UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN QUEENSLAND
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COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING:

THE BELIEFS, ATTITUDES, AND PRACTICES OF PRE-SERVICE EFL TEACHERS IN WESTERN LIBYA

A Thesis submitted by

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ABSTRACT

The English language has become an international and economically-required medium of communication. Communicative language teaching (CLT) is a wellestablished approach for teaching English as a foreign language (EFL). This approach can be a challenge in places where English is not the lingua franca. In the context of Libyan education, CLT is currently seen as a challenging innovation because of the nation's long history of EFL pedagogy relying on rote learning and textbooks. Furthermore, educational change in Libya has been compromised by political disruption and war. The fast pace of change is another factor, with more Libyan schools being built. However, the biggest dilemma confronted by the Libyan school system is the lack of resources and of teachers, combined with the type of examination system under use which affects CLT.

The aim of this study was (1) to explore pre-service teachers' (PSTs) and inservice teachers' (INSTs) beliefs and attitudes towards CLT and (2) to explore the choices they make to engage in their EFL teaching practice, that is, either (a) the grammar-translation method or (b) communicative language teaching. This study sits in the socio-cultural paradigm and draws on constructivism as the epistemological and pedagogical underpinning of CLT. A research design approach was used to investigate beliefs and attitudes. A quantitative study, as the first phase, was followed by a qualitative study in the second phase. The first aim of the study was met by conducting a five-point Likert scale type survey of 79 PSTs and 33 INSTs. The second aim of the study was achieved by conducting classroom observations, keeping researcher notes and conducting interviews in the second phase. A sub-sample of seven pre-service teachers' classroom pedagogy was observed, and eight individual interviews were conducted with four of these pre-service teachers, two INSTs and two university teachers.

This study also provided information on the issues and barriers that teachers face when applying CLT in real classroom situations. These barriers related to (1) their

beliefs about using only English as a medium of instruction and (2) their fear of their supervisors' evaluations, which shifted their pedagogical focus. During their teaching practice, the pre-service teachers moved from their awareness of the importance of learning English through exposure to the language to a focus on translation, students' low English levels, and the length of teaching practical program, which was inadequate for pre-service teachers to be able to put their beliefs into practice. The research concluded that an awareness of these barriers can guide both the education of teachers in Libyan universities and the development of teachers' CLT practices, post-method. It is anticipated that the findings of this study will support Libyan universities in developing a more consistent approach between primary and secondary public school EFL teachers and tertiary (university) EFL teachers and ensure a more effective practicum experience that involves more reflective and dialogic practice.

CERTIFICATION OF THESIS

I hereby declare certify that:

1)   The knowledge, beliefs, analyses, and results, and conclusions reported in this dissertation comprise only my own work and effort towards the Doctor of Philosophy (DPHD) degree.

2)   I also certify that the work is original and has not been previously submitted for any other award. The thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where otherwise acknowledged.

3)   This thesis meets the University of Southern Queensland Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) requirement for the conduct of research.

Signature of Candidate_____

Name: _____   Date _____

Endorsement

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Associate Supervisor: Associate Professor Ann Dashwood

Associate Supervisor: Dr Christopher Dann

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CA   Communicative Approach

CFG   Critical Friend Group

CLT   Communicative Language Teaching

HREC   Human Research Ethics Committee

EFL   English as a Foreign Language

ESL   English as a Second Language

EST   Express Scribe Transcription

FFI   Form focused instruction

GTM   Grammar Translation Method

GPCE   General Peoples' Committee of Education
ICT   Information and Communication Technology

IELTS   International English Language Testing System

INSTs   In-Service Teachers

L1   First Language

L2   Second Language

NL   National Language
OBE   Outcome-Based Education
PDP   Professional Development Program

PSTs   Pre-Service Teachers

SETT   Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk

SLA   Second Language Acquisition
SLT   Situational language teaching approach

SRI   Stimulated Recall Interviews

SPSS   Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

TESOL   Teaching English to Speakers of Other Language

TL	Target Language
TM	Thematic Analysis
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TOEIC	Test of English for International Communication
UG	Universal Grammar
USQ	University of Southern Queensland

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview

This chapter is divided into eight main sections. Section 1.0 gives an overview of the structure of the current chapter. Section 1.1 introduces the research, including an overview of the significance of the study in terms of beliefs, attitudes and practices, and ends with a justification for the research. This is followed by Section 1.3, the research background. The research problem is presented in Section 1.4, and Section 1.5 discusses the challenges of EFL pre-service teachers, in the context of Libya. Section 1.6 addresses the research aims and questions of the study. Section 1.7 gives the outcome of the research and also presents the significance. The chapter concludes with a summary of the chapters in the thesis, as presented in Section 1.8.

1.1 Introduction to the Research

The desire to learn English has extensively increased, particularly in Arabic countries, mainly because English is now the dominant diplomatic language and, as well as for business, officially used to communicate throughout the world. According to Muro (2019), "the English language specifically is spreading around the globe and has become the world's language" (pp. 1-2). As a result, many types of language learning pedagogies have arisen, such as humanistic and communicative approaches, in response to the increasing number of ESL/EFL learners (Celce-Murcia, 2002) and the post-method era recognition of the need for learner autonomy and meaning-making (Khodabakhshzadeh, Arabi, & Samadi, 2018). Thus, learners today are expected to use the target language communicatively.

However, in the Arab world and across many nations, particularly developing countries like Libya, there are a variety of issues that impact stakeholders' abilities to cope with modern language learning methods. This is, to a large extent, due to the pressures associated with the spread of English as a dominant world language as well as the desire of students, who are from differing language backgrounds, to acquire it, in the context of rapid change and lack of resources (Mudra, 2018; Omar, 2013; Sholihah,

2012). There has been recent interest in the challenges involved within the area of EFL teachers, and specifically non-native English, Arabic speakers, who take on the responsibilities for improving the skills of their students to a level which will enable them to work and communicate in English (Chang, 2011; Orafi & Borg, 2009).

Numerous studies in many different education sectors have stated that EFL teachers, mainly student teachers and teachers who are new in their occupations, tend to teach the way they were taught (Kennedy, 1999; McMillan, 2010; Oleson, & Hora, 2014; Owens, 2010; Warner et al., 2007; Wright, et al., 2002). Prospective teachers come with knowledge of teaching skills that they learnt from their educational institutes. Since the teachers in Libya have been taught through traditional teaching methods, it makes the task for these teachers more difficult to teach based on a fairly recently introduced communicative curriculum that is different from how they learnt to teach when they were pre-service teachers (PSTs).

It is important to note that Arabic countries are culturally different from western countries as they typically involve teacher-centred classrooms as opposed to studentcentred. These differences are explained with reference to Libyan cultural-educational characteristics (in Sections 2.6.1, 2.6.2)Thus, the need to change curriculum design and pedagogical approach presents a challenge for Libyan English language teachers, who are trained in, and who are conditioned to apply, traditional teaching approaches, such as grammar-translation. Being steeped in the traditional approach makes it very difficult for Libyan teachers to understand the principles and theories of a communicative approach and to practise these in the classroom. A major reason is that it is very different from the prevailing Libyan cultural, social and religious practices that are part of the classroom. According to Littlewood (1981, cited in Chang, 2011, p.

16), "the idea of the communicative approach may conflict with EFL teachers' existing thoughts about teachers' roles and teaching methods". These difficulties of theories and practice of CLT are faced by many countries where English is taught as a foreign language (Anderson, 1993; Ellis, 1996; Holliday, 1994; Li, 1998; Liao, 2000; Savignon, 2008; Takanashi, 2004; Yu, 2001).

It has been well established that PSTs of English enter educational institutions to become teachers with clear beliefs and attitudes about their role as a teacher (Bennett & Carre, 1993). Not only do their prior beliefs facilitate how they translate data about teaching and adapting, but additionally their beliefs influence how they make sense of and clarify information with regards to classroom teaching. At the end of the day, beliefs likewise shape, impact and aid PSTs' classroom training and improvement of their expertise, impacting new teachers as they move into their first year of teaching (Cook, 2016; Hascher, Cocard, & Moser, 2004; Moussaid & Zerhouni, 2017). Therefore, consideration of teachers' beliefs and attitudes becomes more important than changing approaches, because teachers are the central decision-makers about what they should teach and how they teach it (Klieme & Vieluf, 2009). According to Burridge and Carpenter (2013), "teachers who hold strong beliefs in a teaching approach achieve a high level of implementation" (p. 3).

Thus, this research investigated pre-service teachers' beliefs, attitudes and practices in terms of communicative language teaching during their teaching practicum, to allow a focus on both theory to practice and practice to theory. The study aimed to investigate if PSTs could teach communicatively; the research also explored newly employed INSTs perceptions of teaching with a communicative approach and compared their perceptions with those of PSTs.

1.2 Research Background

The English language is increasingly recognised as an international language and is spoken globally. On 12 January 2014, the British Council summarised the estimated number of English speakers as follows: "English as a first language approximately 375 million people; English as a second language around 375 million people; English as a foreign language 750 million people" (as cited in Henkel, 2016, p. 20). This is approximately 20% of the world population of 7, 716, 223, 209 (Miniwatts Marketing Group, 2019). In 2019, English is spoken by 1.75 billion people worldwide (Kenneth, 2020, August 27).

The Arab world is quickly changing its traditional perspective on language and quickly giving in to the global demand for learning English as the key second language

(Hinkel & Fotos, 2002). Various models have been adopted by English teachers in addressing the needs of their students as well as coping with the challenges of teaching in English as a second language (ESL) or a foreign language (EFL). Teaching EFL is an area that is still developing as scholars try to find the best way of increasing their students' competence levels and also the speed of their learning (Al-Ahdal & AlMa'amari, 2015; Fareh, 2010).

In Libya, the United Kingdom (UK) Standard English is a requirement in several sectors, including education, government and business. That is why there is an increasing interest in learning English. In addition, the rapid global shift towards using the internet and digital communication technologies largely requires English language proficiency. Communication technologies such as mobile phones have also facilitated language learning and teaching (Kern, 2006).

For the most part, classroom teachers of English in Libya follow the traditional teacher-directed practise, learned from their own prior schooling experience. However, EFL teaching methods in Libyan schools have changed from the traditional grammartranslation method (GTM) to a requirement to embrace the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach, and these changes have affected university education programs (Aloreibi & Carey, 2017; Rahuma, 2016). This change has created not only a need for INSTs to engage in professional learning about CLT, but also for PSTs to come to grips with CLT during their preparatory degrees to accommodate what is an entirely new paradigm in English teaching in Libya.

In the last three decades, significant changes have been made to the English curriculum. From the 1970s to the mid-1980s, English was a compulsory subject for Libyan schools and universities (Elabbar, 2011; Sawani, 2009). During the late 1980s and early 1990s (approximately 14 years of Gaddafi's rule), teaching English was forbidden due to the political tension between Libya and Western countries (although some schools were still teaching basic English grammar). See Section 2.3 for more detail about political interventions in the Libyan educational system. The consequences of this tension meant that "about 80% of the English teachers who were teaching before the government's suspension of English did not return to their profession after they had been made to find different jobs during the years of the period of suspension [14 years]"

(Asker, 2011, p. 16). Sawani (2009) found that some teachers lost their ability to teach English because they had forgotten the language and changed their specialty to another subject.

In the early 2000s, the government realised the error of its judgment and determined to reincorporate English into the curriculum (M. Hamed, 2014). It offered approximately 72,000 overseas scholarships for graduate students to obtain higher degrees in English, which would help enhance the quality of English teaching in Libya (Elabbar, 2011). A new English curriculum was based on the communicative approach in the compulsory years of schooling (elementary school Year seven, Year eight, and Year nine and secondary level Year ten, Year eleven and Year twelve) where English as a Foreign Language (EFL) is a compulsory subject. The reason for adopting the communicative approach was to improve learners' English skills and to help them use these skills in real-life contexts.

Furthermore, the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in education has been recognised as being able to assist and promote progress in language learning (Motteram, 2013; Yang, 2012). Information and Communication Technology was introduced to the Libyan education system following the implementation of national policy over the past 15 years. According to Rhema and Miliszewska (2010), in 2005, more than 150,000 computers were supplied and installed for educational purposes in Libyan public primary/secondary schools and universities. However, Libyan higher education institutions still face the challenges of limited internet access, and a shortage of ICT qualified and trained teachers. The students and teachers were found to be uncomfortable using ICT, and therefore their skills were undeveloped (Rhema & Miliszewska, 2010).

With the introduction of a compulsory communicative curriculum for English as a subject, English teachers in Libya encountered difficulties in implementing CLT, which demands teaching methods that are different from how they learned to teach. In addition, researchers in Libya have argued that there are few opportunities for secondary school teachers to practise communication in English, which contrasts with the primary objective of the communicative curriculum: to use the English language communicatively and more efficiently with the outside world (Abushafa, 2014). For

example, Shihiba and Embark (2011) described how the secondary school English teacher manual uses language and terms which are both "difficult and complicated for the teachers to understand" (p. 17).

1.3 Research Problem

After the collapse of the Gaddafi regime in 2011, the prominence of the English language has increased, and social attitudes have shifted to make English "a powerful competitor in the linguistics landscape of Libya" (F. Y. Hamed, 2014, p. 365). However, problems have emerged for EFL teachers, who are underprepared because the teaching of English was banned from 1986 to 1999 (Asker, 2012). With the recent, rapid growth of schools and free public education in Libya, a gap has been identified in the research regarding the preparedness of PSTs and INSTs to cope with changing requirements in pedagogy and practice. Researchers in Libya have argued that there are few opportunities for secondary school teachers to practise communication in the English language, despite the main objective of the communicative curriculum being to communicate and effectively. In the light of a paucity of research in relation to this problem in the Arab world and Libya particularly, and also the situation of PSTs' and INSTs' training, new research such as this is well justified.

1.4 Focus of the Study

As an approach to teaching EFL, CLT aims to improve students' communicative competency and speaking fluency (Freeman & Richards, 1996) by focusing on the expression, interpretation and negotiation of meaning (Melrose, 2015; Savignon, 2008) through interactions with comprehensible, meaningful input (Gass, 2013; Gass, Bardovi-Harlig, Magnan, & Walz, 2002; Polat, 2016).

Teachers' beliefs and attitudes have been recognised over several decades as having an impact on their pedagogy and practice (Johnson 2016; Karavas-Doukas 1996; Lashgari et al. 2014; Tochon 2014). Research also suggests that teachers' beliefs and attitudes have more impact on practice than mere requirements to change their approach (Debreli 2012; Kaymakamoğlu 2018). Some researchers suggest that the success of teaching EFL is determined more by teachers' beliefs and attitudes than by

evolving approaches (Mowlaie & Rahimi, 2010; Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Therefore, this study investigates the beliefs and attitudes of Libyan pre-service EFL teachers in terms of the usability of CLT, before the teaching practicum course that is held in the last semester of their fourth year at university, and the relationships between their teaching beliefs, attitudes, and practices.

The information presented in the background section demonstrates the problem of teaching English in Libya. Universities do not have a clear policy and structure to show teachers how to teach in communicative ways, in line with the curriculum. Most previous studies (Alhmali, 2007; Ali, 2008; Asker, 2011, Elabbar, 2011; Orafi, 2008; Orafi & Borg, 2009; Shihiba & Embark, 2011; Tantani, 2012) outlined in sections 1.1, 1.2 and 2.3.1 were conducted in secondary schools, which have established a range of limitations for the high school level teachers and CLT curriculum implementation. This study adds to existing knowledge by focusing on pre-service teachers' beliefs and attitudes, which have been generally ignored in many Arab countries, including Libya. The approach of this study is supported by recommendations from previous studies on secondary school students and teachers in Libya, as already identified.

Specifically, there is a lack of research conducted in Libya and no information regarding how PSTs engage with communicative teaching in the specialist pre-service course for teachers of English. Thus, this study was designed as a case study that, due to the difficulties of researching in Libya as a developing country that experiences unrest and some lack of security, used convenience sampling for administering a survey and purposive sample selection for the case studies of PSTs. The case studies were conducted in Nalut University, one of the largest universities in Libya, established in 2004.

1.5 Challenges of Learning to Teach

According to Cota-Grijalva and Ruiz-Esparza (2013), pre-service language teachers are required to learn how to use a communicative method of teaching foreign languages to realise the communicative goals stipulated in the *Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century* (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 2006). This was a collaborative effort of the American council on

the teaching of foreign languages. The communicative methods of teaching a foreign language (FL), as per the discipline of FL teaching, include those methods intended to advance the learner's communicative abilities (Benson, 2013). Therefore, this study set out to give a detailed explanation regarding how PSTs learn and hypothesise communicative foreign language teaching and also how this knowledge directs beliefs and attitudes during pre-service teaching. This study also focusses on the challenges of teaching and learning foreign languages from the perspective of modern approaches in the discipline of language education. It presents the basic outline of the main goal of obtaining foreign language skills irrespective of the purpose of the study.

The course of English teacher education in Libyan, according to Suwaed (2011) focused on teaching SLA theories rather than practice and Libyan national universities do not provide pre-service or in-service training for university teachers. Fail to apply the guidelines stipulated in the communicative methods of teaching an FL during education programs even after learning and acquiring the required skills. Therefore, more emphasis should focus on identifying the challenges they face in their efforts to execute the communicative method. This is partially the result of the fact that teachers' prevailing beliefs and attitudes happen to be mostly ignored before or with the initiation of a new method. This means that the courses created seem to prioritise training teachers in the subjects contained in the new method and to convince them of its usefulness (Tercanlioglu, 2015). Therefore, this study aimed at reflecting on the teaching and learning processes during foreign language education and investigating the pre-service teachers' beliefs, attitudes and practices.

This study advocates a communicative method based on the constructivist theory for learning and teaching foreign languages in keeping with a post-method perspective (Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Sugirin, 2018). Therefore, foreign language courses should consider the implementation of national foreign language standards in context as one of the main elements for promoting the teaching of communicative languages. These standards express the content of foreign language learning and are the heart of standards-based instruction in the teaching of foreign languages (Grynyuk, 2015). They, however, do not explain the current position of foreign language education, but instead, present a scale for measuring the improvements in the coming years. They

describe what needs to be learned at particular time intervals, and in a broader outlook, the acceptable performances to indicate that learning has taken place.

During the research, most PSTs indicated that they had learned their foreign languages through a grammar-based method. This provides the possibility that when learning to teach English they will use this approach. The PSTs mentioned that they learnt different teaching approaches at university level: Grammar translation methods (GTM); Communicative language teaching (CLT); Total physical method; Suggestopedia; Community language teaching; and Audiolingual method (See Section 6.3.2). The methods through which foreign language teaching is taught during the training can offer PSTs new and different ways of teaching foreign languages and picturing themselves as future foreign language teachers (Cook, 2016).

1.6 Research Aims and Questions

This study aimed to investigate pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to CLT. This study also explored the beliefs and attitudes toward CLT of two newly employed INSTs and two university EFL teachers and compared them with those of pre-service EFL teachers. The study is structured to (1) explore the choices the pre-service EFL teachers make to either engage in an EFL teaching practice that is (a) GTM or (b) CLT, (2) to gain insights into what facilitates EFL teaching, and (3) to identify how to develop appropriate training for CLT teachers. This study aimed to answer the following research questions:

1) How do Libyan pre-service and in-service EFL teachers perceive CLT in terms of their beliefs and attitudes?

   A. What are Libyan pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards CLT?

   B. What are Libyan in-service EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards the CLT approach?

2) To what extent do Libyan pre-service EFL teachers apply CLT approaches in their teaching?

3)   What factors might shape Libyan pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards implementing CLT?

4)   What challenges do Libyan university teachers face when preparing EFL teachers to teach CLT?

1.7 The Outcome and Significance of this Study

Libyan pre-service EFL teachers currently face many challenges in learning and teaching the CLT approach, because of a lack of technology and materials (Bukhatowa, Porter, & Nelson, 2010). In exploring their beliefs and attitudes towards CLT, the findings from this study make numerous theoretical, methodological and practical contributions to the field of applied linguistics and TESOL. For instance, theoretically, the empirical evidence provided by this study helps deepen understanding of the nature of PSTs' beliefs, and the role they play during an individual's learning process. This study adds to the existing knowledge on CLT in an EFL country where English is not spoken outside the classroom, and specifically in the Libyan context. The study also lays the groundwork for future studies to identify and fill in the existing knowledge gaps using different methodologies and the use of information communication technologies. In addition, the findings provide deep insights into the PSTs' EFL pedagogy and reveal and contrast exemplars of both effective and less effective practices through the analysis of pedagogical dialogue. These may serve as artefacts for teacher professional development and discussion for stimulating professional conversations about EFL pedagogical improvement. The findings may foster future studies that adopt the same approaches, to collect more data on the same issue in other EFL contexts. Practically, findings from the study will help language teachers generally to recognise and make better sense of their beliefs and attitudes and encourage them to make informed decisions regarding their classroom practices and curricula development.

The findings of this study will also help policy-makers to understand more about PSTs, INSTs and their tertiary educators (university teachers), and their respective roles where a change in pedagogical philosophy is imposed, and how to adjust policy and curricula, through the provision of professional development, accordingly. Therefore, the findings of this study should help to transform EFL pedagogy, to better

take account of the needs of university EFL teachers and PSTs and students in the implementation of CLT in EFL classrooms in Libya, with application to other developing countries.

1.8 Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into ten chapters. Following this introduction, it organised as follows:

1) Chapter One: *Introduction*- This chapter is structured in eight sections. It starts with introductory information about the study; the research background is presented in Section 1.2, followed by a statement of the research problem; the focus of current study; an explanation of challenges of learning to teach is presented in Section 1.5; which is then followed by research aims and questions; Section 1.7 provides the outcomes and the scope of the study; and in the last section, the organisational structure of the thesis is addressed.

2) Chapter two: *Libyan Educational Context*- gives a detailed description of the Libyan context of the study. It describes the administration of education such as policies, materials, and examination system. It then explains EFL training and qualifications and shows how the EFL program has two paths and how teachers from both programs are employed to teach English and the implementation of CLT.

3) Chapter 3: *Literature Review*- starts with a description of study conceptual framework then provides a detailed descriptive analysis of the literature related to the topic, including the grammar-translation method (GTM) versus CLT in Arab countries, the change from the GTM to CLT in EFL pedagogy, types of CLT, professional development for EFL teachers, and research on the influences on pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs.

4) Chapter Four: *Methodology*- outlines the research design and research phases, the data collection instruments used within each phase, the procedures used for data analysis and ethical assurance, and concludes with a summary of the chapter.

5) Chapter Five: *Findings*- presents the results of the quantitative analysis of the survey of PSTs' and INSTs' beliefs and attitudes towards CLT.

6)   Chapter Six: *Findings*- presents the results of a detailed analysis of the preservice teachers' lessons as well as the micro patterns of their 'teacher talk'.

7)   Chapter Seven: *Findings*- presents the results of a detailed analysis of interview data starting with interviews with INSTs and followed by those conducted with pre-service teachers.

8)   Chapter Eight: *Findings*- presents the results of a detailed analysis of interviews with university teachers.

9)   Chapter Nine: *Discussion*- presents the discussion, interpretations and evaluation of the findings of Chapters Five, Six, Seven, and Eight to answer the research questions with reference to the literature and the research conceptual framework, it also draws out the research contribution to knowledge.

10)   Chapter Ten: *Conclusion*- recaps the study findings, highlights the significance and implications of the findings and provides a set of recommendations (a) to improve the teacher preparation program and (b) to the Ministry of Education to improve policy and develop a professional organisation for EFL teachers in Libya, and (c) for future research.

CHAPTER TWO: LIBYAN EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT

2.0 Overview

The introductory statements of this study were presented in the first chapter. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the setting of the study and the educational context in which this study was undertaken.

It starts with a brief description of the setting of the study, followed by the old educational school system and new educational school system (Section 2.2). Educational administrative aspects of the schools' and universities' systems and levels following objectives, such as curriculum and materials, are reviewed and addressed in Section 2.3. The role of politics and policies in Libyan education are discussed in Section 2.4. Section, 2.5 highlights the EFL training program and qualification and pedagogical approach and explains and shows how the EFL program has two pathways. It explains that teachers from both pathways are employed to teach English and how this relates to the implementation of communicative language teaching (CLT). The last section (2.6), outlines the challenges in learning and teaching of the English language for both students and teachers.

2.1 The Setting of the Study

This study took place in Libya, which is located in North Africa, bordering the Mediterranean Sea. The population in Libya is about 6.5 Million people, and Dinar is used as the currency. There is only one religion which is Islam; the majority of Libyans are Sunni Muslims. In the Libyan context, there are two languages. The first language is Arabic which is the official language, and it is required in most official institutions. However, the Arabic language has two major dialects: the western Libyan and eastern local dialects.

There are a few minority languages spoken in Libya as well. There is an Amazigh language, which is a language of aboriginal people in Libya; they are also called Berber. The Amazighen population or speakers of indigenous languages represent about 15% of the Libyan population (Ennaji, 2014). This minority and their language are known to most Libyan people because the previous government decides to refuse the recognition for the Berber language in Libya. One of the reasons is that Gaddafi wanted to make Arabic the only language. According to Abdulaziz (2014), during the rule of "Colonel Gaddafi (1969-2011), language policy in Libya stated that Arabic was the only official language of the country with clear denial of the other languages" (p. 1).

Sadly, many Amazighen peoples (speakers of the Amazigh language) were forbidden to communicate freely in Libya using their native language. In 1973, books written in Amazigh had also been banned by the government, as the government claimed that use of the Amazigh language has the potential to lead to the disintegration of Libyan society since Gaddafi was a leader (1969). However, in 2011, the language experienced a revival, and the Amazigh people were once again free to use their mother tongue without fear. The Amazigh began to revive their language in informal settings such as media outlets (TV channels and radio stations) and, in schools. There are other minority languages, such as Domari and Trdaga, which are spoken in some parts in Libya, and some are considered because only the older generation can speak them, such as Domari.

Three foreign languages are spoken in Libya: Italian, English and French. Libyans learnt Italian as a result of the long years of the presence of the Italians in Libyan territory for occupation and wars from 1911 to the end of the Second World War, 1945. The desire to learn English has extensively increased, particularly in Libya, mainly because English is now the dominant diplomatic language, officially used to communicate with the rest of the world. This is not surprising since English is one of the most common languages recognised as an international language. It is spoken globally and is the first language in several countries. In Libya, English is a requirement in several working fields, education, businesses and religious environments (UK Standard English); as a result, Libya has incorporated it in the teaching system as well. The teaching of foreign languages such as English and French was forbidden in 1986 and the teaching of them did not resume until 1999 (Mohsen, 2014). This long hiatus

impacted on the preparedness of the workforce of English teachers and consequently created a gap in the teaching and learning of the English language in Libya. Therefore, the Libyan government introduced the same English course for all students in primary and secondary schools to improve learners' English skills for them to be able to use them in real-life contexts, communicative approaches needed to be adopted. In addition, French also became a desirable language for the younger Libyan generation to learn, which started when the French helped the Libyan people to recover during the intense Libyan civil war to remove Gaddafi. Although, the communicative approach was introduced as long as two decades ago in the Libyan education system, owing to various factors and problems the Libyan system continues to suffer from dilemmas in teaching the English language, and the following factors identified by Mohsen (2014):

1)   The lack of conditions such as time, classrooms, teaching aids, native speakers, and direct language exposure;

2)   Very low students' English proficiency;

3)   Traditional approach: teachers teach English through grammar; focus heavily on grammatical rules and neglect the language itself;

4)   Students lack English language acquisition: after eight years studying English as a foreign language in Libyan schools (2 years in the 5th and 6th primary classes, 3 preparatory classes and 3 secondary classes), most students have no real acquisition of the language. They just have passed the courses of this language. This is a great problem as millions of Libyan dinars are spent for nothing.

5)   EFL teachers' lack of qualifications-employing not-well qualified teachers of English has badly compromised the process of teaching English. They have to be exposed to long term training. (Based on Mohsen, 2014, p. 43)

2.2 The Libyan Educational Context

The Libyan education system has four major phases to its structure: pre-school, basic education, secondary education and tertiary education which shows in Figure 2.1 and will be explained in detail in the coming sections. The education system in Libya has seen many

changes in the structure of the programs and the level of schooling since the 1970s, 1990s, 2006 and 2012.

The structure of the education system in the 1970s consisted of four levels. Primary schooling (three years), intermediate schooling (three years), secondary schooling (three years), and vocational schooling which is equal to university level (three years) (Orafi, 2008). In the 1990s, the structure of schooling was changed to become three levels of schooling: basic education, secondary and university.

2.2.1 Overview of the old-school system in Libya (1992- 2006)

1) Basic education level entails nine years divided into a primary level starting from the age of 6 years to age 15 years (six years) and preparatory level (three years).

2) Secondary school level

Students who get a basic education certificate can enter secondary education. The age of students at this level is 16 to 19 years. Students do three years of intermediate education starting from age 16 years to age 18 years (Shihiba & Embark, 2011). Secondary school is also called 'high school' (Elabbar, 2011). The secondary school went through many changes and challenges. Elabbar (2011) and Asker (2011) explained that secondary schools systems had unplanned changes four times from 1992 to 2012. Modifications to curriculums, structures, training specialisations, and national exams and policies occurred without giving attention to teachers' preparations and support which caused "challenges for both teachers and students" (p. 30).

