carefully consider the various approaches to syllabus design may arrive at the conclusion that a number of different ones are needed and are best combined in an eclectic manner in order to bring about positive results*." This analysis, which was also influenced by my own experience of teaching the EfOD syllabus for three years, concluded that a syllabus which aims to teach the four language skills in an integrated and more communicative manner would help to motivate learners, since they can see that what they are learning corresponds to their needs.

University students have different needs, either during their study or after graduation and looking for a job and even during performing their jobs, thus for instance, students of Medicine need English to enable them to read relevant articles and books in English, while a petroleum engineer working in Libya will need English for most official purposes of communication including administrative, financial or even technical reasons. Therefore, based on the role of English today in Libya, the idea of an integrated EfOD syllabus needs to be introduced to first-year university students (as will be discussed in detail in the concluding chapter).

Chapter Six

Evaluating the Existing English Language Materials Used with University Students in Libya.

6.0 Introduction

Choosing a suitable course book for a group of EFL learners is a challenging task given the wide variety of published materials now being produced by an ever-expanding international ELT industry. After the expansion in the publishing industry producing ESL/EFL commercial textbooks and other materials, which are now based on the communicative approach, emphasizing the use of real English and authentic materials, it is important that EFL teachers need to have the ability to make informed and appropriate choices when making their choice of course book from the materials on offer (Cunningsworth 1995: 1). Coursebooks and any other commercially produced teaching materials which are selected for use will have a significant impact on the content of the course and the nature of classroom teaching and student learning. They are also likely to be used for a considerable length of time and to represent a significant financial investment and require staff familiarisation time. This underlines the importance of the need to ensure that this process of selection is undertaken with due care in order to opt for materials that are the most suitable for the specific context in which they are to be used (ibid.: v).

This chapter presents a critical evaluation of the course book *Learn and Practise English* which is currently being used to teach EFL to first-year undergraduates at the University of Benghazi for whom EFL is a compulsory component of the courses they are following. The evaluation is conducted in the light of the findings and considerations of chapter three (what these students need to be able to do with English) and chapter four (what kind of syllabus can best meet the needs identified in the previous chapter). This coursebook is widely used for the same purpose at most Libyan universities and institutes of higher education meaning that this evaluation will be of use to those many EFL teachers who use this course book. In addition, since it also assesses the course book specifically in terms of its appropriateness for use in the contemporary context of Libya, it will also be of use to designers of ELT materials interested in the Libyan market. This study is the first to evaluate this course book which is still used on a large scale in EFL education in Libya.

Learn and Practise English is a book written by one of the English department's lecturers, Professor Muftah Latiwish (1998). The aim of this detailed evaluation is to determine whether the learning objectives and needs of the students who are using the book are met or not, and to determine the extent to which the course book reflects the role of English in present-day Libya, as discussed in Chapter Three.

Whilst in no way aiming to belittle the efforts of the author (who was one of the lecturers who taught me during my undergraduate and post graduate studies), given the shifts in the role of EFL in Libyan society, the changes which have occurred in the secondary curriculum and the mindset of the current students, it is argued here for numerous reasons that the course book is no longer fit for the purpose for which it was originally designed i.e. to teach non-EFL specialist university students.

The chapter begins by defining a coursebook and what is its role in general terms. Then considering the wider context in which these learners study, which allows us to match the material against the context in which it is currently used. The coursebook itself is then evaluated using explicit criteria which are based on sound theoretical principles and examples from the course book are used throughout to support these judgements. Concluding remarks highlight the key points of the evaluation.

6.1 What is a coursebook?

Sheldon 1988 stated that: "*coursebooks are provided by many to be the route map of any ELT programme.*", whereas Tomlinson (1998: ix) elaborates on the definition in the following terms:

> *a textbook which provides the core materials for course. It aims to provide as much as possible in one book and is designed so that it could serve as the only book which the learners necessarily use during a course. Such a book usually includes work on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, functions, and the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking.*

6.2 The role of the coursebook

Cunningsworth (1995: 7) asserts that coursebooks are always considered as significant resources in realizing the aims and objectives of the learners' needs that have already been established; however, teaching them should not become the aim of the programme since the main aim is to teach the language and not the coursebook. Cunningsworth determined the roles of the coursebooks in the following points:

- a resource for presentation material(spoken and written)

- a source of activities for learner practice and communicative interaction
- a reference source for learners on grammar, vocabulary, *pronunciation, etc*
- *a source of stimulation and ideas for classroom language activities*
- *a syllabus (where they reflect learning objectives which have already been determined)*
- *a resource for self-directed learning or self-access work*
- *a support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence*

O'Neil (1982: 105) elaborates on Cunningsworth's points on the benefits of using a coursebook, from his own experience, using a coursebook will satisfy the learners' needs even if they are not specially constructed for them. The coursebook enables the learners to follow the teaching process by looking at what have been studied and what is left to be achieved. In addition to that, without a coursebook a teacher will need to spend time and money preparing his own materials. Finally the coursebook allows the teachers to adapt and improvise during teaching. He thinks that "… *learners who do not work from textbooks may be being deprived of a useful medium of orientation and study outside the class room.*"

6.3 Factors to consider when selecting and/or evaluating and EFL materials.

McDonough and Shaw 2003 referred to these factors as contextual factors and these are the learners and the setting. The learners' factor will include learners' characteristics and their needs as very important factors to consider when evaluating or selecting what materials to use with particular learners.

6.3.1 The learners' characteristics

McDonough and Shaw (2003) demonstrated that the learners' variables or characteristics are of great significance in planning decisions and specifications of goals. According to them these characteristics are: *age, interests, level of proficiency in English, aptitude, mother tongue, academic and educational level, attitudes to learning, motivation, reasons for learning, preferred learning styles, and personality*. All of these characteristics will affect the types of topics and activities chosen, the suitability of different methods and choice of a syllabus. Richards (2001:101) claimed that it is crucial to gather as much information as possible about learners since they

are "*key participants in curriculum development projects*" and he suggests that the following issues should be addressed:

- *What are the learners' past language learning experiences?*
- *How motivated are the learners to learn English?*
- *What are their expectations for the program?*
- *Do the learners' views on language teaching reflect any culture specific factors?*
- *Are they a homogeneous or a heterogeneous group?*
- *What type of learning approach do they favour (e.g., teacher-led, student-focused, or a small-group work)?*
- *What type of content do they prefer?*
- *What expectations do they have for the roles of teachers, learners, and instructional materials?*
- *How much time can they be expected to put into the program?*
- *What learning resources will they typically have access to?* (Richards 2001:101)

Most of these characteristics about the Libyan learners have been surveyed in chapter four (the attitude of university students towards English language)

6.3.2 Learners needs

Richards (2001: 51) advocates that an effective educational program should be based on learners' needs analysis. He also explained that the process of collecting information about the learners' needs is usually known as *needs analysis*. Determining learners' needs is becoming a simple procedure when the target group is learning the language for a particular purpose such as employees in a specific fields as tourism, industry, etc.., whereas in other cases, needs of the learners are not so direct to determine such when English is taught as a EFL compulsory subject in secondary school and in this case the introduction of English or any other language will be based on what syllabus designers and curriculum planners consider best for the learners. (ibid.,)

6.3.3 The setting

McDonough and Shaw (2003) refer to the need to address the whole teaching and learning environment or setting when evaluating a course book and identified a number of significant factors to be considered that will affect the selection of materials, planning the course and designing the syllabus:

> *The role of English in the country, the role of English in the school, the teachers, management and administration, resources available, support personnel, the number of pupils, time, physical environment, the socio-cultural environment, the types of tests used, procedure (if any) for monitoring and evaluating.*

6.4 Analysing the current learning situation

Cunningsworth (1995: 6) also stresses the importance of analysing the learning situation and devised his own comprehensive checklist which serves as a useful starting point for examining the context in which the materials will be evaluated before carrying out the evaluation procedures themselves. The list of factors and the approach of these authors has been combined to produce a framework which allows a full analysis of the context in which the course book is currently being used.

6.4.1 Aims and Objectives of the course

The EFL programme for non-specialists at the University of Benghazi is a compulsory course which aims to "… *teach the students the grammatical topics in order that the student will be able, to some extent, to produce and understand topics of his/her area of specialization written in English*.". The course book which is currently being used forms the syllabus for the course and is not detailed. The students' achievement of aims and objectives is measured by a written end of course exam testing grammatical accuracy.

6.4.2 The Learning/Teaching Context

The current role and status of English in Libya has been described in detail in Chapter three, namely that English is a foreign language there and has recently begun to play a more active role. In some specific domains such as medicine, the oil industry, and University science faculties, it is now used as a second language. The course is compulsory for non-English specialist students in the first year at the University of Benghazi. Class sizes vary considerably from one department to another.

6.4.3 The Learners

Since all the students are in their first year of higher education, most are adults learners, aged between 18 and 21. Undergraduates following this course book are not beginners, with most having studied English in the Libyan educational system for eight years. The level of English can still vary significantly since some students will only have followed secondary school classes whilst others may have also attended private language institutes or had private tuition. Unlike the students who are EFL specialists, the ability of these students can be very varied. Some of these first year university students have good strategies for language learning, others will struggle with this type of learning. These university Students receive two hours of class contact per week for the whole of the first year. In addition, they are expected to do four hours of personal study per week.

In the terms of the previous language-learning experience of these students, as explained elsewhere, in the academic year 1999-2000 a radical change was introduced into the Libyan educational system which affected secondary school students. This involved the introduction of new specialized secondary schools where students were introduced to new materials specifically designed for Libyan learners according to their chosen area of academic specialisation. This cohort of students has studied English for Specific Purposes for four years. The materials which they use, *English for Libya* (Philips et al., 2000), were written by native speakers of English, use a communicative approach and are designed around a multi-layered syllabus which integrates grammar, vocabulary, topics, functions, and all four language skills.

These materials were designed to be used as alternatives to the previous traditional course books, namely *Living English for Libya* (1979) which was written by a Libyan author Gusbi (1979) and was based on the audio-lingual methodology. In the previous materials, the learning process was heavily dependent on mechanical drills and memorization practice (Imssalem 2001: 54). *English for Libya* was designed with the intention of overcoming the shortcomings of the previous curriculum. Philips and his co-authors (2000) planned *English for Libya* as a formal course intended to be taught to secondary school learners with different specializations. They claim that their materials are based on the communicative methodology which views language as a social phenomenon and which focuses on both accuracy and fluency. This is likely to have conditioned students' expectations with regards to the way they will be taught EFL at University.

Although *English for Libya* adopts a modern approach to teaching EFL, many of the students who are specialists in other areas will be used to the more traditional rote-learning method which still heavily influences much of the way student are expected to learn in the Arab world. This may not necessarily be the preferred learning style of the students but this may be what they are most accustomed to.

As previously noted, the course is compulsory so in terms of motivation and interest, most students simply want to pass as this is a requirement for progress to second year of their studies. (This will be discussed in the next chapter)

6.4.4 The Teachers

All the staff currently teaching on this course have at least a degree in EFL; some also have post-graduate qualifications. All are non-native speakers of

English, but some of them have spent extended periods of time outside Libya in an English-speaking environment. No native-speaker language assistants are employed at the University and given current security concerns due to ongoing conflict, there are not likely to be any for the foreseeable future.

If given a choice, most of the younger teachers would prefer to use a communicative approach in their teaching and those who have attended courses in other countries will have experience of this approach themselves as learners. Older teachers usually prefer more traditional grammar-based methods and may place heavy emphasis on rote-learning since this is how they themselves will have been taught within the Libyan system. Although there is evidence of some change, the university is generally based on a rigidly hierarchical system in which many decisions are taken at a central level. Responsibility for their execution then resides with a committee made up of senior academics. The decisions which they make are then conveyed to lecturers who are expected to implement these. The English department committee is responsible for providing EFL lecturers with the syllabus and the teaching materials for this course.

It is relevant to say at this stage that I have four years of experience of teaching the course book *Learn and Practise English*. Although Cunningsworth (1984: 1) stresses that: "*No teacher should permit the course book to set the objectives, let alone allow 'teaching the course book' to be the objective*" currently, this is effectively the case. Those teaching the compulsory course have no freedom to diverge from the syllabus since one exam is sat by all students and this is based on the content of the course book. Staff are not expected to adapt or supplement the existing course book. Many would have the expertise to do this but few would have the time given their teaching commitments. In addition, since this is compulsory course for non-specialists realistically it would have a low ranking on any list of priorities.

6.5 The choice of criteria for course book evaluation

Authors highlight the importance of ensuring that when evaluate any element of the teaching and learning process it is important that the criteria which are used are explicit and based on sound theoretical principles (Rea-Dickins and Germaine 1992: 4) and that these are employed systematically (Nunan 1992:209)

A number of evaluation criteria have been designed by leading experts in the field and these have been used widely by researchers and teachers to evaluate ELT textbooks and materials. Evaluation criteria have been

developed by Cunningsworth (1984, 1995), Harmer (1991, 2001), McDonough and Shaw (1993, 2003), Seldom (1988), Tomlinson (2003, 2008), and Ur (1996).

Two main sources have informed the evaluation criteria McDonough and Shaw (1993, 2003) and Cunningsworth (1984, 1995). Each has its own particular strengths. The checklist provided by McDonough and Shaw (1993, 2003) has been chosen to perform the initial **external or macro** evaluation of the course book which will be performed in order to gain an overview of the organizational principles involved. This also examines the form of the book. This will be followed by an **internal** or micro evaluation of the content of the materials which is dependent on Cunningsworth's (1984, 1995) more detailed checklist for evaluating the more specific aspects of the course book.

6.5.1 External evaluation: (macro-evaluation)

Although it is not generally advisable to simply "*judge a book by its cover*", that may be indeed how learners will access material which they are given. This initial evaluation, whilst not of that cursory a nature, follows McDonough and Shaw (2003) recommendations to begin the evaluation process by gaining a brief overview of the course book which focuses on the book cover, introduction, and table of contents. The external evaluation will consider the following points:

- The intended audience.
- The proficiency level.
- The context in which the materials are to be used.
- How the language has been presented and organized into teachable units/lessons.
- The author's views on language and methodology. Accompanying materials
- Inclusion of a vocabulary list/index/list of contents
- integration of visual material
- Layout and presentation

6.5.1.1 Intended Audience

McDonough and Shaw (2003:63) assert that when evaluating materials, it is necessary to determine who the intended audience is for the course book since learners of different ages are motivated by different topics. Cunningsworth (1984: 2) also makes some useful observations concerning why it is useful to know about the intended audience for a course book. He observes that:

> *English is taught in an enormously wide variety of situations throughout the world and a course suitable for adult learners in small groups in northern Europe is most unlikely to be suitable for a very large secondary school class in Africa. Some courses are quite specific about the kind of learner they cater for, and many course books are written for learners of a particular age and native language who live in a specific cultural context.*

There are at least two reasons why it is important to know if a course book has been designed for a particular country or cultural context. Firstly, in terms of the order that the grammar is presented in, Arabic speakers are likely to find certain English structures/grammatical concepts particularly difficult. This will not be the case for, say, speakers of Spanish. Secondly, it is also important to consider if the course book will reflect cultural specificity, for example, exercises requiring students to talk about their favourite alcoholic drink or what they are planning to do at Christmas would clearly not be appropriate for use in an Islamic country with students who are practising Muslims. In the coursebook under evaluation *Learn and Practice English*, No mention is made about:

  The age of students which it caters for or whether they are in secondary or higher education (adult learners)
  Whether the course is general English or is aimed at learners with specific needs (English for Specific Purposes or English for Academic Purposes, for example)
  Whether it has been designed for a particular country or context (Libya in this context). As will explained below with reference to McDonough and Shaw (2003)

6.5.1.2 Proficiency Level

McDonough and Shaw (2003:63) state that "*most materials claim to be aimed at a particular level, such as false beginner or lower intermediate*" and note that this can be somewhat confusing since these descriptions of proficiency may imply different levels in different educational settings. The author of *Learn and Practise English* does not make any explicit statement about which level of learner the book is intended for.

6.5.1.3 Context of use for the materials

McDonough and Shaw (2003:63) distinguish between whether the materials are designed for general learners or for teaching English for specific purposes (ESP). The introduction to the course book makes no claims of this type about its purpose or whether it is designed for specific learners. The title of the book, which is simply *Learn and Practice English*, does not provide any help in this respect.

6.5.1.4 Presentation/organization of language into teachable units/lessons

The course book consists of twenty-two units. Each unit starts by presenting the grammatical point around which the whole unit is organised. The book mentions nothing concerning length of time required for each chapter and teachers are not offered any guidance concerning how to fit the course book into the educational programme (McDonough and Shaw 2003:63). This standard presentation format is used throughout with each unit follows the following organization:

- The **unit title** refers to the grammatical structure to be studied in that chapter
- **Reading passage**
- **comprehension exercise**: Questions based on the reading passage
- **Word study:** a list of the new words occurring in the reading passage
- Presentation of grammatical structure studied in the unit
- Other **exercises** to practise the grammatical rule explained at the beginning of the unit.

See Figure 35 for an example of how the units are organised.

6.5.1.5 The author's views on language and methodology

The author's approach to teaching methodology is one of the most significant criteria in evaluating the ELT materials. The easiest and fastest way to determine this is by looking at the 'blurb' and/or the introduction to the materials (McDonough and Shaw 2003:63). The author does not make any explicit references to his views on language of to the methodology which has been adopted. However, according to McDonough and Shaw the type of syllabus that any course book is based on can be determined simply by examining the contents page (see Figure 36) because this reveals:

> *The underlying principles and assumptions on which the writers have based their materials. At one and the same time, they tell us something both about the approach and the design adopted, thus bringing together principle and practice in a directly observable way (McDonough and Shaw 2003:11).*

Examination of the contents page suggests that Latawish views language as a system and that he believes that learning English consists of learning that

system. The syllabus follows a traditional grammatical approach. This is reflected in the author's description of the book's contents:

> Units one to six deal with the use of **the verb** 'to be'. These units aim to help students to construct **affirmative statements**, yes/no questions, **negatives**, and form information questions. Reading and illustrations are provided whenever they are applicable and needed" (Lataiwish 1998:3).

His focus in the description, as it is in the course book, is on grammatical items above all, and everything else seems to be viewed as of secondary interest.

Other underlying principles which have been applied to the book can also be ascertained from the author's foreword to the book. The aim of the book *Learn and Practise English* as stated directly in the introduction to the book is as follows:

> To help students learn and practise the English language via a variety of exercises: reading textbook-type material in different disciplines, oral exercises, writing tasks and answering test questions (Lataiwish 1998: 2).

One can see that the four language skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) are not to be given equal weighting since the development of aural skills is ignored entirely in the course book. The stated aims of the author suggest that the four skills are to be dealt with separately and there is no attempt at integration.

6.5.1.6 Accompanying materials

Learn and Practise English has been designed to provide the core material for the EFL course and does not have any accompanying materials. McDonough and Shaw (2003:65) highlight the significance of having a teacher's book; some of these provide general teaching hints whilst others may also provide lesson plans of how to teach the materials. Without the teacher's book it may be difficult to work with the student edition. Teacher's books can also provide model answers and answers to exercises which can be helpful for new non-native teachers who may be lacking in confidence. Unfortunately a teachers' book is not provided with *Learn and Practise English*. Nor is there any supplementary workbook which might have been used to provide learners with activities for extra practice of learning objectives outside classroom

contact hours or to offer extension material which could be used in mixed-ability groups to stretch higher ability students.

In addition, it was quite common in the 1980s for audiotapes to be produced to accompany EFL language courses which either provided recordings of all or part of the course book and/or offered extra listening materials. Recorded by native speakers, these were also helpful in cases where there were no native speakers to provide pronunciation models for students. No such accompanying material was provided, possibly due to the costs or difficulties involved in producing this to a professional standard.

6.5.1.7 Inclusion of a vocabulary list/index/list of contents

McDonough and Shaw (2003:65) point out that it is very useful for learners to have an alphabetized vocabulary list which can function as a mini-dictionary for them, especially when they are expected to do out-of-class work and personal study. In *Learn and Practice English*, new vocabulary items are listed immediately after each reading text (see Figure 37 for an example of how Unit Three starts). However, there is no vocabulary list covering all the new lexis for the whole book. A list of irregular verbs is provided at the end of the coursebook for reference purposes.

Figure 11: an example of how Unit Three starts

Moghtadi (2012) makes a good case for the inclusion of visual material in coursebooks, by highlighted the multiple roles which this can play. In addition to supplementing the message of the text in an effective, communicative and interesting manner, they have the ability to communicate information in their own right. They can also provide: "*Another dimension of authenticity through realistic, accurate, and knowledgeable impressions of people, cultural artifacts, places, geographical maps, and scientific and mathematical objects*". (Moghtadi 2012: 45).

Last but not least they can be a useful motivational aid, stimulating visual and cultural interest in students, creating "*a more immediate impact on the viewer than a piece of text could ever do*".(Moghtadi 2012: 45).

One key aspect of *Learn and Practise English* which drew my attention when using it with students is the lack of visual materials in the form of photographs, charts, or diagrams. I have found that visual materials can be used to create useful contextual clues for learners. Looking at visual materials and making comments on them or asking students to interpret them, helps with the learning process.

However in *Learn and Practise English* only a handful of black and white line drawings are used sparingly and there is only one coloured illustration in the whole book (Figure 37 above) which is used with an exercise practising prepositions. Whilst their Libyan counterparts from the early 1980s might have been used to textbooks which were sparsely illustrated or text-based only, these students have been taught at secondary level using English for Libya (Philips et al., 2000). These EFL textbooks are crammed with visual information throughout. In terms of first impressions, most, if not all, students find the lack of visual material in the course book off-putting.

6.5.2 Internal evaluation: (micro-evaluation)

Whilst the previous section focused mainly on the form of the course book, the emphasis here lies in evaluating the content of *Learn and Practise English* using criteria created by Cunningsworth (1995).

6.5.2.1 Knowledge of grammar

Even in communicatively oriented teaching, it is important to examine which grammatical elements are included in a course book in order to assess the extent to which they match up to the needs of the learners. Cunningsworth argues that:

It is the effective teaching of grammar that distinguishes a true language course from a phrasebook and it is an understanding of and an ability to use grammar that equips learners with the ability to create their own utterances and use language for their own purposes (1984: 15).

Thornbury emphasises that grammar is important, but it should not be the goal of teaching and the focus on form alone is insufficient (1999: 25). Thornbury (1999:1) notes that a good course book presents grammar as the study of "*linguistic chains and slots*", that is, it explains how words are chained together in a particular order and also makes it clear which kinds of words can slot into which links in the chain.

Thornbury (1999:1) argues that grammar can be thought of as a device for making meaning, and therefore a course book should provide learners with the specific forms they will need to express particular functions, not including certain items of grammar just because they are possible or exist in the language. To use an extreme example, although students of English literature would be expected to recognise the use of archaic pronouns such as 'thou' and 'thee' in Shakespearean sonnets, these forms would be of no practical value to the student group in question. However, given that many of the students in that group will need to read scientific papers written in English and that conventionally these have been written in the passive voice. One might expect this tense to be introduced before Unit Seventeen

According to Cunningsworth (1984: 15) it is important to note whether the language is presented as a closed grammatical system or a communicative system. In the latter case, this implies that it would be presented in a context of use which forms an integral part of a pattern of social behaviour. He asserts that the forms of the language have to be selected according to the different functions which need to be expressed, for example, the following forms can be used as functions to express that others are not obliged to do something:

You don't have to...

It's not obligatory for you to ...

It's not compulsory for you to...

There's no obligation to ...

You needn't...

It's up to you.

You're free to choose.

It's completely voluntary.

Therefore, in a course book which is looking at functions, these forms could be grouped together because they are different ways of conveying the same meaning.

It is useful to consider whether the language items being taught are presented solely or predominantly as form or whether the function of these language items is also taught. In the former case, it is likely that "*the material will concentrate on helping the learner to produce grammatically correct sentences without too much concern for how these sentences would be used*" (Cunningsworth 1984: 15).

The way in which language forms are presented is important. In normal real-life communication, the sentences formed by language users do not simply occur as isolated bits of language. Whether in spoken or written form, sentences are related to each other in terms of their meanings and functions. However in *Learn and Practise English* sentences are often presented as single unconnected units in a non-authentic fashion; the exercises often follow a similar approach. Thus, for instance, in Unit One:

Examples:

1.	Adam is a student.	He is a student.
2.	Mary is a nurse.	She is a nurse
3.	The cat is small.	It is small.
4.	Peter and I are friends.	We are friends.
5.	Sandy and Harry are in class.	They are in class.

It can be useful to initially present a new grammatical point in the context of an artificially created narrative text. This is what we see in Unit Seven (see Figure 35 above) where the grammatical item (present tense simple form) is presented in the context of the reading passage so that learners see the various persons of the verbs in use before these are formally presented and explained. However these new grammatical forms are not reinforced by using other language skills, for example by asking students to listen to conversation to hear how people use these in real-life situations. There are no writing activities.

Analysis of the units in *Learn and Practise English* reveals that learners are not taught patterns of communicative interaction, as evidenced by the fact that sentences in each unit throughout the whole book are introduced in isolation from each other in meaning and function, which would not be the case with authentic natural language.

Ur (1996: 76) observes that: "*The teaching of grammatical meaning tends, unfortunately, to be neglected in many textbooks in favour of an emphasis on*

accuracy of form". This is one of the shortcomings of this course book which focuses on the teaching of language forms to the expense of language function and communicative interaction. The title of each unit refers only to the grammatical rule covered in that chapter which reflects the approach adopted by the author and the emphasis of the course book. Each unit focuses on the structural aspect of the language, in particular the grammatical points. It does not aim at teaching meaning or function.

6.5.2.2 Knowledge of Vocabulary

Cunningsworth (1984) has claimed that:

> *Sustained communication is virtually impossible without access to a relevant and fairly wide range of vocabulary. It is often asserted with some truth that, particularly at lower levels, students can communicate more effectively with knowledge of vocabulary than with knowledge of grammar.*

The coursebook *Learn and Practise English* presents the new lexical words in a reading text, and then provides this list separately in the unit. The problem with these vocabulary lists is that they are below the level of the students who are supposed to have studied eight years of English structure. The coursebook also does not include any additional vocabulary-learning activities. In addition it does not aim to teach students the strategies which will help them to deal with any unfamiliar or new words they will encounter in their specific field. (ibid: 83). Moreover, the vocabulary need to be related to the domains they need or are likely to use which is discussed in Chapter Three (mainly the role–based domain).

The shortage of visual materials means learners lose any advantages of finding new vocabulary in a visual context which would help them work out the meaning and make it clearer and easy to remember. Finally the coursebook does not include activities that familiarise the students with the structure of the English vocabularies and the different relationships that exist within it such as semantic relations, collocations, etc. (Cunningsworth 1995: 38).

6.5.2.3 Knowledge of phonology

EFL course books need to teach phonology, providing support which emphasises areas of pronunciation that are important to meet learners' needs and help avoid misunderstanding. This teaching of phonology should be integrated with other language items and skills, providing pronunciation practice in a context. New ELT trends aim to help learners to recognise and

practise sounds in context, teaching them pronunciation by using reading texts or by listening to a text.

Cunningsworth (1995: 41) identifies the need to consider both global aspects of phonology (for example, weak forms, stress, intonation and rhythm) as well as focusing on the reproduction of individual sounds because both these elements are required if a speaker is to produce speech that sounds natural. However, since the course places a very low emphasis on the spoken production of English, *Learn and Practise English* does not aim to teach any knowledge of phonology.

6.5.2.4 Grading and sequencing of the materials

In this section, the syllabus that the author has followed to construct his materials will be discussed. As previously discussed, various types of language syllabuses exist, each being based on different views of language and learning. The grammatical or structural syllabus is organized around the grammatical system of the language. It is based on the structural theory of language which views language as a system and sees learning a language as learning the rules of that system. Situational and functional syllabuses are based on the functional theory of language which views language as a social phenomenon used for communication. It posits that once a learner has learnt these situations and functions, they can communicate in real-life situations. Other types non-traditional or communicative syllabuses include the task-based syllabus, the topic-based syllabus, the lexical syllabus, and the skills syllabus. All of these syllabuses and how their designers view language and learning together with an analysis of their shortcomings have been discussed in Chapter Four.

The designer of *Learn and Practise English* follows a structural syllabus, meaning that the grading and sequencing move from simple structures to more difficult ones. This can be seen from the Table of Contents which shows the structures to be taught and the sequence in which they are to be delivered:

Table of contents		Page
Introduction		
Unit one	Be, subject pronouns, and plural	4-7
Unit two	Demonstratives and numbers	8-11
Unit three	Prepositions (in, on, between etc)	12-17
Unit four	Present Progressive	18-22

The problem of grading and sequencing materials around a grammatical syllabus lies in the fact that grammar is context-free. As the title of this course book suggests, it aims to present these linguistic forms and provide practice them, whilst learners, on the other hand, will learn how to master these forms by practising them. However, they will be learning them without paying attention to the social meaning and use of these forms. Another key disadvantage of the structural syllabus is that the needs of learners as communicators are not reflected in the way structures are presented in the syllabus. For example, in the structural syllabus, statements and questions are introduced to the learners at different stages in spite of the fact that in real conversations, we usually tend to unconsciously link questions and answers. In fact, as Bell (1981: 53) argues "*the skilful use of language demands the ability to use and comprehend grammatically mixed forms*" (Bell, 1981: 53).

6.5.2.5 Teaching skills

Another important aspect that we should consider in the course book we are evaluating is the extent which the material teaches the skills in an integrated way, that is, the extent to which the course designer introduces all four language skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking.