The government introduced specialised secondary school in 1992 and is implemented in 1998 medical sciences, physics, chemistry and English, basic sciences, engineering and industrial sciences, medical sciences, agricultural sciences, social sciences, economics, fine arts and media. The first year is general secondary education where students study all subjects. After the first year, students study three years in which they will directly specialise in one of the six majors in the *scientific speciality* ('Basic Sciences unit, Life Sciences unit, Engineering Sciences unit, Economic Science unit, Social Sciences unit, Languages unit'), or one of the five majors in the *Art speciality* (the Arabic unit, the English Language unit, the French Language unit, the Hausa Language

unit and the Swahili (Language unit). In 2006, the specialised secondary education program changed from four years to three years, and in 2012-2013 the specialised secondary schools were been cancelled and returned to general secondary school. Asker (2011) investigated the ways awareness of the relationships between the language learning experience and students' L2 selves in English speciality secondary schools in Libya inform pedagogical practices. His study focused on understanding Libyan secondary schools who choose English speciality, their goals, and expectations as they become engaged in their classroom learning experience.

3) *University level* which starts at the age of 18 years to the age of 22 years. This level lasts four years.

The education system has been changed again in the 2000s, and the implementation of this change was applied in 2006. The following sections explain the current structure of education systems.
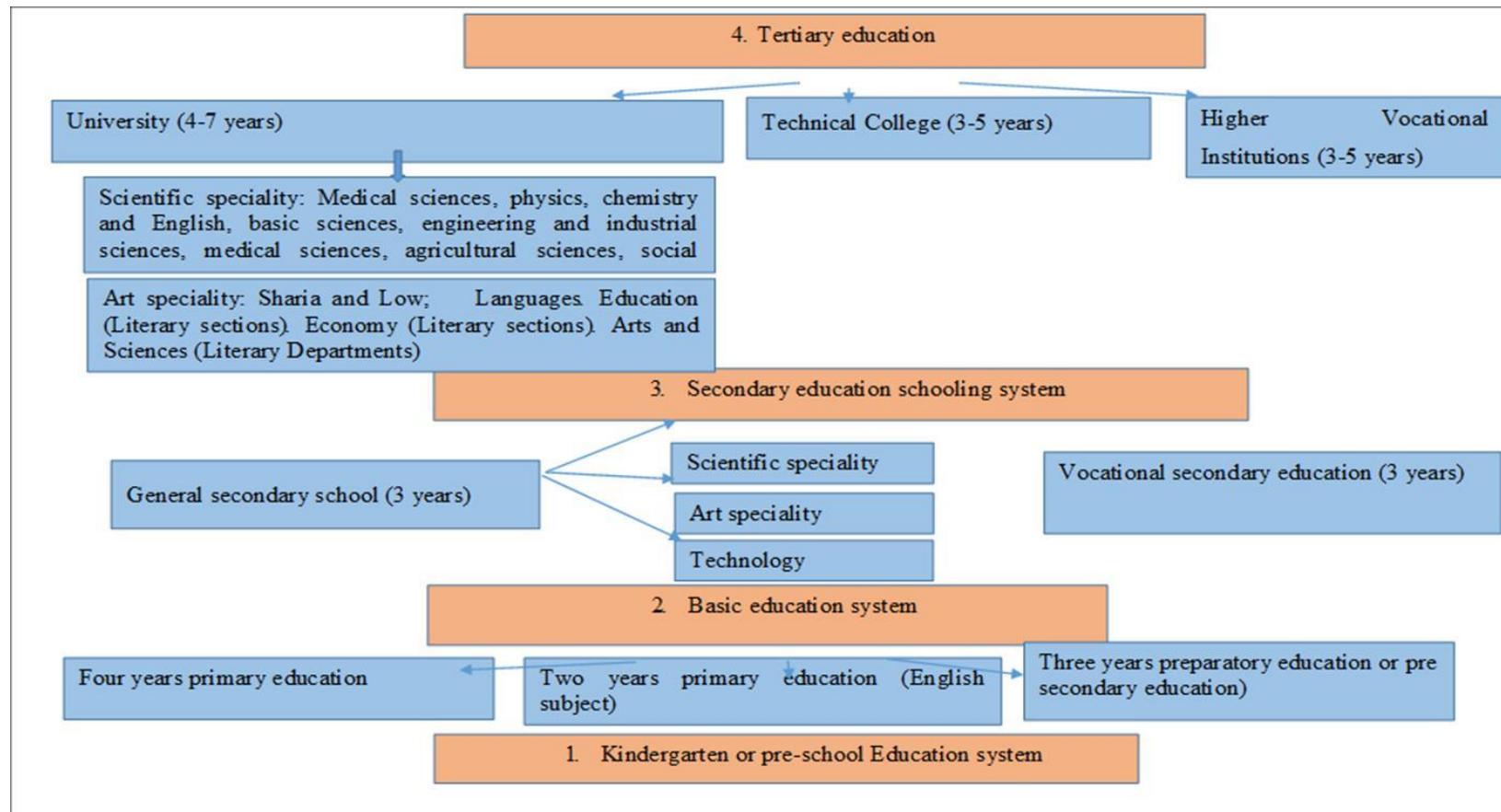
Figure 2.1: Structure of the education system in Libya

2.2.2 Overview of the current school system in Libya

1) Kindergarten or pre-school Education system

Kindergarten or pre-school schooling system in Libya starts at age four and age five. This system of education is not compulsory and is not available in public schools. It is offered only in private nursery schools (Asker, 2011). The goal of pre-school is to provide child support in developing Arabic language and preparing the child linguistically and socially for school.

2) Basic education system

The basic education system is known previously as primary and preparatory education) starts at the age of six and continues for six years of compulsory education. This is for all Libyan students, and it is free of charges. The first four years are basic education which includes Arabic, Islamic Education, Society, Mathematics, Natural Sciences, History, Geography, Art, and Music. Year four and five are the same subjectS in addition to the English[1] language as a subject. The second cycle of basic education (also known as middle school or preparatory school), with a duration of three years, is ended by a national examination which enables the students to enter secondary schools.

3)   The secondary education schooling system

A. General secondary education

In the current system in Libya, students take three years of general secondary education: 'scientific speciality', which qualifies the students to enter scientific university departments, and Art speciality which qualifies students to enter art and humanities departments (Asker, 2011).

B. Vocational secondary education

Intermediate vocational training centres train students for various skills-based professions. Students who graduate from the two to three-year programs are awarded the

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[1] Since the research has been conducted, there have been changes in the education system where teaching English is implemented from Year one in all Libyan schools.

Intermediate Training Diploma, which gives access to vocational training centres and institutes but not university studies. Vocational schools offer programs for 44 different vocations in seven major fields: electrical; mechanical; carpentry, building and architectural; inclusive female vocations; service industry; agricultural; marine fishing.

4)   *The tertiary system in Libya*

Tertiary education in Libya is offered in universities, technical colleges, and higher vocational institutions.

Universities

Libyan universities offer several qualifications:

A.   A bachelor's degree requires four years of study in most programs after obtaining the secondary school certificate;

B.   Bachelor's degrees in dentistry, pharmacy, veterinary medicine, engineering, and architecture all require five years of study;

C.   A bachelor's degree in medicine and surgery requires six years of study;

D.   Universities also offer programs leading to master's degrees in most specialisations (AlEjaza Al-Alea or 'Al-Majestair'), Al-Majester means master's degree which requires, on average, 2-3 years of study after obtaining the bachelor's degree;

E.   PhD degree (Al-Ejaza Al-Daktora or Doctorate) in selected specialisations and at certain universities requires three to four years of study.

Higher Vocational Institutions and Technical College

The Libyan higher education institutes and technical education system consists of

Electricity, Mechanical Engineering, Finance, Computer Studies, Industrial Technology, Social Work, Medical Technology and Civil Aviation.

Table 2.1: *Summary of Degrees and Duration in Higher Vocational Institutions and Technical College*

Degree title	Duration	Detail
Higher Technician Diploma	Three years	Upon completion of their studies, graduate technicians are assigned to work on development projects
Bachelor's degree	Usually four or five years	

University admission

The Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research in Libya determine the rules and bases for students' admission to study at universities and technical and higher institutes, each according to the percentage of success shown in each discipline. Table 2.2 outlines the admission requirements for all programs according to a decision made by the Ministry of Higher Education (2016). Universities accept students with secondary school certificates (scientific department or art disciplines) according to the success percentage shown in the table.

Table 2.2: *Libyan Universities Admission Requirements for All Programs*

Scientific Disciplines	Art Disciplines	Scientific and Art Disciplines
Faculty of Human Medicine. Oral and dental surgery (90% and above)	Faculty of Sharia and Law (75% and above)	Faculties of Physical Education (65% and above)
Faculty of Pharmacy (85% and above)	Faculty of Arts, Languages, Education (Literary sections), Economy (Literary sections), Arts and Sciences (Literary Departments) (65% and above)	Faculties of Arts, Information and Archeology, Tourism (65% and above)
Faculty of Engineering (80% and above)		
Faculty of Information Technology (75% and above)		
Faculty of Economics and Medical Technology (70% and above)		

Faculty of Nursing and Public Health, Veterinary Agriculture, Natural materials, Science (65% and above)		

2.3 Educational Administration's Aspects of the Schools and Universities systems

The public school system and the university system in Libya are incompatible in terms of teaching practices. Between the two systems, there is potential conflict in what represents adequate English as a foreign language (EFL) curriculum design, teacher training policy, pedagogical approaches, and class size, as shown in Table 2.3 (adapted from Gadour, 2006 and Elabbar, 2011).

Since 'tertiary educators' such as universities use a top-down approach, the problem is further exacerbated. The administration considers university lecturers already qualified enough to teach any subject, so they do not provide the necessary professional support for the staff to update their knowledge and skills (Elabbar, 2013, p. 15). Libyan universities do not have a standardised and unified set of objectives about how to train EFL teachers to use communicative language teaching (CLT), which is used in public schools. There seems to be "no cooperation between institutions involved in assessing the teacher trainees" (Elabbar, 2013, p. 9). Several studies have reported that teachers have been continuing to use EFL teaching methods since the early 2000s when the government allowed teaching in English (Abushafa, 2014; Elabbar, 2011; Gadour, 2006, Shihiba & Embark, 2011).

In contrast to the tertiary sector, EFL teachers in schools are required to use the teacher manual that guides the implementation of CLT. Owing to their lack of training and support, they do not fully comply with the guidelines. Orafi (2008) found that teachers were not equipped or trained when the curriculum was introduced in schools and, as a result, they had difficulties in understanding the principles and the practices of CLT and the communicative curriculum. The following sections outline aspects of EFL curriculum and materials in greater detail.

Table 2.3: *Differences between schools and universities in the Libyan education system*

Aspect	Schools	Universities
Curriculum and design	Provided by the Committee of Higher Education	Provided by university educators
Teacher training policy	Provided for teachers	Not clearly implemented for university teachers Top-down approach Faculty department heads responsible for providing professional learning training (Elabbar, 2011)
Pedagogical approach	Teachers are required to use the teachers' manual, which outlines the CLT-based instructional practice and methodology to be used in the classroom.	University teachers are free to make decisions about teaching materials and approaches. Teachers play the role of facilitator rather than the controller. Teachers acquire pedagogical knowledge through teaching experience (Suwaed, 2011).
Number of students per class	35–45	90–130 (Gadour, 2006, p. 9)

2.3.1 English Language **Curriculum**

The material for the English subject is contained in three books for every school year in Libyan schools, all of which are called *English for Libya*. These are the coursebook, workbook (both for students) and teacher guidebook. The coursebook has been designed and written keeping the Libyan students and their knowledge in mind (Quintana, O'Neill, & McGarry, 2012). The core section of each unit in the coursebook contains a particular theme, which is designed to develop reading, vocabulary and grammar, the functional use of language and listening, speaking and writing (Elabbar, 2011). The workbook contains working activities for the students to practise the text given in the coursebook.
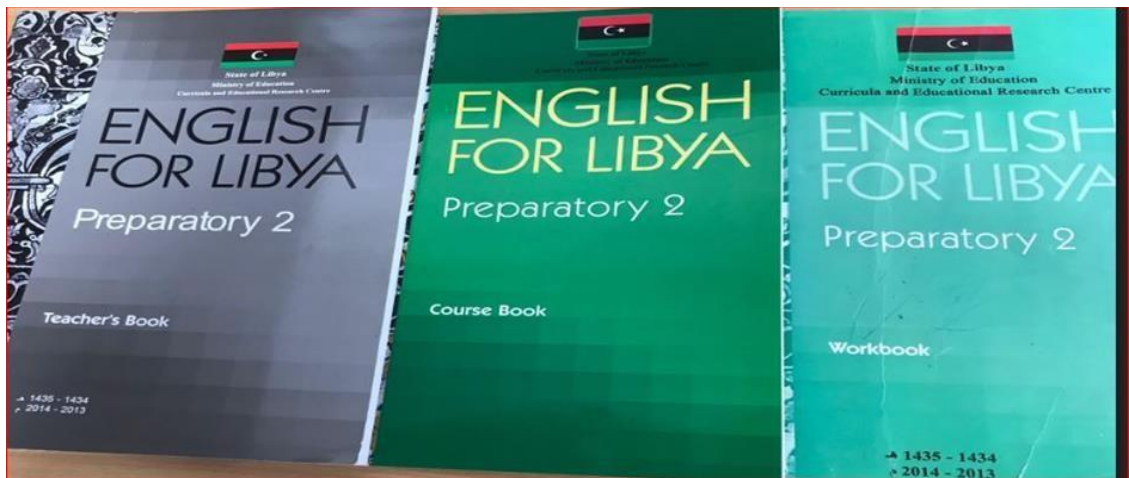
Figure 2.2: English resources and materials in Libya.

The *English for Libya* teachers' books contains information on teaching the English subject. The introductory section details the plans for each lesson. It also describes how the material in the students' books (coursebook and workbook) has been organised. This gives teachers an idea of the whole curriculum in terms of themes, the expected tasks in the coursebook about introducing and reversing the target language

and the tasks in the workbook that accompanies the related tasks in the coursebook. It aims "to encourage students to link language and functions to familiar topics and situation" (p. 6).

The teachers' books contain direct instructions about the materials needed for each lesson and information on how to use the coursebook and workbook. In addition to the instruction on how to implement teaching pedagogy in detail, they also explain the aims of each lesson and show how to use language and vocabulary in the lesson. The writer has also thrown in some ideas for teachers to think about before starting their lesson. Some of these ideas are the language focus, the timing of each stage, the role of the learners, how the teacher will use the board and the teachers' aids; for further reference, segments from several teachers' books have been attached in Appendixes N–R.

The underpinning pedagogical practices are clearly described in the teachers' books about teaching vocabulary, grammar, and reading, speaking, listening and writing. Regarding teaching grammar, the following quotes describe the writers' perspective which corresponds to the objectives of CLT and a social constructivist perspective.

1) "A child learning a foreign language should follow the same path as a native speaker in the early stages." (Philips, 2007, p. 3)

2) "A young child does not need to understand the rules of a language." (Philip, 2007, p. 3)

3) "It is more important that he/she can identify objects and actions and say if something is or is not true." (Philips, 2007, p. 3)

4) "It is not assumed that students will have mastered a grammatical point after a single presentation. The book recognises the need to notice grammatical pattern repeatedly and practice them frequently before students can acquire the grammatical rules." (Quintana, Barker, McGarry, & O'Neill, 2008. p. 7)

5) "Avoid lengthy grammar explanations, which are inappropriate for age group and likely to be de-motivating." (Philips, 2007, p. 3)

6) "Grammar is often presented through listening and reading the text to suit inductive learners, but syntactic patterns are also highlighted for deductive learners through the look boxes." (Philips, 2007, p. 3)

In the vocabulary stage, vocabulary is indeed the key to early language learning. The teachers' book shows the instructions of how teachers should teach in line with a social constructivist view. For example, "every unit starts by building on what students have learnt, revising known vocabulary within the topic area, and then building on this by introducing new vocabulary and the language structure" (Philip, 2007, p. 6). Vocabulary in each school year that would interest Libyan children was chosen by the writer. Philips (2007) claimed that "words are not chosen to show a grammar rule or to introduce all the letters in the English alphabet in one year" (p. 7). Therefore, the vocabulary in the coursebook is not limited to just design topics.

In the speaking pedagogy, the techniques shown in the teacher books regarding teaching speaking skills are divided into two areas. The first area is about teaching sounds, words and phrases using different strategies for teaching them, such as exaggerating the mouth shape, asking pupils to make a movement or gesture when they hear a sound, asking them to copy different tones of voice or emotions, or asking pupils to imitate the sounds and pronunciations. Activities in the coursebook suggest ways to practise pronunciation with the whole class or with individual pupils. The second area for teaching speaking skills is employing the technique of using questions and answers, by involving students in pair-work and group-work conversations. The book also encourages teachers to practise conversation dialogues before putting them in pair-work and group-work activities of questions and answers. In levels eight and nine, the coursebook contains a variety of controlled speaking activities, such as repeat new vocabulary and controlled practice of taped conversations and dialogues. When students confidence increases, teachers are encouraged to use the language in more creative ways, such as adapting patterns and models which involve students using a prompt or model to produce their sentences or short exchanges as openings for freer speaking and allow students to use similar own conversations or discussion (Quintana, Barker, McGarry, & O'Neill, 2008, pp. 6-8)

Regarding teaching listening, for the early levels of English learners in Year five and Year six, listening activities are used to help them learn and improve their skills. Teachers are required to prepare students before doing the listening activities (by

playing the cassettes that are designed for the activities[2], so the learners know what teacher wants them to do by using pictures, words and demonstration. After the activities, teachers are required to ask students a question to show their interest and talking and confirming the answers. In Year seven to Year nine, the listening activities have three different types: Listening models; Listening as an aid to reading; and Listening skills development. Listening models are designed to help learners practise sound, rhythm and the stresses of the language; teachers are required to use the cassette for this model.

Regarding reading skills, listening is used to aid reading stories. Cartoon strips or conversation dialogues are provided on cassettes and in course books. The instructions for teachers are to ask students to listen and read and, for students who have difficulties with pronunciations, teachers are to ask students to read aloud with a listening cassette (Frino, Mhochain, O'Neill, & McGarry, 2007). The third type of listening is developing listening as a skill, which is designed to help students to deal with real words they hear.

Regarding writing skills, two types of writing exercises are presented in coursebooks for each year level. For Year five and six, handwriting activities help learners to practise forming letters and writing them. The second type is activities where learners learn to write to complete sentences and to solve a puzzle or answer questions. Teachers are required not to put pressure on students to write correctly or to expect learners to write in perfect handwriting, because "the pupils are writing to communicate in this type of exercise" (Philip, 2007, p. 11). For Year seven to nine, writing exercises are designed to develop learners' ability to write sentences with correct syntax, spelling, punctuation, and capitalisation, and to write paragraphs to order ideas to create longer personalised texts (Frino, Mhochain, O'Neill, & McGarry, 2007; Qunitana, O'Neill, & McGarry, 2012, p. 8)

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[2] Unfortunately, not all cassettes are available to teachers. Since the research has been conducted, there has been some initiative to put the resources online [https://www.englishforlibya.com/], but problems still exist because the the internet connection is unreliable, and many teachers do not have the internet connection.

According to the objects of the English curriculum, teachers are supposed to facilitate learning to enable students to achieve their communication goals. According to a curriculum designer (Philip, 2007), "the language in *English for Libya* is taught to help pupils communicate naturally" (p. 9). *English for Libya* books is specifically designed in England for Libyan learners. Appendixes four to eight contain a copy of the objectives of the coursebook and workbook for each school year, taken from government records. The researcher received a copy of these documents to use in this study from the education inspector office in Nalut. However, researchers (Ahmed, 2004; Ali, 2008; Orafi & Borg, 2009; Tantani, 2012) have reported that Libyan secondary school students often finished their education with undeveloped speaking skills and cannot even communicate or express simple sentences in a conversation. This was the result of teachers' pedagogical practice, which focuses on transmitting grammatical knowledge by memorisation instead of focusing on developing communicative ability and functional competence in addition to mastering language structure (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Other critiques related to teaching materials, for example, Ali (2008) argued that Libyan teaching materials are not relevant to learners' educational and cultural contexts. He stated that books help students achieve their goals but that they are not appropriate for their level.

2.3.2 Examination system in Libya

The English curriculum in Libya aims to extend students' abilities in all English language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). However, several studies (Ahmend, 2004; Ali, 2008; Elabbar, 2011; Orafi & Borg, 2009; Shihiba & Embark, 2011) have found that students who completed secondary school in Libya had not developed their speaking skills and were facing difficulties at the university level. To meet the aim of the curriculum, speaking tests and other English language skill tests should be included in all examinations. Aloreibi and Garey (2017) discussed the advantage of direct testing and the large scale of national proficiency exams, such as IELTS testing, which include direct evaluation of each English skill separately (writing, reading speaking and listening) and a focus on communicative ability. They describe the difficulties to implement direct testing of communicative ability in the Libyan

examination system, due to the lack of resources such as technology, the number of trained people needed for listening tests and the time limit for speaking tests.

Nevertheless, Orafi (2008) and later Shihiba and Embark (2011) found that the examinations in Libyan secondary schools still focus on grammar memorisation and vocabulary testing. According to Suwaed (2011), "The university teachers are often faced with different levels of English, as some students will be good at writing English, while most will have had less practice" (p. 27). The author further noted that national exams at the secondary school level in Libya affect how English is taught. Concurring with Orafi and Borg (2009), Suwaed stated that, even though the curriculum in Libyan secondary schools has changed, the assessment procedures have not, as some secondary school teachers still employ assessments based on traditional teaching.

However, Orafi (2008) observed that, while examination criteria are written by the teachers, those for the final year of secondary school (Year four) are set by the Ministry of Education. Consequently, the examination criteria are not in line with the curriculum. Shihiba and Embark (2011) argued that this misalignment forces teachers to focus on preparing students for passing the exam. In other words, they teach grammar and focus on vocabulary memorisation, rather than communication skills. Shihiba and Embark (2011) thus concluded that "neither the teachers nor the students have anything good to say about these criteria of examinations" (p. 297).

2.4 Politics and Policies in Libyan Education

2.4.1 Political decisions about languages

The Libyan Government has a long history of banning languages to maintain an Arabic union. In the early 1980s, various initiatives were implemented to sideline Amazigh language as a separate ethnicity, while the Arabic language was declared as the official language, to be used in all public writing and communication. As a result, all books printed in Amazigh were banned, and speakers of the Amazigh language were prohibited from communicating freely in Libya using their native language. This situation stands in contrast to the current state of affairs in Morocco and Algeria, where the Amazighen people have long fought for and have successfully established schools

and media stations where their native dialects are freely used. People define themselves as Amazighen once they speak the Amazigh language (Errihani, 2012). The introduction and growth of the Amazigh language have contributed to it becoming more prevalent and freely used in Libyan societies and schools. Indeed, the people's cultural right to learn and practise Libyan Amazigh dialects should be maintained.

Complaints were made by various groups, including the National Commission for Minorities, several linguistic and minority groups and the Commission for Linguistic Minorities in Libya, concerning the abuse of the Amazigh language in the education sector and the improper policies that have resulted in institutional and cultural linguicism and discrimination against any minor child who chooses to use his or her mother tongue (Becker, 2006). These negative outcomes are a consequence of the Libyan government's refusal to recognise Berber languages within its borders.

During the period discussed, teaching English was also forbidden because of political tension between Libya and the Western countries. Nonetheless, only basic english and grammar rules lessons were still provided in some schools. These prohibitions have left long-term effects on Libyan education, both in terms of teacher quality and knowledge attainment by students. With a lot of complaints from educators and parents, in 2000, the government reversed this decision, aiming to adopt a modern approach such as communicative language teaching (CLT) to raise the status of English language teaching in education. Consequently, English has become important because it is the international language of education and business. The challenges Libyan education currently faces include the need to raise the professional development of teachers and improve student achievement levels. Masters (2015) provided some strategies for enhancing student achievement in Australia, which can also be applied in Libya:

> Identifying children at risk of low achievement at the earliest possible ages; enhancing levels of school readiness; diagnosing learning difficulties upon entry to school and intervening intensively during the early years of school to address individual learning needs to give as many students as possible the chance of successful ongoing learning. (p. 4)

2.4.2 The impact of socio-political changes on Libyan education

The social, cultural, and religious factors inherent in Libyan society play an important role in determining educational practices adopted in Libyan classrooms. These factors, in turn, "influence who does what inside the classroom, what kinds of behaviours are acceptable, what is learned, and how it is learned" (Orafi, 2008, p. 7). Nonetheless, it is important to recognise that there are "well-qualified academics and educationalists both in Libya and abroad who are willing to rebuild the education system and to make a contribution to society once they are allowed to do so" (Gadour, 2011, p. 127). The Libyan educational sector still follows a top-down model, thus hindering any professional development or innovation (Gadour, 2006).

The problem is that there is no clear political framework within Libya, nor are there any functioning political parties to debate issues of concern as one can find in other countries in the world (Gadour, 2011. p. 126). Since 2011, the Ministry of education has become a primary educational decision-maker in Libya. These decisions appoint, evaluate, and eliminate teachers and headteachers, design exams, and provide INSTs' training, leaving schools and local educational authorities with limited autonomy.

2.4.3 Schooling policies

Teachers' concerns at the beginning of their teaching career are usually about meeting the level of teaching challenges such as acquiring the knowledge and skills and getting learners to learn in a positive classroom environment and collaborating with other colleges and administrators. However, coping with educational politics is important to the formation of their professional knowledge. Politics means the way people use the power, influence, and authority to affect instructional and curricular practices within a school or school system (Parkay, 2006).

Libyan universities need to provide a clear policy for the training of PSTs and to help them develop good qualifications by incorporating recent research findings into their policies. Tantani (2012) argued that Libyan universities and institutions qualify English language teachers, but teachers are graduating from different institutions with different levels of English proficiency. This shows that Libyan universities need to

provide a clear policy for the training and development of student teachers and to provide good qualifications in response to these researches findings. Elabbar (2011) suggested that an EFL program should be implemented in Libyan universities through an EFL policy. However, Libyan universities appear not to have clear training policy or processes for teacher training, nor "do they have policies to provide 'knowledge' and 'praxis' in theory-based contemporary language teaching approaches" (Elabbar, 2011, p. 92; see also Gadour, 2006). Elabbar (2011) suggested that an EFL program should be included in Libyan universities through an EFL policy. He stated that there is currently no clear policy to encourage the teachers to take CLT training. However, Elabbar viewed just one university where his research was conducted. Other universities may have other rules and policies. According to the statement of Objectives of Educational Policy in Libya (GPCE, 2008):

> Training teachers in important areas of specialisation, including many processes and activities such as determining the philosophy of this preparation and training, and it is practical, psychological and educational bases, and identify their goals and purposes, and planning its curricula and programs and determining the procedures and processes of preparation and training of various categories of teachers for basic secondary education, and address the low level of scientific and vocational training of many teachers before joining the teaching profession. (p.15)

2.5 EFL Teacher Training and Qualification

The teaching practicum gives PSTs a chance to develop and try out their skills and knowledge for effective practice. It is the first experience of teaching and offers the best chance for future teachers to test their beliefs and enhance their pedagogical skills (Pittard, 2003). Normally, teacher education programs prepare PSTs and graduates to become qualified teachers equipped with pedagogical practices that will assist them to meet the increasing demands associated with the teaching profession (DarlingHammond, & LePage, 2005; Mergler & Spooner-Lane, 2012). In addition, Tantani (2012) also argued that teachers who graduate from Libyan universities and institutions have two different qualifications of English proficiency.

One qualification program is conducted by the Department of English at the

College of Teacher Training Education in Libya. Students in this department study a curriculum that has both theoretical and practical modules, including the development of listening and speaking skills. According to Shihara and Embark (2011), "the practical modules of the curriculum are concerned with developing student teachers' production skills" (p. 21). The theoretical modules are concerned with developing students' linguistic skills (such as reading comprehension and writing) and knowledge (such as grammar and phonetics). The program also covers theoretical psychology, with courses like general psychology, psychology and development, and children's health. Embark pointed out that psychology courses are taught in Arabic.

A second program is available in the Department of English at the College of Art. Shihiba and Embark (2011) stated that teachers who graduate from this college study literature, translation and linguistics theories, but they do not study a curriculum that has a practicum or teaching methodology. As a result, students who graduate from this college have underdeveloped communication skills. Other researchers (Akle, 2005; Al Hamali, 2007; Orafi & Borg, 2009) reported that English teachers who graduate from university also have underdeveloped communication skills. Suwaed (2011) also mentioned that most teachers who graduate from the College of Art are employed as English teachers because of the lack of English Teachers in Libyan schools. The implications of these art school graduates becoming English teachers when they do not have formal training in English communication skills are likely to be evident in schools.

2.5.1 The communicative language teaching (CLT) training in Libya

Research has shown that English teachers lack training in communicative language teaching, which was found to be one of the contextual factors that resulted in a discrepancy between the curriculum and teachers' practice (Orafi, 2008). As noted earlier, Libyan English teachers lack practical training in general. This lack is considered the initial barrier to teachers' development and their understanding of communicative language teaching (CLT). Moreover, researchers (Orafi, 2008; Shihiba & Embark, 2011; Tantani, 2012) have found that some teachers have not had any practical teaching in CLT. They were hired based on their prior experience of teaching

English (Orafi, 2008). This mismatch between the teachers' skills and what they put into practice will only continue if new teachers are not given a better understating of the principles of CLT through a proper training and development program. Shihiba and Embark (2011) found that even younger teachers did not experience the communicative approach during their university training. According to him, "there is a lack of harmony between university education in Libya and the needs of secondary schools" (p. 300).