In real live interaction, the productive skills (speaking and writing) and the receptive skills (listening and reading) are used in an integrated way; we rarely use them in isolation in the real world outside the classroom (McDonough and Shaw 1993: 203) They also argue that in our daily interactions we are continuously required to undertake tasks that involve natural integration of various language skills. So for instance, if students attend a lecture and take notes this integrates the skills of listening and writing. Speaking on the telephone requires us to integrate the skills of listening and speaking and may sometimes require the speaker to also write down information or possibly read back information. Filling in a form entails reading and writing. Providing students with tasks that require integration of the skills can also prove to be more motivating as they see the value of performing meaningful task and activities

This has two implications for what we would hope to find in a course book. As a minimum requirement, the course book should reflect an attempt at a balanced development of the four language skills. Ideally, materials should

teach and test these skills in an integrated way in order to make the students communicatively competent in the L2 (Brown 2001: 232). In the following sub-sections, each of the skills is examined separately but this is always with a mind to the overall contribution they make to the course book and whether they are linked to other skills.

6.5.2.5.1 Reading

McDonough and Shaw (2003: 89) emphasise the importance of reading as a skill, arguing that: "*in many instances around the world […] reading is the most important foreign language skill, particularly in cases where students have to read English material for their own specialist subject but may never have to speak the language.*"

It is worth noting that whereas in the 1980s when the current English language syllabus used with non-English major was introduced in Libya (this coursebook is mainly based on it and used to implement) it may have been the case that students needed only to read discipline-specific material, as the sociolinguistic profile suggests, it is now highly likely that in the professional domain, at the very least, students will be required to also speak the language competently.

Modern course book authors usually provide different types of reading materials intended to motivate learners and match their needs. These can include newspaper and magazine articles, e-mails, advertisements, train and bus timetables, prescriptions, etc. These authentic materials are usually graded to suit their level; even beginners can be presented with menus, timetables, signs and basic instructions (Harmer 2003: 69)

Reading, like listening, is normally categorised as a receptive skill, defined by Harmer (2001: 194) as the way "*in which people extract meaning from discourse they see or hear*". He also notes that in our daily life, we read by employing our previous knowledge in order to comprehend whatever we are reading. In addition to that, we employ a number of different receptive skills depending on the basis of our purpose for reading. Therefore modern trends in teaching receptive skills call for this process to be replicated inside the classroom.

McDonough and Shaw (2003: 92) note that good readers need to be flexible enough to interact differently with different types of texts, choosing

"*appropriate reading strategies depending on the particular text in question*".
Harmer (2003) has identified these strategies or sub skills of reading as:

- *Identifying the topic*
- *Predicting and guessing*
- *Reading for general understanding (skimming)*
- *Reading for specific information (scanning)*
- *Reading for detailed information*
- *Interpreting texts*

This emphasises the need when teaching reading skills to teach learners how to acquire a range of strategies which can assist them while reading either inside or outside the classroom.

The same basic presentation style for reading material is used in most of the units. Each unit starts with a non-authentic written text written by the author himself which is invariably used simply as a contextual vehicle for the purpose of introducing the new grammatical items and vocabulary in the. The written text is typically read aloud by the teacher two or three times. Students are then asked to read the list of vocabulary items provided for study. This is followed by comprehension questions about the passage which can be guessed from the text without any need for real understanding. A number of vocabulary and grammar exercises are then presented. The discourse in all the reading texts, which are generally of a uniform length, takes the form of narrative and description. *Learn and Practise English* does not aim to provide learners with different text types of the kind they are likely to encounter in their everyday life. It does not include any authentic texts. Moreover, the author ignores the many different genres[25] of texts that we may encounter in our daily lives.

Material should include different texts using varieties of styles: an email to a friend is not written in the same way as a set of instructions for operating a machine. Dublin and Olshtain (1986:30) emphasize that: "*Variety of text types might be very significant in exposing students to the types of texts they will most probably encounter beyond and outside the course.*" The other

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[25] According to the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, a genre is:

A type of discourse that occurs in a particular setting, that has distinctive and recognisable patterns and norms of organization and structure, and that has particular and distinctive communicative functions. For example: business reports, news broadcasts, speeches, letters, advertisements, etc. (2002:224).

problematic aspect of the course book is that it makes no attempt to teach reading strategies such as scanning, skimming, etc.

6.5.2.5.2 Listening

Brown (2001: 259) has identified the following listening strategies which can be developed to help EFL learners understand different types of spoken English spoken both inside and outside the classroom:

- Looking for key words.
- Looking for nonverbal cues to meaning.
- Predicting a speaker's purpose by the context of the spoken discourse.
- Associating information with one's existing cognitive structures (activating background information).
- Guessing at meanings.
- Seeking clarification.
- Gist listening.

The new trends in course book design encourage students to develop these listening sub-skills by engaging the learners in three types of listening activities: pre-listening activities, listening activities and post-listening activities (McDonough and Shaw 2003: 128).

If, in principle, the objective of listening comprehension practice in the language classroom is that students should learn to function successfully in real-life listening situations, then, as Ur observes:

> *It would seem not very helpful to base listening exercises mainly on passages that are read aloud and followed by comprehension questions, when we know that very little of the discourse we hear in real life is read aloud, and we do not normally respond by answering comprehension questions (1996: 107).*

There are a number of problems with the way listening is taught in the course book. Listening is practised throughout the course book only by listening to the teacher reading out short texts or dialogues loudly, clearly and slowly. Since there is no recorded material, students using the course book will be listening solely to their teacher reading the texts or the dialogues. They are not exposed to a range of voices which would be the case in any real-life professional situation. Moreover, providing an artificial reading text to be read aloud by the teacher is not authentic. In real life, spoken text is very often spontaneous and it will therefore include features such as the use of contracted forms, hesitation, repetition, paraphrasing, redundancy, etc. (Ur 1999: 106). To cope with at least some of these features of everyday spoken

discourse, listening activities "*should give learners practice in coping with at least some of the features of real life situations*" (Ur 1996: 107)

Learn and Practise English does not provide learners with any variety in terms in tasks and activities nor make any attempt to teach listening strategies. This approach is boring and demotivating as it bears no resemblance to the situation students will encounter outside the classroom.

6.5.2.5.3 Speaking

If a course book and a language programme want to make learners communicatively competent in English as a second or foreign language, speaking skills should play a large part in this overall competence. From the point of view of the learner "*Of all the four skills […], speaking seems intuitively the most important: […] many if not most foreign language learners are primarily interested in learning to speak*" (Ur 1991: 120).

McDonough and Shaw (2003: 133) rightly observe that: "*Speaking is not simply the oral production of written language, but involves learners in the mastery of a wide range of sub-skills, which, when added together, constitute an overall competence in the spoken language*". The learners of EFL at the University of Benghazi will need to speak in various situations especially with the rise of English as an international language. As English language in Libya is growing fast and playing an active role in a large number of domains, there is a growing need for Libyan learners to speak English and interact in a number of various situation. They may need it for job requirements, academic purposes such as participating in international conferences or communicating with their foreign teaching staff, or for travelling abroad. We expect the materials used to teach English language communicatively and effectively to meet the learners' needs.

Although as Thornbury (2005: iv) notes: "*Research – and common sense- suggests that there is a lot more to speaking than the ability to form grammatically correct sentences and then to pronounce them*", this does, in fact, appear to be the approach adopted in *Learn and Practise English*. No attempt is made to include or aim to teach this skill communicatively and fulfil the needs of the learners who may want to learn English for many reasons.

Learn and Practise English does not include any activities or tasks that stimulate speaking skills. At the most, students might be encouraged to read out aloud the texts or the few conversations and dialogues scattered throughout the book, taking roles in turns (see Figure 38).

Figure 12: Unit five example of speaking activities

6.5.2.5.4 Writing

McDonough and Shaw (2003:155) assert that current trends in ELT call for attention to real world language and identify a broad range of types of writing for various purposes that we use in our daily lives including: a shopping list, telephone messages, letter to a friend, birthday card, emails, taking notes from a book, reminders, a meeting agenda, invitations, filling in official forms, letter requesting tourist information, an essay, business letter, drawing a map or diagram, etc.

They also reproduce White's framework (1988 cited in McDonough and Shaw 2003: 155) which provides a more detailed classification of the types of writing:

Table 15: Classification of writing types (Hedge 1988 cited in McDonough and Shaw 2003: 155).

TYPES OF WRITING				
PERSONAL WRITING		**PUBLIC WRITING**	**CREATIVE WRITING**	
Diaries		Letters f: Enquiry	Poems	
Journals		Complaint	Stories	
Shopping lists		Request	Rhymes	
Reminders to oneself		Form filling	Drama	
Addresses		Applications (for membership)	Songs	
Recipes			Autobiography	
SOCIAL WRITING		**STUDY WRITING**	**INSTITUTIONAL WRITING**	
Letters		Making notes while reading	Agendas	Posters
Invitations		Taking notes from lectures	Minutes	Instructions
Notes of:	Condolence	Making a card index	Memoranda	Speeches
	Thanks	Summaries	Reports	Applications
	Congratulations	Synopses	Reviews	CV
Cablegrams		Reviews	Contracts	Specification note-making
Telephone Messages		Reports of experiments	Business letters	(doctors and professionals
Instructions To:	Friends		Public notices	
	Family		Advertisements Other	

Looking at these lists of writing tasks, it becomes clear that in real life writing is usually undertaken in response to a demand of some kind. For this reason, writing in EFL ceases to be authentic "*when it is only ever produced for one reader, the teacher, and if its purpose is limited to enabling the teacher to assess the accuracy of the language used*" (White 1988 cited in McDonough and Shaw 2003: 155).

Ideally the teaching of writing skills also involves the need to "*familiarize learners with the way written text is organized in terms of its discourse structure Different kinds of writing have different conventions for their organization and expression, and a course book should cover as many of these as it is appropriate for the level and aims of the learners*". (Hedge 1995: 80). Hedge further observes that writing activities which have whole texts as their outcome relate appropriately to the ultimate goals of those learners who need to write English in their social, educational, or professional lives.

One of the most striking aspects of *Learn and Practise English* is that it makes no attempt to provide balanced coverage of the four language skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking, with spoken and aural skills effectively being ignored in the book. Mention is at least made of speaking in the introduction to the book. However the course book does not provide learners with any exercises involving listening. Moreover, there is no integration of the four skills.

Analysis of *Learn and Practise English* reveals that it does not aim to teach writing skills communicatively. The book focuses on traditional writing activities, namely controlled or guided activities for which learners are provided with an example and are asked to produce sentences in the same way. See Figure 39 as an example of different writing activities. Teaching writing effectively needs to provide students with activities that help them to produce whole pieces of communication, to link and develop information, ideas, or arguments for a particular reader or a group of readers. However, most if not all of the writing activities in the book require only a sentence-length response, and as Hedge (2005: 10) notes: "*successful writing depends on more than the ability to produce clear, correct sentences*".

Figure 13: an example of different writing activities

6.7 Conclusion

The chapter aimed to investigate the suitability and effectiveness of the course book *Learn and Practise English* which is used to teach English language to first year students in various faculties at the University of Benghazi and in other higher education institutions. Its aim was to determine if this course book serves the learners' needs and expectations with regard to the current role of English in the Libyan contexts (as discussed in Chapter Three).

Evaluating a course book involves applying a systematic and principled criteria put forward by different authors and researchers in the fields to make informed judgments about the appropriateness, usefulness, and adequacy of this textbook for this group. *Learn and Practise English* was evaluated at two levels using two criteria: external (macro-evaluation) and internal (micro-evaluation) as proposed by McDonough and Shaw (1993, 2003) and Cunningsworth (1987, 1995).

The course book is not appropriate for the EFL learners at the University of Benghazi. As Sheldon (1988: 245) notes: "*Learners are not taught in a vacuum, but come from somewhere and are proceeding towards specific educational goals and future training*". This course book fails to consider this crucial point. Firstly, it does not build on students' existing language skills and knowledge gained at secondary school level. The mismatch between the communicative integrated syllabus which these students have been exposed to at secondary levels and the traditional grammar-based approach presented to these learners at tertiary level highlights the lack of consistency in "*institutional ideologies on the nature of language and learning*" (Nunan 1992:209) which has proved disconcerting for learners and frustrating for teachers.

Secondly, having been based on a syllabus written in the 1980s, the course book fails to address the needs of contemporary Libyan students and indeed of broader society. The learners' educational goals and also their possibilities of acquiring future training are very different from those of their counterparts in the 1980s, not least because Libya itself is also a very different society, as the sociolinguistic profile of English conducted in this country showed. In their

professional life after graduation, many of these students hope to find work in multinational corporations where English as the language of international business will be the lingua franca. They will need to interact on a daily basis with colleagues and clients using all four language skills in an integrated way. It is highly likely that the ability to communicate orally in fluent understandable English will be prerequisite for the vast majority of those jobs. The course book failure to address development of all four skills in an integrated way is one of its most serious shortcomings. The fact that is also does not help students to develop linguistic strategies for dealing with everyday language is also a major drawback of the course book.

After evaluating the coursebook *Learn and practice English* used with first year students at one of the Libyan universities namely Benghazi University, the researcher concluded that it is inappropriate to be used for several reasons discussed in the chapter. The researcher suggests and recommends another coursebook namely *Cutting Edge* intermediate by Sara Cunningham and peter moor Pearson education Limited (1998), after teaching it in a number of private institutions with adult learners, Cutting Edge will overcome most of the disadvantages of the current one.

The authors of the course claim that: *Cutting Edge intermediate is a course aimed at young adults studying general English at an intermediate level. It provides material for up to 120 hours' teaching, according to how much photocopiable material is used from the teacher's Resource Book. It is suitable for students studying in either a monolingual or multilingual classroom situation.(teacher's resource book: 1998:3).*

As has been mentioned earlier in the chapter the current coursebook *learn and practice English* is based mainly on the grammatical syllabus and we have discussed also in the chapter that new trends in ELT call for the multi syllabus approach which integrates different types of syllabuses and skills see section ???. On the other hand the coursebook cutting edge is based on the multi integrated syllabus apprtaoch. The authors of the book state that:

> *Cutting Edge Intermediate Students' Book has a multi-layered syllabus, which includes a comprehensive grammar and vocabulary syllabus, incorporating systematic work on listening, speaking, reading and writing. It takes an integrated approach to pronunciation, and includes learner-training and revision*

The cutting edge aslo aims at teaching the four language skills in an integrating way, the vocabulary and grammatical points are presented through reading and listening texts. The coursebook also includes large amount of visual materials such as photographs, charts diagrams..etc to help create useful contextual clues for the learners

The researcher recommends to teach this cousrebook after conducting an evaluation process and applying systematic and principled criteria which all needs a further study.

Chapter Seven

Conclusions, recommendations, and implications

7.0 Introduction

According to McKay (1983):

> *… a complete syllabus must include all of the elements of communicative competency: grammatical, social, and rhetorical. Thus, the answer to the question of which approach to syllabus writing is appropriate is clear: all of them are essential. What is needed is more reflection on how to integrate them in a manner that meets the needs of the students and ensures full communicative competency.*

The aim of this chapter is to review the conclusions and major findings reached in previous chapters in order to consider the implications of these with respect to syllabus design for the group of students in Libyan higher education which has been previously specified. It will draw on the analysis of the current role which English plays in Libya conducted in Chapter three and also on the results of the survey which examined the attitudes of Libyan student learners towards English and towards learning this language (Chapter Four). On the basis of these findings an integrated syllabus will be explored as a replacement for the current grammatical syllabus. Finally, the chapter will examine the contributions made by this research and will also suggest areas which might be usefully investigated in future research.

As previously noted, most of the syllabuses and materials currently used for teaching EFL in the higher education system in Libya are still based on traditional approaches to language teaching which place a heavy emphasis on the grammatical and lexical elements of the language. Most of these syllabuses were designed over three decades ago to be used in a very different sociolinguistic and cultural context. At that time in Libya, English existed only within the classroom or lecture hall where it was studied as a compulsory subject at school or university. For the vast majority of those learning EFL there was no immediate need for this language outside the classroom. In addition, possibilities of contact with native speakers from Western countries were virtually nil, and access to English language media was also extremely limited.

When producing these EFL syllabuses, the designers and those who wrote the materials based on the syllabuses included items that they thought would be useful for the students, for example. However, since then there have not only been dramatic changes within Libya but also numerous developments in ELT (Richards 2001:16). Research has brought new understandings of how

students learn and classroom practice has been revolutionised by the arrival of new media technologies. The status of English itself and attitudes towards it around the world have also shifted over the course of those decades. It is now the leading language in international discourse and functions as a lingua franca in many regions and in professional contexts such as science and medicine. Ideally, all of these changes and new developments need to be taken into account when designing a syllabus for teaching English.

Dublin and Olshtain (1986: 1) think that insufficient consideration is generally paid to the study of the fundamental aspects of English course design and to the related area of writing teaching materials. They advise anyone embarking on this task to follow a three-stage method, which begins with what they believe to be the most important step, namely, needs assessment. The second step is to work through the construction of the curriculum and syllabus. The third and final step involves materials preparation.

They also argue that when designing ELT materials it is important to "*gather information about the patterns of language use within the various domains of the society*" and to study "*group and individual attitudes towards English and towards all other language which are used in the setting*" (Dublin and Olshtain 1986: 3). These guidelines served as a framework for the design of this research.

7.1 Reviewing the research questions

This study addressed the following two main area of investigation in order to achieve its purpose:

1. What is the role and value of English in contemporary Libyan society and how has this role evolved over time?

In order to answer the first main question of the study, it is necessary to investigate and study the following areas: When, where, and by whom is English currently used in Libya? What are the activities and forms of English which appear most useful? What attitudes do Libyan university students hold towards learning English, towards the English language and towards those who speak it?

2. Given the role of English in Libya and the attitude of university students towards this language, what are the implications for those involved in syllabus design at university level?

In order to draw implication for syllabus designers at university level we need to find out to what extent do existing ELT materials used at Benghazi University and their underlying assumptions fulfil the needs of Libyan society? To what extent do syllabus designers and curriculum planners in Libya take into consideration the role of English in Libya and its value there?

The two main aims of this study were to determine the role which English plays in Libyan society and to investigate the attitude of Libyan students in higher education towards learning English, the English language, and towards those who speak it as their mother tongue. These aims were addressed in Chapters, Three and Four of this thesis. Chapter One and Two were used to contextualise the Libyan case study which lies at the core of this research. They provided a historical overview of the Libyan educational system and charted the role of ELT within this. The attitude study is in Chapter Four. Chapter Three conducted the results of the socio-linguistic profile of English in contemporary Libya. The evaluation of the materials used to teach English in Libyan university is covered in Chapter Six. The final chapter of this thesis presents the suggested model for syllabus design.

7.2 Summary of the findings

A review of the major findings of this study reveals that English has become the most widely used language of the world in terms of the number of countries where it is used by people as a first, second, or foreign language. In many countries it enjoys the status of an official or co-official language, whilst in others it is used as lingua franca to make communication possible between members of multilingual communities not sharing a native language (Arndt et al. 2000: 212). In addition, its international role in the world of communication, commerce and international business, cultural and social affairs is unrivalled. An increasingly diverse range of individuals wish to learn English for many different reasons, which may vary from personal interest to professional necessity.

With regard to the historical development of TEFL in Libya, research showed that it has had varied fortunes with a spurt of growth in interest during the 1960s and 1970s followed by a period of stagnation in the 1980s when Gaddafi's regime tried to control the spread of English by removing the study of EFL from the whole of the education system due to political reasons. This situation worsened in the 1990s when political relations deteriorated between the regime and the Western countries, particularly the Anglophone America

and the United Kingdom. Finally, in the late 1990s, following the resolution of the Lockerbie case, political relations with the Western powers were restored and TEFL underwent a renaissance.

The Libyan government recognised the important role English plays as an international language and the need for individuals to acquire this either for academic or professional reasons, particularly when Libya was opened up to the international investment. Since then, the status of ELT as an academic profession has markedly improved accompanied by a surge in growth in the private ELT sector. It is still not wholly clear how the aftermath of the events of the Arab Spring will impact on EFL and ELT but current indications are that interest is higher than ever, particularly amongst the younger members of Libyan society (Mohammed 2014: 32).

In 2000, the study of English was introduced by the Libyan Ministry of Education into primary schools for the first time and curriculum reform was carried out at all other levels of education to cope with new trends in language teaching. New EFL materials and an integrated syllabus based on the communicative approach, designed by English native speakers, were employed throughout the school system. Secondary students were taught an ESP curriculum which related to their area of academic specialization. Thus far the higher education sector in Libya remains unaffected by these reforms.

Although English in Libya can be classified as a foreign language learnt as a mandatory school subject and does not enjoy any official status in this expanding country Libya, the range of role it plays and the numbers of learners it has been rapidly growing in various domains over the course of the last two decades.

The first finding of the study is that English in Libya can be classified as a foreign language and may be located within the expanding circle of Kachru's diagram. It does not enjoy any official status and it is not used in governmental issues. It is currently used in a restricted range of domains; however, in the last two decades English it had begun to spread and penetrate the Libyan context in an unprecedented manner. In some domains, such as medicine, higher education, and the oil industry, it is already being used as a second language.

Secondly, with regard to the current sociolinguistic status of English in Libya, it can be classified as a foreign language since it does not enjoy any official status, nor it is used as a lingua franca between Libyan citizens; in some

domains it has acquired the status of a second language in certain domains, such as medicine (between doctors and nurses), in faculties such as engineering and medicine (between the students and the non-Arabic speaking lecturers) and in some industries and work places such as oil companies or foreign companies where many staff are either native speakers of English or English is used as a lingua franca. In other domains such as the interpersonal domain, English is still limited to those who employ code-switching to English for the purposes of suggesting prestige, modernity, superior knowledge, and high class.

Since 2000, the Libyan authorities have placed increasing emphasis on English by improving its status in the school system. For the first time in its history, English is now taught from primary level using modern communicative methods and materials based on an integrated syllabus approach. With the introduction of specialist secondary schools, an appropriate ESP curriculum has also been developed.

Further findings from research carried out in the field in Libya revealed that English is now visible in a broad range of locations and was used on street signs, graffiti, restaurants and cafes names and menus. It also appears in advertising and on shop signs and in signs indicating the names of hospitals and institutions. Although the Libyan government initially banned the use of English or any other foreign language in naming any private or public building, property or institution, by the late 1990's English was allowed to name private and public properties and buildings and this marked the spread of English on the high street. The law was introduced in order to permit investment by foreign and international companies on Libyan territory.

Finally, the critical assessment of the EFL syllabus used with first year University students showed that this has been in use since 1980, and needs to be revised to meet the needs of those learners who have graduated from the specialist secondary schools and also to cope with the current active role of English in Libya and on a global scale. The investigation of the syllabus in section 5.5.3 revealed that it is grammatical syllabus which focuses on grammar to the expense of meaning and use. It does not aim to teach other linguistic elements such as functions, topics, skills, vocabulary, pronunciation or the four language skills all of which will be needed by Libyan students

when they start their careers. It also focuses on word and sentence level and ignores discourse.

In addition, the ELT written materials used to implement the previous syllabus have also been evaluated using criteria based on a framework which draws on literature from scholars in the fields which has been widely used to evaluate ELT course books. The findings of the evaluation concluded that the course book *Learn and Practice English*, used widely in Libyan higher education institutions, is inadequate for the current needs of Libyan university students and does not reflect the current role which English plays in Libyan society and therefore needed to undergo major alterations or to be replaced.

A survey was conducted using a five-point Likert scale to determine the attitudes of a sample of Libyan university students (1) towards the English language in general, (2) towards learning EFL, and (3) towards native speakers of English. The results of the questionnaire reveal that their attitudes towards English, towards the learning of EFL and towards its speakers is generally favourable, showing means respectively of 3.3472, 3.2320, and 3.4034. The results also reveal that the university students consider acquiring English to be desirable and view it as being very important for their academic and professional lives; however, they do not rate it more highly than their native language, Arabic.

7.3 Implications for syllabus design

Berns (1992:11) asserts that: *"Knowledge of the setting informs teachers and curriculum designers in their decision-making process and contributes to producing programmes with realistic and relevant goals for learners."* As the findings of Chapter Five revealed, the present EFL syllabus used with first-year university students in Benghazi is a purely a grammatical syllabus, dating back to the 1980s, and is in desperate need of major revision. This syllabus, like most the EFL syllabuses at the University of Benghazi, was designed by the staff of the English department there over three decades ago and no longer reflects current theory and practice in ELT. As a structural grammar-based syllabus it emphasises language as a closed system of grammatical items. It is based on the assumption that learning the language involves learning a system and that once learners have acquired these grammatical rules, they will be able to transfer them to language use.

Analysis also showed that the teaching materials used to implement this syllabus include some reading and writing skills but the overwhelming

emphasis is placed on grammar exercises which make up the majority of the course book.

The most important reason for considering reform or revision of the current English syllabus is that it is out of step with the current role of English in Libya today. In addition, it is no longer matches the needs of the new generation of university students who have graduated from specialist secondary schools and have studied English materials which were designed specifically to reflect the current role English plays in Libyan society and the needs of students who can expect to work in international companies in different sectors and industries.

7.4 The integrated syllabus approach

Chapter Five discussed the different types of syllabuses which Richards (2011: 160) identified as follows:

> The **grammatical syllabus:** which consists of a list of grammatical structures such as present simple, present continuous, past simple….
> The **situational syllabus:** which is based on different real life situations in different contexts such as at a restaurant, in the airports.
> The **functional/notional syllabus:** which includes functions such as agreeing, inviting, and apologizing.
> The **lexical syllabus:** which is based around vocabulary and lexis such as vocabulary related to topics art, clothes, crime) (Harmer 2001: 297)
> The **topic-based syllabus**: which is organised around different topics such as sport, weather…
> The **task-based syllabus:** which focuses on learning tasks such as reading a map, doing scientific experiment (Ur 1996: 179)
> The **skill syllabus:** is designed around the different underlying abilities that are involved in using the language, such as reading for gist, guessing words from contexts

After assessing the strengths and weaknesses of these syllabuses, it was concluded that the current trends in syllabus design call for the introduction of an integrated syllabus, which combines the best features of each type of syllabus, interweaving a number of language components and language skills together in a systematic way, to achieve a syllabus which best matches the needs of the learners.

McKay (1983: 79) supports the use of an integrated syllabus, asserting that each type of syllabus reflects a significant and unique aspect of communicative competency. Krahnke (1987: 75) argues that the ability to function communicatively has been proved to be the most desired outcome for university student learning a second language. He also supports the use of an integrated syllabus on the grounds that evidence from research has demonstrated that using such a syllabus provides learners with a variety of

ways to acquire functional ability rather than putting the emphasis solely on structural knowledge.

Dubin and Olshtain (1986: 38) also conclude that the best syllabus designs draw on different types of syllabuses, combing these "*in an eclectic manner in order to bring about positive results*." In this opinion, this matches current trends in the communicative approach to curriculum and syllabus design which presents units and concepts that are united and based on a continuous process of communication and negotiation in the target language.

Harmer (2001: 299) is also a supporter of an integrated approach as a solution to the problem of choosing one syllabus, given that each has both its advantages and drawbacks. He refers to as a "multi-syllabus" approach and suggests:

Instead of a programme based exclusively on grammatical or lexical categories, for example, the syllabus now shows any combination of items from grammar, lexis, language functions, situations, topics, tasks, different language skill tasks or pronunciation issues.

Krahnke (1987: 86) cautions against what might be called a 'pick and mix' approach to syllabus design and differentiates between **combination** and **integration**. The former approach involves "*the inclusion of more than one type of syllabus with little attempt to relate the content types to each other*." Integration, on the other hand, requires "*some attempt […] to interrelate content items*." He concludes that an integrated syllabus is preferable since: "*instruction that reinforces and relates various syllabus and content types is probably more effective than instruction that is divided into discrete compartments*."

Producing an integrated rather than a combined syllabus, then, requires a systematic approach towards syllabus and materials design which presents a challenge to designers in terms of assessing potential weaknesses of the different types of syllabuses discussed in Chapter Five. Richards et al. (2002) stress the need to attempt to: "*provide for mutual reinforcement between the different components of the syllabus*."

The syllabus design process also involves carefully considering how best to integrate the different approaches to syllabus design in order to satisfy different learners' needs.

McDonough and Shaw (2003: 12) give the following example of a multi-syllabus item focused on travel which has been constructed by drawing on several different principles of language learning and then interweaving these in a structured fashion:

Talking about holidays

Requesting information

Question forms

At the travel agent

Listen and role play

Intonation practice

Harmer also explains how designers can go about constructing a multi-syllabus. In practice, most multi-syllabus designs begin with a grammatical syllabus which serves as a framework or a skeleton. The designers then start to flesh out this skeleton by matching the items on this grammatical list with other components they wish to include such as functions, tasks, skills and vocabulary. He notes the need for a process of adjustment:

> *As the process goes on, the original order of the grammar syllabus will have to change to accommodate of the other claims; the list of functions will shift around to accommodate the grammar, and the tasks will have to take account of the language at the students' disposal for the performing of those tasks. No one element predominates; all have to shift to accommodate the others, and the end result is always a compromise between the competing claims of the different organising elements*

The recommendation, then, for addressing the problems with the existing current grammatical syllabus that is used with first year university students is to integrate this with other elements, instead of using it as the only organising principle. Syllabus designers in the English department who are responsible for providing English syllabuses for other departments and faculties need to take the current grammatical syllabus into consideration and itegrate it with other language components such as functions, lexis, topics, tasks, and skills. At the same time, these syllabus designers should not lose sight of the other findings of this research regarding student attitudes and the socio-cultural status of English in Libya, and the latter will be the starting point in the revised syllabus instead of starting with the grammatical elements, the syllabus start with the domains of use discussed in chapter three.