Latiwish (2003) and Elabbar (2011) stated that teachers who have been teaching for more than 18 years, considered an older generation of teachers, still "maintain their old perspective of teacher-centred practise and ignored the use of modern teaching facilities such as labs, PowerPoint, email and the internet" (pp. 53-54). The new generation of teachers was offered opportunities to complete a master's and doctoral degree abroad since 1999.

Preparing pre-service EFL teachers to use the communicative language approach requires more attention and support. Researchers like Al-Hazmi (2003), Elabbar (2011) and Shihiba and Embark (2011) have shown that the lack of support and guidance on teaching is the most significant barriers for teachers to overcome in preparing to use this approach. For example, Ali (2008) and Elabbar (2011) also reported that teaching practice is the main supportive program for the teachers to develop themselves. However, Embark found that 79% of the teachers are disappointed in the way they receive guidance and assistance during the process of implementing CLT. The difficulties for teachers to implement the current curriculum (CLT) is due to students' low English levels. Orafi (2008) found that students' low English levels create a barrier for teachers to implement communicative activities. When they tried to implement oral communicative activities, they found it difficult because of students' limited command of the English language structure.

Teachers who have not developed their communicative language skills mostly use traditional teacher-centred methods rather than CLT. These teachers have difficulties teaching and adapting to the communicative approach because of their lack of practical training; poor motivation and negative attitudes may result, in addition to low teaching quality. Why are teachers who graduated from two completely different programs employed in the same schools? They have a completely different qualification and

different levels of knowledge and experience in using CLT. This area has been surprisingly neglected in the literature. Suwaed (2011) mentioned that most teachers who graduated from English departments in the Colleges of Arts are employed as English teachers because of the lack of English teachers in Libyan schools. Regardless of the reasons for these two different educational programs, looking at their structure does explain why secondary school teachers have different abilities and teaching approaches. However, the latest studies were conducted in specific areas of Libya; they generalised their finding and discussion of the problems (Aloreibi & Carey, 2017; Omar, 2013; Rahuma, 2016; Shihiba & Embark, 2011). No research has been conducted in Nalut University.

2.6 The Challenges in Teaching and Learning the English Language in Libya

Many of the challenges of learning and teaching the English language have been raised in the Libyan context since English was recognised as an official second language in 2005 (Najeeb, 2012). The Libyan education system is suffering from several lacks at the same time as to where there are important official challenges needed to improve the advancement of language.

The reality of teaching English in the EFL context can be a challenging where English is not used outside the classroom. Sholihah (2012) stated that "it is quite challenging to apply the CLT because English officially used in the context, or the students have limited opportunity to practice English in the outside classroom" (p. 3; see also Cahnge, 2010). Subsequently, when English is recognised nationally and approved in business and economics, and even in scientific research disciplines as the connecting language between countries, there is a need to reflect on the local contextual realities for the teaching of ELF within higher institutions in Libya.

Three significant issues have been found in the teaching of ELF in contexts like Japan and China. According to Leong and Dodge (2015), "the sociolinguistic environment where English is learned, the classroom culture, and students' orientations towards the learning of English" (p.50) are challenging issues for teachers, who need to use their strategies and instructions to encourage students to accept a positive attitude

towards ELF teaching pedagogy. In addition, student numbers in classrooms, limited class times and an examination system which focuses on grammar are the main reasons why CLT is difficult for teachers to implement in EFL contexts generally and in Libya specifically.

2.6.1 Challenges for students

Beliefs and attitudes of students are two important challenges in determining their success in learning a second language. Self-belief and socio-cultural factors influence the will to learn. These factors play an important role in students' attitudes toward learning a foreign language. Students' attitudes are also considered an important factor in the successful teaching of languages in Libya (Tudor, 2001). An attitude influences learners' progress in language teaching (Ali, 2003). Previous studies by Alhmali (2007), Abidin (2012), Ali (2007), Asker (2011) and Omar (2013) on Libyan students have shown students' attitudes on foreign language learning.

Alhmali (2007) surveyed Libyan students about their attitudes toward their studies and many other aspects of school life, including their attitudes toward learning Arabic and English. His methodology was to interact with a large number of students. He grouped participants aged 12 to 20 years old into five groups. His questionnaire was designed as a series of statements that students were asked to agree or disagree with. The results showed that students from all groups agreed that learning English is necessary in today's world. Students also agreed that learning English at a younger age is important because it will greatly affect their future learning. Moreover, students valued English as an important tool to improve their future career opportunities. The younger group members surveyed had better-speaking abilities than the others because they had studied English in private schools in early grades.

Ali (2013) has also examined students' attitudes toward learning English in Libya. He found that students have two main reasons to learn English. Libyan learners used their course books only to help them pass exams, much like they used books for all other subjects, rather than as a resource they can regularly consult to learn many language skills. The teachers who participated in Ali's study pointed out some issues with English learning materials due to the level of difficulty of the learning materials; students have

developed negative attitudes toward language learning. Other issues found to be challenging was a large number of students in the classroom and the limited duration of the class lessons. Consequently, the teacher may choose to pass on information to the students to complete the planned lesson instead of focus on interacting with the students.

Abidin (2012) investigated the attitudes of Libyan EFL students towards the study of English in secondary schools. He examined three aspects of attitudes: behavioural, cognitive, and emotional. His results showed that students have a negative attitude toward learning English from all of these aspects. For example, in terms of the behavioural attitude toward learning English, Abidin found that the students did not pay attention while the English teachers explained the lessons. Moreover, they felt confused when they were asked to speak in English. Other researchers like Shams (2008) found the same issue a few years earlier. Thus, teachers in Libya need to take more action to build students' ability and confidence in their speaking skills.

2.6.2 Challenges for teachers

The majority of research on EFL in Libya is conducted on secondary schools (Alhmali, 2007; Ali, 2008; Asker, 2012, Embark, 2011; Tantani, 2012; Orafi, 2008; Orafi & Borg, 2009). These studies investigated communicative language teaching (CLT) and identified the barriers to implementing CLT. Orafi (2008), Orafi and Borg (2009) and Shihiba and Embark (2011) found that Arabic teachers' awareness of the importance of communicative teaching activities (like pair work, group work, and role play) has led to more positive attitudes and perceptions over the years. However, they also revealed that even though teachers have positive perceptions, they are still unable to teach CLT effectively. This may be because when they teach in the real practical classroom, they find it hard and not easy to apply CLT. Therefore, despite the implementation of the CLT system decades ago, teachers do not seem to be able to facilitate change easily (Hiep, 2007). This is because the way they been taught was the traditional method of passing on information and the way they are required to teach in CLT is an appreciation of the need for two-way discussion and partnerships with coconstruction of knowledge (Mowlaie & Rahimi, 2010).

Teaching speaking skills requires time and patience. According to Krashen (1982), speaking fluency cannot be taught directly. Rather, it emerges overtime on its own. He claimed that the best way to teach speaking skills is to provide comprehensible input (p. 22). The term comprehensible input is a hypothesis introduced by Krashen

(1981) which refers to learners' ability to understand the message and information produced for them by providing an opportunity to practise English in activities such as cooperative learning groups. Therefore, the current study will focus on how PSTs use oral activities and how they provide opportunities for learners to learn English in the classroom. Moreover, it is important for student teachers who hold positive attitudes and beliefs not to be influenced by those they observe who ignore oral activities.

Shihiba and Embark (2011) have also investigated teachers' ideas about using the communicative approach. The participants in his study were experienced, ranging from 2 to 27 years of teaching. He found that the less experienced teachers had a more positive attitude toward teaching English than those with more experience. More importantly, Shihiba and Embark have identified that the barriers are related to the teachers' individual, contextual and cultural considerations, and these are influencing the teachers' success in teaching CLT. Universities will then need a different setup to train the school teachers and to develop their knowledge on the language through the development of the learning interest such as teachers' motivation.

Previous studies that were conducted in Libya, explored secondary school teachers' and students' beliefs toward CLT and learning and teaching grammar, socialcultural issues and the lack of appropriate supports, focused on teachers' preparation on understanding CLT. In addition, the above studies provide valuable information regarding the differing abilities and qualifications of secondary school teachers. That said, researchers should also examine the beliefs and attitudes of PSTs who are studying at the Department of English at the College of Teachers Training Education. It would be useful to look at beliefs and attitudes before they do their teaching practicums and investigate the difficulties and influences that lead to a change in their beliefs and attitudes.

2.7 Conclusion

This chapter has described the process from school to university in Libya and described admission requirements to enter the University to all different disciplines. In addition, mismatches between schools and university systems are shown in terms of teacher training policy, pedagogical approach, curriculum and materials and the examination system. This chapter emphasised the need to investigate PSTs' beliefs and attitudes because it was believed these future teachers will play a major transformation of the status of EFL teaching and learning and in term of an adaption of new techniques and methods with the use of e-learning.

CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.0 Overview

Quality English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching is in high demand around the world. Thus, an effective pedagogical approach is needed (Richards & Rodgers, 2011, 2014). The English language is the most used as a second or foreign language around the world. That is why there is an increasing request for learning English as a second language. The rapid global shift towards using the internet and digital communication technologies largely requires English language proficiency. Communication technology has changed in language pedagogy and language use (Kern, 2006). Teaching the English language to non-native English speakers is also becoming a popular career due to the increasing demand in the field. Teaching English as a foreign language is a field that is still developing as scholars try to find the best methods that will increase the competence level and also the speed of learning the language. Many factors are usually taken into consideration when teaching the English language, some of which include the teacher's attitude and beliefs, the native language of the learner, the availability of resources such as reading material and videos, cultural beliefs of the learner, among other factors (Tavil, 2010). According to Rahimi (2010), teachers' beliefs and attitudes are more important than changing approaches because teachers are the main decision-makers of what they should teach and how they teach it.

The Arab world is one of the regions that is quickly changing its traditional perspective on language and quickly giving in to the global demand for learning English as a key second language. Various models have been adopted by English teachers in addressing the needs of the students as well as coping with the demand that comes with learning English. This literature review will examine studies on how teaching methods have changed from the traditional grammar-translation methods (GTM), for instance, to embrace the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach, and how these changes have impacted on language pedagogy. Commonly, new teachers face several challenges in their professional development. One of these challenges is how teachers elaborate

educational theory into practice (Johnson, 2006). In Libya, the implementation of communicative language teaching will contribute to the ongoing debate in the literature about the issues and the barriers that teachers experience during their teaching practicum. Thus, this literature review will investigate the current research on preservice teachers' (PSTs) practices, beliefs and attitudes related to teaching a communicative curriculum.

This chapter begins with a review of the conceptual framework for this study. This is followed by a review of the empirical studies on the GTM and the shift to CLT in Arab countries, a description of CLT, the language education policy in Libya, the growth of professional development in EFL, and, finally, the development of teachers' beliefs and attitudes over time.

3.1 Conceptual Framework

This study is based on three interrelated frameworks for researching EFL learning and teaching: (1) theories of second language acquisition (SLA); (2) a change from the GTM to CLT in EFL pedagogy; and (3) language education and policy.
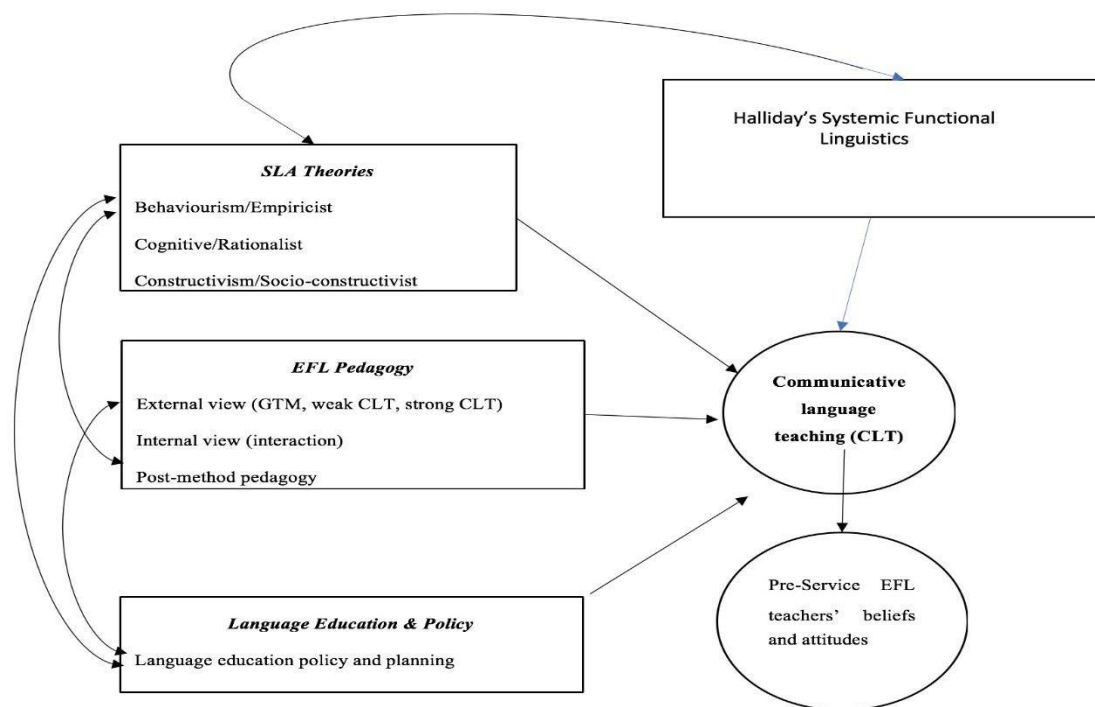
*Figure 3.1***:** The research conceptual framework

Linguistics provides theories of language that can be used as an umbrella and as a source of understanding how language is learnt. These include theories such as

metalanguage, grammar and language description (Mahboob & Tilakaratna, 2012). Language description, in turn, is important in developing materials and tasks that learners need in their learning environment. According to Mahboob and Tilakaratna (2012), "Different linguistic theories explain the language in different ways, which result in different types of language descriptions and influence the choices of pedagogical material" (p. 5).

3.2 Theories of Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

SLA theories are grouped into three theoretical explanations of how language is learned, and these influence the methodologies for EFL teaching (Johnson, 1992).

First, empiricist explanations, such as behaviourism by Skinner (1968), see language learning as a mechanical process of habit formation that results in behavioural and conditioned responses to the target language. Notably, the *behaviourist theory* of learning emphasizes both the quality and quantity of feedback as a major determinant of language learning success. In other words, an empiricist approach, just like the behaviourist theories purport, suggests imitation and practice as the main approach to language learning. Therefore, acquiring linguistic behaviours can be achieved through the process of stimulus, response and imitation (Skinner, 1968).

Second, rationalist explanations, such as cognitivism, view learning as the acquisition of knowledge and understanding of information, concepts, principles and strategies; thus, language acquisition is the conscious control of the phonological, grammatical and lexical items in the target language (Richardson, 1996, 2003). *Cognitive learning theory* purports that learning, as well as language development, are products of recognition and recall. Therefore, mental processing allows for a deeper understanding of knowledge (Rose, Feldman, & Jankowski, 2009). The theorist Albert Bandura illustrated that the social and the cognitive work in a mutual determinism which brings to light that learning is a result of personal, behavioural and environmental aspects (Schraw, Crippen, & Hertley, 2006). This was recognised to be as an advantage of highlighting students' performance and emphasising motivational and motoric aspects of learning and knowledge (Wang, 2017; Zimmerman, 1989).

Five assumptions of social cognitive learning theory were counted by Ormord (2008): "learning accrued by observing others; learning is an internal process that may or may not lead to a behaviour change; people and their environments mutually influence each other; behaviour is directed toward particular goals, and behaviour becomes increasingly self-regulated" (p. 4). The crucial indication of social cognitive theory is that learners learn by watching and observing others and this learning might be a passive and negative role.

Henceforth, practically, considering the relationship between a rationalist explanation and the cognitive learning theory, learning becomes the innate ability that integrates an intellectual understanding of language as a complex system of grammatical structures with the desire to communicate within meaningful contexts. On the other hand, the theory of innate ability is Chomsky's Universal Grammar (UG). Universal Grammar emphasises that language acquisition is an internal thinking-learning process which directly relates to cognitivism. *The Universal Grammar Theory* further purports that children have a natural ability to learn as well as discover for themselves the fundamental standards of a language system. Therefore, UG theory and CLT both explain that learning takes place when natural input is presented.

Third, communicative explanations, such as *constructivist theory* and *interactionist theory*, which are based on the belief that language learning occurs in the social context of interaction where students become active participants in real-life situations. ….Constructivist theory is effective and useful regarding the development of thinking skills, and building the instructional strategies design of classroom experiences, which include "problem-based learning, inquiry activities, dialogues with peers and teachers that encourage making sense of the subject matter, exposure to multiple sources of information, and opportunities for students to demonstrate their understanding in different ways" (Windschitl, 1999, p. 752). Primarily*, the constructivist theory* proposes that individuals construct their knowledge and intelligence. Furthermore, it emphasises that the process of learning is characterised by stages and is often done in collaboration with others. Constructivism has been viewed as an epistemology, a psychology and a theory of communication (Matsuoka et al., 2004). Epistemological constructivism explains the nature of knowledge and how humans learn (Carreño, 2014). The

psychological constructivism of Piaget (1952) views learning as an essentially individualistic enterprise. This theory assumes that learners and teachers come to a classroom with personal beliefs and ideas that need to be changed by the teacher, who facilitates this change to determine new realities to construct their knowledge (Carreño, 2014). In line with social constructivist theory (Vygotsky, 1978), learning and individual development of knowledge is achieved only in the social context through interaction (Ellis, 2005). According to Long (1996), therefore, for learners to acquire the language they must be co-constructive participants who actively interact and confer the linguistic input they receive. Such understandings have been previously proposed and studied over several decades, for example in Allwright (1991), Bailey (2006) and Long (1996) about EFL teaching in schools. Accordingly, the interactionist view has attempted to expand and articulately explain how the language is learned or developed.

Firstly, *the interactionist theory* (Long, 1996) largely centres on the aspect of collaboration within the linguistic environment. In other words, language development, according to the interactionist theory, is the result of a series of complex interplays between the learner's environment and his/her natural language capacities. Therefore, language has to be modified to the ability of the learner by simplifying input and adjusting it through linguistic and extra-linguistic cues. Language is adjusted by the learners every time they confer meaning and interact with others.

Social interaction in the CLT environment plays a crucial role in impacting students' motivation to improve their communicative competence. This is because they have a target to learn English so that they would pay more attention to communicative classroom activities as well as grammatical sentence structure (Vongxay, 2013). When learning English in the EFL context, students lack the motivation to communicate because they have less chance to use the language outside the classroom. Learning English for EFL learners is generally part of the school curriculum rather than a survival necessity (Ellis, 1996). Hence, it is usually only during class time that EFL students have exposure to English, so they are unable to test and practice strategies as easily (Ellis, 1996; Rao, 2002). Several language scholars claim that language acquisition does not require the extensive use of conscious grammatical rules and drills; rather, it requires interaction in the target language (Chaudron, 1988; Denhovska, Serratrice, & Payne,

2016; Krashen, 1981; Rebuschat & Williams, 2012; Tagarelli, Borges Mota, & Rebuschat, 2011).

Chaudron (1988) proposes the role of interaction in second language learning as follows:

> Interaction is viewed as significant because it is argued that 1) only through interaction can the learner decompose the TL structures and derive meaning from classroom events, 2) interaction gives learners the opportunities to incorporate TL structures into their speech (the scaffolding principle), and 3) the meaningfulness for learners of classroom events of any kind, whether the thought of as interactive or not, will depend on the extent to which communication has been jointly constructed between the teacher and learners. (p. 10)

Socio-cultural theory (SCT) is different from behaviourism and cognitivism. It presents another ideology of learning, which involves two perspectives: cognitive and social. Grounded upon SCT, social interaction and cooperative learning are paramount in constructing both cognitive and emotional images of reality. Human learning is a continuous reciprocal interaction of cognitive, behavioural and environmental factors (Ehrich, 2006).

The socio-cultural theory provides a new perspective on the process of SLA. First, the introduction of the concept of mediation. Language teachers' realise the importance of conceptualising language learning as a process mediated by different kinds of semiotic sources in the classroom. Secondly, socio-cultural theory helps teachers understand students from a different perspective such as learners' culture. Thirdly, this theory emphasizes that learning is situated which means learning can occur in different places in various forms. Fourthly, the concept of scaffolding is important in second language learning because its use helps teachers comprehend that learner potential development can be achieved using a mediator and assisted help from teachers and peers (Dongyu, Fanyu, & Wanyi, 2013).

In L2 acquisition, scaffolding refers to the "provision through the conversation of linguistic structure that promotes a learners' recognition or production of those structures" (Chaudron, 1988, p. 10). In the second language classroom, scaffolding and other task-related interactions such as "the sequence of turns taken with conversants aids learners in gradually incorporating portions of sequences, lexical items, reproducing

sounds in meaningful ways rather than in mechanical repetitions or lengthy monologues"
Chaudron, 1988, p. 10).

3.3 English as a foreign language pedagogy

3.3.1 The GTM versus CLT in EFL Countries

Communicative language teaching (CLT) and the grammar-translation method
(GTM) are opposite. The first different argument between the two is that CLT is an
approach (Swathi, 2014) and GTM is a method (Shastri, 2010). An approach is not just
a set of static principles but is represented as a dynamic composite of energies within a
teacher that changes with continued experience in learning and teaching. In the broadest
sense, the concept of CLT encompasses a very wide range of teaching practice (Whong,
2013). It serves as a useful umbrella term to include several teaching methods in the
socalled post-methods era (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Kumaravadivelu, 2002). CLT
takes a student-centred and experience-based view of EFL teaching (Richard & Rodgers,
2014). It includes opportunities for learning that are authentic and focused on meaning-
making and problem-solving, as opposed to a teacher-directed classroom context that
focuses on GTM. According to the CLT view of the educational process, classroom
practice is viewed as interpretive and dynamic (Savignon, 2002), with teachers as
facilitators, who support the learners in gaining new knowledge. Thus, it requires a move
away from a traditional transmission-based view of learning (Liou,
2001) to focus on teachers' critical thinking skills and to develop their effective
pedagogies by considering their beliefs and voices (Capune, 2012; Kumaravadivelu,
1994). Teachers are encouraged to look deeply beyond the activities in the classroom
(Edwards-Groves & Hoare, 2012) and to adopt non-didactic approaches (Debreli, 2012).
In CLT, learners learn the target language through interaction, by engaging in pair work,
group work, dialogue, and/or role-play activities; thus learners talk more and are active
learners.

The method is defined as an overall plan for a systematic presentation of language
based on a selected approach. In the Grammar Translation Method, the teacher's
fundamental purpose is to help students read and appreciate literature written in the target

language. To be able to do this, students have to learn much about grammar rules and vocabularies.

In GTM, learners learn the target language by focusing on grammar and translations (Abbas & Ali, 2014), with more teacher talk, and the students are passive learners. When taught using the grammar-translation method, English speaking and listening skills do not show a significant improvement because the simple texts of reading and writing are the focus, with little or no systematic attention being paid to speaking and listening (Leong & Ahmadi, 2017). In contrast, CLT addresses all language skills: speaking, listening, writing and reading are all practised.

Teaching aids such as bilingual word lists, and dictionaries are used in selecting vocabulary. In a characteristic grammar-translation method, the grammar rules are presented and illustrated, but there is a lack of focus on being able to converse in the language. In addition, this method is encouraged because students' English is tested through written examinations such that there is no an incentive for teachers to change their practice when they need to prepare students for a written test.

In Arab countries, such as Libya, using the GTM among Arab speaking students and teachers has also proved to have minimal impact on acquiring speaking and listening skills in English (Chapple & Curties, 2000). One of the reasons is that providing an overemphasis on the translation part of language learning has prevented learners and teachers from being independent in the use of English compared with their native language (Miller & Aldred, 2000). Secondly, the traditional approach puts a lot of emphasis on the two macro skills of reading and writing, but understanding a large number of grammatical rules does not guarantee a student's fluent speaking skills in that language. In addition, most of the written instructions that are given are largely theoretical and do not offer any practical sense of a foreign language. Last but not least, the authors point out that memorising words does not encourage students to engage in speaking and interacting in that language, and it also detracts from the learning it quickly. Countries, where EFL is taught, have used and continue to use the Grammar Translation Method (GTM), which was not intended to teach speaking, as speaking skills have been more difficult to teach when teachers lack English proficiency themselves, and there are no opportunities to converse in the English language (Assalahi, H. M. (2013; Huang,

2016; Afshar & Rahimi, 2014). Hence, there has been the move to Communicative Language teaching (CLT) in an attempt to introduce a curriculum that includes speaking and listening (see history of methods and approaches and post method (Richards & Renandya, 2002; Athawadi, 2019). Speaking and listening have typically been ignored as evidence of learning English in preference for a focus on reading and writing where for example achievement has been tested through multiplechoice tests, often because of large class sizes (Bora, 2012; Mekhafi and Ramani, 2011).

In the European context, the translation of grammar started during the 18th century. During the 20th century, English teachers raised concerns about the need to not only train students on the acquisition of grammar, but also on how those words are pronounced and used in the social context. This led to the development of new models that would promote not only basic translation but also the interactive use of language (Rao, 1996). A previous study was carried out in Germany by Wilhelm (1918, cited in Rodgers, 2014), who pointed out that teachers should also concentrate on teaching the students phonetics, to enable them to pronounce the words correctly and understand the
"speech pattern rather than grammar" (p. 10).

Traditional methods that are commonly used in teaching English are categorised as: the grammar-translation method, the direct method and the audio-lingual method. The term method, used for practising teachers, is a set of theoretical ideas to apply in a classroom context (Brown, 2007). The learner is described as a passive recipient. The grammar-translation method is mostly used in EFL contexts and it focuses on the analysis of written text and grammar rules, the use of the first language as the medium of instruction, the use of translation exercises, and reading and writing (Walia, 2012).

The communicative language teaching approach started gaining momentum in the 1970s when non-English immigrants increased in Europe and then in the United States. As a result, there was an increasing proportion of people needing to learn English for work or personal reasons. Britain was the first country that gave the right to all immigrant children to learn English by introducing comprehensive schools. A comprehensive school is a state school that does not select students based on academic achievement, compared to the selective school system, where admission is restricted based on selection

criteria (Pischke & Manning, 2006). The introduction of comprehensive schools meant that almost all children had the opportunity to study foreign languages (Mitchell, 1994). As a result of these immigrations, there was an increased demand for the English language which put pressure on educators to change their teaching methods. The post method era is the result of the movement of searching for effective language teaching methods and understandings of the nature of the teaching and learning process. Researchers found that applying communicative learning techniques was a more effective way of learning the language than learning through traditional methods as passive recipients of knowledge (Hayes, 2018, p. 33). The development of communicative language teaching began to evolve and was helped by new academic ideas. For instance, Chomsky's (2002) insights into the nature of language and applied linguistics began to doubt the effectiveness of traditional language teaching (Chomsky, 2002). Chomsky felt that the structural theories of language could not show the creativity and other evidence in real communication (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Even though CLT began to influence EFL teaching and research decades ago in many countries, the search for a better way to teach languages continues. In other countries like China, English language teaching was also based on traditional teaching. Rao (1996) pointed out that the Chinese classroom for learning English adopted the same traditional approach as for learning in general. There was not any interaction between students; the most interaction was made by teachers to students. Therefore, after some years of learning English, Chinese students were unable to understand what native speakers say or to even express themselves in English. Rao explained that this inability "to apply what they have learned in the classroom" (p. 458) greatly limits Chinese people in communicating with westerners. Therefore, in 1996, teachers of EFL in China started to become aware of the importance of updating their English teaching methods.

Crandall (2000) investigated the differences between the grammar-translation methods and communicative approaches in teaching English syntax interpretation in Taiwan, to investigate the differences between the two. Ninety-six students from the Applied Foreign Language Department at Taiwan College participated in the study. The research established that the grammar-translation strategy was superior to the communicative approach in the accuracy of transcription of sound, while the latter is

superior in fluency and tonal variation in speech. As a result, he concluded that the perfect methodology might be delivered by developing the two strategies in teaching.

Additionally, Deng and Liu (2018) concurred with Crandall (2000) through their findings from a study in Bangladesh. They reasoned that the syntax interpretation strategy is a suitable system, even though the combination with CLT was seen as making another productive technique that could replace the traditional grammar-translation system.

3.3.2 Characteristics of Communicative language teaching

The genesis of communicative language teaching (CLT), which is also referred to as the communicative approach, can be found in the implemented changes in the British traditions since the late 1960s (Pischke & Manning, 2006). At the time, the British used the Situational Language Teaching approach (SLT) in teaching English. During this era, situational language teaching comprised practising basic activities that are meaningful. Considering the spread of English during this era of globalisation, there is a greater need for individuals to be equipped with good communication skills, thus placing a demand for effective teaching methodologies. Since the introduction of CLT, the effort towards ensuring a competent society in terms of communication is tremendous. According to Kumaravadivelu (2003), teaching the students how to effectively use language is considered to be at least as important as getting to know the language itself (Altasan, 2016).

The theories underlying the application of the weak version of communicative language teaching was provided by Ellis (2013). There are 10 assumptions: 1) instruction should enable the learners to develop rule-based competence and a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions; 2) instructions should direct the focus of learning on meaning; 3) instructions should direct the focus of learning on the form; 4) instructions should be primarily aimed at developing implicit knowledge while not ignoring explicit knowledge; 5) teaching must consider the sequence and order of acquisition; 6) there should be intensive L2 input for successful teaching; 7) for proficiency to be developed in L2, the interaction between the student and the teacher is key; 8) learners' differences must be taken into account in the teaching; 9) the subjective aspect of the language must

be taken into account by the instruction, and 10) to assess the proficiency of learners, it is vital that controlled as well as free production is examined.