According to McDonough and Shaw (2003: 46), creating the multi-syllabus depends on merging two main approaches (see Figure 40). The first views language in use and includes aspects such as functions, skills, and context, whilst the second views language as a system consisting of linguistic items which includes elements of grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary. If these

are carefully and creatively integrated they produce a multi-syllabus that is able to: "*build on a range of communicative criteria at the same time as acknowledging the need to provide systematic practise in the formal properties of language.*"
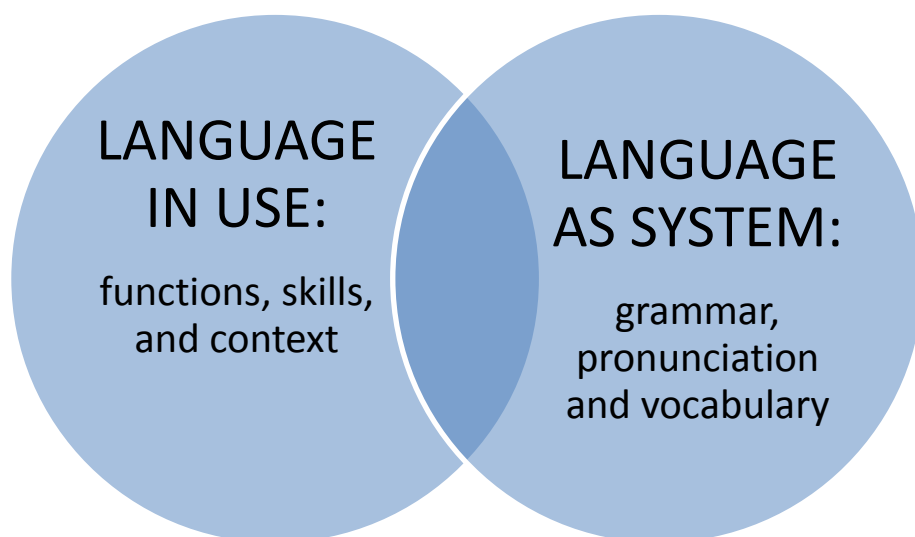
Figure 14: Creating the multi-syllabus

7.5 Creating the integrated syllabus at the University of Benghazi

The following section focuses on how the various elements of different syllabuses and approaches can be integrated in practice. As previously stressed, it is important to take into consideration the learners' perspective and the socio-cultural context in which they will be likely to use English. Far (2008) highlights that one of the main advantages of this approach to syllabus design, in addition to its flexibility, is its responsiveness to different students language needs. In this respect, Swan's (1985: 79) description of what needs to be taken into consideration when deciding what to teach to a particular group of learners, can be turned into a useful checklist for a student-centred multi-syllabus which also considers domains of use:

- Which key **functions** do learners need to be taught to operate?
- Which basic **notions** do they need to talk about?
- Which specific **situations** do they need to communicate appropriately in?
- Which **topics** do they need to discuss?
- Which **phonological problems** are they likely to face?
- Which are the high priority **structures** they need to master?
- Which core **vocabulary** do they need to acquire?
- Which core **skills** do they need to acquire?

A further dimension can be added to this by thinking about this checklist in terms of **interpersonal, academic** and **professional, and public** domains and to start the syllabus with them. Therefore, the ELT syllabus designers in Libyan university need to decide where do the target group need to use the language(domains) and then when and how they need to use it with within each domain.

7.5.1 Vocabulary in the integrated syllabus

McDonough and Shaw (2003: 47) note that in a multi-syllabus "*it is unusual to find merely a list of words to be learned by rote: the multi-syllabus concept means that vocabulary is selected according to the other dimensions on which the materials are built*." Currently, however, the teaching approach in the course book, as is common in the Arab world, is for students to rote learn lists of individual items of vocabulary which are often unrelated or only loosely related.[26] As a result their knowledge often only operates at a word-for-word equivalence level, meaning they often fail to make connections when words appear in different contexts and are often not aware of the fact that a change in meaning may result from different collocations. In the multi-syllabus, vocabulary can be linked, for example, to situations (situational syllabus), topics (content-based syllabus), functions and notions (functional/notional syllabus), tasks (task-based syllabus) or to skills (skills syllabuses).

7.5.2 The place of grammar within the integrated syllabus

Swan (2001: 175) claims that, in the last two decades, research and practice in communicative language teaching has suggested that grammatical structures are more effectively learnt by embedding these into other elements of the language course, rather than singling grammar out as a discrete aspect and treating it separately. This is, of course, the underlying principle of the multi-syllabus.

Currently, like course book based on traditional syllabuses, language is viewed as a closed system of grammatical items, which once acquired, will produce fluency in the language. The actual syllabus consists of a list of isolated grammatical items including: Verb to be, present simple, present

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[26] For more on the dominant styles of learning in the Arab world, see Kathleen M. Bailey and Ryan M. Damerow "Research on the teaching and learning of English in the Arabic-speaking world" in Kathleen M. Bailey and Ryan M. Damerow (eds) *Teaching and Learning English in the Arabic-Speaking World* (Routledge, Oxford 2014), pp.1-13.

continuous, past simple, etc. As a result, the grammatical syllabus is not linked to any other language skills and tends to operate only at the word and sentence level. Grammatical points are not meaningfully linked to notions, functions or situations and they are rarely practised in a real-world setting. Outside of the brief texts and dialogues, they are usually presented without any context as a series of mechanical exercises requiring, for example, the transformation of a singular noun into a plural noun, and vice versa. However, by simply relating this structural variation to a real-life context, for example, reading a list of ingredients, preparing a shopping list or placing an order for supplies by email or telephone, the student would be able to practice mastering the same point in non-mechanistic fashion.

7.5.3 Integrating language skills communicatively

Brown (2001:232) has noted that: "*ESL curricula and textbooks around the world tend to focus on one or two of the four language skills, sometimes to the exclusion of the others.*" This is very much the case in the current course book, where the emphasis is on reading and writing, to the virtual exclusion of speaking and listening. He makes the case for syllabus designers adopting a "*whole language approach*", rather than focusing on the teaching of one skill, on the grounds that "*production and reception are quite simply two sides of the same coin; one cannot split the coin into two.*" *The new integrated syllabus and teaching materials also need to "emphasize real meaningful communication*" (Imssalem 2001: 121) in terms of skills which means that linguistic interactions invariably entail "*sending and receiving messages*" (Brown 2001:232). As in real-life, those messages should also be aimed at a specified audience for a specific reason.

Exercises of the type "Write five sentences about this picture" should <u>not</u> feature in the new course book. Instead, thought needs to be given to providing a meaningful context for skills. For example, if the objective is to practice "There is/are" + prepositions" as in the current course book, students could be presented with a picture showing a laboratory workbench which presents very obvious health and safety hazards. Students are given a brief: "*In your role as laboratory supervisor, you must produce a five-point memo to alert the new laboratory assistant to the problems in the laboratory*". The sentences could be of exactly the same complexity of those currently used in the course book i.e. "*There is a rat under the table*" and "*There are two oranges on the table*" or considerably more sophisticated for more advanced learners: "*Animals should not be brought into the laboratory*" or "The consumption of food in the laboratory is strictly forbidden".

Grammatical structures can thus be linked to lexical items if needed, integrated into a situation, or function and interwoven into communicative context providing meaningful skill-based communication.

7.6 The suggested (integrated) EFL syllabus

The design of the suggested integrated EFL syllabus to be used with first-year students at the University of Benghazi will reflect the shifts in ELT which have taken place since the original syllabus was written, in the 1980s. The suggested syllabus will take the three macro-domains discussed in chapter three as the starting point instead of the current grammatical syllabus used with first-year university students. In terms of grammatical structures (GRAMMAR column) the content which is covered is identical to that of the original syllabus. The headings for Table 16 relate to the types of syllabus which have been chosen. Working with the three macro-domains as the "skeleton" the various other syllabuses can be "fleshed out" appropriately. Having established the key topic/notion to be "meeting people", it is relatively easy to match appropriate lexical items, functions, skills and phonological points to serve this topic.

A much greater emphasis has been placed on fully integrating these grammatical structures into a communicative multi-syllabus. The inclusion of listening and speaking skills more closely reflects the socio-linguistic reality of English in the Libyan context. The speaking skills syllabus for the topic of "Occupations", for instance, will require students to be able to talk about jobs (either actual or potential career choices) whilst the syllabus for writing skills ensures that learners are able to produce a CV, part of which involves describing what a job consists of. The syllabus is also vertically integrated to provide a sense of revision and progression. Thus having learned to provide the type of personal information used to fill out an application form, the same type of information is presented in a different format in the CV-writing exercise.

In addition, the syllabus is now more learner-centred, bearing in mind Krahnke's (1987: 79) assertion that "*the choice and design of the syllabus should be affected by various student factors including their goals […], their experience, expectations, and prior knowledge, their social and personality types and the number of students in a given class*". In an ideal world, these are all student factors that should be taken into consideration when deciding what approach to adopt. Given that the goals and needs of first-students from different faculties will undoubtedly vary, the integrated syllabus approach

offers the best way to meet these diverse needs. In addition, first-year University students who have graduated from the new secondary specialist schools have already studied English materials based on an integrated syllabus and this will hopefully be a continuation of what they have studied in their pre-university level.

Another key difference is that the communicative approach which now provides the underpinning for this syllabus which more closely matches the approach which students will have been used to from their earlier studies. This is more likely to enhance motivation as the learners can see a real-life application for the English they are learning.

The syllabus has thus tried to emulate Cunningsworth's (1995: 64) description of the ideal integrated syllabus:

The skills dimension complements the dimension of grammatical/lexical/phonological knowledge and focuses on the ability of learners actually to operate in the language. The emphasis is on linguistic behaviour and on learners' ability to use the language in different situations requiring different skills, sometimes in isolation but more usually together.

7.7 The suggested Syllabus outline

As highlighted in the conclusion of the sociolinguistic profile chapter, English is now the main non-Arab language in Libya. The sociolinguistic profile which followed the model devised by O'Driscoll (1999) analysed the use of languages in all three macro domains: the interpersonal, the role-based and the public. The data gathered from this sociolinguistic profile reveals that the role of English in the Libyan context is expanding at an unprecedented rate mainly in the role-based domain for various reasons, including its central importance in the secondary education system, curriculum reform and the increasing need for English language skills in the academic and work-place environment.

When the researcher began to apply these findings to producing an outline syllabus for use with Libyan university students studying English as non-specialists, it seemed obvious to start with role-based domains. However, in doing so, it soon became clear that in reality that there is often no clear boundary between domains since even in the role-based domain of the workplace, individuals are involved in interpersonal interaction. Therefore although the findings of the sociolinguistic profile presented in Chapter Three concluded that there is no use of English by Libyans in interpersonal domains,

it is clearly appropriate to recognize that proficiency in English in some aspects of the interpersonal should also be reflected in the planned syllabus.

Table 16: The three domains as a framework for the syllabus

INTERPERSONAL DOMAINS	Socialising with non-Arabic-speaking colleagues and friends.
ROLE-BASED DOMAINS	Academia: lectures, seminars, consultations, reading, writing Working environment: interaction with fellow employees/professionals Work as a representative of employer/profession
PUBLIC DOMAINS	At the airport Written news Spoken broadcast news

The table above presents a framework or overview of the content of the suggested syllabus for non-specialist HE students at Libyan universities. It itemises the domains in which they need the English language. The intention is to provide what students will perceive as a more realistic framework for their use of English and to serve as a set of guidelines for syllabus designers, a structure on which they can build detailed content.

The full detailed content is not provided here, because it would take us too far away from the main focus of this thesis, which is about what the students need, not how to teach it to them. The framework covers only the first two items on the fit-for-purpose checklist found in 5.5.1. However, examples are presented below of possible detailed content for each macro-domain.

In keeping with the communicative, integrated approach to syllabus design explained in Chapter Five, each syllabus example below lists a series of items under different categories. These are, firstly, the functions which the learners need to be able to perform within the given domain (see 5.4.1.3), and then the notions they need to handle and the topics they need to be able to talk about to perform these functions successfully (see 5.4.2.2; see also 5.4.1.3 – 'topics' equate to Brown's 'specific notions'). These needs generate the need

for certain specific language skills (see 5.4.2.4) and for active knowledge of particular aspects of English-language form, listed in the categories of grammar and vocabulary. (The syllabus examples do not have a category of 'situations' for the reasons given in 5.4.1.2.3, although each of the domains in the syllabus may to some extent be seen as a cluster of related situations.) Each syllabus example below displays these categories in the aforementioned order (functions → notions and topics → skills → grammar → vocabulary) from left to right because the content of a list on the right is to a large extent generated, although by no means determined, by the content of lists to its left.

7.7.1 THE INTERPERSONAL DOMAIN EXAMPLE: Socialising with non-Arabic speaking friends & colleagues

In the case of **the interpersonal domain,** for example, one possible scenario would involve being invited to have dinner with English-speaking colleagues or being expected to entertain English-speaking visitors to the company. It is envisioned that this type of scenario would lend itself to inclusion at the later stages of the course.

This would entail **functions** such as *inviting and responding to invitations and giving and understanding directions [to a restaurant or someone's home] and some of* **topics and notions**, such as describing times and places, will be chosen accordingly. Other topics such as food and drink easily suggest themselves. . For, **skills**, the learners will need, among other things, to be able to produce and handle *formal and informal invitations in both spoken and written modes. .*

With respect to **Grammar,** these scenarios provide a useful context for the use of modal verbs, particularly the uses of 'would' and imperatives [Take the second road on the right, catch the 33 bus, don't be late!], together with prepositions of place.

FUNCTIONS	TOPICS AND NOTIONS	SKILLS		GRAMMAR	VOCABULARY
		Listening and speaking	Reading and writing		
- Inviting -Responding to invitations -greeting -Offering -Responding to an offer -Arranging to meet -Taking leave -Asking for & giving info about people & places -Asking for clarification of info -Asking for help with English -Giving/ -Responding to - compliments -Giving/ Responding thanks	-Food & drink -The family -Shopping & prices -People's appearance -Relationships -Clothes & personal items -Colours -Resemblance	-Doing adjacency pairs of inviting, offering, complimenting, thanking) -Listening to directions & retaining info (e.g. by notetaking) -Giving feedback - cues (to show understanding or lack of it) -Interrupting (to ask for clarification) Spelling aloud Listening/ responding to personal accounts (about interests, family, possessions) listening to description of people; Asking how to spell something;	-Reading examples of different thank you letters; -Writing a thank you message either email or post letter;	-Modal verbs (esp. would) -Imperatives (for welcomes & directions) -Sequencing adverbials -Prepositional phrases of place -Word order in noun phrases	-Spoken letters of the alphabet Different family relationships: mother, uncle, stepmother, nephew...etc. -Different shopping items and prices -Different adjectives for describing people appearance; -The colours and different types of materials. -Various kinds of clothes and personal items

		identifying objects; describing things and giving their locations; describing and identifying people; talking about possessions; taking about clothes and colours; draw your family tree and talk about members of family; describe someone			

7.7.2 THE ROLE-BASED DOMAIN EXAMPLE: AT WORK

One possible scenario, which seems to involve a person who has just joined an organisation.

FUNCTIONS	TOPICS AND NOTIONS	SKILLS		GRAMMAR	VOCABULARY
		Listening and speaking	Reading and writing		
Introducing oneself; Greeting; Starting a conversation with a stranger; Introducing people;	Basic personal information; Job descriptions	Gist listening to authentic dialogue or conversation; listening for specific information	Recognising abbreviations; reading documents including personal information	Present simple; Wh- questions; statements with the verb 'to be' (am,is,are); Yes/no questions with be; contractions; subject pronouns: I, you, he, she, etc. Possessive pronouns: My, your,	introductions and greetings, names of countries and nationalities
getting and giving personal information		Taking part in sequences of personal introduction	Filling in application forms Correct usage of punctuation and capital letters	Present simple: with do/does. Definite (the) and indefinite article (a, an). Time expressions: at, in, on, around, until , before, Indefinite article with jobs	Different occupations; work place and university
Asking people about their job; describing one's own job; participating in longer conversations;	Occupations	Listening to a description of jobs and daily schedules; participating in longer conversations; Participating in mutli-party	Reading about students with part-time work; reading a CV		

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		briefings			
		Describing work and university; Asking for and giving opinions; talking about daily routines	Writing a CV; Writing a job description		

7.7.3 THE PUBLIC DOMAIN EXAMPLE: At the Airport:

The proposed syllabus for university students will also need to include **the public domain**, so the syllabus designers could include a work-related scenario involving a business trip by plane which includes an airport setting where English is typically used as the medium of expression by ground staff and officials and for public announcements and signs. It is envisioned that this type of scenario would lend itself to inclusion at the earlier stage of the course.

It will be noticed that this scenario is not directly suggested by the investigation of the general public domain in the sociolinguistic profile. However, it is implied by it, in that it is part of the visual impact of English in this domain. In addition, it is a part of the general public domain which these particular students can expect to encounter.

FUNCTIONS	TOPICS AND NOTIONS	SKILLS		GRAMMAR	VOCABULARY
		Listening and speaking	Reading and writing		
Read signs Acting on announcements Checking in Asking for help	Air travel Personal documents	Dealing with situations; Face to face communication; Check in Buying food & drink at a cafe Spelling names Fluency in numbers	Following public announcements at the airports; scanning information board for specific information	Block language in signs Modal verbs (can cannot)	airport terminology such as gate, runway, baggage, flight, delay check point…etc.

The above tables includes an example extract from a suggested syllabus to be used with first year students at the University of Benghazi. Instead of using only a grammatical syllabus (as previously used with these students see 4.5.2), the syllabus now is a multi-syllabus that integrates a number of components to produce the integrated syllabus. We discussed in chapter four that there are a number of different types of syllabuses and each one has some disadvantages when used as the sole organising principle. However, new trends are calling for the multi integrated syllabus, which integrates a number of syllabuses and language skills. Chapter three have drawn the conclusion that English is now the main foreign language in Libya, and it is also categorised as belonging to Kachru's (1992) Expanding Circle. The sociolinguistic profile which followed the model devised by O'Driscoll (1999) analysed the use of foreign languages in three key domains: the interpersonal, the role-based and the public domain. Data gathered form this profile indicates that the role of English in the Libyan context is expanding at an unprecedented rate for several reasons including its central role in the secondary education system, curriculum reform, and the increasing need for English language skills in the academic and workplace domains. The suggested syllabus exemplified above takes these developments into consideration and starts with the domains of use as the organising principle instead of grammatical elements. Although the example includes various kinds of interaction of an interpersonal nature, it is the kind of interaction typical of role-based domains, rather than interpersonal domain, because as chapter three found, interactions in the interpersonal domain in Libya take place entirely in Arabic. Therefore, it is not necessary to teach these students' interactions such as those taking place with family members or in the neighbourhood environment such as when you go shopping since these are not related to what Libyans use English for. So the suggested syllabus, taking the three macro-domains as its starting point and organising principle, will contain a large number of elements and components involving role-based domains, selected according to perceived students' need as well as many from public domains. The skills are also integrated in the above syllabus since and not taught separately in the syllabus.

7.8 Contributions of this research

To date, little research has been conducted on the role of English in the Libyan context, which has been found to be an expanding circle country in terms of Kachru's model, and thus this study makes a useful contribution to the understanding of its role within the context of the development of World Englishes.

The study of student's attitudes towards English, learning EFL and towards native speakers of English also adds to a growing body of work which focuses on learners and

how their personal attitudes can influence their approach to language learning. It will serve as a useful starting point for researchers interested in exploring cross-cultural comparisons of attitudinal factors affecting language learning.

The sociolinguistic profile which was conducted in the field will be of primary use to researchers in various disciplines including sociolinguistics, English Studies, and those developing ELT materials. It could serve as a model (or at least a starting point) for the analysis of learners needs in other countries. Both Kachru's (1988) model and O'Driscoll's (1999) model were used in this study. Both models aim to be comprehensive but they are designed for different purposes and have different focuses.

Kachru's (1988) model focuses solely on English and its spread throughout societies across the globe. Its categories are based on the roles played by English within a society. These different roles offer only a general indication of the particular uses to which English might be put by a person in that society. Therefore, in order to achieve a more detailed picture, a profile of all language-use in that society is necessary. That is why, as a basis for an understanding of the uses of English in the contemporary Libyan context, this study adopts O'Driscoll's (1999) framework. Unlike Kachru, who starts with a language (English) and then asks what it is used for, O'Driscoll (1999) begins by focusing on a specific society and then asks which language is used in which situations within it. His sociolinguistic profile of language-use in Europe is organised according to scales of interaction which are intended to cover the full-range of uses of language. He refers to these scales as domains and identifies three of these: (1) the interpersonal; (2) the role-based and (3) the general public domain. The sociolinguistic profile of this study investigates the use of languages by individuals in these three macro domains in Libya, so that the uses to which English might be put by the student learners of English can be determined.

In general, this framework was found suitable. But it was not perfect. As can be seen, it was not possible to construct all the elements of the syllabus outline (see table 16) directly from the results of the sociolinguistic profile and it was necessary to add an interpersonal domain part to the syllabus, even though the sociolinguistic profile found no consistent use of English in that domain in Libya. Also, the example chosen for the general public domain (airport - see section 7.7.3) does not appear in the profile and this points to a general limitation of O'Driscoll's model. Airports are basically international spaces, so a model which starts with a single society as its frame cannot easily accommodate them. Kachru's model also uses single societies as its objects, so it also has this limitation. Perhaps it would be good to add 'international domains' to O'Driscoll's existing three domains

Since the material was collected at a time of momentous social and political change in Libya and in the Arab world as a whole, it serves as a snapshot of a significant ideological shift not only in Libya but in the region as a whole which means it may be of value to those interested in studying the aftermath of the Arab Spring phenomenon and its impact on Libyan society.

On a practical level, English in Libya is becoming increasingly important for political and economic reasons. As the historical contextualisation demonstrated, Libya's geopolitical position has made it a country of strategic importance since trading first began in the Mediterranean. In the twentieth century, it acquired added importance to Western countries as one of the petroleum exporting nations. In recent years, it has become increasingly obvious that Libya needs to create greater links with other countries if it is to fully exploit its key strategic importance and its natural resources. The international business community with whom it will need to communicate will be using English, either as a first or second language or as an international lingua franca. This new age will require Libyan professionals who are fluent in English.

Since late 90's, Libyan government policy has begun to address this need. It was mandated that English should be introduced from primary stage onwards. This was followed by a curriculum reform of all of ELT syllabuses and materials up to secondary level. However, thus far, the syllabuses and ELT materials used in higher education have remained unchanged. This study is intended to act as a catalyst of change within the university system, highlighting a way forward from the outmoded non-communicative grammatical syllabus which failed to address the needs of learners to an integrated communicative syllabus which will be a powerful motivating source for students, some of the key stakeholders in Libya's future.

7.9 Future research

This study examined the extent of the spread of English in a number of different domains. There is further scope to expand this study in breadth, to examine further domains. Also, given that this fieldwork represents a snapshot in time, there is potential to conduct a comparative analysis of the sociolinguistic profile of English in the post-Arab Spring era.

Since the previous study focused on Benghazi, the second biggest city in Libya, further comparative research is needed to investigate in more detail the role of English in other regions of Libya, including the capital, Tripoli, and the cities of the west of Libya. This would also for comparisons to be made between urban and rural Libya since it is possible that these may reveal significant differences concerning the penetration level of English. This would provide a complete picture of Libyan society which would be invaluable to syllabus designers and course book writers and other bodies that might benefit from this sociolinguistic study.

In addition, other research is needed in this field is to examine a more diverse range of attitudes towards English amongst groups such as primary and secondary school students, parents, employees in different sectors especially the oil industry and amongst those who work in international companies in Libya. I have already commenced a study on this topic using a similar approach to that used in the previous study, examining attitudes towards English in an international oil company based in Libya.

Appendices

<u>Appendix B</u>: Examples of materials used with engineering student in Libyan university

<u>Appendix C:</u> Arabic with English translation in business documents with foreign companies

QUESTIONNAIRE: (ORIGINAL ENGLISH VERSION)

The role of English language in Libya and its implications for syllabus design in Libyan Higher Education

Dear participant:

This questionnaire forms part of a doctoral research project examining t**he role of the English language in Libya and its implications for syllabus design in Libyan Higher Education.** One of the aims of the project is to investigate the attitude of Libyan university students towards the English language in general, including their attitudes towards native speakers of English, and towards learning English as a Foreign Language. The results of this survey will be used only for the purposes of this study. Any personal information which you provide will be kept strictly confidential and your anonymity will be maintained throughout. This questionnaire is not a test and what you write here will not affect you in any way. Your participation is voluntary and is greatly appreciated.

The questionnaire consists of five Sections. Section A asks you to provide some personal information. Section B is about your attitude towards the English language in general. Section C focuses on your attitude towards learning English, and Section D is interested in your opinions about native speakers of English. In Section E, you are asked to briefly state your reason or reasons for studying English.

Section A: Personal information

1. Age: …………………..
2. Gender: ⊙ Male   ◯ Female
3. Faculty: …………………………………
4. How would you rate your level of proficiency in English?

   ◯ Beginner ◯ Intermediate ◯ Advanced

5. At what age did you start to learn English?
6. The place and context you started to learn English:
   Please choose one answer only

As a subject at school	
At home, with the help of parents/family	
At a private language institution	
Born/brought up in an English-speaking country	
Other (specify)	

SECTIONS B-D:

Instructions: There are no right or wrong answers in these Sections. Mark with an X the choice that best reflects your own opinion on each statement.

SA = Strongly Agree

A = Agree

N = Neutral   (neither agree nor disagree)

D = Disagree

SD = Strongly Disagree

SECTION B: ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE	SA	A	N	D	SD
1. I find the English language interesting.					
2. I like speaking English.					
3. I like watching English and American TV channels.					

	SA	A	N	D	SD
4. I prefer English to Arabic.					
5. I believe that being able to speak English enhances my status.					
6. In the future, I plan to put my children in a private English school so that they will learn to speak English fluently.					
7. I have strong ties with my native language and culture.					
8. I feel that English poses a threat to my mother tongue and culture.					
9. I believe that Arabic is more beautiful than other languages.					
10. I think the English language will be very useful when travelling abroad.					

SECTION C: ATTITUDES TOWARDS LEARNING ENGLISH

	SA	A	N	D	SD
11. I feel that learning English is very useful for me.					
12. I dislike learning English.					
13. I would like to learn as much English as possible.					
14. I would rather spend my time studying subjects other than English					
15. I like learning English.					
16. It is of no benefit for me to learn English.					
17. I plan to continue learning English after my obligatory EFL studies at University have ended					
18. . When I leave university, I shall give up studying English entirely.					
19. .I wish I could read magazines and newspapers in English					
20. I think learning English from an early age will have a negative impact on proficiency in Arabic.					

SECTION D: ATTITUDES TOWARDS ENGLISH SPEAKERS

	SA	A	N	D	SD
21. I would like to meet native speakers of English and engage in conversations with them.					
22. I have an unfavourable attitude towards English speakers					

23. I like English speakers.					
24. I think English speakers are dishonest.					
25. In the future, I would like to live in an English-speaking country.					
26. I think English speakers are well educated.					
27. I think English speakers are sociable.					
28. I hope Libya will maintain good relations with English-speaking countries.					
29. I would like to meet as many native speakers of English as possible.					
30. I like watching English-language films that reflect the culture of British and American societies.					

SECTION E: BRIEFLY STATE HERE YOUR REASONS FOR LEARNING ENGLISH

Many thanks for your cooperation.

Appendix E: PROFILE OF RESULTS PER QUESTION BY FACULTY

Item 1: I find the English language interesting.								
FACULTY		**RESPONSE**					**MEAN**	**SD**
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**		
Economics	N	3	10	21	41	36	3.8739	1.05414
	%	2.7%	9.0%	18.9%	36.9%	32.4%		
Arts	N	14	36	50	85	43	3.4693	1.14727
	%	6.1%	15.8%	21.9%	37.3%	18.9%		
Law	N	10	40	36	80	72	3.6891	1.18889
	%	4.2%	16.8%	15.1%	33.6%	30.3%		
Science	N	4	9	24	37	34	3.8148	1.08643
	%	3.7%	8.3%	22.2%	34.3%	31.5%		
Engineering	N	4	13	15	36	34	3.8137	1.14952
	%	3.9%	12.7%	14.7%	35.3%	33.3%		
Medicine	N	0	5	11	40	51	4.2804	.83321
	%	0.0%	4.7%	10.3%	37.4%	47.7%		

Item 2: I like speaking English.								
FACULTY		**RESPONSE**					**MEAN**	**SD**
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**		
Economics	N	2	9	19	50	31	3.6893	
	%	1.8%	8.1%	17.1%	45.0%	27.9%		
Arts	N	16	46	60	65	41	3.1305	1.18381
	%	7.0%	20.2%	26.3%	28.5%	18.0%		
Law	N	18	8	50	102	60	3.6752	1.18381
	%	7.6%	3.4%	21.0%	42.9%	25.2%		
Science	N	5	14	16	39	34	3.8751	1.16496
	%	4.6%	13.0%	14.8%	36.1%	31.5%		
Engineering	N	4	4	13	40	41	3.9903	1.02142
	%	3.9%	3.9%	12.7%	39.2%	40.2%		
Medicine	N	1	5	18	42	41	3.9840	.90630
	%	.9%	4.7%	16.8%	39.3%	38.3%		

Item 3: I like watching English and American TV channels.								
FACULTY		**RESPONSE**					**MEAN**	**SD**
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**		
Economics	N	6	10	18	49	28	3.6434	1.03946
	%	5.4%	9.0%	16.2%	44.1%	25.2%		
Arts	N	34	42	44	69	39	3.4101	1.18964
	%	14.9%	18.4%	19.3%	30.3%	17.1%		
Law	N	20	28	52	80	58	3.5989	1.09723
	%	8.4%	11.8%	21.8%	33.6%	24.4%		

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	MEAN	SD
Science	N	8	16	16	35	33	3.6971	1.09061
	%	7.4%	14.8%	14.8%	32.4%	30.6%		
Engineering	N	7	7	11	41	36	3.8966	1.09576
	%	6.9%	6.9%	10.8%	40.2%	35.3%		
Medicine	N	6	7	14	42	38	3.8942	1.07958
	%	5.6%	6.5%	13.1%	39.3%	35.5%		