The underlying principles on which the strong version of communicative language teaching hinges was provided by Priyana (2006) following further research. The assumptions include: 1) it is natural to make errors in the target language acquisition process; 2) it is critical to expose the learner to comprehensible input; 3) it is important to learn tasks and activities that facilitate interaction of the learner; 4) teachers should motivate learners to produce the target language as it promotes learning; 5) it is important that silence is upheld and maintained during the early periods despite language production being necessary; 6) it is necessary to focus on form; 7) teaching of the second language and the pace of learning should be moderate to meet the needs of both the high and low aptitude students; 8) there should be diverse or varied learning activities to cater for the needs of introvert as well as extrovert learners; 9) tasks should be motivating to the learners and facilitate their deriving of both form and meaning, and be diverse enough to meet the different learning methods preferred by different learners; 10) the processes of teaching and learning should be motivating to learning and relieving anxieties; 11) the subject matter or the content of teaching and learning should be appropriate to the age of the learner; and 12) the process of learning should inspire and maintain the learner's quest to learn the language (Priyana, 2006).

The importance of communicative language teaching is emphasised by Cohen (2014), who concludes that communicative activities play an essential role in enhancing student learning. Communicative activities are also important in helping teachers to develop the communicative competence of learners – an important aspect of learning a new language. Cohen further notes that there is no definite implementation procedure of communicative language teaching. Therefore, the teachers have a duty of creating an environment that facilitates learning of communicative language. He states that communicative language teaching procedures can be incorporated into lesson plans to guide the learning process in the classroom environment.

According to Liao (2000), the aim of communicative language teaching is the implementation of the theoretical communication concept by providing an interactive or communicative environment for learners. The communicative language teaching

approach encourages learners to engage in real or practical communication using the intended or target language to express ideas. Teachers and students play different roles in this procedure and some tasks are vital since they are associated with real communication situations (Liao, 2000). The interaction hypothesis also contributes to CLT. According to Gass (2013), interactions facilitate the development of an understanding of a second language. Importantly, negative feedback that is bound to come up as a result of the risk-taking of verbally interacting can result in positive outcomes in terms of learning the second language.

According to Liao (2000), Candlin designed a systematic way of teaching communicative English where he identified four stages. The first stage involves the organisation of information, which focuses on the basic understanding of the learner in various aspects, such as a multiple-choice exercise, matching activity, and text variety in relation to heard, pictorial and written stimuli. The second stage is the implanting skills stage, which involves introducing and controlling simulations created to derive social meanings inherent in certain grammatical structures in different situations. Developing skills occurs in the third stage, where learners practise productive language use albeit under a controlled environment. The fourth stage is the language use stage and includes exercises focusing on discourse plans and language charts aimed at stimulating the production of extensive communications – both written and spoken (Liao, 2000). Thus, when this is applied to ESL learners they can develop the language in the social domain.

Regarding EFL learners, where they only can practice in the classrooms, they need to first learn the rules of the language before they can learn the language itself. This version, therefore, allows drilling of vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar. Various activities are suggested by experts in this field. According to Pebriani and Training (2019), activities for beginner learners can be designed as 1) discussions and designs; 2) puzzles and problems; 3) picture and picture stories; 4) communicative strategies; 5) matching activities; 6) dialogues and role-plays, and 7) questions and answers. Pebriani and Training further suggest that the activities are used in three stages, which they identified as 1) introducing and demonstrating the activity for the learners to try out, which is aimed at establishing the understanding of the learner; 2) continued practice by

the learner through guidance by the teachers while the interaction of the learners dominates the stage; and 3) giving learners the freedom to practice without the teacher's guidance or model phrases dependence.

The form/function debate, which Musumeci (1997) shows have a history that predates modern conceptions of language teaching, remains healthy in the post-methods CLT era. Form-focused instruction (FFI) and form-focused instruction (FFI) is an important factor that contributes to CLT. On examination of this issue, Spada and colleagues (Spada, & Lightbown, 2009; Tomita, & Spada, 2013) reflects on replication studies, how young learners react to the instructions given to them, teacher research and other relevant topics that pertain to learning. Many scholars identify the importance of form-focused instruction in CLT (Ammar, Lightbown, & Spada, 2010; Lightbown & Spada, 1994; Tomita & Spada, 2013), FFI refers to an attempt to try to direct the attention of a learner to a form either naturally or pre-emptively within a context of constructive communicative interaction (Banegas, 2017). It is also important to consider diverse opinions with regards to FFI. In as much as there are varied opinions, sometimes it is the words that are used differently. Spada and colleagues highlight the broadness of Ellis (2005) definition, which comprises paying attention to form during a communication. For example, Tomita and Spada (2013) show that form-focused instruction, such as corrective feedback, pushed output and explicit grammar, provides diverse benefits to SLA, arguing that many EFL students are silent and struggle to communicate in English. For example, Japanese students who were resistant to joining in communicative activities were completely engaged in communicative activities that focused on grammar structure (Tomita & Spada, 2013, p. 592). Ellis et al. (2006) investigated the differences between recasts (implicit feedback) and metalinguistic (explicit) feedback with adult learners; for example, giving a clue after repeating the errors relating to the acquisition of regular past tense. Ellis et al. found that metalinguistic feedback was more effective than recasts.

The Libyan English curriculum has both controlled activities and free practice activities that contain the accuracy and fluency of language learning. Spada and Lighbown (1993) and Rahman and Deviyanti (2018) claimed that both forms focus on language activities, and meaning should be balanced in language learning. To make the

best out of arising situations, there is a greater need for the understanding of differences that pertain to the different versions and getting to know how to twist situations to be in our favour.

3.3.3 The grammar pedagogy in a communicative approach

There are different attitudes and beliefs about the role of grammar in the communicative approach. Grammatical competence is one of a range of communicative competences, which include discourse competence, strategic competence, and sociolinguistic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). However, there is continuing debate about the role of grammar in a communicative approach. For instance, the communicative approach is seen by some as inadequate in helping students achieve a high level of grammatical competence (Richards, 1996), and others have argued that communicative language teaching does not include any grammar (Krashen, 1988), which has led researchers to design a complementary approach to the communicative approach (interpretation-based approach to grammar teaching).

In Japan, research has shed light on two elements of teaching grammar in CLT. The first element is that teachers should teach grammar in a way that supports communication and integration into learning activities. The second element is that grammar should be the basic foundation of the communicative approach. It has been explained that "In teaching grammar, explaining technical terms and usage should be minimised. Instead, it is important to instruct students in a way that they can utilise their grammatical knowledge in communication" (MEXT, 2009, cited in Tahira 2012, p. 6). For more than two decades, Japan has introduced communicative language teaching. However, the implementation of CLT appears to have accrued slowly. This is probably because the majority of students use their first language during oral communication courses, and Japanese English teachers continue to use other methods, like the grammartranslation method, and like spending most of the time explaining the role of grammar, thus refraining reading. Nishino (2011), in his study in a Japanese high school, found that teachers did not frequently use communicative activities (p. 32). Moreover, the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) guidelines have provided preparation classes for teachers. The research advised that English teachers still need training because some teachers are still unfamiliar with the

knowledge and strategy of CLT. Tahira (2012) concluded that CLT is not well-rooted in Japan, so the teachers do not fully understand it and are not confident about using CLT (p. 6). In addition, they may not have the level of English proficiency required or experience of speaking with native speakers. Traditional syllabuses have been based on structural or descriptive grammars. According to Ellis (2006) "Structural syllabuses traditionally emphasised the teaching of form over meaning" (p. 87).

In summary, research shows the importance of integrating grammar when using the communicative approach, as the solution for shifting from the grammar-translation method to the communicative method. This discussion about implementing CLT in Japan has shown that difficulties in teaching English communicatively remained. Other implications in different countries that teach EFL will be discussed next.

3.3.4 Implementation issues of CLT in EFL countries

The findings of previous studies provide valuable knowledge and information about EFL Arabic and non-Arabic teachers' perceptions of the implementation of CLT in English secondary school classes. These show that there are aspects that lead to success or failure of communication language teaching and these should be taken into consideration. They include theoretical aspect, social aspect, pedagogical aspect and psychological aspect. Even though CLT began to influence EFL teaching and research decades ago, many education authorities have developed national curricular that promote CLT in some form (Her, 2007; Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2017, Johnson, 2015), However, there is a growing body of evidence that indicates that EFL teachers are unfamiliar with CLT (NeSmith, 2012) or they have misunderstood the principles of CLT (Karavas-Doukas, 1996). In some cases, most teachers were unaware of the CLT principles (Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2017). Teachers hold positive beliefs toward the CLT but they are sometimes unable to put it into practice (Feryok, 2010; Rahimi & Naderi, 2014), or they disagree with it in terms of it being impractical in real classrooms (Wilbur, 2007).

Many other reasons were revealed in the literature. These include the tension between traditional cultural norms and the modern approaches and the pressure to conform to western norms (Harumi, 2011; Johnson 2015). The early literature on communicative curriculum implementations and innovations carried out small surveys

(Kamaradivelu, 1993; Long & Sato, 1983; Nunan, 1987) which reveal the impressions of teachers. They recognise the importance of CLT, but in teaching practice, it did not occur. Other studies investigated teachers' understandings and beliefs about CLT (Karavas-Doukas 1996; Li, 1998; Littlewood, 2007; Mangubhai et al., 1998, 2007; Orafi, 2008; Rahimi & Naderi, 2014; Ryerson & Llurda, 2008). These studies found that teachers have misconceptions about what CLT is and its principles, and how to use CLT activities in a meaningful context.

These studies recommended that providing 'tools' to support teachers' knowledge can help in the successful implementation of CLT that allows the teachers to engage their students in effective learning of a foreign language. Another suggestion for solving the problem of teaching communicative language is to combine teaching methods, that is, to combine the traditional structure view with a functional view of language (Littlewood, 2007). Some other studies describe that teachers follow the methods which they were taught during their school years or the methods they observed during their practical classes (Mowlaie & Rahimi, 2010).

Studies in the Iranian context, such as Rahimi and Naderi (2014), found that teachers in that context held positive beliefs and attitudes toward implementing CLT. They argued that "teachers' attitudes are not the only factor to ensure the implementation of innovation and change in the educational system; other factors such as the nature of that innovation and socio-organisational context of change should be considered" (p. 241). These factors might include insufficient support from administration, lack of resources and authentic materials, and a mismatch of a traditional view towards teachers' and learners' roles with CLT. Other problems might be the challenge of large classes for experiencing CLT, and the impact of grammar-based examinations on the use of CLT.

Similarly, the incompatibility of CLT with an exam-oriented atmosphere was found to be a problem confronted in many countries, such as China, Japan, and Libya, when implementing CLT (Gorsuch, 2000; Taguchi, 2005; Nishino, 2008). These studies concluded with the dissatisfaction of teachers' beliefs regarding CLT and the conditions of the entrance examinations, which focus on passing grammar and vocabulary. Kim (2014) reported that university teachers' beliefs in Colombia had an impact on their

assessment of students; he found that CLT was not fully implemented in their assessment practice.

The influence of contextual factors in using CLT is another major finding discussed in the literature. Research indicates that cultural beliefs about learning are very closely affiliated with GTM, which influences both teachers and students in Arab countries (Assalahi, 2013; Elabbar, 2011; McIlwraith & Alistair, 2016). Different contextual factors were reported in Arab countries. Teachers in the Arabic setting are more familiar with the traditional approaches, and they still acknowledge the great strides that CLT has made in improving the language skills of students (Mowlaie & Rahini, 2010). The GTM is still considered the best teaching practice because it corresponds with their cultural beliefs (Assalahi, 2013). However, other studies explained that teachers preferred to use the approach that had been used on them when they were learning the English language (McIlwraith & Alistair, 2016; Tillema, 1998). For example, McIlwraith and Alistair (2016) report that one belief in Egyptian teachers is that successful teachers include vocabulary and grammar in a single lesson. These teachers spent the majority of class time on grammar and vocabulary and speaking, listening and writing accounted for very little class time, and that was how they were taught when they were learners. This belief in Egypt corresponds with the GTM, about which Celce-Murcia and McIntosh (1979) state: "Much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words" (p. 3).

The consensus in the literature about factors that impede CLT implementation in EFL contexts are summarised in the following points:

1) Factors related to learners such as low English proficiency; little motivation for communicative competence; resistance to class participation and the use of the first language.

2) Factors related to the teacher, such as low proficiency in spoken English; deficiency in strategic and sociolinguistic competence; lack of training in CLT; few opportunities for retraining in CLT; misconceptions about CLT; limited time for and expertise in material development.

3) Factors related to the educational system, such as large classes; grammar-based examinations; insufficient funding; lack of support, lack of resources and materials.

4) Factors related to social-cultural perspectives which can influence the classroom setting "through using resources that are culturally, socially, and historically developed" (Yuan & Lee, 2014, p. 2).

Finally, beliefs about age and gender in language learning also have a significant influence on the implementation of CLT. Elabbar (2011) notes that teachers who had more years of teaching experience and were considered skilled enough to supervise new teachers were using appropriate teaching methods (GTM or CLT). These studies suggest that future studies should focus on the beliefs of first-year pre-service EFL teachers, to reflect their knowledge related to methods of language teaching, classroom procedures, students psychology and pedagogy, and to ensure that they do not forget what they learned during university studies. Thus using teachers' beliefs and reflections to aid the effectiveness of top-down policy (Assalahi, 2013, Elabbar, 2011; Mattheoudakis, 2007; McIlwraith & Alistair, 2016). Although several studies have explored the CLT curriculum in Libya, only secondary school students and teachers' beliefs have been considered (Alhmali, 2007; Ali, 2008; Asker, 2012; Embark, 2011; Orafi, 2008; Orafi & Borg, 2009; Tantani, 2012). The previous studies used methods such as questionnaires, observations, interviews and diaries for effectively recording classroom realities. However, these studies did not address the influence of pre- and in-service EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes on their practice.

3.4 Contemporary Approaches to EFL Pedagogy

One of the recent approaches such as 'deep approaches' (e.g., Tochon, 2014) emphasises learner autonomy and the development of language proficiency. Tochon's (2014) deep language framework proposes that language learning needs to be reconceptualised in two ways: First, language learning should move away from directed teaching, controlled learning and the traditional approaches towards learners' self- direction, where learners actively take part in the decision-making processes that affect their learning opportunities. Second, the fact that language learning tasks have a crosscultural purpose

should be recognised, so that learning becomes meaningful within a broader project, enabling it to meet higher values and aims, such as deep ecology, deep culture, deep politics and deep humane economics (Deng & Liu, 2018; Entwistle, 2009; Rodrigues & Pereira, 2018).

3.4.1 The influence of systemic functional linguistics on language teaching.

The theory of Systematic Functional Linguistics (SFL) is also highly relevant to this study's underpinning theory since it goes hand-in-hand with social constructivist theory in acknowledging that language is used according to the social purpose (Halliday, 1992). Halliday and Hasan (1989, p. 45) note that: "By understanding the functional organisation of language, we are enabled to explain success and failure in learning through language . . . We can also see how far the fault lies in the language that is being used to teach" (cited in Schleppegrell, 2004, p. 147). In this way, the relationship between language and its functions in the social settings for language learners places schools at the macro level and classrooms at a micro-level (Garbarino, 2017; Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Thus, from the SFL perspective, language development is not defined in behavioural and psycholinguistic terms but a social domain. As a social process, it is seen as enabling learners to develop "language as a dynamic system of linguistic choice that students learn to use to accomplish a wide variety of social, academic, and political goals" (Gebhard, 2013, p. 1). Nevertheless, the circumstances in which foreign and second languages are learnt and developed are varied in terms of starting age, degree of exposure and purpose, thus posing significant challenges compared with first language development, depending on the context. For instance, the lack of opportunity to use the new language to communicate for meaningful purposes, in keeping with the theory of SFL, continues to be a major barrier, although where there is access to digital communication technology there has been much improvement, and advocacy for a project- or problem-based approach (Thomas, 2017; Tochon, 2014).

Such research in educational contexts that have studied language use and development in school settings, in which learning a second language is a target, has taken a constructivist view of learning in keeping with the need for meaning-making to ensure authentic use. McCabe (2017, p. 596) cites Ortega (2009, p. 233) in explaining that "the different focus of SFL, . . . compels us to redefine additional language learning as

semiotic development in an L2, or the development of flexible meaning-making L2 capacities across contexts". Therefore, such pedagogy provides an alternative view of pedagogical grammar in its focus on the function of language as opposed to the grammar-translation method. In the most of these studies, the target language was second or additional (not a foreign language) and thus, present in the learners' environment outside the classroom (Mohan & Beckett 2003; Byrnes, 2009, 2012; Neff et al. 2004). The recent research that has been undertaken in EFL settings applied SFL particularly for writing development in higher education (Byrnes, 2009, 2012; Neff et al. 2004), and the development of Vocational English material from a social semiotic perspective for example in Indonesia (Widodo, 2015).

SFL has contributed to two main areas of language development by (i) providing a solid functional view of first language development and literacy, mainly through Halliday's (1975) work and continued by Painter (2000); and (ii) providing vital research on the genre-based approach to teaching language and literacy (Gardner, 2012), which has been translated into practical pedagogical applications and recommendations for teachers (Martin, 1993; NAPLAN, 2012). However, in comparison with the amount of research in these areas, SFL has been less influential in SLA research (Llinares, 2013). But, in contemporary times, along with social semiotics approaches to multimodality and digital communication, SFL provides an important approach to understanding how social constructivism supports a communicative approach to EFL as opposed to the traditional method. This is in keeping with Halliday's (1992) view of language as a developed systemic functional theory and social semiotic resource in the study language, a resource for the comprehension and expression of meanings.

SFL theory broadens the conceptualization of English language teaching in terms of the use of language in a context where meaning-making activities/functions are supported by the use of lexico-grammatical resources, and language learning is always integrated with content learning (Halliday, 1992). Thus, for the present research, SFL outlines a social theory of language as being fundamentally about meaning-making. It concerns how language operates and functions differently to make meaning in different contexts. SFL can provide learners with a tool for representing patterns of experience, to help make sense of it in relation to meaningful activity e.g. task or project. As a metalanguage

tool, language teachers can help learners become aware of specific functions tied to making meaning involving ideational-representation, interpersonal-interaction and textual-message. Ideational function or the use of language to represent reality provides a way to analyse the language that students need to represent content, by focusing on the type of participants, processes and circumstances used in specific genres. For example, when applied to the context of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), students are not only expected to show knowledge of academic content, they also have to be able to use the foreign language to manage social relationships in the classroom. This means following the conventions of the social and academic context (Dalton-Puffer 2007). In other words, they also have to be able to use the interpersonal function of the language (the use of language to establish social relationships with the others). Moreover, SFL identifies the three features of mode, field, and tenor as having a convincing and predictable impact on language use. In the SFL context, mode refers to the semiotic distances between, for example, written and spoken texts field refers to the descriptions of the participants, processes, and circumstances in which the activities occur; and tenor refers to relationships between the people who involved in (Martin, 2001). In SFL, the function of language is to convey ideas, and texts serve a distinct social function to convey information and establish social relations (O'Donnell, 2011). The systemic functional linguistic theory, therefore, is highly relevant to both Communicative Language Teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2001) and also social constructivism and so seen as highly applicable to EFL school situations, such as the present research. It is also seen as assisting teachers to provide learners with a focus on the language of the specific subjects in a meaningful way (Llinares, 2013).

3.4.2 Post method pedagogy

With the advent of social constructivism and emphasis on language and literacy as social practice (Brown, 2006; Kaufman, 2004), the relatively recent period in terms of language pedagogy has been referred to as post-method (Arabi & Samadi, 2018; Brown, 2002; Can, 2012; Khodabakhshzadeh et al, 2018; Kumaravadivelu, 1994; Sugirin, 2018). It can be seen as signifying the move from the history and focus on "method" in teaching languages, e.g., total physical response and grammar-translation methods, to

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and the like, that emphasises the vital importance of language learners having the opportunity to communicate and make meaning in the L2. According to Can (2012), "pre-service teachers who are trained to base their teaching on these methods, especially the communicative ones, face overwhelming experiences when they start teaching in the actual classroom" (p. 1). This is because they come to realise that what they learnt from the theoretical perspective in implementing "a method" does not usually reflect the reality of the classroom nor facilitate students' effective language learning. Thus, important for the present research is the fact that post-method pedagogy is seen by Kumaravadivelu (2006) as being "shaped by three fundamental parameters of possibility, practicality and particularity" (p. 171), which are important considerations for the present research problem. Thus, each is taken in turn and discussed the implications for those transitioning from a traditional approach to EFL to the adoption of CLT in the context of social constructivism.

3.4.2.1 Pedagogy of particularity

A pedagogy of particularity recognises the need to contextualise the pedagogical approach to the particular circumstances of the language learners. Huda (2013) highlighted "the need for the English language, the cultural profiles of the teachers and learners, the skills of the teachers in the target language" (p. 9) to be taken into account. A pedagogy of particularity is vital for them to identify the challenges they face with their current approach, as well as those of their students, to develop effective solutions. Thus, a thorough analysis must be conducted to make adequate decisions, wherein they must eliminate unnecessary learning activities (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). This cycle of observation develops the key knowledge that illuminates the information required to develop a context-sensitive pedagogy.

3.4.2.2 Pedagogy of practicality

A pedagogy of practicality is the second parameter of post method pedagogy which helps to retain the relationship between theory and practice. From Kumaravadivelu's work (1992, 1994, 2003, 2006), it can be asserted that teachers are required to implement theories that are developed by experts. A proper elaboration of theories needs to be

created, but the teachers must not explain only the facts derived from them. They must conduct a practical implementation of the facts for preparing a better understanding of the learning program. Additionally, the teachers must conduct proper testing of their theories. Only proper interpretation of the required aspects can help the teacher to judge the effectiveness of one's own as well as the professional theories. It can further create a fruitful learning environment for the learners, wherein the teachers can elaborate on their own experiences about the learning scenario (Kumaravadivelu, 2001).

3.4.2.3 Pedagogy of possibility

A pedagogy of possibility is the third parameter of post method pedagogy which requires the recognition of learners' and teachers' positions, such as gender, race and ethnicity, and how they directly or indirectly influence the content of classroom input and interaction (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). Kumaravadivelu (2003) stated that "the awareness learners bring to the pedagogical setting are not only influenced by what they learn from the classroom but also are cultured by a broader social-economic, political environment in which they grow up (p. 18). Teachers should work out the way of seeing the possibility to identify the formation required for the class teacher and how to adopt the modern approaches in their practices, as well as the possibilities of their professional development which would lead the learning programs towards success.

These three parameters of particularity, practicality and possibility "entails a network of ten macro strategies derived from the current theoretical, practical, and experiential knowledge base" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 69). It offers the teachers strategies to recreate skills, knowledge, attitudes and that of autonomy skills of L2 teaching, to be aware of the teaching process and to be able to justify it (Can, 2012; Kumaravadivelu, 1994), and to "become autonomous decision-makers" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 38).

3.4.3 Strategic framework for L2 teaching

To develop the L2 pedagogy that best fits the context, Kumaravedivelu (2003) recommends the development of a strategic framework. He advocates creating strategies based on a global standard that are "consistent with the characteristic of a post method

pedagogy" (p. 201). To achieve this, he recommends adherence to ten macro-strategies, which are derived from "theoretical, empirical, and experiential knowledge of L2 learning" (p. 201), and two micro-strategies, which aid the teacher to create a free and flexible learning environment. Such an environment is seen as being able to help teachers to adjust the learning process associated with the students' demands in the course. The ten macro strategies are presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.1: *Macro- and micro- strategies that underpin the design of post-method pedagogy*

Macro- and micro- strategies	
Maximise learning opportunities.	Contextualise linguistic input.
Facilitate negotiated interaction.	Integrate language skills.
Minimise perceptual mismatches.	Promote learner autonomy.
Activate intuitive heuristics.	Ensure social relevance.
Foster language awareness.	Raise cultural consciousness.

Source: Kumaravedivelu, 2003, p. 201).

Simultaneously, by using these macro-strategies as a plan, teachers can practise these ten macro-strategies through micro-strategies (Can, 2012), and a school could design a schoolwide approach (O'Neill, 2012). Kumaravedivelu (2006) explained the two main micro-strategies of post-method pedagogy as aiming to foster general and critical awareness in the classroom: "A general awareness of how a language operates in term of phonology, syntax, semantics, … and critical language awareness that can enrich one's understanding of how language is used in control people economically, culturally and socially" (p. 168).

There is a paucity of previous studies that implement macro-strategies in an EFL context to identify the beliefs of teachers and students' beliefs about post-method pedagogy. The only available study was Chen (2014), who used Kumaravedivelu's ten macro-strategies as guiding principles for his survey (240 grade eight students) and interviews (three teachers, two female and one male) in his study to examine Chinese teachers' and students' beliefs about post-method pedagogy. Chen used classroom

observation to prove the reliability of his survey and interviews. According to Chen, he divided ten macro-strategic into four strategy categories: teaching interaction (strategies 1, 2, and 3), teaching techniques (strategies 4, 6 and 10), teaching objectives (strategies 9 and 5), and teaching content (strategies 9 and 10). The result of his study identified most pedagogical issues that teachers need to develop. He stated that Chinese teachers agreed with most pedagogical strategies, but they were found to be teacher-centred because their practice reflected that they talked most of the class time, explaining texts and exercises; the teachers viewed learners as passive; they corrected learners' mistakes and made notes on homework; questions were only asked on grammar, vocabulary and translation; and learners had limited chances to practise what they learned (p. 23).

In summary, the three parameters of peculiarity, practicality and possibility and the macro-strategies can be used as a guide to enable teachers to become observers and practitioners who are therefore able to construct classroom-oriented theories of practice and build on each student's context to ensure an appropriately sensitive pedagogy. Hence, the teacher must establish a practising pedagogical culture, where the knowledge and skill of the students will be enhanced effectively. Thus, the process of developing a framework needs to ensure different students' specific learning needs can be met, and the creation of opportunities for classroom interactions that reflect effective language pedagogy (Walsh, 2006) is feasible. This approach is reflected in the wheel shown in Figure 3.2, taken from Kumaravadivelu (2003, p. 41). At the centre are the three pedagogical parameters, whereas the ten spokes show the ten macro-strategies.

Kumaravadivelu (2003) claimed that there are "individual, institutional, social, and cultural influences that influence language learning, language teaching, and language use in a given communicative situation" (p. 41). Based on the above strategic framework for L2 teaching, with regards to the research problem of the present research, a survey conducted to measure Libyan PSTs' and INSTs' beliefs about CLT (the current government focus) and their perceptions of L2 pedagogy in their context would illuminate their position on post-method pedagogy and whether the in-service teachers' university preparation reflects this shift, and also the extent to which INSTs are up-todate with post-method developments.
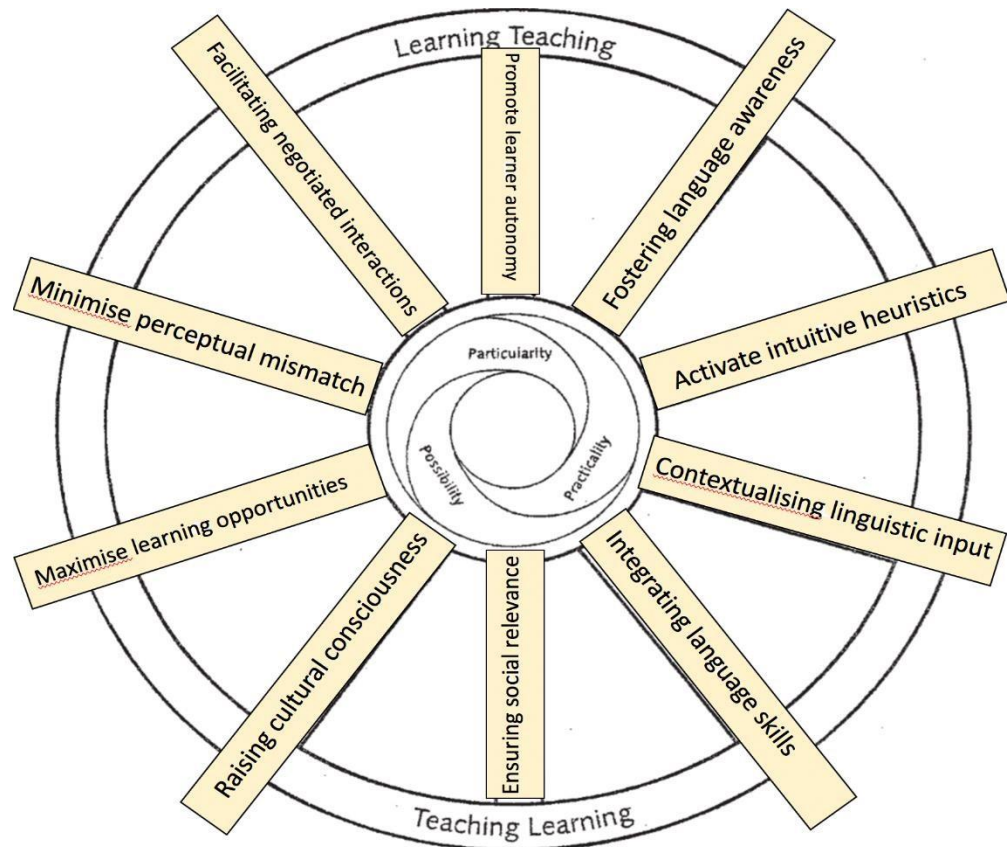
Figure 3.2: The pedagogic wheel adopted from Kumaravadivelu (2003, p. 41)

This is crucial to the peculiarity of the Libyan context, given the political impact of the banning of the teaching of EFL for so long and the unknown of education system recovery time for teachers to be up- or re-skilled and new EFL teachers to come on board, assuming EFL teacher preparation programs are also up-to-date. Therefore, it is concluded that these ten pedagogical strategies would be valuable to include in the present research project's survey method. Based on Kumaravadivelu's (2003) post method framework, ten macro-strategies are divided into two categories in this research. The first category includes five strategies which relate to what teachers should do in post methods. The second category includes five pedagogical issues associated with the shift from grammar-translation through CLT to post-method pedagogy. The two categories of macro-strategies are presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.2: *Macro-strategies on what teachers should do in the classroom and macro-strategies addressing pedagogical issues*

The five EFL macro-strategies on what teachers should do	The five macro-strategies addressing pedagogical issues
Maximising learning opportunities.	Facilitating negotiated interaction.
Activating Intuitive heuristics.	Minimising perceptual mismatches
Fostering language awareness (LA).	Contextualising linguistic input.
Promoting learner autonomy.	Integrating language skills.
Raising cultural consciousness.	Ensuring social relevance.