Item 4. I prefer English to Arabic.								
		RESPONSE					MEAN	SD
FACULTY		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	N	40	33	29	7	2	2.0811	1.01923
	%	36.0%	29.7%	26.1%	6.3%	1.8%		
Arts	N	102	49	42	22	13	2.1009	1.23581
	%	44.7%	21.5%	18.4%	9.6%	5.7%		
Law	N	94	74	32	30	8	2.0924	1.15464
	%	39.5%	31.1%	13.4%	12.6%	3.4%		
Science	N	21	26	34	15	12	2.7315	1.24260
	%	19.4%	24.1%	31.5%	13.9%	11.1%		
Engineering	N	31	24	35	2	10	2.3725	1.21803
	%	30.4%	23.5%	34.3%	2.0%	9.8%		
Medicine	N	26	26	34	12	9	2.5514	1.21495
	%	24.3%	24.3%	31.8%	11.2%	8.4%		

Item 5. I believe that being able to speak English enhances my status.								
		RESPONSE					MEAN	SD
FACULTY		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	n	3	20	25	33	30	3.6036	1.14637
	%	2.7%	18.0%	22.5%	29.7%	27.0%		
Arts	n	26	41	74	55	32	3.1140	1.19661
	%	11.4%	18.0%	32.5%	24.1%	14.0%		
Law	n	18	30	54	56	80	3.6303	1.27200
	%	7.6%	12.6%	22.7%	23.5%	33.6%		
Science	n	8	14	28	28	30	3.5370	1.23369
	%	7.4%	13.0%	25.9%	25.9%	27.8%		
Engineering	n	6	7	25	32	32	3.7549	1.14698
	%	5.9%	6.9%	24.5%	31.4%	31.4%		
Medicine	n	12	11	31	27	26	3.4112	1.27348
	%	11.2%	10.3%	29.0%	25.2%	24.3%		

Item 6. In the future, I plan to put my children in a private English school so that they will learn to speak English fluently.								
		RESPONSE					MEAN	SD
FACULTY		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	N	2	4	10	26	69	4.4054	.92813
	%	1.8%	3.6%	9.0%	23.4%	62.2%		
Arts	N	2	20	46	59	101	4.0395	1.03814

							MEAN	SD
	%	.9%	8.8%	20.2%	25.9%	44.3%		
Law	N	4	4	22	46	162	4.5042	.86052
	%	1.7%	1.7%	9.2%	19.3%	68.1%		
Science	N	2	3	4	19	80	4.5926	.84319
	%	1.9%	2.8%	3.7%	17.6%	74.1%		
Engineering	N	2	2	11	16	71	4.4902	.90920
	%	2.0%	2.0%	10.8%	15.7%	69.6%		
Medicine	N	1	0	9	25	72	4.5607	.72914
	%	.9%	.0%	8.4%	23.4%	67.3%		

Item 7. I have strong ties with my native language and culture.								
FACULTY		RESPONSE					**MEAN**	**SD**
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	N	2	6	19	30	54	4.1532	1.01083
	%	1.8%	5.4%	17.1%	27.0%	48.6%		
Arts	N	14	8	48	58	100	3.9737	1.16074
	%	6.1%	3.5%	21.1%	25.4%	43.9%		
Law	N	6	14	40	66	112	4.1092	1.04571
	%	2.5%	5.9%	16.8%	27.7%	47.1%		
Science	N	4	5	25	33	41	3.9444	1.06634
	%	3.7%	4.6%	23.1%	30.6%	38.0%		
Engineering	N	5	2	30	19	46	3.9706	1.12976
	%	4.9%	2.0%	29.4%	18.6%	45.1%		
Medicine	N	1	6	23	32	45	3.9706	1.12976
	%	0.9%	5.6%	21.5%	29.9%	42.1%		

Item 8. I feel that English poses a threat to my mother tongue and culture.								
FACULTY		RESPONSE					**MEAN**	**SD**
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	n	42	45	14	5	5	1.9730	1.04846
	%	37.8%	40.5%	12.6%	4.5%	4.5%		
Arts	n	59	82	44	27	16	2.3816	1.19064
	%	25.9%	36.0%	19.3%	11.8%	7.0%		
Law	n	94	94	26	10	14	1.9748	1.09823
	%	39.5%	39.5%	10.9%	4.2%	5.9%		
Science	n	43	34	11	10	10	2.1667	1.30061
	%	39.8%	31.5%	10.2%	9.3%	9.2%		
Engineering	n	49	30	17	3	3	1.8333	1.00576
	%	48.0%	29.4%	16.7%	2.9%	2.9%		
Medicine	n	42	38	17	5	5	2.0000	1.08158
	%	39.3%	35.5%	15.9%	4.7%	4.7%		

Item 9. I believe that Arabic is more beautiful than other languages.								
FACULTY		**RESPONSE**					**MEAN**	**SD**
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**		
Economics	N	3	6	18	22	62	4.2072	1.07125
	%	2.7%	5.4%	16.2%	19.8%	55.9%		
Arts	N	4	14	44	39	127	4.1886	1.05965
	%	1.8%	6.1%	19.3%	17.1%	55.7%		
Law	N	8	18	28	68	116	4.1176	1.09603
	%	3.4%	7.6%	11.8%	28.6%	48.7%		
Science	N	5	8	22	35	38	3.8611	1.12290
	%	4.6%	7.4%	20.4%	32.4%	35.2%		
Engineering	N	6	3	21	17	55	4.0980	1.18162
	%	5.9%	2.9%	20.6%	16.7%	53.9%		
Medicine	N	4	3	24	25	51	4.0841	1.07389
	%	3.7%	2.8%	22.4%	23.4%	47.7%		

Item 10. I think the English language will be very useful when travelling abroad.								
FACULTY		**RESPONSE**					**MEAN**	**SD**
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**		
Economics	N	4	3	1	14	89	4.6306	.92371
	%	3.6%	2.7%	.9%	12.6%	80.2%		
Arts	N	0	2	26	69	131	4.4430	.72786
	%	.0%	.9%	11.4%	30.3%	57.5%		
Law	N	8	0	2	42	186	4.6723	.80199
	%	3.4%	.0%	.8%	17.6%	78.2%		
Science	N	1	0	0	16	91	4.8148	.51425
	%	.9%	.0%	.0%	14.8%	84.3%		
Engineering	N	3	0	3	4	92	4.7843	.76595
	%	2.9%	.0%	2.9%	3.9%	90.2%		
Medicine	N	0	1	0	11	95	4.8692	.41400
	%	.0%	.9%	.0%	10.3%	88.8%		

Item 11. I feel that learning English is very useful for me.								
FACULTY		**RESPONSE**					**MEAN**	**SD**
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**		
Economics	N	1	0	5	17	88	4.7207	.63491
	%	.9%	.0%	4.5%	15.3%	79.3%		
Arts	N	0	6	20	85	117	4.3728	.75475
	%	.0%	2.6%	8.8%	37.3%	51.3%		
Law	N	2	4	8	52	172	4.6303	.70997
	%	.8%	1.7%	3.4%	21.8%	72.3%		
Science	N	1	1	3	22	81	4.6759	.66738
	%	.9%	.9%	2.8%	20.4%	75.0%		
Engineering	N	0	0	2	14	86	4.8235	.43171
	%	.0%	.0%	2.0%	13.7%	84.3%		
Medicine	N	0	0	1	14	92	4.8505	.38372
	%	.0%	.0%	.9%	13.1%	86.0%		

Item 12. I dislike learning English.								
FACULTY		**RESPONSE**					**MEAN**	**SD**
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**		
Economics	N	58	40	8	1	4	1.6757	.92601
	%	52.3%	36.0%	7.2%	.9%	3.6%		
Arts	N	72	101	40	3	12	2.0439	1.01000
	%	31.6%	44.3%	17.5%	1.3%	5.3%		
Law	N	116	98	14	2	8	1.6891	.88825
	%	48.7%	41.2%	5.9%	.8%	3.4%		
Science	N	55	42	6	1	4	1.6759	.91538
	%	50.9%	38.9%	5.6%	.9%	3.7%		
Engineering	N	63	26	8	4	1	1.5686	.87325
	%	61.8%	25.5%	7.8%	3.9%	1.0%		
Medicine	N	71	29	6	1	0	1.4112	.64359
	%	66.4%	27.1%	5.6%	.9%	.0%		

Item 13. I would like to learn as much English as possible.								
FACULTY		**RESPONSE**					**MEAN**	**SD**
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**		
Economics	N	2	3	9	17	80	4.5315	.89259
	%	1.8%	2.7%	8.1%	15.3%	72.1%		
Arts	N	8	18	38	66	98	4.0000	1.11062
	%	3.5%	7.9%	16.7%	28.9%	43.0%		
Law	N	4	12	16	50	156	4.4370	.94256
	%	1.7%	5.0%	6.7%	21.0%	65.5%		
Science	N	1	0	7	19	81	4.6574	.68580
	%	.9%	.0%	6.5%	17.6%	75.0%		
Engineering	N	2	1	5	20	74	4.5980	.79925
	%	2.0%	1.0%	4.9%	19.6%	72.5%		
Medicine	N	0	3	4	14	86	4.7103	.67306
	%	.0%	2.8%	3.7%	13.1%	80.4%		

Item 14. I would rather spend my time studying subjects other than English								
FACULTY		**RESPONSE**					**MEAN**	**SD**
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**		
Economics	N	13	40	40	8	10	2.6577	1.07446
	%	11.7%	36.0%	36.0%	7.2%	9.0%		
Arts	N	12	60	98	43	15	2.9518	.96290
	%	5.3%	26.3%	43.0%	18.9%	6.6%		
Law	N	26	92	96	14	10	2.5378	.91670
	%	10.9%	38.7%	40.3%	5.9%	4.2%		
Science	N	8	32	54	8	6	2.7407	.91069
	%	7.4%	29.6%	50.0%	7.4%	5.6%		
Engineering	N	13	25	50	12	2	2.6569	.91733
	%	12.7%	24.5%	49.0%	11.8%	2.0%		
Medicine	N	18	38	38	6	7	2.4953	1.04947

| | | 16.8% | 35.5% | 35.5% | 5.6% | 6.5% | | |

Item 15. I like learning English.								
FACULTY		RESPONSE					MEAN	SD
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	N	1	5	10	22	73	4.4505	.90190
	%	.9%	4.5%	9.0%	19.8%	65.8%		
Arts	N	8	13	30	88	89	4.0395	1.03389
	%	3.5%	5.7%	13.2%	38.6%	39.0%		
Law	N	4	8	18	68	140	4.3950	.89271
	%	1.7%	3.4%	7.6%	28.6%	58.8%		
Science	N	1	1	7	32	67	4.5093	.74251
	%	.9%	.9%	6.5%	29.6%	62.0%		
Engineering	N	0	2	6	26	68	4.5686	.69667
	%	.0%	2.0%	5.9%	25.5%	66.7%		
Medicine	N	1	2	3	24	77	4.6262	.72063
	%	.9%	1.9%	2.8%	22.4%	72.0%		

Item 16. It is of no benefit for me to learn English.								
FACULTY		RESPONSE					MEAN	SD
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	N	44	45	10	4	8	1.9820	1.13604
	%	39.6%	40.5%	9.0%	3.6%	7.2%		
Arts	N	70	87	40	19	12	2.1930	1.12149
	%	30.7%	38.2%	17.5%	8.3%	5.3%		
Law	N	92	100	28	6	12	1.9328	1.02896
	%	38.7%	42.0%	11.8%	2.5%	5.0%		
Science	N	45	45	10	5	3	1.8519	.96494
	%	41.7%	41.7%	9.3%	4.6%	2.8%		
Engineering	N	44	33	16	4	5	1.9510	1.09343
	%	43.1%	32.4%	15.7%	3.9%	4.9%		
Medicine	N	53	43	7	1	3	1.6729	.86631
	%	49.5%	40.2%	6.5%	.9%	2.8%		

Item 17.I plan to continue learning English after my obligatory EFL studies at University have ended								
FACULTY		RESPONSE					MEAN	SD
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	N	2	3	13	31	62	4.3333	.91784
	%	1.8%	2.7%	11.7%	27.9%	55.9%		
Arts	N	3	30	85	52	58	3.5789	1.04855
	%	1.3%	13.2%	37.3%	22.8%	25.4%		
Law	N	4	8	52	74	100	4.0840	.95978
	%	1.7%	3.4%	21.8%	31.1%	42.0%		
Science	N	2	3	13	33	57	4.2963	.91976
	%	1.9%	2.8%	12.0%	30.6%	52.8%		
Engineering	N	0	2	9	27	64	4.5000	.74129
	%	.0%	2.0%	8.8%	26.5%	62.7%		
Medicine	N	1	1	7	32	66	4.5047	.74446

		%	.9%	.9%	6.5%	29.9%	61.7%		

Item 18. When I leave university, I shall give up studying English entirely.

FACULTY		RESPONSE					MEAN	SD
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	N	57	33	5	6	10	1.9099	1.26167
	%	51.4%	29.7%	4.5%	5.4%	9.0%		
Arts	N	74	80	44	19	11	2.1798	1.12173
	%	32.5%	35.1%	19.3%	8.3%	4.8%		
Law	N	100	106	16	4	12	1.8319	.99212
	%	42.0%	44.5%	6.7%	1.7%	5.0%		
Science	N	54	33	7	5	9	1.9074	1.22693
	%	50.0%	30.6%	6.5%	4.6%	8.3%		
Engineering	N	60	30	6	4	2	1.6078	.91367
	%	58.8%	29.4%	5.9%	3.9%	2.0%		
Medicine	N	63	37	3	3	1	1.5234	.76904
	%	58.9%	34.6%	2.8%	2.8%	.9%		

Item 19. I wish I could read magazines and newspapers in English.

FACULTY		RESPONSE					MEAN	SD
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	n	5	6	6	28	66	4.2973	1.09208
	%	4.5%	5.4%	5.4%	25.2%	59.5%		
Arts	n	16	25	27	82	78	3.7939	1.22261
	%	7.0%	11.0%	11.8%	36.0%	34.2%		
Law	n	6	6	20	68	138	4.3697	.92655
	%	2.5%	2.5%	8.4%	28.6%	58.0%		
Science	n	5	2	17	29	55	4.1759	1.06630
	%	4.6%	1.9%	15.7%	26.9%	50.9%		
Engineering	n	2	3	5	22	70	4.5196	.87575
	%	2.0%	2.9%	4.9%	21.6%	68.6%		
Medicine	n	1	3	6	30	67	4.4860	.80522
	%	.9%	2.8%	5.6%	28.0%	62.6%		

Item 20. I think learning English from an early age will have a negative impact on proficiency in Arabic.