In relation to Libya, the above framework provides an important underpinning of the present study, because it enables identification of the parameters and features of post-method that can be used to investigate the extent to which INSTs and PSTs (and university academics) are aware of post-method pedagogy. Moreover, it provides a basis for discussion about how these stakeholders can design the most efficient language learning post-method framework as per Kumaravedivelu's (2003) model.

3.4.4 Teacher talk

Teacher's talk provides "a cumulative, continuing contextual frame to enable students' involvement with the new knowledge they are encountering" (Mercer, 2008a, p. 37, as cited in Boyd, 2015). More recent research has focused on 'teacher talk' as it promotes language acquisition, not only first language but also a second language (Ellis, 2013; Krashen, 1981; Walsh, 2002; Wong-Fillmore; 1985). Smith et al. (2004) stated that teacher awareness of class discourse interaction positively affects teacher-learner interaction and enriches teachers' abilities to correct and change their talk. This finding is reinforced by Walsh's (2006) research that identified 13 aspects of language teachers' classroom discourse that affect students' learning.

Dialogic and interactional practice in the classroom is achieved through the role of dialogic pedagogy (Matusov & Miyazaki, 2014), which, as evident in the literature, increases metacognitive awareness of how teachers talk in interactions (Edwards-

Groves & Hoare, 2012; O'Neill & Geohegan, 2012). Dialogic teaching uses communication and students' work with language to promote activity, deepen thinking and enrich understanding (Alexander, 2006, cited in O'Neill & Geohegan, 2012. P. 275). Edwards-Groves and Hoare (2012) emphasise the importance of teachers being able to "construct and develop education encounters which demonstrate a metacognitive awareness of the role of talk-in-interaction and . . . [enable] productive ways of relating to their students" (p. 98). The analysing classroom discourse provides an important key to understand the implementation of pedagogical talk that can engage learners in deep learning.

Analysis of classroom discourse revealed how traditional pedagogy approaches creates a barrier for learners' learning. A good example of this is cited in O'Neill and Geohegan (2012). Three concepts of pedagogy can be identified from the lessons through examining the structure of lessons, classroom interactions, materials, and teacher talk: a *pedagogy of school*, a *pedagogy of literacy lessons* and a *pedagogy of literacy learning* (Bull & Anstey, 1996). O'Neill and Geohegan have extracted the differences between these three concepts to bring changes and improvements to the educational context. Alexander (2006) and Bull and Anstey (1996) show how learners learn to respond to the teacher in particular ways depending on the teachers' behaviours. For instance, a *pedagogy of school* is when teachers talk is focused on presenting knowledge as static, known or unknown, questioning the students in the way that students require to guess what was in the teachers' head. A *pedagogy of literacy lessons* focuses on monologue where the classroom discourse focuses on carrying out teachers' instructions without making connections to learning. According to O'Neill, Geoghegan, and Petersen (2013), this pedagogy "illustrates how the teacher talk involves verbs that merely keep learners busy 'doing' by providing sequential instruction" (p. 150), such as doing literacy tasks and activities on a worksheet, rather than focusing on learning how to learn activities and literacy. The blackboard and the workbook are central to the structure of the lesson. In this kind of pedagogy, the little cognitive process is used by students to achieve the outcomes relevant to real life. A *pedagogy of literacy learning* focuses more on effective teaching through the teachers' scaffolding of learners' learning, this model is different from a *pedagogy of school* and *pedagogy of literacy lessons*. These three pedagogical concepts reveal teachers' cognition and the way they

can use their metacognitive processes to choose the way to introduce their lessons and think about what to say next in the turn-taking interaction of classroom dialogue (O'Neill, Geoghegan, & Petersen, 2013).

O'Neill and Geoghegan (2012) found that pre-service EFL teachers who are attuned to the dialogic features of classroom interactive talk contribute to higher quality pedagogical practices in an effective EFL classroom. They conclude that traditional teachers' and students' roles can be improved over time with any socially established set of behaviours and guidelines, and opportunities to practice pedagogical discourse pattern to become familiar with them.

The impact of talk-oriented teaching and learning has yet to be explored in the Libyan context. There is a paucity of research on the problems facing EFL teachers in the Arab world, particularly in Libya. Thus, research on PSTs is well justified, because acquiring English and adopting effective pedagogy challenges both pre- and in-service EFL teachers and also challenges teacher training and professional development programs.

By growing the notion of communication in the language teaching profession, classroom activities have shifted from individual exercises to pair/group work-oriented activities. Long and Porter (1985) put forward five pedagogical arguments for the use of group work in the classroom. They suggest that pair/group work activity increases the quantity of language input, improves students' talk quality, individualises instruction, creates a positive classroom atmosphere, and improves students' motivation. Besides the previous research arguments, they also provide a psycholinguistic rationale to the benefits of group work in the classroom (pp. 207-225).

3.3.4.1 Teacher questioning

The recent growth of interest is shifting learning perspectives from classroom instruction to leaning through classroom interactions. Walsh (2013) explained that the teacher's role is to enhance classroom interaction and guide learners to develop their language proficiency through classroom interaction, which in turn "develops students' ability to engage socially outside of the classroom" (Al-Zahrani & Al-Bargi, 2017, p.

136). To develop teachers' understanding of classroom interactions, they need to use a variety of techniques for the implementation of their pedagogical intention. According to Al-Zahrani & Al-Bargi (2017), "this can be achieved by understanding the types of features and events that occur in the classroom setting that serve to facilitate the creation of classroom interaction" (p. 135). Studies concerning the level of classroom interaction and teacher talk in EFL contexts stated that a large amount of teacher talk in class involves the use of questioning as a tool for classroom instruction, and classroom interactions happened to depend on the type of these questions (Al-Zahrani, & Al-Bargi, 2017; Forrestal, 1990; Qashoa, 2013). Display questions are associated with the default norm of classroom discourse, the teacher initiation, student response, teacher evaluation (IRE) or teacher initiation, student response, teacher feedback (IRF) pattern. Teacher questioning patterning affects students' responses as to how they perceive the questions. For example, open display questions are effective in engaging classroom talk and help to make collaborative learning, whereas, in closed questions, teachers need to use it routinely to build students' contributions in terms of talk. (Boyd, 2015),

From the sociolinguistic perspective, Carlsen (1991) claimed that some teachers' questions have an effect on students' participation in classroom conversation and discourage them from speaking (p. 171). For example, David (2007) investigated the impact of English teachers' use of two types of questions (display questions and referential questions). In Nigeria, using observation of 20 EFL teachers and 200 students for six weeks, his result revealed that teachers used more display questions (85%) than referential questions (15%), identifying that questioning behaviour affects classroom interaction and arguing that display questions were more effective in creating classroom interaction, especially for beginner learners than referential questions. Farrell and Mom (2015) stated that previous studies investigated teachers' beliefs and practices on language acquisitions, skills like grammar, speaking and reading, but "not much research has been conducted on the beliefs and practices of teacher questions through reflective practice" (p. 849). Therefore, they investigated four ESL teachers' beliefs and practices towards questioning using observations, journal writing and discussions. Their results revealed that two of the teachers preferred asking referential questions, which was inconsistent with their observed questioning practices where they overused display questions, compared with the two other teachers, who stated the importance of using

display questions was consistent with their practice. He concluded that "students' level of language proficiency and the course content are potential factors that have influenced convergence or divergence between teachers' beliefs regarding questions and their questioning practices in the classroom" (p. 862). Training teachers to change their questioning behaviours may indeed lead to certain student outcomes. Teacher questions feature in the Walsh (2006) framework, which helps teachers to analyse their talk and find out how they use questioning techniques in their teaching.

3.3.4.2 Conceptual Framework of Data Analysis: The SETT Model

This study used the Walsh (2006) SETT model, which is built around three theoretical views:

1. The argument that L2 classroom interaction is socially constructed;
2. The proposal that an understanding of classroom interaction must take account of both pedagogic goals and language used to achieve those;
3. The suggestion that any lesson is made up of a series of locally negotiated micro contexts (Modes). (p.1)

In the analysis of the classroom observations, there is firstly an attempt to identify the presence of the four modes (managerial, material, skills and systems, and classroom context), focusing on the interactional features for each model, the use of language, and intended learning outcomes for each lesson observed. Table 6. 3 summarises the four classroom modes. Each mode has interactional features related to pedagogical goals.

Table 3.4: *The classroom modes of the SETT framework (Walsh, 2006, p. 66)*

Modes	Pedagogic Goals	Interactional features
Managerial	- To give an instruction - To organise the physical learning environment - To refer students to material - To introduce or conclude an activity - To change from one style of learning to another	- A single, extended teacher turn which uses explanations and instructions - The use of transitional markers - The use of confirmation checks - Absence of student contributions

Materials	▪ To provide input or practice around a piece of material ▪ To elicit responses about the material ▪ To check and display answers ▪ To clarify the focus of the material when necessary ▪ To evaluate contributions	▪ Predominance of IEF (initiation, response, feedback) pattern ▪ Extensive use of display questions ▪ Content-focused feedback ▪ Corrective repair ▪ The use of scaffolding
Skills and systems	▪ To enable students to produce correct answers ▪ To enable students to manipulate new concepts ▪ To provide corrective feedback ▪ To provide students with practice in sub-skills ▪ To display correct answers	▪ The use of direct repair ▪ The use of scaffolding ▪ Extended teacher turns ▪ Display questions ▪ Teacher echo ▪ Clarification requests ▪ Form-focused feedback
Classroom Context	▪ To enable students to express themselves clearly ▪ To establish a context To ▪ promote dialogue and discussion	▪ Extended student turns ▪ Short teacher turns ▪ Minimal repair ▪ Content feedback ▪ Referential questions ▪ Scaffolding ▪ Clarification requests

The Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT) (Walsh, 2001, 2003) framework is a model of reflective practice which facilitates understanding of language use and interactive decision-making. This framework has been used in empirical research– e.g. *Classroom Conversation Analysis and Critical Reflective Practice: Selfevaluation of Teacher Talk Framework in Focus* (Hajar Ghafarpour, 2016), and *Pre-service*

EFL teachers' reported perceptions of their development through SETT experience (Asik & Kuru Gonen, 2016). This model has been used to raise teachers' awareness of their progress in classroom interactions and to help teachers to gain an understanding of their local contexts, by enabling them to describe classroom interactions (Walsh, 2013). The Walsh framework is more likely to work when teachers are engaged in evaluating their classroom interaction (Matusov & Miyazaki, 2014; O'Neill & Geohegan, 2012). In practice, practitioners can use it as a tool to help them evaluate their use of language while teaching. Initially, this model comprises four modes: managerial, materials, skills and systems, and classroom context. Each mode

has pedagogical goals and features. SETT is not a protocol requiring a specific set of implementation practices for validity (Zabala, 2005). Therefore, SETT can be changed and applied, which is a significant process for this study.

Walsh (2006) developed a guide (SETT framework interactures) to help teachers and researchers to establish how to use this framework. Teacher education programs in ESL and EFL contexts (Walsh 2011) have used this framework extensively because it has details that are more specific on the interactional features of EFL classroom discourse and pedagogical goals that are used in the SETT framework modes. In line with classroom interaction, Walsh (2013) describes what he refers to as interactures. He explains that by studying teachers' use of interactures, they can easily discover their effective way of 'teacher talk' and how they use the language within the classroom and to explore the construction of their teaching aim by observing and reflecting. The diagram below shows the relationship between pedagogy and interaction in the L2 classroom.

Analysis   Speaking

Pedagogical
Focus
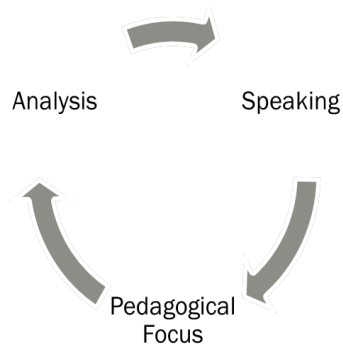
Figure 3.3: The interactional architecture of classroom language

The influence of social interaction on teachers' beliefs and practice was documented in some of the literature (e.g. Li 2012; Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004). Walsh (2013) also observed that researchers should admit the micro-contexts that are involved in classroom discourse; these are related to peripheral aspects, for instance, beliefs, attitudes, previous experience. He explains that these classroom discourse aspects are shaped through interaction. In addition, Li and Walsh (2011) stated that focusing on "teachers' beliefs, and classroom practice offers a way of trying to access the complexities of teachers' beliefs through a study of their classroom interaction in an

EFL context" (p. 53). Therefore, the macro perspective of context is adapted to the current study, because it aims to find teachers' beliefs and attitudes. Moreover, it provides detailed insights into teachers' moment-by-moment decision-making by focusing on teachers' interaction with the students while teaching (Li, 2013; Li & Walsh, 2011); therefore, using SETT analysis improves teachers' interactional competence and allows them to improve dialogic interactions with students.

Three stages of the SETT process start with a workshop, by introducing SETT to teachers and defining pedagogical goals and distinctive interactional features to teachers. The second stage is recording teachers' classes to provide a framework and complete a written analysis of the snapshot of teachers' lesson extracts. The third stage then uses reflective feedback with interviewees, or in other words, 'stimulated recall' procedures that involve analysing, clarifying and reflecting on particular issues as they arise in the teachers' lesson dialogues. The productive use of stimulated recall is a means of examining the decisions made by teachers as they teach and of promoting reflective practice. Walsh (2011) pointed out that teachers need to improve their ability to understand the decisions they make in the classroom. Many studies found that using video-based reflections of teachers' teaching practice provides more support for the learning process of teachers. However, the SETT framework has not previously been applied in the Libyan context. Thus, there is a need to look at PSTs' beliefs, to gain an understanding of the challenges in the context of Libya as a developing country and there is a need to include classroom observations using the SETT framework.

3.5 Beliefs and Attitudes

Research studies have suggested that teachers' pedagogical practice is guided by their personal beliefs and attitudes (Beacham & Rouse, 2012; Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Silverman, 2007). This section offers brief definitions of popular terms (belief, attitudes) used in this research.

Beliefs: The concept of belief is defined by Borg (2001) as "a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment, further, its services

as a guide to thought and behaviour" (p. 186). There is agreement on the definition of beliefs as a form of reality. Richardson (2003) defined it as "psychologically held understanding, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true" (p. 2). Beliefs are viewed as the personal constructs of teachers [or learners] that can help understand their decisions and teaching practices (Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996, cited in Moini, 2009) and, therefore, as Xu (2007) stated, "teachers' beliefs influence teacher consciousness, teaching attitudes, teaching methods and teaching policy… [and] influence teaching behaviour and learners' development" (p. 5). Some researchers have argued that the belief system is complex and difficult to define (Barcelos, 2003; Peng, 2011) because in SLA beliefs have different types: self-efficacy beliefs, motivational beliefs, and metacognitive beliefs (Dornyei, 2006). Learners' beliefs are reported to be as dynamic and context-specific (Ellis, 2013; Horwitz, 1999; Peacock, 2001). These studies found that learners' beliefs can be changed over time, depending on their experience and attitude change. Wong (2010) summarised the previous literature and reported that teachers had many incorrect beliefs about how EFL is learned and therefore these influenced their teaching practices.

Attitudes: Attitudes are defined as a "psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour" (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p. 1). Attitude is also defined as "a tendency to behave in a certain way" (WHO, 1992, p. 197). Attitude is based on three different sources of information: cognitive, affective and behavioural domains (Pooley & O'Connor, 2000). In the L2 research discussions, attitudes include 'conscious mental position', and 'unconscious' or 'noncognitive' feelings and emotions such as "self-esteem, self-identity, motivation" (Savignon, 2017. p. 111).

3.5.1 Teacher beliefs and attitudes Towards CLT

Previous studies argued that EFL teachers hold unconscious beliefs about the teaching and learning process and the role of both teacher and learner in the classroom; these beliefs affect and guide teachers' interpretation, judgment and classroom behaviours (Borg, 2018; Karavas- Doukas, 1989; Pajares, 1992). Many studies have examined EFL teachers' attitudes and perceptions toward learning in general (Busch,

2010; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Peacock, 2001), and have adopted a questionnaire called Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) designed by Horwitz (1985). Other studies (Amin, 2016; Li, 1998; Littlewood, 2007; Mangubhai et al., 1998, 2007; Razmjoo et al., 2006; Sanderson, 2013; Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2017; Lashgari, Jamali, & Yousofi, 2014; Yilmaz, 2018) investigated teachers' attitudes towards CLT principles using Karavas-Doukas' (1996) attitude scale. These studies have shown that teachers hold positive attitudes toward CLT principles. However, they also have shown that those teachers were unable to practise CLT effectively and teachers had a lack of proficiency to transfer their knowledge to practice. Although the principle and theories of CLT are well documented, teachers' beliefs and attitudes about the principles and theories are not consistent (Mangubhai et al., 1998; Karavas- Doukas, 1996; Lashgari, Jamali, & Yousofi, 2014; Yilmaz, 2018).

Karavas-Doukas (1996) originally conducted a study in Greece, where he investigated secondary school teachers' understanding of CLT. The results showed that teachers have favourable and positive attitudes about CLT, but their practice is focused more on teacher-centred approaches which do not correspond to their beliefs. The author argued that this mismatch of teachers' beliefs and practice is because of their lack of understanding of CLT principles. He argued that the mismatch between the beliefs and practices of teachers may be the consequence of neglecting to examine teachers' attitudes before implementing any new approach (Karava-Doukas, 1996).

A study with high school teachers in Japan (Tahira, 2012) showed several reasons that make it difficult for teachers to use communicative language teaching effectively. For instance, students use their first language in oral activities to practise English, teachers continue to use traditional methods such as grammar translation, and they do not use CLT as a guideline provided to them (Tahira, 2012). Tahira (2012) concluded that CLT is not well-rooted in Japan as teachers do not fully understand it and are not confident in using it. Nishino (2008) investigated 21 Japanese secondary school teachers' beliefs and practice about CLT and he found that teachers were aware of the importance of communicative language teaching to the students and aware of their role as a facilitator for language learning. However, they needed some changes, to get approval for implementing communicative language teachings, such as a change in examinations

and a change in classroom conditions. Also, the difficulties for Japanese teachers for teaching communicative activities means that they need more instructional guidelines about teaching methods and techniques.

Chan (2013) investigated the changes in perceptions of ELT of Taiwanese student teachers, after teaching practice, in four areas: cultivation, knowledge delivery, the way of teaching, and the nature of teaching. He found considerable differences in studentteacher responses after their teaching practice. He explained that "student teachers' conceptions of ELT were more about cultivation, which is oriented toward student teacher-centred perspectives" (p. 197). Chan's findings supported other researchers who claimed that student teachers seemed concerned with the way of teaching, rather than making their approach student-centred or focusing on what to teach.

There is a paucity of studies that have investigated PSTs' beliefs about communicative language teaching. The only study found was conducted by Yilmaz (2018), conducted in the Turkish context. He found a similar result to other studies that adopted Karavas-Doukas' (1996) attitude scale. The current study also used Karavas-Doukas' attitude scale. A variety of interpretations in previous studies has occurred about where some of the items belong because these studies did not go back to the original work of Karavas-Doukas (1996), whereas the current study followed the original rationale of Karavas' items.

3.5.2 The factors influencing teachers' beliefs, attitudes, and practice

There is a consensus within the literature that teachers acquire their beliefs from many different sources. First, teachers' beliefs and pedagogical system are influenced by prior learning experiences and their experiences as learners (Borg, 2003; Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Calderhead & Robson, 1991; Chacon, 2005; Clandinin, 1989; Fajet et al., 2005; Flores & Day, 2006; Freeman, 2002; Richardson, 1996; William & Burden, 1997; Zheng, 2009). Çapan (2014) claims that "these beliefs should be specified as early as possible because they shape pre-service teachers' understanding of language teaching and learning as well as practice" (p. 132). Second, teachers' beliefs are influenced by the educational personality of teachers, which has developed during their learning

experiences as students (Borg, 2003; Freeman, 2002; Rockeach, 1968). Third, empirical research indicates that teachers gain their beliefs and attitudes while teaching in real classrooms. Pittard (2003) claims that teaching practicum is the first teaching experience for PSTs, and it is their first chance to test out their beliefs and perceptions. However, some studies found that when PSTs teach in real classrooms, the reality of the classroom and school experience diminishes their practical beliefs (Debreli, 2012; Hill, 2000). According to Hall (2017):

> Teachers' beliefs are derived and influenced by a range of sources including the perspectives of others (e.g., colleagues, teacher-trainers and educators, and academic research and researchers) and their own practical experience of what is and is not successful. (p. 5)

Hall (2017) suggested a two-way relationship between teachers' beliefs and practice as beliefs inform practice and practice informs what teachers may believe. Therefore, this study will provide deeper insights into PSTs' pedagogical beliefs and practices by investigating not only what PSTs' beliefs are, to gain an insight into the specific situation that exists when teaching, and how best to develop appropriate training.

3.5.3 Change in EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs

Numerous specialists argue that PSTs' beliefs are inflexible, steady, and impervious to change (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Freeman & Richards, 1996; Hill, 2000; Liou, 2001; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984). Cota-Grijalva and Ruiz-Esparza Barajas (2013) studied PSTs at the University of Sonora, in Mexico. They found that small changes occurred in the middle of the teaching practice program. However, CotaGrijalva and Ruiz- Esparza Barajas started collecting their survey data during the fourth semester as they claimed that the practicum program is eight semesters long. The limitation of the study is whether PSTs' beliefs were the same when they started the program. Borg (2011) acknowledges that the practical content of the teacher training program is the main contributor to changes in PSTs' beliefs.

Research into teachers' beliefs and practice continues to investigate whether teachers are willing to provide instruction which corresponds to their theoretical beliefs. Debreli (2013) reviewed and examined studies on PSTs' beliefs and belief changes. He argued that, although there have been 30 years of extensive research carried out on educational pedagogy, the conclusions of this research are still unclear in terms of the effectiveness of pedagogy programs provided by institutions to develop PSTs' practical knowledge. There is a lack of research in Arabic countries, in particular, Libya. Li and Walsh (2011) claimed that the majority of studies were conducted in countries where English is taught as a second language. Therefore, there is a lack of research in EFL countries to determine the extent to which teachers' instructional practice is consistent with their theoretical beliefs.

Overall, there is a lack of research in Arab countries and Libya. While most studies are conducted in ESL countries, there is a lack of research in EFL countries on the extent to which teachers' instructional practices are consistent with their theoretical beliefs (Li &Walsh, 2011). Thus, this research will try to fill this knowledge gap by investigating PSTs' beliefs and practice in Libya.

3.5.4 Teacher training course

Teacher training has a valuable function as it helps teachers to enter the real world of the classroom, which is not always an easy transition (Karavas & Drossou, 2010). The emphasis via teaching practice experiences is to assist teacher trainees to adjust their presumptions while their mentor teachers are encouraged to challenge their beliefs.

To provide high-quality language teachers, it is essential to prepare teachers and develop student teachers with knowledge, skills and dispositions to work effectively and communicatively with English language learners. Darling-Hammonds' (2002, 2006) studies show that teachers' qualification can make a difference in experience in classroom teaching, teachers who graduated from initial teacher education programs scored higher results in teaching knowledge, teaching strategy and how to meet learning needs than teachers who came into teaching from different pathway (Gonzalez & Darling-Hammond, 1997). Moreover, following Cohen, Hoz, and Kaplan (2013) the

preparatory situation and the effectiveness of the practicum experience as a mentoring process are dependent on a triadic relationship. This recognises the need for the university teachers and the mentor or supervising teachers on the practicum to have the same understanding of the pedagogical approach expected of the preservice teachers to ensure there is no conflict for PSTs attempting to implement university teachings, However, research shows much variation across contexts in this regard highlighting the need to explore this relationship when considering the practicum experience (Haigh & Ward, 2004; Nguyen, 2017).

In the case of knowledge and understanding for CLT in Libya, Elabbar (2011) found that new teacher generations are more able to adapt approaches, such as CLT, compared with older teachers. However, there is a lack of research that investigates this, despite some identification of conditions and influences on new teachers.

Teaching practice and organisations are different in different countries. In some contexts, the teaching practicums are well organised by the university, and teacher trainees work as a team with their supervisor (Richard & Farrell, 2011). While these two entities need to cooperate to produce constructive outcomes, in some cases, PSTs are required to make their arrangements with schools to do their practical teaching, whereby in other cases the university takes the responsibility to arrange practicum schools, to choose supervising teachers, and to monitor performance.

Nevertheless, school contexts have an essential role in developing teaching practice. Research on learning how to teach has discovered the challenges that confront PSTs during their field experience. For example, Wang and Odell (2002) identified three problems confronting PSTs when practice teaching in the school contexts: "emotional and psychological stress", "lack of support", and "conceptual struggles about teaching and learning" (p. 154). Research has also shown that the emotional stresses of teaching are not limited to classroom practitioners but extend throughout the school community (Hayes, 2018). Pre-service teachers have also been found to hold certain views that are casual and rooted in their mental pictures of classroom practice and certain realities of schools and classrooms (Fajet, Bello, Leftwich, Mesler, & Shaver, 2005), and these can impact their beliefs and practice. They may also experience a lack of support, which may

include a "lack of instruction routines, procedures, skills, and techniques that are related to the contexts of teaching" (Wang & Odell, 2002, p. 515). Maintaining freedom and support for PSTs is important in balancing cooperation that can foster effective learning and assimilation of English into Libyan culture. Clark (2013) argued that PSTs also need self-determination and some independence from their supervisors' instructions, to allow them the scope to try new ways of teaching and the opportunity to apply their knowledge gained in the academic setting.

Additionally, PSTs also need to be guided by their supervisor as they make a connection between research and theories, which they have studied at the university. This step is important even though university-based supervisors may not have ample time to attend to all the needs of each PST (Bailey, 2006). For instance, if a supervisor has more than two student-teachers needing supervision, there might be insufficient time for each to receive quality practicum feedback (Lunenburg & Irby, 2008). In some cases, the quality of feedback can be compromised because the supervisor's time is taken up by needing to travel between school sites. Therefore, in some contexts, it requires teachers to cooperate at the training site to effectively supervise the PSTs' classroom activities and provide constructive feedback. Depending on the quality of this experience, PSTs' beliefs and attitudes can be affected by how teacher education is conceived and implemented.

For new English teachers, research indicates that there is a conflict between newly graduated teachers' knowledge acquired through the university and real classroom contexts (Mowlaie & Rahimi, 2010). Knowledge here is considered as 'received knowledge' (Wallace, 1991), which PSTs receive from their university education courses. Received knowledge is different from 'experiential knowledge'. Wallace defined experiential knowledge as "knowing-in-action and reflection" (p. 13). Practitioners gain knowledge through their practice. Thus, it is important to distinguish between knowledge acquired through observation and knowledge gained in action (Wallace, 1991). PSTs need to be able to recognise the practice at the classroom level that stems from the theory they learn at university, linking while on practicum. However, it cannot be assumed that the INSTs' practices reflect the theory taught in their PSTs' university courses, which may be a dilemma in the Libyan context about CLT.

3.6 previous studies about pre-service efl teachers' beliefs and practice about communicative language teaching

There has been a trend in the recent literature to investigate the extent to which PSTs' beliefs about English teaching correspond with what they do in the classroom, and there is evidence that the beliefs and practices do not always coincide (Abongdia, Adu & Foncha, 2015; Burke, 2006; Heeralal & Bayaga, 2011; Hong & Ling, 2019; Johnson, 2015; O'Neill & Stephenson, 2012; Vibulphol, 2004; Wilbur, 2007; Yuan & Lee, 2014). Vibulphol (2004) concluded from the literature that PSTs enter teaching practicum with some preconceived ideas about how foreign language should be learned, "what language learning tasks and activities should be included and what the teacher should do in the classroom" (p. 45). Researchers and educators in the second language acquisition field (Calderhead & Robson, 1991; Horwitz, 1985; Johnson, 2015; Peacock, 2001) are concerned that these beliefs may influence the development of the PSTs. These researchers have explained some factors that affect the PSTs' beliefs and practice during their teaching practicum. This section discusses previous studies on EFL PSTs' beliefs and practice regarding CLT in different EFL contexts. The discussion aims to highlight the role of PSTs' beliefs in success or failure in implementing CLT and to identify the factors that affect the PSTs' practice.

In a study of four PSTs in Thailand, Vibulphol (2004) investigated the relationships between beliefs about language learning and their choices of teaching approaches through three data sources: surveys, classroom observations and interviews. His study revealed that PSTs gained more confidence and that meant they "might have been successful in using English during their practice teaching and this success might have refined their beliefs about their possession of foreign language aptitude" (p.269). For example, some PSTs reported concerns about correct pronunciation in speaking, but after the teaching practicum "these PSTs might have realised that imperfect pronunciation did not obstruct their use of English for communication" (p. 268). In addition, they also reported that listening and speaking skills are important, but observations showed that they did not promote the use of listening or speaking activities. This may have been as a consequence of some constraints they reported during the

interview, such as "voice quality when playing tape cassettes", "their classrooms were open-air and were quite noisy" and "students were not attentive if listening" (p. 275). The results showed that beliefs about the importance of form-focused instruction (that the importance of grammar, the difficulty of language skills, and self-efficacy in language should be addressed while PSTs are in teacher education programs) corresponded with their instructional practices. These beliefs were found to have an influential effect on all the PSTs' teaching approaches. Three of the PSTs were supportive of grammar and vocabulary and the use of grammar-oriented activities. Only one PST focused her explicit attention on communication, which was consistent with her beliefs about "the importance of meaning-focused instruction" (p. 269). Vibulphol claimed that his study observations were conducted only over eight weeks, while the practice teaching itself was eighteen weeks' long, and more information could be obtained if the PSTs were observed from the start to the end of their practicum program. In short, it is clear that some teachers have professional skills but cannot apply these skills in the classroom, owing to the constraints and limitations of the educational contextual factors.

Burke (2006) investigated the effect of Foreign Language (FL) teaching methods on PSTs' pedagogical instruction and practices in the United State of America. She was one of the pre-service teachers' supervisors. Burke focused on participants' understanding of and exposure to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), by providing them with modelled communicative English language lessons for ten weeks before the PSTs went to teach in secondary schools where they observed teaching and learning. They were encouraged to implement CLT by their instructors and the researcher. Burke analysed the lesson plans of the PSTs, using analytic induction of three teacher profiles: grammar-translation methods (GMT); CLT; and a hybrid of the two. Her results showed that even though all PSTs were prepared and trained to use CLT, only some of them promoted CLT in their teaching practices. Most of the participants were categorised as hybrid teachers. Burke attributed the following factors to the mixed outcomes in the PSTs' implementations of CLT: pre-service teachers' lack of confidence in their teaching abilities; their personal preferences of teaching approaches; and their lack of ability to implement student-centred communicative activities.

Wilbur (2007) conducted a study based on the methodological training of Spanish PSTs during their EFL training, to examine their methodological development as future secondary EFL teachers. She found that there are differences in English training programs in terms of connecting theory to practice, the implementation of standardsbased instruction and assessment, and English teachers' teaching backgrounds. Wilbur also found that PSTs lacked English proficiency. She identified two main reasons for this: English taught during previous schooling levels of education was predominantly literature-based; the PSTs held unrealistic perceptions about their linguistics skills and the means and beliefs of how to improve their English language proficiency. She claimed that teaching practices should establish a systematic and comprehensive means for future EFL teaching.

Yuan and Lee (2014) investigated the process of belief change among three Chinese EFL PSTs during their 10-week teaching practicum at the University of Beijing, using multiple methods of collecting data (interview, classroom observation, semistructured interviews, and weekly journals). They believed that the "student teachers' professional learning starts from a set of beliefs about learning and teaching that they have developed" (p.1) through their observed and previous learning in schools, as an

"Apprentice of observation" (Lortie, 1975, p. 61). Yuan and Lee's study showed that the teaching practicum provided opportunities for PSTs to gain "rich learning experience" in "consolidating, modifying and expanding their beliefs" (p. 9). During their practicum, they participated in different social activities such as book club, classroom observations and teaching reform. Pre-service teachers experienced several process changes during their practicum: "confirmation, realisation, disagreement, elaboration, integration, and modification" (p. 1). The authors identified several factors that contributed to the process of PSTs' belief changes. One of these factors was their mentors' beliefs and their impacts on PSTs' practices. One of the PSTs was inclined toward CLT but, because her mentor was a more traditional teacher who focused on grammar and vocabulary, she chose to follow her mentor's traditional style. Compared to another PST, she stated that her beliefs about CLT were confirmed by observing her mentor teaching. This gave her confidence in applying CLT in her teaching. In terms of sociocultural perspectives, preservice teachers' participation in different activities during their practice changed

their previous beliefs about language teaching and being a teacher; for example, one participant changed her belief that "teachers are experts with no need for further development" (p. 9). Another belief-change project reported that teachers experienced this through their participation in the book club; and the school-based reform on the teaching of writing was a way of providing feedback to students, so a student "reconstructed her belief that instead of being marking machines teachers can be purposeful and strategic in using feedback to develop students' autonomy and writing abilities" (p. 9). Yuan and Lee concluded that more research is needed to explore how different institutional and sociocultural factors may impact student teachers' beliefs in different school contexts.

O'Neill and Stephenson (2012) investigated 573 Australian PSTs using surveys. This investigation included aspects of how beginner teachers felt about engaging and motivating students who appeared to have a low interest in their school work and adjusting lessons to the levels of the students. Mentors provided a positive experience for PSTs because they offered feedback that was a significant source of information and assisted the PSTs' successes during their practicum. Therefore, O'Neill and Stephenson argued that sociocultural factors contributed to transforming the PSTs' perceptions about learning and teaching.

Johnson (2015) surveyed 166 Taiwanese PSTs, 20 of whom submitted videos of sample lessons and 10 participated in semi-structured interviews. His study aimed to reflect the changes and development of language teaching and learning. The analysis of these videos was reviewed in relation to achievement objectives, the extent of teacher talking time, how the target language and students' first language were used by both teacher and students, and the type of activities and tasks in which students were engaged. His findings on the lessons showed them to be teacher-focused and translation dominated. In relation to the concept of teaching CLT, none of the teachers believed that their training had any practical use; only three of the ten teachers reported having been introduced to CLT as part of their teaching program; other PSTs believed that CLT meant using English as the medium of instruction in the classroom, reflecting an "English only" philosophy. Johnson also found that none of the participants' supervisors understood the needs of younger learners at primary level. In addition, the findings also

revealed that five out of ten of the PSTs reported that their training program did not have an observation component. As well, other PSTs reported that their supervisors were not present in their classes. On this basis, Johnson suggests that the nature and content of language teacher training programs may need to be modified.

In an attempt to assess the current trends and future directions in pre-service English language programs, Hong and Ling (2019) reviewed various studies published between 2002 and 2017 in ASEAN Plus Three countries (China, Japan, and South Korea), using quantitative meta-analyses. One of their objectives explored how English language teaching approaches adopted for PST training are country-specific, ranging from traditional rote learning to communicative language learning. Their research identified EFL teaching methodology for PSTs in ASEAN Plus Three countries, finding that "the desire to move from teacher-centred instruction and rote learning to the communicative approach has been largely rhetorical due to factors such as teachers' poor language skills or external constraints such as large class sizes and lack of preparation time" (p. 32).

Heeralal and Bayaga (2011) investigated pre-service teachers' experiences during teaching practice (six weeks) in a South African school. Sixty-nine PSTs from undergraduate and post-graduate levels participated in the study and responded in writing to an open-ended questionnaire relating to their experiences during practice teaching. Results of the study identified some of the barriers that PSTs experience and ways to overcome these barriers were proposed. These barriers concerned "the preparation during training, relationship with school-based mentors, induction into the school, the attitude of other educators, involvement in other activities, learner discipline, lack of resources and implementation of outcome-based education (OBE)" (p. 104). Heeralal and Bayaga gave recommendations for the PSTs "to pay attention to (1) flexibility in the time of course participation, (2) flexibility in content in the course, (3) flexibility in instructional approaches and learning materials, and lastly (4) flexibility in course delivery and logistics" (p. 99).

In another study conducted in South Africa by Abongdia, Adu and Foncha (2015), they analysed 67 files of teaching philosophies and teaching goals that were put sideby-side in reflective journals for the duration of the teaching practice of English PSTs during

their teaching practicum. They found that the teaching philosophy and goals were based on theory learnt from the university, but the reflective journals were based on their actual practice in the classroom. They argued that the relationship between theory and practice "appears to be a continuing issue of concern for student teachers" (p. 54). The PSTs also found a further challenge in relation to their students' use of English, evident in the following participant's reflection:

> When I got into the first class, I got a challenge that the learners did not want to be taught in English, the same subject that I was teaching. They said that they are only used to writing English, not speaking or listening to it. When my mentor visited me for the first time in the fourth week, she was so shocked that the learners were interacting in English. (p. 53)

Abongdia, Adu and Foncha (2015) did not focus specifically on CLT but discussed the fact that PSTs "do not get the necessary support from their mentors" and that "suggests that the mentors are worse [in being able to implement CLT] than the student teachers" (p. 53). This study concluded that the classroom teachers/INSTs were not developed enough to handle the required EFL teaching and subsequently the mentoring of the PSTs. Their research showed that this situation would impact on the PSTs' beliefs and attitudes about their application of teaching methods/CLT.

Basturlmen (2012) also reviewed a set of studies on the relationship between EFL teachers' beliefs and their practice. His study's results highlighted that the correspondence between teachers' belief and their practices was limited. For example, as with Farrell and Kun (2008), correspondence was found between teachers' beliefs and their practices in relation to correcting students' errors when they used a feature of Singlish in speaking (Singlish being the English-based creole language spoken in Singapore). Interestingly, Cundale's (2001) earlier study found that teachers reported that they used question types corresponding to their beliefs about CLT as reflected in their interviews, whereas Ng and Farrell's (2003) study on beginning teachers revealed that correspondence between their beliefs and practices was about error correction.

Table 3.5 presents an overview of the key literature relevant to this thesis. It compares the different contexts, research methods, purpose/aims, outcomes and recommendations. All of the articles reviewed concentrated on PSTs' beliefs, attitudes, perceptions, and the challenges they face during their teaching practicum. Looking to

Table 3.5, these studies are either qualitative or quantitative with only one study using a mixed-methods approach (Ng, Nicholas, & Williams, 2010) and only one study (Aşık, & Kuru Gönen, 2016) using the SETT framework to raise PSTs' awareness of classroom interaction, evaluating themselves as to how they used language in the classroom and encouraging them to find solutions to problems. It can be concluded that studies from different contexts and using different research methods showed that PSTs face many challenges and problems during their teaching practicums. Hence, this study used a mixed-method approach, using survey and teacher case study to explore PSTs' beliefs, attitudes and their practices of English language teaching, focusing on teacher talk analysis.

Table 3.5: *Overview of previous studies on PSTs about their experiences, beliefs and practices during their training*

Author(s)	Context	Methods/ tools/ sample	Purpose/Aims	Outcome	Recommendations/ implications
Abongdia, Adu & Foncha, 2015	South Africa	The study adopts an interpretivist research paradigm 67 files were purposively selected for analysis and discussion	To identify challenges encountered by PSTs during teaching practice	PSTs identify many challenges they faced during their practicum, such as challenges related to professional relations, unfriendliness, isolation, unfriendly staff room settings and conflicting teaching philosophies	The study recommended that school-based supervisors should ensure that PSTs are supported during their work-integrated learning. PSTs need to understand the requirements set for the programs they are interested in and determine that they would be able to fulfil these requirements before committing themselves.
Heeralal, & Bayaga, 2011	South Africa	Qualitative case study, using semi-structured interviews	To examine PSTs' experiences during teaching practice.	The challenges faced by PSTs are attributable to factors concerning their preparation during training, their relationship	The data suggested that education faculties need to pay attention to:

		Sample: 69 responded in writing to an open-ended question	To identify some of the barriers that PSTs experience and propose ways in which they can be overcome, so that practice teaching benefits the professional development of the student-teacher.	with school-based mentors, induction into the school, the attitude of other educators, involvement in other activities, learner discipline, and lack of resources and implementation of OBE.	(1) flexibility in time of course participation (2) flexibility in the content of teaching practice (3) flexibility in instructional approaches and learning, and (4) flexibility in course delivery and logistics
El-Sawy, 2018	Egypt	Qualitative: an observation sheet, a semi-structured interview and a focus group	To investigate three factors: 1. Preservice English teachers' preparation courses 2. Their views about teaching 3. Their real teaching behaviours	The reasons which the participants gave for not applying what they had learned theoretically included: insufficient preservice training, students' low level, insufficient class time, students' resistance to changing the way they use to learn, insufficiency of equipment in schools, students' preference for using the native language in learning, and in one case the teacher herself preferred the	El-Sawy recommended early coordination between teacher preparation institutions and schools. The incorporation of older teachers in teacher preparation programs to try to breach the theory practice gap.

				Traditional grammar-translation method.	Supervisors should analyse the given causes of the theorypractice gap and develop the English teachers' preparation courses in accordance.
Ng, Nicholas, & Williams, 2010	La Trobe University Australia	Quantitative: Likert-scale closed statements on what good teachers are. Qualitative: openended questions Sample: 37 PSTs	To investigate PSTs' beliefs about effective teaching	The results indicated that the PSTs' beliefs about good teaching evolved from a belief in being in control through expertise to a belief in being in control through charisma and building relationships with their students.	Ng, Nicholas and Williams Recommended that PSTs should be encouraged to focus on what and how they are teaching to engage students with meaningful tasks. *Future research:* The need for research into how the university's coursework programs contributed to the responses obtained in the study.

Uysal & Yavuz, 2015	Balikesir University of Turkey	Quantitative: questionnaire Sample: 104 PSTSs	To investigate the PSTs' understanding of grammar teaching	Teachers' attitudes towards grammar are generally positive and they are in favour of teaching grammar implicitly integrated with skills. Students' lack of motivation to make use of speaking and listening skills outside the classroom led teachers to focus only on linguistic competence by minimising communicative elements. No change in teaching practice because of grammar-based examinations.	It is important to take PSTs' attitudes into consideration toward grammar teaching. As prospective teachers, it can be suggested that they tend to take their attitudes and beliefs into the classroom.
Yilm, 2018	Turkey	Quantitative: Attitude scale (Karavas-Dukas, 1996) Sample: 151 PSTs	To examine Turkish PSTs' attitudes towards the practice of CLT principles in Turkish EFL classrooms.	Most participants held positive attitudes towards all the five principles of CLT.	The educational system acts as a key factor which necessarily updates pedagogical concerns in respect of the implementation of CLT. The implementation of communicationbased language teaching is still

					ongoing because of teachers' use of the traditional grammartranslation approach.
Aşık & Kuru Gönen, 2016	Turkey	Qualitative method: Observations, reflective diaries and interviews	To investigate EFL teachers' perceptions of their use of teacher talk and how analysis of language use contributes to their professional development	The PSTs in this study benefitted from the experience of using SETT reflective diaries and increased their awareness of classroom interaction, discussing solutions to problems and evaluating themselves as to how they used language in the classroom environment.	This study used only reflective diaries and interviews. Therefore, Aşık, and Gönen recommend the future study to focus on how teacher talk analysis would help improve teaching through observations and detailed feedback sessions.

Mudra, 2018	Indonesia	Qualitative: Interviews and observations Sampling: Researcher randomly selected 17 PSTs from either urban or rural schools	To describe and disseminate the obstacles Experienced by EFL PSTs in rural schools during their Teaching Practicum Program (TTP).	This study reported several factors that faced the PSTs. These were: classroom management, learning resources, teaching aids or media, teaching methods, learners' English skills, choice of language use, slow internet connectivity, learners' motivation, evaluation technique and parental support.	Mudra recommended that learners can be more successful in their English learning when they are supported by both the school environment and family members. To do this, stakeholders, teachers, learners, and family members have to work

				together to focus on learners' achievement in their learning.
				Implications
				• Small size sample.
				• 3 months teaching practicum is not sufficient for both PSTs to develop their teaching conceptions and ability, and for the researcher to evaluate the achievement

3.7 Gaps in the literature and justifications of the study

The findings of the studies above show that beliefs and practices do not necessarily correspond because the teacher is experiencing a change process in beliefs. These previous studies show evidence that PSTs experience different challenges that impact on their practices. One of these challenges is the influence of sociocultural factors (such as mentors or supervisors) on their practice. There is consensus that training PSTs in university methods courses is not enough to convince new teachers to use CLT in their teaching. In the field of the pre-service training program, there is a lack of research on exploring the factors affecting the PSTs' beliefs on their practices, especially in the Libyan EFL context. Sheridan (2016) suggested that there is a need to "develop a broader understanding of the factors that influence the pre-service teachers' beliefs about pedagogy . . . during and post the practicum experience and in reinforcing or challenging pre-conceived beliefs about teaching and learning" (p. 15). This is a particular gap that the current study addressed through the following research question: What factors might shape Libyan pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs and practice towards implementing CLT?

3.8 Language education and policy

Policy refers to overall plans, actions that are proposed by the government, and it provides a set of rules or principles that guide decisions. National education policies have adopted CLT widely; however, what happens in the classroom does not necessarily follow from such policies (Hamid & Nguyen, 2016). EFL research shows that there is no guarantee that teachers adopt or reject approaches that have been designed for other contexts (Adamson & Davison 2008, cited in Capune, 2012; Rogers 2014). CLT is both an educational and political issue that is "inextricably linked with language policy" (Capune, 2012, p. 4) and it aims to enhance English language competence (Hamid & Nguyen 2016) and to ensure that students can use the language with the proficiency required in their future career (Mahboob & Tilakaratna, 2012). However, teachers and

researchers should engage to identify the range of issues. Policy-makers should also consider policy implementation, particularly personnel policy that includes teacher training and ongoing professional development to meet the changing expectations of EFL teachers' roles (Savignon, 2002). The Libyan experience of policy implementation has not yet been studied, thus the present research will provide an important contribution in this regard.

3.8.1 English only philosophy in the classroom

Despite the widespread "English only" movement amongst educators who support the notion that English is the only acceptable medium of communication within the ESL/EFL classroom, SLA theories such as the Monitor theory has claimed that there are limits on the effect of learners' first language on SLA. However, the research literature on CLT argues that to build up learners' language competence, they should be exposed to the target language as much as possible for them to listen, negotiate to make meaning, and learn, and the use of too much mother tongue might lead to a decline in the acquisition of the target language (Gregg, 1984).

However, it can be argued that the use of learners' first language (L1) in the EFL (L2) classroom can support the process and outcomes of their second language learning. For instance, Macaro and Mutton (2002) claimed that the first language (L1) use can facilitate connections between the target language and prior knowledge besides ideas already developed in the first language. Yet, opposing views in the early research on whether to use L1 or not in learning second languages, to archive the proficiency, argue for immersion (Behan, Turnbull, & Spek, 1997; Cohen, 2015; Swain & Lapkin, 2013). The first view is to separate the L1 and L2, at least in speaking; in this way, students are allowed to think in their first language and they are only required to use English in the classroom. According to Cohen (2015), "L1 use in communicative and immersion L2 classrooms served as a cognitive and metacognitive tool, as a strategic organiser, and as a scaffold for language development" (p. 333). The second view encouraged translanguaging in the classroom, which allows for bilingual conversations where the teacher is speaking mostly L2 and some of L1 when required.

Such findings regarding the use of the first language are corresponding with theories of second language acquisition. Many studies (D'Annulizios, 1991; Garcia, 1991; Hemmindinger, 1987; Shamash, 1990), show that its use "reduces anxiety" and

"enhances the effective environment for learning", takes into account "socio-cultural factors", "facilitates the incorporation of learners' life experiences", and "allows for learner-centred curriculum development" (Strei, 1992, as cited in Manara, 2007, p. 146). Most importantly, it allows for language to be used as a meaning-making tool and for language learning to become a means of communicating ideas rather than an end in itself" (Auerbach, 1993).

Ghorbani (2013) investigated the nature of L1 use in student-teachers' interactions while engaging in L2 pair/group work activities. In this strategy, the first language is used naturally (in scaffolding, private speech, and humour) and the features of the activity or verbal interaction invites the use of L1 for a specific function. Lee and Macaro (2013) investigated the effects of the first language (L1) Korean use or second language English (L2) use on vocabulary learning in English in light of policymakers' recommendations to maximise the use of the target language of two groups: (1) elementary learners' level, who had learnt English for some years, and (2) university-level learners who were proficient. Their findings revealed that both groups benefited more from teachers' codeswitching than using English only in vocabulary definitions or paraphrasing. However, it was found that young learners were more likely to oppose an English only pedagogy than adults. Similarly, the support for use of L1 was reinforced by Tian and Macaro's (2012) research that reported: "university students learnt more words via the L1 equivalent method as compared to the L2 only method" (p. 897).

3.9 Professional Development for EFL Teachers

Diaz-Maggioli (2003) defines professional development as an ongoing process in which teachers participate freely in learning to better adapt their teaching to their students' needs. Professional development presents a challenge for teachers and policymakers in ensuring the attainment of superior quality in education. The challenge in the area of languages teaching in the context of this thesis is to be able to change EFL teachers' current practices through their understanding and adoption of new techniques, e.g., CLT and appreciation of sociocultural theory, as opposed to grammar-translation, and how it appears in practice. Although professional development programs are vital in enhancing education and changing teachers' beliefs, attitudes and classroom practices, Guskey (2002) argues that many professional programs will be effective if they take two factors into account. These are: "what motivates teachers to engage in

professional development" and "the process by which change in teachers typically occurs" (p. 382).

In Vietnam, one such model of professional development is the Critical Friend Group (CFG), in which teachers exchange professional concepts and ideas, discuss issues in learning and engage with teaching problems (Vo & Nguyen, 2010). Another model is a type of teacher talk and classroom discourse called reflection practice or engaging in critical reflection, which helps teachers to think about what and why the change could happen (Ferrell, 2015). This is important for the Libyan context given the long lapse in teaching EFL and the subsequent de-skilling of the profession. This has affected the operation of the system of university teaching and the regular INST workforce. Thus, research such as the present investigation into beliefs and attitudes as well as pedagogical practice is crucial to gaining a better understanding and advising on improvements to enhance EFL outcomes.

CHAPTER FOUR: METHODOLOGY

4.0 Overview

This methodology chapter contains ten sections. Section 4.1 restates the research aims and questions. Section 4.2 presents general explanations of philosophies and paradigms. The research design is positivist with a constructivist/interpretive approach adopted as research philology. The research methodology and design are discussed in Section 4.3; the research design of the study as mixed methods is explained in 4.3.1 and followed by an illustration of the alignment of the data collection to the research questions and methods in Section 4.3.2. Section 4.4 presents details of the quantitative method, such as participants, sampling, online pilot survey, survey translation, data collection procedure and data analysis, concluding with a discussion of the issues of validity and reliability of the results. The qualitative method phase is presented in Section 4.5: a selection of participants and data collection instruments, such as the Classroom Observation Schedule, and details of interview schedules. The SelfEvaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT) and its application to the analysis of classroom dialogue is described and its use justified in Section 4.6. The procedure of data analysis for qualitative data, including both observations (4.6.1) and interviews (4.6.2) and (4.6.3) are explained. The next Section (4.7) presents a procedure of data analysis employed in the study. Section 4.8 discusses the triangulation underpinning the research and aspects of trustworthiness. Section 4.9 reviews ethical considerations such as ensuring informed consent, giving the right to participants to be able to freely withdraw from the study at any time, and promoting participants' confidentiality, storing the information in a safe place in keeping with Australian national ethical requirements, and ensuring a clear, coherent expression of the research study proposal. Finally, Section 4.10 presents the conclusion of the chapter.

4.1 Restatement of the Research Aims and Research Questions

The main purpose of this study is to explore Libyan pre-service English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' beliefs and attitudes about Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approaches compared with INSTs. The research further discovers how pre-service teachers' beliefs and attitudes are practised during their classroom teaching. This study employs sequential explanatory mixed methods, using a questionnaire followed by classroom observation and semi-structured interviews. The study aims to answer the following research questions:

1) How do Libyan pre-service and in-service EFL teachers perceive CLT in terms of their beliefs and attitudes?

   A. What are Libyan pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards CLT?

   B. What are Libyan in-service EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards the CLT approach?

2) To what extent do Libyan pre-service EFL teachers apply CLT approaches in their teaching?

3) What factors might shape Libyan pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards implementing CLT?

4) What challenges do Libyan university teachers face when preparing EFL teachers to teach CLT?

4.2 Methodological approach

The adoption of a mixed-methods approach to the research design suggests pragmatism stance where methods from both quantitative and qualitative traditions are utilised. The pragmatism approach is most commonly associated with mixed methods research, which offers an alternative worldview to those of positivism/postpositivism and constructivism and focuses on the problem to be researched and the consequences of the research (Brewer & Hunter, 1989, p. 74; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p. 26; Miller, 2006; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, pp. 29-30). This paradigm originated when the need arose for a paradigm to govern mixed methods research. Pragmatism emphasises not only an abstract continuance of knowledge through investigation but also aimed to gain knowledge in the pursuit of the required goal between belief and action. Besides, the ultimate goal of pragmatism is to complete thorough research and make practical use of the findings. In a mixed-methods approach, the researcher used worldview for one part of the research; ideally, the pragmatism paradigm is important to utilise for inherent in this approach to research methodology is the ability to see the subtleties of people's lived experiences and to explore the beliefs and attitude of participants. According to

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), "what is most fundamental is the research question – research methods should follow research questions in a way … [to] see what works, what solves problems" (pp. 17-18). The researcher, therefore, takes a transformative viewpoint and in keeping with Creswell (2013) considers research to be problemfocused, and in choosing mixed methods the outcomes are expected to illuminate the issues and assist with improvements for the participants as a result of the research. Thus, ontologically the researcher understands that new understandings are socially constructed through the research experiences and in turn takes an epistemological stance situated in the interpretivist/constructivist research paradigm where she acknowledges findings are inevitably influenced by the researcher's perspectives and values (Snape & Kelly, 2002, cited in Pitard, 2017, 2.1). Moreover, her axiological view of the world involves the importance of self-reflection in relation to the research and ethical considerations in its aim to make a contribution to knowledge to

improve English as a foreign language learning and teaching in her developing home country of Libya.

In this regard, to answer research question one and two in the present research a Pragmatismis adopted, first to test research participants' beliefs and attitudes towards communicative language teaching (CLT) using a Likert scale survey. Then the interpretive-constructivist paradigm is adopted in the second phase of the study to answer research questions three, four and five. It offers the opportunity to gain a deeper understanding, through interpreting the beliefs and the actual experiences of the research participants. In this way, the researcher can gain an understanding of the issues and factors that shape participants' beliefs and attitudes toward their teaching. In addition, the strength of the conduct of classroom observations adds to the interpretive validity (Waxman, 2013).

A constructivist worldview for another part, or can use a combination of the two, if appropriate, as adopted in the present research. Therefore, the paradigmatic pragmatist foundations address whether one paradigm might be better than another for a particular research endeavour (Ling & Ling, 2020). Constructivist and interpretive paradigms aim to understand human activities and behaviours within different contexts (Tantani, 2011). The ontology of the constructivist and interpretive approaches is relativism, which holds that reality is subjective and differs between individuals. In these paradigms, the reality is individually constructed (Scotland, 2012, p. 11) and socially contracted (Creswell, 2003; Kawulich, 2012; Mertens, 2009). Ontology in these two paradigms is described as 'relativist ontology', which means that the reality of situated studies has several truths, which can be explored and meaning made from them through interactions between the researcher, the subject of the research and the research participants (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

The epistemology of the interpretive paradigm is inter-subjective experience construction and application of qualitative methodologies, such as observations and interviews that are based on a meaningful relationship between investigator and subjects. The interpretive paradigm in education research encourages educators to develop a

better understanding of the world of their learners by continuously asking questions, such as

'Who are the students I am teaching?' And 'Who were the previous teachers of these students?' (Palmer, 1998). The understanding that develops from this questioning facilitates wider targeting of the social, political, historical, and economic "forces shaping the pedagogies, curriculum policies and schooling system in which teachers are immersed. Such an interpretive orientation is essential for teachers wishing to adopt more student-centred pedagogies such as constructivist approaches to teaching and learning" (Taylor & Medina, 2013, pp. 5-6). This approach is further described by Lunenburg and Irby (2008), as an approach which "involves the description of phenomena in our world" (p. 89) Such a design covers "actions, behaviours and changes of phenomena, but always the description is about what the phenomena 'look like' from the perspective of the researcher and the participants in the research" (Lunenburg & Irby, 2008, p. 90) rather than how the phenomena function.

4.2.1 Implementation of a mixed-methods design

Scientific studies aim to establish the rules and principles to help predict and explain a phenomenon. As noted above, both qualitative and quantitative approaches can offer useful tools to predict and influence the study of such phenomena (Leppink, 2017), and it applies to the research regarding "reality" as both objective and socially constructed (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie). Figure 4.1 displays the research design and underpinning philosophy based on the discussion of contemporary research paradigms for this research. Qualitative research is used to understand and provide in-depth insights into phenomena experienced by certain people at the particular research site (Johnson, 2012) or "investigate the quality of relationships, activities, situations, or materials" (Wallen, 2001, p. 131). Quantitative research provides a numeric report of some part of the population" (Creswell, 1994, p. 117).