FACULTY		RESPONSE					MEAN	SD
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	n	41	36	18	5	11	2.1802	1.25914
	%	36.9%	32.4%	16.2%	4.5%	9.9%		
Arts	n	53	75	42	26	32	2.6009	1.33519
	%	23.2%	32.9%	18.4%	11.4%	14.0%		
Law	n	68	100	32	14	24	2.2689	1.22352
	%	28.6%	42.0%	13.4%	5.9%	10.1%		
Science	n	34	42	14	12	6	2.2037	1.16618
	%	31.5%	38.9%	13.0%	11.1%	5.6%		
Engineering	n	38	34	21	6	3	2.0392	1.04286
	%	37.3%	33.3%	20.6%	5.9%	2.9%		

Medicine		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	MEAN	SD
Medicine	n	31	39	19	14	4	2.2617	1.12716
	%	29.0%	36.4%	17.8%	13.1%	3.7%		

Item 21. I would like to meet native speakers of English and engage in conversations with them.								
FACULTY		RESPONSE					MEAN	SD
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	n	1	6	6	39	59	4.3423	.87900
	%	.9%	5.4%	5.4%	35.1%	53.2%		
Arts	n	12	31	46	80	59	3.6272	1.15973
	%	5.3%	13.6%	20.2%	35.1%	25.9%		
Law	n	10	2	44	64	118	4.1681	1.03377
	%	4.2%	.8%	18.5%	26.9%	49.6%		
Science	n	2	2	11	34	59	4.3519	.87877
	%	1.9%	1.9%	10.2%	31.5%	54.6%		
Engineering	n	1	3	5	29	64	4.4902	.80524
	%	1.0%	2.9%	4.9%	28.4%	62.7%		
Medicine	n	0	1	9	38	59	4.4486	.69000
	%	.0%	.9%	8.4%	35.5%	55.1%		

Item 22. I have an unfavourable attitude towards English speakers.								
FACULTY		RESPONSE					MEAN	SD
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	n	32	45	19	12	3	2.1802	1.05484
	%	28.8%	40.5%	17.1%	10.8%	2.7%		
Arts	n	42	117	48	17	4	2.2281	.89576
	%	18.4%	51.3%	21.1%	7.5%	1.8%		
Law	n	56	120	38	8	16	2.1933	1.04963
	%	23.5%	50.4%	16.0%	3.4%	6.7%		
Science	n	25	48	22	10	3	2.2407	1.00346
	%	23.1%	44.4%	20.4%	9.3%	2.8%		
Engineering	n	36	41	21	3	1	1.9412	.87680
	%	35.3%	40.2%	20.6%	2.9%	1.0%		
Medicine	n	36	60	9	2	0	1.7850	.67332
	%	33.6%	56.1%	8.4%	1.9%	.0%		

Item 23. I like English speakers.								
FACULTY		RESPONSE					MEAN	SD
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	n	2	6	29	33	41	3.9459	1.00759
	%	1.8%	5.4%	26.1%	29.7%	36.9%		
Arts	n	16	19	56	80	57	3.6272	1.15211
	%	7.0%	8.3%	24.6%	35.1%	25.0%		
Law	n	12	12	40	84	90	3.9580	1.09771
	%	5.0%	5.0%	16.8%	35.3%	37.8%		
Science	n	3	5	26	26	48	4.0278	1.06304
	%	2.8%	4.6%	24.1%	24.1%	44.4%		

Faculty		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	MEAN	SD
Engineering	n	8	4	18	34	38	3.8824	1.18818
	%	7.8%	3.9%	17.6%	33.3%	37.3%		
Medicine	n	2	3	28	36	38	3.9813	.95148
	%	1.9%	2.8%	26.2%	33.6%	35.5%		

Item 24. I think English speakers are dishonest.								
FACULTY		RESPONSE					MEAN	SD
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	n	41	41	21	6	2	1.9820	97218
	%	36.9%	36.9%	18.9%	5.4%	1.8%		
Arts	n	85	78	60	5	0	1.9342	.85001
	%	37.3%	34.2%	26.3%	2.2%	.0%		
Law	n	102	70	50	2	14	1.9748	1.09823
	%	42.9%	29.4%	21.0%	.8%	5.9%		
Science	n	43	46	16	1	2	1.8241	.85192
	%	39.8%	42.6%	14.8%	.9%	1.9%		
Engineering	n	42	27	29	1	3	1.9804	1.00475
	%	41.2%	26.5%	28.4%	1.0%	2.9%		
Medicine	n	37	44	25	0	1	1.9159	.81405
	%	34.6%	41.1%	23.4%	.0%	.9%		

Item 25. In the future, I would like to live in an English-speaking country.								
FACULTY		RESPONSE					MEAN	SD
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	n	12	19	30	17	33	3.3604	1.35373
	%	10.8%	17.1%	27.0%	15.3%	29.7%		
Arts	n	56	51	57	20	44	2.7588	1.42001
	%	24.6%	22.4%	25.0%	8.8%	19.3%		
Law	n	22	38	74	24	80	3.4286	1.34115
	%	9.2%	16.0%	31.1%	10.1%	33.6%		
Science	n	8	15	39	18	28	3.3981	1.22238
	%	7.4%	13.9%	36.1%	16.7%	25.9%		
Engineering	n	10	14	25	18	35	3.5294	1.34757
	%	9.8%	13.7%	24.5%	17.6%	34.3%		
Medicine	n	11	13	35	19	29	3.3925	1.28678
	%	10.3%	12.1%	32.7%	17.8%	27.1%		

Item 26. I think English speakers are well educated.								
FACULTY		RESPONSE					MEAN	SD
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	n	3	17	34	24	33	3.6036	1.14637
	%	2.7%	15.3%	30.6%	21.6%	29.7%		
Arts	n	22	41	72	56	37	3.1974	1.19492
	%	9.6%	18.0%	31.6%	24.6%	16.2%		
Law	n	12	22	74	52	78	3.6807	1.16874
	%	5.0%	9.2%	31.1%	21.8%	32.8%		
Science	n	4	6	38	31	29	3.6944	1.04531
	%	3.7%	5.6%	35.2%	28.7%	26.9%		

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	MEAN	SD
Engineering	n	4	10	40	18	30	3.5882	1.12886
	%	3.9%	9.8%	39.2%	17.6%	29.4%		
Medicine	n	7	18	50	17	15	3.1402	1.06796
	%	6.5%	16.8%	46.7%	15.9%	14.0%		

Item 27. I think English speakers are sociable.								
		RESPONSE					MEAN	SD
FACULTY		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	n	3	15	51	24	18	3.3514	.99680
	%	2.7%	13.5%	45.9%	21.6%	16.2%		
Arts	n	12	39	112	40	25	3.1184	.99293
	%	5.3%	17.1%	49.1%	17.5%	11.0%		
Law	n	6	24	110	52	46	3.4538	.99575
	%	2.5%	10.1%	46.2%	21.8%	19.3%		
Science	n	4	16	51	20	17	3.2778	1.02157
	%	3.7%	14.8%	47.2%	18.5%	15.7%		
Engineering	n	4	13	50	13	22	3.3529	1.07765
	%	3.9%	12.7%	49.0%	12.7%	21.6%		
Medicine	n	5	11	68	15	8	3.0935	.85266
	%	4.7%	10.3%	63.6%	14.0%	7.5%		

Item 28. I hope Libya will maintain good relations with English-speaking countries.								
		RESPONSE					MEAN	SD
FACULTY		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	n	2	1	21	23	64	4.3153	.93402
	%	1.8%	.9%	18.9%	20.7%	57.7%		
Arts	n	16	9	36	62	105	4.0132	1.18908
	%	7.0%	3.9%	15.8%	27.2%	46.1%		
Law	n	4	0	32	54	148	4.4370	.84832
	%	1.7%	.0%	13.4%	22.7%	62.2%		
Science	n	3	1	6	23	75	4.5370	.86927
	%	2.8%	.9%	5.6%	21.3%	69.4%		
Engineering	n	2	3	11	31	55	4.3137	.92255
	%	2.0%	2.9%	10.8%	30.4%	53.9%		
Medicine	n	1	2	12	31	61	4.3925	.83278
	%	.9%	1.9%	11.2%	29.0%	57.0%		

Item 29. I would like to meet as many native speakers of English as possible.								
		RESPONSE					MEAN	SD
FACULTY		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	n	0	4	17	36	54	4.2613	.84972
	%	.0%	3.6%	15.3%	32.4%	48.6%		
Arts	n	14	21	48	67	78	3.7632	1.19325
	%	6.1%	9.2%	21.1%	29.4%	34.2%		
Law	n	4	4	46	64	120	4.2269	.93174
	%	1.7%	1.7%	19.3%	26.9%	50.4%		
Science	n	1	2	14	29	62	4.3796	.85070

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
	%	.9%	1.9%	13.0%	26.9%	57.4%		
Engineering	n	1	1	9	32	59	4.4412	.77809
	%	1.0%	1.0%	8.8%	31.4%	57.8%		
Medicine	n	0	2	9	38	58	4.4206	.72733
	%	.0%	1.9%	8.4%	35.5%	54.2%		

Item 30. I like watching English-language films that reflect the culture of British and American societies.								
FACULTY		**RESPONSE**					**MEAN**	**SD**
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
Economics	n	10	12	30	22	37	3.5766	1.29720
	%	9.0%	10.8%	27.0%	19.8%	33.3%		
Arts	n	62	35	42	44	45	2.8904	1.49044
	%	27.2%	15.4%	18.4%	19.3%	19.7%		
Law	n	12	32	74	50	70	3.5630	1.18812
	%	5.0%	13.4%	31.1%	21.0%	29.4%		
Science	n	8	11	23	28	38	3.7130	1.25341
	%	7.4%	10.2%	21.3%	25.9%	35.2%		
Engineering	n	13	6	19	24	40	3.7059	1.37580
	%	12.7%	5.9%	18.6%	23.5%	39.2%		
Medicine	n	4	11	20	42	30	3.7757	1.08426

	FACULTIES AT UNIVERSITY OF BENGHAZI					
	ECONOMICS	ARTS	LAW	SCIENCE	ENGINEERING	MEDICINE
	SECTION B					
Q1	3.8739	3.4693	3.6891	3.8148	3.8137	4.2804
Q2	3.6893	3.1305	3.6752	3.8751	3.9903	3.9840
Q3	3.6434	3.4101	3.5989	3.6971	3.8966	3.8942
Q4	2.0811	2.1009	2.0924	2.7315	2.3725	2.5514
Q5	3.6036	3.1140	3.6303	3.5370	3.7549	3.4112
Q6	4.4054	4.0395	4.5042	4.5926	4.4902	4.5607
Q7	4.1532	3.9737	4.1092	3.9444	3.9706	3.9706
Q8	1.9730	2.3816	1.9748	2.1667	1.8333	2.0000
Q9	4.2072	4.1886	4.1176	3.8611	4.0980	4.0841
Q10	4.6306	4.4430	4.6723	4.8148	4.7843	4.8692
C	SECTION C					
Q11	4.7207	4.3728	4.6303	4.6759	4.8235	4.8505
Q12	1.6757	2.0439	1.6891	1.6759	1.5686	1.4112
Q13	4.5315	4.0000	4.4370	4.6574	4.5980	4.7103
Q14	2.6577	2.9518	2.5378	2.7407	2.6569	2.4953
Q15	4.4505	4.0395	4.3950	4.5093	4.5686	4.6262
Q16	1.9820	2.1930	1.9328	1.8519	1.9510	1.6729
Q17	4.3333	3.5789	4.0840	4.2963	4.5000	4.5047
Q18	1.9099	2.1798	1.8319	1.9074	1.6078	1.5234
Q19	4.2973	3.7939	4.3697	4.1759	4.5196	4.4860
Q20	2.1802	2.6009	2.2689	2.2037	2.0392	2.2617
D	SECTION D					
Q21	4.3423	3.6272	4.1381	4.3519	4.4902	4.4486
Q22	2.1802	2.2281	2.1933	2.2407	1.9412	1.7850
Q23	3.9459	3.6272	3.9580	4.0278	3.8824	3.9813
Q24	1.9820	1.9342	1.9748	1.8241	1.9804	1.9159
Q25	3.3604	2.7588	3.4286	3.3981	3.5294	3.3925
Q26	3.6036	3.1974	3.6807	3.6944	3.5882	3.1402
Q27	3.3514	3.1184	3.4538	3.2778	3.3529	3.0935
Q28	4.3153	4.0132	4.4370	4.5370	4.3137	4.3925
Q29	4.2613	3.7632	4.2269	4.3796	4.4412	4.4206
Q30	3.5766	2.8904	3.5630	3.7130	3.7059	3.7757

Appendix G: the Arabic version of the questionnaire

الجزء الثاني: وجهة نظرك تجاه اللغة الانجليزية بصفة عامة

ملاحظة :- لا توجد إجابة صحيحة وأخري خاطئة لهذا السؤال , اختر فقط الإجابة التي تعكس رأيك تماماً من هذه الخيارات **(موافق بشدة – موافق - محايد – غير موافق – غير موافق بشدة)**.

غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق	محايد	موافق	موافق بشدة	
					1 .أجد اللغة الإنجليزية ممتعةٌ وسهلة
					2 .لا أحب التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية .
					3 .لا أحب مشاهدة الفنوات المتحدثة باللغة الإنجليزية .
					4 . أفضل اللغة الإنجليزية عن اللغة العربية .
					5 .يعطيني التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية مكانة واحتراماً .
					6 .أتمنى أن أضع أولادي في المستقبل في مدارس متخصصة في اللغة الإنجليزية لكي يتحدثوا بها بطلاقة.
					7 . أنا موال للغتي الأم ومرتبط بثقافتي العربية.
					8 .أعتقد أن تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية سيؤثر سلباً على اللغة العربية ويؤدي إلى انحطاطها
					9 .أعتقد أن اللغة العربية أكثر جمالاً من اللغات الأخرى .
					10 .أجد اللغة الانجليزيه مهمة جدا عند السفر للخارج.

الجزء الثالث: وجهة نظرك تجاه تعلم اللغة الانجليزية :

غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق	محايد	موافق	موافق بشدة	
					1 . اشعر أن تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية مفيد لي في حياتي العلمية والعملية .
					2 . أكره تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية.
					3 .أرغب في تعلم أكبر قدر ممكن من اللغة الإنجليزية
					4 .أفضل أن أقضي معظم وقتي في تعلم تخصصات أخرى بدلا من اللغة الإنجليزية.
					5 .أحب تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية.
					6 .وجود مترجمين للغة الانجليزية يغنيني عن تعلمها
					7 .أخطط في الاستمرار في تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية.
					8 . عندما أتخرج من الجامعة سوف أتوقف تماما عن تعلم اللغة الانجليزية.
					9 .أتمنى أن أتمكن من قراءة الصحف والمجالات باللغة الإنجليزية.
					10 .أعتقد أن تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية منذ الصغر له نتائج سيئة في إتقان اللغة الأم .

الجزء الرابع : وجهة نظرك تجاه الناطقين باللغة الانجليزية :

غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق	محايد	موافق	موافق بشدة	
					1.أرغب في مقابلة الأشخاص الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية والتحث معهم.
					2.لدي وجهة نظر سلبية مسبقة تجاه الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية
					3.أحب الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية.
					4.المتحدثين باللغة الإنجليزية غير مخلصين وغير صادقين .
					5.أود في المستقبل أن أعيش في بلد ناطقة بالإنجليزية.
					6.الناطقون باللغة الإنجليزية مثقفون .
					7.الناطقون باللغة الإنجليزية إجتماعيون.
					8.أتمنى في المستقبل أن تكون لدى ليبيا علاقات جيدة بالدول الناطقة باللغة الإنجليزية.
					9.أود أن أتعرف على الكثير من المتحدثين الأصليين باللغة الإنجليزية.
					10 . أحب مشاهدة الافلام التي تعكس ثقافة المجتمع الانجليزي والأمريكي

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