Mixed methods is a technique of collecting and analysing both qualitative and quantitative data in one single study; according to Creswell (2015), it provides a better

understanding of research problems. Creswell et al. (2007) defined mixed methods research as:

> A research design with philosophical assumptions as well as methods of inquiry. As a methodology, it involves philosophical assumptions that guide the direction of the collection and analysis of data and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phases in the research process. As a method, it focuses on collecting, analysing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone. (p. 5)

The mixed-methods approach is also considered useful because it offers a chance for the researcher to mix qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis within or across the stages of the research process, either concurrently or sequentially (Brannen, 1992; Creswell, 2009; Ihantola & Kihn, 2011). The significance of using mixed methods in this study is that qualitative data will help to explain the quantitative results (Cota-Grijalva & Ruiz-Esparza Barajas, 2013). For instance, a mixed-methods approach provides more data accuracy. It also helps to provide a whole image of the phenomenon that occurs in the study and will help to develop and analyse the primary data (Denscombe, 2008). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) have mentioned another feature of using mixed methods in research. They argued that the goal of mixed methods research is to take the strengths and minimise the weakness of both qualitative and quantitative research in one study.

When using mixed methods research, there are three characteristics that researchers need to consider: timing, emphasis, and mixing (Ivankova & Creswell, 2009). First, timing refers to the order or the sequence of the research methods (qualitative and quantitative) data collection and analysis for the study. Second, emphasis means that either the qualitative or quantitative method is given an important priority in the study. Third, mixing refers to the combination of the qualitative and quantitative method into a single study procedure (Ivankova & Creswell, 2009).

Creswell (1994) proposed three models of such combined designs:

1) Two-phase designs: This design enables researchers to present the paradigm assumptions behind each phase thoroughly.

2) Dominant less dominant: This design provides a consistent paradigm picture in the study and still gathers limited information to probe in detail one aspect of the study.

3) Mixed-methodology design: This design mixes aspects of the qualitative and quantitative paradigm at all or many methodological steps. (p. 177)

The evidence in the literature suggests that quantitative and qualitative approaches operate as complementary strengths and weaknesses (Morgan, 2007); they can provide a framework for handling and analysing data (Baker, 2016). The current study used the following mixed methods of data collection: survey, classroom observation, and interviews. Patton (2002) explains that mixed data triangulation, that is generated from the CLT survey, observations and interviews, enables the researcher to link and compare several features of CLT for EFL pre-service teachers. It offers different perspectives and allows for more accurate assessment of the data. In particular, using multiple-analysis triangulation helps to understand multiple ways of seeing the data. For mixed methods, triangulation is a popular strategy used in "conjunction with other data sources, investigators and methods" (Creswell, 1994, p. 174) to strengthen the research design.

Qualitative data is triangulated and cross-referenced with quantitative results where applicable in the present research. As noted earlier, an alignment summary of data collection phases, data analysis, and research questions is shown in Table 4.1. According to Allen (2002), "a research case study that triangulates data from teachers' responses from the questionnaires with qualitative data can discover whether the teachers do what they say they believe in doing and may lead to positive educational change" (p. 526). This study used a combination of participants: PSTs, two INSTs and two university supervisors. The supervisors expressed the expectations of their roles and their interventions in PSTs' teaching practice. They also divulge what kind of curriculum they teach at the university and how they provide appropriate training for PSTs to promote communicative language teaching practices. The gathering of views from

different parties allows triangulation of data to help avoid bias and increase the reliability and validity of the research.
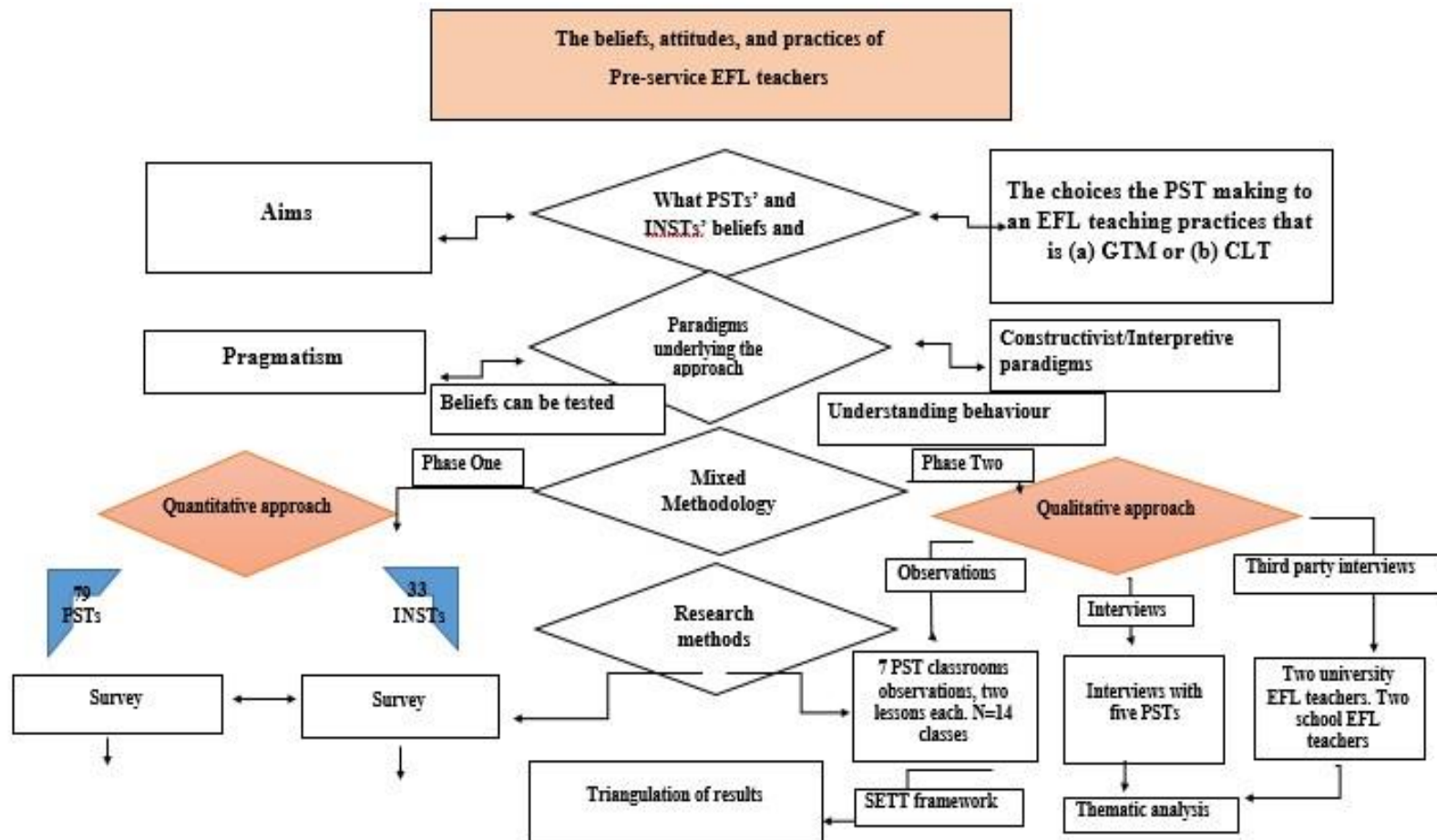
Figure 4.1: Philosophy and diagram of the research design

Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, (2011) claimed that the "choice of methodology is determined by the research questions rather than the preferences of the researcher" (p. 23). "Sequential explanatory data (Quantitative Research → Qualitative Research) gives the 'what' or 'how' and 'why'. These kinds of questions are labelled 'Hybrid'. This requires numerical and quantitative data to analyse for understanding social reality" (Wang, 2017, p. 203). In this study, the first three questions state 'what' questions. The quantitative data might show the extent of the 'what' question answers; that is, discovering Libyan pre-service EFL teachers and INSTs' beliefs and attitudes towards the CLT approach. Then, qualitative data will discover variables and seek to understand why things happened, after discovering them through statistical analysis (Creswell & Clark, 2011).

Regarding the current research design, the explanatory sequential mixed method was employed to discover PSTS' and INSTs' beliefs and attitudes towards CLT and to also clarify and reflect upon particular issues as they arise from the PSTs' lessons. In particular, explanatory sequential mixed methods design has been found applicable to the field of applied linguistics research (Hashemi & Babaii, 2013; Jafari, Shokrpour, & Guetterman, 2015), because it improves the validity of hypothetical intentions and helps to reduce bias in the findings of the phenomenon under study (Webb et al., 1966). The quantitative inquiry is conducted first with the different teacher groups because knowing what teachers' beliefs and attitudes are about the CLT approach will give the general picture about their teaching and pedagogical preferences. Surveying before and after the PSTs' teaching practicum will help discover the level of endorsement of CLT statements. Following this, the qualitative data collection in terms of classroom observations and interviews will show what factors contribute to shaping Libyan preservice EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards implementing CLT.

The mixed methods research process can be conducted concurrently or sequentially. Concurrently means conducting the research using quantitative and qualitative methods at the same time, whereas sequentially involves researching by applying one method after the other. Creswell (2003) identifies three types of concurrent and three types of sequential mixed methods research: 1) sequential explanatory, 2) sequential exploratory, 3) sequential transformative, and 4) concurrent triangulation, 5) concurrent

nested, and 6) concurrent transformative. Hurmerinta-Peltomäki and Nummela (2006) also introduced 13 strategies, ranging from "qualitative data analysed quantitatively" to "qualitative and quantitative data analysed concurrently with qualitative and quantitative research methods" (p. 447).

4.2.2 Research sample design

For sample selection, several types of sampling techniques are discussed in the research literature which is based on two factors, "the representation basis and the element selection technique" (Etikan & Bala, 2017, p. 1). The basis of sampling to argue representation could be either probability or nonprobability. Probability sampling means selecting a sample randomly from the total population; probability sampling is defined as having the "distinguishing characteristic that each unit in the population has a known, nonzero chance of being included in the sample" (Henry, 1990, p. 25), whereas nonprobability means non-random selection of participants. Nonprobability sampling "is a sampling technique where the samples are gathered in a process that does not give all the participants or units in the population equal chances of being included" (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016, p. 1). In this study, non-probability sampling is used because it was not possible to carry out random selection. Therefore, more explanation of the types of non-probability will be described to justify the choice to use two types of nonprobability (convenience and purposive sample) in this study.

4.2.3 Alignment of research questions and methods

The vital requirement of this study was to use multi-methods and techniques for data collection phases. Table 4.1 shows a summary alignment of research questions and research data collection and analysis methods and the phases of the research. For example, Phase One shows how the survey will be administered to provide data to help answer research questions one and two. Phase Two identifies the use of case studies that will include classroom observation and semi-structured Interviews to provide data to

answer research questions three and four. Other interview data will contribute to answering research question five.

Table 4.1: *Alignment of research questions and methods*

Research Data Collection				
Research Phases	**Phase One**	**Phase Two (Case studies)**		**Phase Three**
Data collection instruments Sample sizes Duration of data collection	Survey of 2 groups (PSTs, N=79) (INSTs, N=33)	Classroom observations 14 x observation sessions (14x40 minutes = 560 mins) Seven PSTs (two lessons for each PST in two different schools)	stimulus recall Interviews Four of the PSTs were interviewed through Viber and Facebook messenger	Interviews with two INSTs and two university supervisory teachers. Observing PSTs' classes.
Data analysis	Using Excel and SPSS software	Classroom observation recorded, transcribed and analysed using the SETT framework. Identifying themes and questions for interviews through the lesson transcriptions.	The data will be analysed by identifying themes and categories. Codes and themes built from interviews using thematic analysis.	The thematic analysis used to analyse interviews, Identifying codes and themes.
Research questions				
RQ1	How do Libyan pre-service and in-service EFL teachers perceive CLT in terms of their beliefs and attitudes?			
A) What are Libyan pre-service EFL English teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards CLT?	*	*	*	
B) What are Libyan In-service EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards the CLT approach?	*			*

RQ2	What factors that might shape Libyan pre-service FL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards using implementing CLT?			
		*	*	*
RQ3	To what extent do Libyan pre-service EFL teachers apply CLT approaches in their teaching?			
	*	*	*	
RQ4	What challenges do Libyan university teachers face when preparing EFL teachers to teach CLT?			
				*

4.3 Phase One: Quantitative methods

Quantitative data were collected through the administration of an online and hard copy Likert scale questionnaire. This comprised the first phase of the research design where this quantitative questionnaire survey aimed to obtain a general picture of teachers' beliefs and attitudes about CLT practice. Following this phase, the beliefs and attitudes of PSTs were compared before and after teaching practicum with the INSTs' views on communicative language teaching. To address the research aim to identify PSTs' and INSTs' beliefs and attitudes, two research questions were: (1) What are Libyan pre-service EFL English teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards CLT? (2) What are Libyan in-service EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards the CLT approach?

4.3.1 Participants

Quantitative data were collected first through the Likert scale survey. Sample participants were selected as a convenience sample. The original plan was to select two groups of 50 PSTs and 50 INSTs (mixed between males and females) from Nalut University. However, during the preliminary stages of data collection, it was found that the number of university students in Year four was only 15, and only 7 students completed the survey. It was decided therefore to include more participants of Year four from other universities in Libya. Therefore, the new sampling plan for the survey involved 79 PSTs and 33 INSTs as follows:

1) Group one: 79 PSTs from seven selected universities in Libya participated in the study. Two universities located in eastern Libya, and two universities in the capital city and three were in rural west Libya. All participants were in their final year of a four-year English education program. Participants were chosen according to a nonprobability convenience sampling method suggested by (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2017). This sampling method relies on data collected from the population of PSTs who are conveniently available to participate in the study. The researcher sent a link to the online survey via university websites and their Facebook pages. The PSTs participated in the study voluntarily. The consent letter was attached for the survey for both online survey and hard copy survey; this was one of the ethical

requirement (See Section 4.9). The number of participants and the universities selected are coded in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: *Number of participants from each university*

University code	Number of participants	Percentage
BU	16	20.25
NU	25	31.65
AMU	8	10.13
GU	6	7.59
AZU	18	22.78
JCU	4	5.06
TU	2	2.53
Total	**79**	**100**

Group Two: The second group of participants EFL INSTs in public primary and secondary schools. The number returned from snowball techniques was 33 participants in Nalut city schools. In-service EFL teachers (INSTs) were asked to provide their answers using a hard copy survey (see Appendix G). The population for the research comprised 15 primary schools and 5 secondary schools in Nalut, in which 139 EFL teachers were working in the primary schools and 20 EFL teachers working in secondary schools. They were all invited using the snowball technique. A total of 33 completed surveys were returned from 28 females and five males, representing 20 EFL teachers from primary schools and 13 EFL teachers from secondary schools. Demographic questions on the survey collected background information about the INSTs, including gender and age. Table 4.3 shows the teachers who responded from primary and secondary schools, their gender, and their age groups. The years of experience of the teachers were divided into three categories: early career, mid-career, and experienced. On the one hand, as is apparent in Table 4.3, nearly half of the teachers were inexperienced. On the other hand, a reasonable proportion of the sample of female teachers (10) in both primary and secondary schools was experienced. However, fifteen of the female teachers were inexperienced in both primary and secondary school. There

were four males, two inexperienced teachers and one experienced teacher aged between 35 and 44 and one aged between 45 and 54 years old who were experienced, who taught in a secondary school. There was one inexperienced male aged between 18 and 24 in a primary school.

As can be seen in Table 4.3, the ages of female teachers who had zero to five years of experience presented as follows: four teachers in primary school and one teacher in secondary school-aged 18 to 24; four teachers in primary school and four teachers in secondary school-aged 25 to 34; one teacher in primary school and one teacher in secondary school-aged 35 to 44.

Table 4.3: *Participants in the study: Demographic information (a type of teacher, age and gender, and years of experience*

Ages and years of experience in the type of school					Years of Experience		
					0-5	6-10	11+
	Primary school teacher	Gender of participant	Male	Age Group			
				18-24	1	0	0
				25-34	0	0	0
				35-44	0	0	0
				45-54	0	0	0
			Female	Age Group			
				18-24	4	0	0
				25-34	4	0	0
				35-44	1	1	3
				45-54	0	0	5
Type of Teacher	Secondary school teacher	Gender of participant	Male	Age Group			
				18-24	0	0	0
				25-34	0	0	0
				35-44	2	0	1
				45-54	0	0	1

				18-24	1	0	0
		Female	Age Group	25-34	4	2	1
				35-44	1	0	1
				45-54	0	0	0

The age of female teachers who had six to ten years of experience was as follows: one teacher aged 35-44 in primary schools and two teachers aged 25-34 in secondary schools. The ages of female teachers in primary school who had 11 or more years of experience were as follows: three teachers aged 35-44 and five teachers aged 45-54 in primary schools and one teacher aged 25-34 and one teacher aged 35-44 in secondary schools.

4.3.2 Snowball sampling techniques

The snowball technique is one of the purposive sampling strategies. Snowball sampling is defined as "a technique for finding research subjects" (Atkinson & Flint, 2001, p. 2). Recruiting research participants can be hard to achieve when focused on a specific population in society. In this study, participants were selected specifically to be pre-service EFL teachers, students in Year four from faculties of English language education in different universities (79) in different parts of eastern Libya. The snowball sampling techniques were used to reach these target participants, to complete the survey either by traditional paper and pencil or online. Thus, in this study, the researcher created an online survey using the 'Monkey survey website', then the researcher sent a link to the online survey via university websites and their Facebook pages. Another way the researcher distributed the survey was to send the survey to a friend who was a teacher at the selected universities, for her to invite Year four PSTs to respond.

However, recruiting INSTs was problematic in this research, because of current changes in Libyan education, where most of the INSTs were not in attendance at schools. As a result, the snowball technique was invaluable to the research data collection process. The number returned was 33 responses from English teachers.

4.3.3 Survey structure

The survey aimed to collect data to describe and interpret the nature of existing conditions or events. Surveys are useful to test results and to collect information such as attitudes, beliefs, opinions, experiences, and behaviours.

As shown in Table 4.2 the survey used in the current study had three parts. The first part contained questions relating to demographic information (age, gender) and participants' English learning background and their beliefs about CLT, in addition to questions about their English language preparation program. The second part of the survey contained ten belief statements on macro pedagogical strategies that teachers should apply regarding teaching principles related to the post method era, which were adapted from Kumaravadivelu (1994). These are: 1) maximise learning opportunities; 2) facilitate negotiated interaction; 3) minimise perceptual mismatch; 4) activate intuitive heuristics; 5) foster language awareness; 6) contextualise linguistic input; 7) integrate language skills; 8) promote learner autonomy; 9) raise cultural consciousness; 10) ensure social relevance.

The third part of the survey was adapted from Karavas-Doukas' (1996) attitude scale which aims to define teachers' attitudes towards communicative language teaching. Referred to as the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI), it consists of 24 items, which focus on five areas: (1) group work/pair work; (2) error correction; (3) the role of grammar; (4) teacher role; (5) learners' role and (6) learning autonomy. This attitude scale has been used widely and published studies include Chang, (2011); Mangubhai et al. (1998); Mowkaie and Rahimi (2010). The original instrument used a five-point Likert scale categorised as follows: Strongly agree, Agree, Uncertain, Disagree and Strongly disagree. This research used a six-point Likert scale "Strongly Agree", "Agree", "Slightly Agree", "Strongly Disagree", "Disagree" and "Slightly Disagree" to avoid the possibility of encouraging mid-point choice. This change provided greater consistency and helped to avoid confusion in the responses. A translated Arabic version of the survey was made available together with the English version, so the participants could select to answer either the Arabic or English version.

It is noted that Karavas-Doukas' attitude scale contained some positively worded statements and some negatively worded statements, which were replicated in this research.

Table 4.4: *Summary of the Survey Categories*

Survey Parts	Content	No of items
1	Demographic questions	6
2	Pedagogical macro strategies	10
	Beliefs statements	
3	Attitude statements	24

4.3.4 Online pilot survey study

Online survey research offers an easier and faster service but also has some limitations due to potential technical problems. In light of this, a pilot study of the survey was designed and reviewed based on participants' feedback. The quality of the survey design was evaluated by asking five teachers (2 x pre- and 3 x INSTs) from the Facebook group named 'Libyan English teachers' to provide feedback. Based on the participants' feedback, it was found that the multi-matrix rating scale questions led to respondents having difficulties and not being able to move to the next question easily. Therefore, it was decided to omit that kind of question design. This also better enabled the survey to be conducted via Survey Monkey, online because it did not have an option to create rating estimate questions. Feedback from another Libyan university teacher suggested the separation of the survey for each group (PSTs' group and INSTs' group) because the first part (demographic questions) of the survey had different questions for each group and this would facilitate the analysis of the survey. Thus, the final survey took account of feedback from representatives of those groups who would be asked to complete it.

4.3.5 Survey translation

The English version survey of this study was translated into Arabic, as the participants of this study were Arabic L1 speakers. Therefore, to ensure the accuracy of the correct transfer of meaning of the survey, it was reviewed by three native speakers of the Arabic language. The groups chosen were doctoral students in Education from the University of Southern Queensland and the University of New England. They were from different Arabic speaking contexts (Saudi Arabia, Oman, and Libya). Each participant was asked to translate the survey separately, then all participants and the researcher met in a focus group to discuss the translation and choose the correct transfer of meaning of each statement.

Similarly, some other researchers, such as Aragones et al. (2008), used "translation–back translation" to ensure the correct transfer of meaning. For instance, in this case, two native Spanish speakers who were fluent in English translated his survey from English to Spanish, and then the survey was translated back to English by another two translators. Later, the back-translated English version was compared with the original English version (1) to ensure the addressing of the cross-cultural issues involved; (2) to identify details of any doubts in the translation; and (3) to check the version was culturally and conceptually suitable to the participants. Another way to confirm the validity of survey translation is by focusing on the two concepts of linguistics and culture (Sperber, 2004):

1) Linguistic validation is used to investigate the correspondence between items that have a similar meaning in the two languages. This is typically undertaken by teams of bilingual experts. It may be completed by individuals as in the case of the present research or focus groups as implemented in the current study.

2) Cultural validation refers to the importance of the planned idea of the target language use having appropriate language expression, to avoid misinterpretation of the meaning. In the case of the present research, three doctoral colleagues who were native Arabic speaker translators from different Arabic countries (Libya, Oman, and Saudi Arabia) checked the survey for comparability and correspondence of the interpretability purpose. *Comparability of language "*refers

to the formal similarity of words, phrases, and sentences" and *interpretability* "refers to the degree to which the two versions engender the same response even if the wording is not the same" (Montoya, Llopis, & Gilaberte, 2011, p. 3).

4.3.6 Survey analysis

The collected survey data were filled and stored both electronically and nonelectronically. Each response therefore was entered into Excel as soon as it was received. The data were analysed and then presented in tables and other charts using SPSS software. Codes were used to indicate several data sources, participants' names, university names. For example, PSTs' data were collected from seven universities across Libya; these universities were coded as shown in Table 5.1 demographic section.

The survey responses returned data entered into Excel for coding, cleaning, and reverse coding. Coding is entering a response as a numerical code like 1" for 'yes' and "2" for 'no' and replacing six-point categories of agreement and disagreement, 'strongly agree', 'agree', 'slightly agree', 'slightly disagree' 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree', into the numbers '6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1' respectively. Cleaning the data is to make sure they are accurate. Columns were used for ordering survey statements and rows for identification numbers for participants; each cell in the Excel file contained an answer, for example, 'agree', which was coded numerically, such as '5'. The analysis started with analysing each group of participants' responses separately and calculating the positive and negative percentages. The strategy used for calculating the percentages was by aggregating the various agreement categories 6, 5 and 4, and disagreement categories 3, 2 and 1, resulting in overall positive and negative response ratings.

The reliability in terms of Cronbach's α for the whole survey was 0.67, which approaches the reliability coefficient of 0.70. This result is similar to the previous study of Ngoc and Iwashita (2012) who achieved 0.68. Inferential statistics were used to draw conclusions and to compare the average performance in terms of the beliefs of both the PST and INST groups on a single measure to test if there was a statistically significant difference between their respective results (two-tailed for independent samples using the non-parametric statistical test of two independent samples T-test) (Weinberg & Abramowitz, 2008). Open-ended data responses from the survey were numerically

coded into categories and themes. The results of this analysis also helped to identify the subsample of participants for the case study, by choosing the participants who represented both positive or negative beliefs and attitudes about CLT features.

4.4 Phase Two: Qualitative Methods (Case Study)

4.4.1 The rationale of case studies

A case study is defined in various ways in the literature. Yin (1984) defines the case study in terms of a realist perspective as "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used" (p. 23). However, Stake (1995) defined case study research as "the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances" (p. xi) and Merriam (2009) includes what is studied and the products of the research, defining it as: "an in-depth description and analysis of a bounded system" (p. 40).

Thus, terminology mix used with a case study in the literature can be confusing; in particular, Yin (2014) described case study as a method as opposed to others who have considered case studies, for example, as dealing with the organisation of the data (White, 2011). Punch (2006) also mentioned that the case study "is a way of organising social data to preserve the unitary character of the social object being studied" (p. 144). As with the present research, both Creswell (2014) and Merriam (2009) used case studies as a qualitative design or qualitative case study.

More recent literature explained case study as "a methodology and a method, an approach, research and research design, research strategy, and a form of inquiry" (Harrison, Birks, Franklin, & Mills, 2017, p. 7). They claim that to conduct a case study, it is essential to pay attention in preparing and planning the research to aligning it with the progress of a regular implementation. This alignment methodology presents a position that addresses the research purpose and methods. Combined alignment of these essentials for the research study "cultivates trustworthiness and the validity, reliability,

and credibility of the research findings" (Harrison et al., 2017, p. 14). On this basis, this explicit definition was applied in this study.

Past studies that have used case study research have shown its ability to provide rich, in-depth data (Fang, Hart, & Clarke, 2014). It allows the exploration and understanding of complex issues (Zainal, 2007) and it helps to clarify the process and the outcome of the phenomenon based on using data from observations, interviews, reflective journals and the like (Tellis, 1997). More importantly, case studies allow generalisations as to the outcome and finding when using mixed methods that can lead to some form of replication (Wang, 2017).

4.4.2 Selection of participants

In the case studies, a sample of seven PST participants was purposively selected based on the results of the quantitative analysis of the survey to ensure that both positive and negative views of CLT were represented. This was also convenience sampling, since these participants were easily accessible to the researcher (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016), as they were chosen from Nalut University because, for security reasons, gathering face-to-face data from other universities of Libya was difficult to set up, owing to the disruptive and unsafe circumstances of the country (Human Rights Watch, 2018). (Therefore, it is anticipated that once Western Libya makes improvements for PSTs education, this knowledge/learning is likely to be required in the other institutions in Libya. As well, as a case study, the design was able to consider the triadic relationship upon which preservice teacher education relies in terms of exploring the views of the key stakeholders of PSTs, INSTs and University teachers (Nguyen, 2017).

Creswell (2013) lists five important goals of purposeful sample selection. These are 1) to achieve representativeness of the settings and individuals; 2) to ensure the conclusion sufficiently characterises the full choice of variation; 3) to deliberately select individuals or cases that are critical for testing the theories in the study; 4) to establish a particular comparison to illuminate the reasons for differences between settings or individuals, and 5) to select participants in the study that enable the researcher to

determine the most productive relationships to achieve a better chance of answering the research questions (pp. 194-196). Thus, purposive sampling in this case study was most applicable to all of these reasons. It allowed the further exploration of the issues arising from the survey and any other issues not addressed by the survey and provided an opportunity for participants to introduce their issues (Merriam, 1998). Also, the qualitative case study is seen as appropriate to investigate teachers' beliefs and the interrelationships between pedagogical beliefs and professional practice, because it can best illuminate an understanding of social phenomena such as these (Aksoy, 2015; Li & Walsh, 2011). In this way, this thesis case study involved both lesson observations and PSTs' semi-structured interviews. The participants were observed and interviewed while on practicum, while in the EFL pedagogical context. Other participants in the study were two university staff who were the supervisors of the PSTs. They were interviewed at the university.

Initially, during the meeting with Year four PSTs, seven were selected based on their attitudes to CLT and willingness to participate in the study, showing their interest to participate in this study. At the same time, the researcher described the aims of the research and explained the expected benefits to them, which were mainly the opportunity to discuss their CLT pedagogy and practice. The researcher also explained the ethical statements to the PSTs contained in the invitation package and the details of the consent letter before each participant signed, to make sure they understood.

Given that social media and online spaces are increasingly used for sharing interest and information and allow the researcher to "maintain physical separation and degree of anonymity" (Gelinas et al., 2017. p. 4) in the research, the researcher used Viber software to organise communication with the PSTs to confirm class observation time and the researcher's attendance with each pre-service teacher's class. In addition, the participants are referred to by using pseudonyms rather than their actual names to maintain their anonymity

4.5 Data Collection Methods

4.5.1 Observation procedure and analysis technique

Classroom observation data collection took place before the interviews. The preservice teachers took different numbers of English classes depending on the level of the school and classes. Some of them taught three classes per week, and some as many as four or five classes per week; therefore, the researcher chose to observe three lessons with each participant. The observation lasted between 40 and 45 minutes for each lesson. According to Christensen, Horn, and Johnson (2008), observation is defined as watching the behavioural patterns of people in certain situations to obtain information about the phenomenon of interest. Observation should be conducted in a way that achieves

"accurate, unbiased, and richly detailed information" (Christensen, Horn, and Johnson, 2008, p. 117).

Audio or video recording is a powerful tool to support classroom observation. Video/ audio recording can capture classroom events and interactions and can be played any number of times following the data collection (Haidet et al., 2009). This technique can also help to ensure more in-depth data analyses of the transcripts of lesson dialogue and the checking of coding accuracy. Unfortunately, there were difficulties associated with gaining permission for video recording of the PSTs' lessons as explained in more detail in the following section. Thus, the audio recordings of the PSTs' lessons were used, and the observation notes usage was maximised, to assist the collection of observation data, and designed to be quicker, to write the best quality dialogue as the researcher sat and listened and observed. The Walsh model SETT and its features were used to direct the observation and its data gathering for this study. (*Figure* 4.2). The first column of the observation sheet contains a list of features of the SETT model, which is divided into rows. The second column is divided into three sub-columns for noting the language used in the classroom (English, Arabic, and Amazigh). The third column is designed for taking notes and examples of the lesson talk and behaviours, including the

teacher–students' dialogues and categories. The fourth column is for the researchers' interpretation and extra notes.

The main focus is on a particular language system (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation) or skill (listening, reading, writing, and speaking). Walsh (2006) explained the similarities and differences between pedagogical features between material mode and skill and system mode, for example. "The turn-taking is organised around explanations and clarifications which focus on language skills or language systems" (p.6)
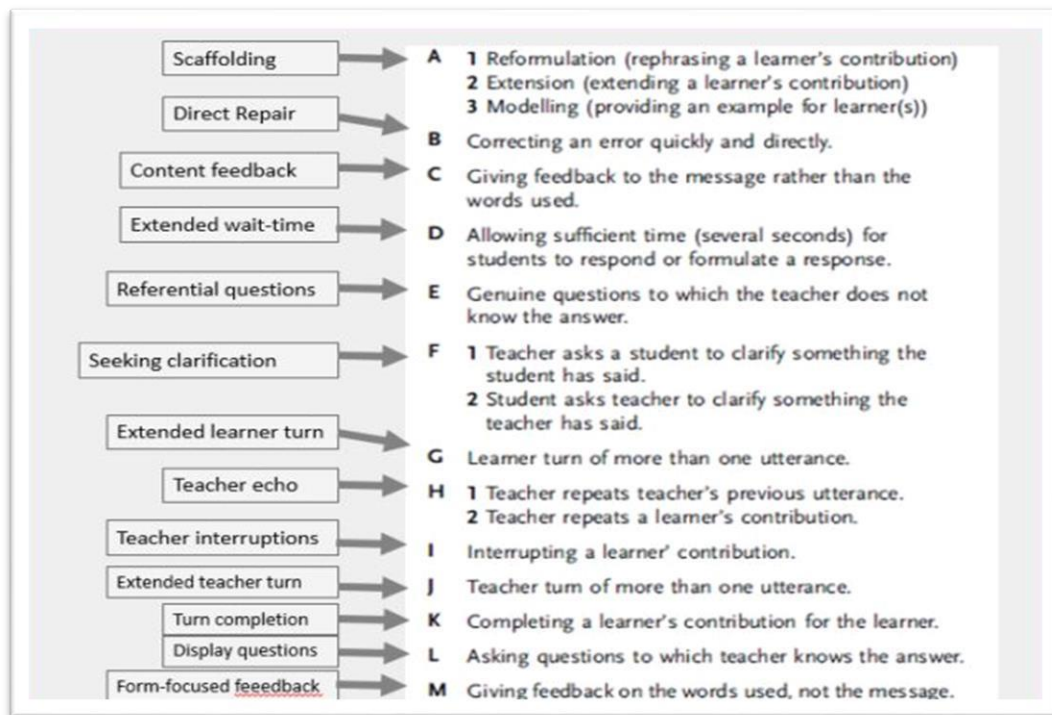
Figure 4.2: Feature of skills and system mode adopted from (Walsh, 2006) (note: there is a spelling error in the original copy)

Previous studies (Shamsipour & Allami, 2012; Poorebrahim, Talebinejad, & Mazlum, 2015) categorised the teacher-talk feature into constructive and obstructive nature of the teacher talk. Scaffolding, direct repair, content feedback, extended learner turn, extended teacher turn, extended wait time, display questions, referential questions seeking clarification were categorised as providing learning opportunities and for turn

completion. Teacher echo, teacher interruption and turn completion were categorised under obstructive feature based on their role in interfering with a learner's contribution and blocking learner opportunities.

The researcher obtained 14 classroom observations of seven PSTs (two lessons for each PST involving two different schools), as illustrated in Table 4.6.

Table 4.5: *Distribution of classroom observation sessions*

School	Number of observations	Total minutes	Number of participants
School 1	4	160	2
School 2	10	400	5
Total	**14**	**560**	**7**

The pre-service teachers were distributed amongst two schools to engage in their teaching practicum. The process of allocating PSTs for teaching training and the selection of schools for the practicum program was decided by the PSTs' university administration. Selected participants for this study were assigned as two PSTs in (School 1) and five PSTs in (School 2). The schedule of observations for the research is presented in Table 6.2.

Table 4.6: *Classroom observations for each pre-service teacher*

Teacher observation						
Sara	**Grade**	**Observation date**	**Time starts**	**Time ends**	**Length (minutes)**	**Number of students**
First visit	7/A	25-3-2018	11:35 am	12:15 pm	40	22
Second Visit	7/A	27-3-2018	8:40 am	9:20 am	40	22
Amal	**Grade**	**Observation date**	**Time starts**	**Time ends**	**Length (minutes)**	**Number of students**
First visit	7/B	25-3-2018	12:15 pm	12:55 pm	40	20
Second Visit	7/B	27-3-2018	8:00 am	8:40 am	40	20
Aminah	**Grade**	**Observation date**	**Time starts**	**Time ends**	**Length (minutes)**	**Number of students**
First visit	9/B	26-3-2018	10:00 am	10:40 am	40	25

Second visit	9/B	28-3-2018	10:55 am	11:35 am	40	25
Zahra	**Grade**	**Observation date**	**Time starts**	**Time ends**	**Length (minutes)**	**Number of students**
First visit	**8/A**	27-3-2018	10:00 am	10:40 am	40	21
Second visit	**8/A**	29-3-2018	11:35 am	12:15 am	40	21
Sohad	**Grade**	**Observation date**	**Time starts**	**Time ends**	**Length (minutes)**	**Number of students**
First visit	6/ B	26-3-2018	12:15 pm	12:55 pm	40	17
Second visit	6/ B	29-3-2018	8:00 am	8:40 am	40	17
Malika	**Grade**	**Observation date**	**Time starts**	**Time ends**	**Length (minutes)**	**Number of students**
First visit	7/A	26-3-2018	9:20 am	10:00 am	40	24
Second visit	7/A	28-3-2018	8:40 am	9:20 am	40	24
Esra	**Grade**	**Observation date**	**Time starts**	**Time ends**	**Length (minutes)**	**Number of students**
First visit	9/B	4- 4-2018	10:55 am	11:35 am	40	25
Second visit	9/B	4- 4-2018	11:35 am	12:15 pm	40	25

Use of audiotapes and videotapes

Using video as a tool in teacher professional development helps teachers to see their teaching from a new perspective (Kiemer, Gröschner, Pehmer, & Seidel, 2014). Because video recordings were unable to be made in this study, because of ethical constraints and restrictive cultural considerations, it was more difficult to accomplish observations. Arabic women usually prefer not to be videoed because of social considerations. However, audio recordings were able to be used after consent was given. The participants signed to give their consent to their voices being recorded. Also, this had been found to have occurred in previous studies conducted in a Libyan context. For example, Shihiba and Embark (2011) faced difficulties in obtaining approval of female participants; only three females agreed to be recorded, but they asked the researchers to get permission from their parents or husband first to permit recording for interviews

because either the parents, especially the father, or the husband were the main decision-makers in their culture.

As noted earlier, an alternative strategy for annotating the SETT categories was applied. The SETT framework features were used in the observation chart; this framework was named as "interactures" (as explained in Chapter Three, Section 3.3.3.2)). During observation classes, data exemplars of teachers' talk were noted, then transcribed and analysed according to the SETT model as displayed in Table 4.3. Interview questions were prepared for PSTs to reflect on their beliefs and attitudes about their use of English for interactional and decision-making as a communicative process between teacher and learners.

According to Tessier (2012), digital recorders have a range of benefits. These are: 1) digital files do not get damaged with time and backup easily stored to ensure the integrity of the files; 2) digital recorders provide unlimited "replayability"; and 3) software developed for digital sound files makes it easier to jump through interviews when searching for specific content. In addition, the creation of transcripts allows for subtleties and specific details to be highlighted (Mondada, 2007).

Hamo et al. (2004) argued that combining field notes and transcripts provides a stronger analysis than if only one of the two methods is used, because the combination provides both specific details (transcripts) and contextual elements (field notes), resulting in a more complete understanding of the events (p. 453). Therefore, in the current study, both methods are used in classroom observation, to explain the process of conducting the data, first, during the classroom observation, along with audio recordings (two recording devices are used: one id digital recorder and a second device in terms of a software recorder from an iPhone 7 plus). The researcher took notes to record impressions rather than the detailed lesson content, although the SETT enabled the frequency of key pedagogical strategies to be identified. Its use is confirmed by Lee (1987) who noted that "the data in naturally occurring conversation as a feature of social life, and the use of tape-recording and transcripts is a practical strategy for apprehending it and making it available for extended analysis" (p. 9).

The influence of an observer on the outcome of the study

It is important to consider that the observer in the gathering of data may exert an influence on the outcomes of the study. Historical studies (Burns, 1990; Creswell, 2013; Wallen, 2001) point out the researcher's presence as the observer can affect the participants' behaviour and in turn, the study outcomes, thus: noted as the effect of the presence of the researcher on participants. In addition, in educational research, there are two degrees of observer participation where the researcher will either be a participant researcher or non-participant researcher in the observation. First, the researcher may participate in the setting they are observing such that participants are aware (overt participant observation) or the researcher may participate without their knowledge e.g. when the researcher become certified as a teacher (covert participant observation). Second, in nonparticipant observation studies, the researcher does not participate in the setting being observed but s\he sits at the back or side of the classroom and observes (Burns, 1990; Creswell, 2013; Wallen, 2001). Thus, there is a need to be aware of potential observer bias. In addition, the behaviour of people who are being observed could be affected by the researcher's purpose. If teachers are aware of what the researcher is looking for, they may tend to ask more questions than normal, thus giving a distorted impression of what goes on during a typical class discussion. Table 4.7: *Walsh Self-Evaluation Teacher Talk (SETT) Framework*

Walsh (2003) workshop (The SETT framework modes)	Walsh (2006) The SETT framework interactures	Current research
1. Teachers asked to record three classes for 15 minutes for each class, and analyse their lessons	1. Audio record teachers' classes and analyse to provide a descriptive framework	The researcher observed teachers' classes using observation sheet focused on SETT features

2. Teachers asked to complete writing an analysis of their lesson dialogues using the SETT grid	2. Teachers and researcher work collaboratively on collected recording data to construct a framework, which later will be used to analyse teacher language. Teachers make a snapshot of their lessons, analyse their recording, identify modes and transcribe examples of interactional features using the SETT grid.	The researcher coded the data examples of teachers' talk transcribed and analysed according to SETT model
3. Reflective feedback interview with teachers to clarify uncertainties and reflect on the process of self-evaluation	semi-structured interview. Teachers justify their interactive decision making while watching a video recording of their lesson	An audio recording of an interview with teachers to show them examples of their lesson and ask them to justify their interaction and decision making
4. Interview data transcribed, focussing		Transcript the audio recording of the interview and identify
on teachers' capabilities in identifying modes and interactional features		teachers' beliefs about language use and decision making about the teaching methods

4.5.2 Semi-structured interviews

Four participants from the same group that were observed were invited to participate in face-to-face interviews. The data from interviews were then analysed to identify themes related to CLT, using coding and to make a comparative analysis between participants' views, observations, and the survey results. Subsequently, preservice teachers' beliefs about teaching practice were summarised to identify any changes. In addition, all interview participants are referred to by using pseudonyms rather than their actual name to maintain their anonymity

4.5.3 Other interviews

This study also conducted semi-structured interviews with a small sample of additional parties involved in the provision of PSTs' preparation and teaching EFL. These comprised two school teachers and two supervisory tutors. The advantage of conducting these semi-structured interviews was that the researcher would have the flexibility to add additional questions based on previous interviewees' responses (Horton, Macve, & Struyven, 2004). The aim of interviewing school teachers and supervisory tutors was to identify their roles and to gain further insights and perspectives about issues in implementing CLT in the reality of the classroom from their perspectives and to bring out the major contrasts and factors arising through a thematic analysis.

The school teacher interviews

Each interview was between 45 minutes and a one-hour duration. Li and Walsh's (2011) interview guideline was used in this study because it is a useful way of showing the relationship between teachers' beliefs and attitudes. Participants were asked their permission to make an audio recording of their interview and note-taking was used during interviews to ensure that no information was lost, thus contributing to the reliability of the analysis. The interviews were conducted in the Arabic language to give a chance for participants to express themselves most freely, even though they had English. This was needed as a reserve to collect adequate data because previous studies conducted in Libya, Turkey and Oman mentioned that some EFL teachers were not sufficiently fluent in English and thus faced difficulties in expressing their views in interviews (Al-Jadidi, 2009; Ozevik, 2001; Shihiba & Embark, 2011).

Two interviews took place in the Arabic language as this was the participants' preference. The researcher translated all the transcripts, which were checked by her bilingual colleague for the accuracy of meaning.

The two participating INSTs were Hayat and Raihan. Hayat had 13 years of school teaching experience and held a Bachelor's degree from Libyan University. Raihan had

five years of teaching experience and held a Bachelor's degree obtained from Nalut University in Libya.

Table 4.8: *Demographic data for INST interviewees (N=2)*

Participants	Age	Gender	Education level	Country of Graduation	Teaching Experiences
Hayat	34-44	Female	Bachelor's degree	Libya	13 years
Raihan	24-35	Female	Bachelor's degree	Libya	Five years

The university supervisor interviews

The second group of participants in the interviews were supervisory tutors attending classes with PSTs. The interviews were conducted with two university teachers who were in the supervisory team for the pre-service teacher practicum program under scrutiny. The interviews took about 45 minutes for each supervisor.

The reason that the two particular university teachers were selected to be part of the study was that, on the one hand, they were university teachers who were instructing PSTs at the same university where the study was conducted; this would enable them to reflect on their perceptions of EFL teaching and students' English proficiency levels, their teaching strategies and beliefs with regard to the teaching methods, and their perceptions regarding the teaching practicum. On the other hand, these university teachers were supervising the pre-service teachers on their teaching practicum, thereby enabling them to provide insights on how pre-service teachers conducted their teaching, how they assessed them, and which support procedures provided by the teaching practicum program require improvement in the future.

Table 4.9: *Demographic data for the university teacher interviewees (N=2)*

Participants		Age	Gender	Education Country Graduation		Teaching level Experiences
Abrar	24-35	Female	Master's degree	Australia		Four years
Samah	34-44	Female	Master's degree	America		Six years

The first of the university teachers was a grammar and reading teacher named Abrar. She had four years of university teaching experience and received a Master's degree from Australia. The second university teacher was Samah, a speaking and listening teacher. She had six years of teaching experience, and she holds a Master's degree from the United States of America.

4.6 Quantitative Data Analysis

The collected data were analysed as planned to reveal the teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards CLT for both pre-service EFL teachers (PSTs) and in-service EFL teachers (INSTs). To achieve this, the collected qualitative data set consisted of the following:

1) Fifteen observation sheets with researcher's handwritten notes for the classroom observation of seven pre-service teachers (See Chapter Six);

2) Interview transcripts for five pre-service teachers;

3) Four transcripts of teacher interviews (Two university teachers and two INSTs). (Chapter Seven).

The framework used in Chapter Three was used as a broad framework to guide reflection and interpretation of data; this framework is based on language acquisition and EFL pedagogy. For example, the classroom observation data collected was analysed in relation to the basic model of the SETT framework proposed by Steve Walsh (2003), which was developed through research with teachers of English language.

The research questions for this research are exploratory. Therefore, the method of data analysis was inductive. Inductive data analysis means "the patterns, themes, and

categories of analysis come from the data; they emerge out of the data rather than being imposed on them before data collection and analysis" (Patton, 1990, p. 390). The data from the interviews were coded to relate it to the research questions, categorising it into emerging themes, such as teaching methodology, curriculum, teacher training program, education policy, and contextual factors, to support data interpretation and meaningmaking. "Data analysis involves organising what has been seen, heard, and read so that the researcher can make sense of what has been learned" (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992, p.

127).

The observations' analysis started with lesson transcripts and translation of dialogue using the computer software NVivo. This was followed by identifying and highlighting the key important themes in the SETT features, which are based on an analysis of the classroom dialogue. Frequency counts and percentages of the PSTs' use of specific features of teacher talk were employed across the classes observed. Based on the information highlighted in the observations, the researcher prepared questions to use in interviews with the PSTs. These were designed to clarify aspects of their talk from the lesson dialogue since as the teacher they were responsible for the way the language and dialogue unfolded in relation to their lesson objectives. Last, the comparative analysis of the survey and observations and interviews were compared, and data triangulated to find the relationship between their beliefs and attitudes and teaching practice. In this study, the observation was central to the research since it involved the observation of the participants' actual teaching practices.

4.6.1 The process of analysing classroom observations

The first step for classroom observation was that data were stored in a safe place, this was done by making copies of all audio recordings in the researcher's personal computer. All notes were collected in one notebook with referencing to each teacher and date for each class.

The second step was listening to audio records and writing the transcripts; this process occurred over approximately three weeks to completion, because the audiorecords contained a lot of background noises from the classroom students.

Therefore, the researcher used forward and backward for each minute in the recording to get the correct and accurate data. According to Lapadat and Lindsay (1999), "transcription is an important component of the analysis process . . . analysis takes place and understandings are derived through the process of constructing a transcript by listening and re-listening, viewing and reviewing" (p. 82).

The third step was reading each transcript carefully. Cross-checking used directly from the original recording through reading the dialogues, naming and highlighting each identified feature of teacher talk, in a given colour, systematically for all the transcripts. This then involved determining and interrelating the talk features from the Walsh model (SETT) into the transcripts. This process helped the researcher to count the frequency and percentages for each feature and for extracting the examples to support the writing up of the results chapter. Samples of transcript analysis are also shown in Appendix I.

4.6.2 The process of analysing interviews

Thematic analysis was applied to analyse the interviews following the references made to the initial research questions. Thematic analysis is classified under qualitative descriptive design (Vaismoradi et al., 2013, 2016). The thematic analysis provides "a more detailed and nuanced account of one particular theme, or group of themes, within the data" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 11). According to Creswell (2009), analysing qualitative data denotes "making sense out of text and image data. It involves preparing the data for analysis, conducting different analyses, moving deeper and deeper into understanding the data . . . representing the data and interpreting the larger meaning of data" (p. 183). Thus, accurate thematic analysis can produce trustworthy findings (Vaismoradi et al., 2013). Table 4.4 outlines the thematic analysis techniques and the process of analysis by Vaismoradi et al. (2013) and Vaismoradi et al. (2016) which outlines the strategies employed in this research.

Table 4.8: *Thematic analysis techniques (Vaismoradi et al., 2013, 2016)*

(Vaismoradi et al., 2013, p. 402)	(Vaismoradi et al., 2016, p. 103).

Familiarising with data	*Initialisation*
Transcribing data, reading and rereading the data	Reading transcripts, highlighting the meaning, and coding, writing reflective notes.
Generating initial codes	
Coding interesting features of data systematically.	*Construction*
Searching for themes	Classifying, labelling, translating and transliterating, defining and describing.
Collecting codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme	*Rectification*
Reviewing themes	Relating themes to establish knowledge, stabilising
Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts and entire data set.	
Defining and naming themes	*Finalisation*
Ongoing analysis for refining the specifics of each theme and the overall story, generating clear names of each theme.	Develop the storyline.
Producing the report	
Compelling extract examples, the final analysis of selected extracts, relating the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a report of the analysis	

In this study, features such as familiarising and generating initial codes, mentioned by Braun and Clarke (2006), and initialisation, mentioned by Vaismoradi et al. (2016), were applied to do thematic analysis. A lot of time was spent on interview translations and transcriptions then reading and rereading the data. Coding and labelling data were done using colour coding, underlining the words and sentences to allocate the information with each current research questions. Finding repeated words and, in addition, writing reflective notes were also used in analysing data (See Appendix J) to facilitate flexibility and provide the researcher with the opportunity to remember, ask

questions, and make meaning of the data (Vaismoradi et al., (2016), which helps the audit trail to substantiate trustworthiness (Rodgers & Cowles, 1993).

During the generation of the initial codes, NVivo software was used to facilitate the process of coding, recoding and generating themes (Oliveira et al., 2013), and to identify and link specific words and phrases that related to the research question (Mayer, 2015; Hoover & Koerber, 2009), using 'text query search' to create a word cloud and comprehend the content of the word used (Hatcher, 2017). Examples of text query search are shown in Appendix K.

4.7 Trustworthiness of Data

Traditional research approaches refer to validity and reliability as the best ways to measure the rigour of their findings. Trustworthiness is one way a researcher can convince others that the findings of their research deserve attention (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Lincoln and Guba (1985) described how the terms relating to discovering truth through measuring reliability and validity are replaced by the notion of trustworthiness.

Validity and reliability in qualitative data are interchangeable with the idea of trustworthiness to discover truth (Bashir, Afzal, & Azeem, 2008). The examination of issues related to trustworthiness is crucial, and therefore, it is important to clearly understand the credibility, confirmability, and dependability, applicability, and transferability criteria to compare the standard quantitative evaluation criteria of validity and reliability (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011).

4.7.1 Credibility

Credibility is defined as confidence in establishing the truth of search results (Anney, 2014; Macnee & McCabe, 2008; Morse, 1994). Credibility also means "the truth, value or believability of the findings that have been established by the researcher through prolonged observations, engagements, or participation with an informant or the situation" (Morse, 1994, p. 105). The different aspects of credibility were focused upon in this research because credibility matters, and it is one of the important aspects of doing research. Researchers need to look at what is happening with the research and question how it is credible and believable and why one can have confidence in the results and findings.

Four modes have been described and used to enhance the credibility of findings (Creswell 2008; Maxwell, 2005; Patton, 1999; Tashakkor & Teddlie, 2003). These modes are "data triangulation; multiple-analysts triangulation; considering rival conclusions; and audit trail" (Christ & Makarani, 2009, p. 81). By adopting these modes, qualitative research can prove the rigour of the inquiry.

Triangulation was used in this study to improve the validity of the research data. Credibility is also established in a variety of ways in this study, and as Lincoln and Guba (1985) pointed out, there are seven techniques to demonstrate credibility in a research study. These are prolonged engagement, member checking, persistent observation, triangulation, peer debriefing, negative case analysis, and referential adequacy. These are explained in more detail below.

Prolonged engagement. To increase the validity of qualitative research, prolonged engagement was considered in this research design (Bashir, Afzal, & Azeem, 2008). Prolonged engagement means spending sufficient time with research participant to build a relationship so that the researcher will understand the settings and participants' views and their behaviours (McKay, 2013). It is also used for interim data analysis and justification to ensure a match between findings and participants' reality. According to Given (2008), if the analysis and conclusions of the researcher using prolonged engagement as a research strategy are recognisable to community members as adequate representations of their own "version of reality, credibility is more likely to be established in the final results of the study (p. 5).

In the current study, the researcher asked the university teachers to review their interview transcripts to add or edit their insights and to ensure the accuracy of their data. However, they rejected the notion of reviewing their transcripts and requested that they were left unchanged as they had nothing to add. However, the researcher employed prolonged engagement with PSTs in this study where they were in contact using social media. Pre-service teachers were more engaged in the research and were more active participants, and this gave a chance for the researcher to explore multiple constructions of reality about PSTs' experiences in their teaching through member checking (Lincoln & Guba 1985; McKay, 2013; Stake, 1995; Zohrabi, 2013).

Member check-in. refers to checking with participants for the accuracy of data findings during observations of their classroom teaching, to see if the participants agreed with these findings or make modifications so that the researcher represents their meanings accurately. Participants were asked to read the observation transcripts of dialogues to consider that their words in transcripts are what they meant. The results

and interpretations of the study were taken back to PSTs for confirmation and validation, thus adding to the credibility of the study. As Zohrabi (2013) pointed out, through the use of member checking "plausibility and truthfulness of the information can be recognised and supported" (p. 258). In the study undertaken, the research findings represent credible information gathered from participants and this corresponds to interpretations of participants' original views. Therefore, the researcher ensured that the interpretations of data corresponded to participants' intended views by using a member check. In addition, scholars like Shenton (2004) discussed the strategy of member checking which "should involve verification of investigator's emerging theories and inferences as these were formed during the dialogues" (p. 68). This strategy was implemented in this study, and the researcher asked the participants if they could offer reasons for particular patterns observed by the researcher and, therefore, their reasons were very valuable in the findings for the research questions.

Persistent observation. The aim of using persistent observation is to find the characteristics and elements of the issues and problems being followed in this study. Lincoln and Guba (1985) stated that "if prolonged engagement provides scope, persistent observation provides depth" (p. 304). The researcher shared her observations on issues raised during the classroom observation with PSTs and asked them to comment and clarify their actions. The PSTs responded to the researchers' questions, and they reflected on what they meant and provided the reasons behind their actions.

Triangulation. As explained above, triangulation aims to provide consistency of findings produced from different data sets, in addition to examining the consistency of data sources such as comparing beliefs and attitudes of PSTs' and INSTs' beliefs and attitudes. Utilising different methods of triangulation in this study guarantees that the meaning made by the researcher from the research findings matched the participants' intended meanings; thus, the inferences drawn by the researcher interpretations add credibility and validity to the study (McKay, 2013).

Negative case analysis. This method implies searching and discussing the elements of data obtained which did not support the explanations that were found from the data. In other words, the researcher should relocate and examine the results of the

data that disconfirm the expectations of the research aims. Scholars have discussed the importance of including deviant and negative cases, in particular in studies that use purposive sampling. Researchers increase the probability of generating a strong body of findings that share a rapport with other contexts by seeking for deviant or negative cases, and therefore, "it is an ideal way to increase the trustworthiness of research findings" (Mills, Durepos, & Wiebe, 2010, p. 3). Negative case analysis is one of the research strategies used by researchers to reduce researcher bias.

Referential adequacy. This method is used to store initial recorded data or a portion of data to examine later and compare with later findings; in this way, researchers test the validity of their findings. In the current study, the researcher attended sessions with INSTs to observe and record their teaching and then stored it for later analysis, to be used to compare with data findings from PSTs' classes.

4.7.2 Dependability

Dependability is a form of qualitative method which is used by researchers to show the consistency of their findings (Anney, 2014; Bitsch, 2005). Lincoln and Guba (1985) note the employment of 'overlapping methods', which represent a kind of triangulation of resources. Dependability means consistency of results. However, as a social constructivist researcher, findings may change depending on time settings. Dependability is established using three strategies: audit trail, stepwise replication, code-recorded procedure (Anney, 2014).

1) Audit trail refers to a detailed description of research activities, process and data collection and analysis, emerged themes, emerging themes and models. In dependability, the audit trail is examined by a peer researcher or colleagues of the advisor (Morrow, 2005). Furthermore, transcripts can facilitate the development of an audit trail (Poland, 1995), this study implements an audit trail strategy by asking a researcher's supervisors and other colleagues to check the data analysis procedures, transcripts codes, themes and subthemes. As a result, this provided a chance for the researcher to refine the methods and find an alternative way to analyse the data.

2) Stepwise replication is the second strategy for dependability and is undertaken by two people to analyse the data, they do it separately then comparing then their analysis to see whether they have comparable data and commonality.

3) The code-recorded procedure is the third strategy of dependability that is used to analyse the data twice separately then compare the two analyses to check whether there is a commonality between them; if so, then the analysis is considered consistent.

4.7.3 Transferability

Transferability refers to the relevance of the study, how the research findings can contribute to the current body of knowledge so that reader may make a judgment about whether the study can be transferred to other contexts (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This can be completed through in-depth descriptions and details of findings to be generalised. The researcher has to ensure a detailed case study project which provides a clear logical and consistent outline of data collection, analysed and reported so that transferability can be improved.

4.7.4 Confirmability

Confirmability is related to the number of results confirmed from the study by the investigator. The researcher deals with objectivity in such a way that he or she ensures that the interpretation of the findings reflects the participants' beliefs and attitudes and does not merely come from the researcher's imagination. Mores (1994) stated that "confirmability means obtaining direct and often repeated affirmations of what the researcher has heard, seen, or experienced concerning to the phenomena under study" (p. 105). Studies suggest that audit trails and triangulation are used in constructivist inquiry to promote confirmability and to avoid researcher bias. These two concepts were already mentioned in previous strategies (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). An audit trail is defined as "visible evidence-from process and product- that the researcher did not simply find what he or she set out to find" (Bowen, 2009, p. 307). The role of triangulation in promoting confirmability should be emphasised to reduce researcher bias.

4.8 Ethics Issues

Ethical approval from the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) at the University of Southern Queensland (USQ) was obtained on 21 Apr 2017, before the beginning of the study, with the code number H17REA063 (See Appendix B).

The goal for every respectable research is to gain maximum benefits without harm to the participants. There are principles for research ethics that are common to all policies that researchers should follow during data collection. The Human Research Ethics Committee provided a general principle that should be followed; these principles are outlined below. Some of these principles are explained in detail:

1) Informed participant consent;
2) Voluntary participation and right of withdrawal without sanction;
3) Confidentiality of participants and records;
4) Secure storage of relevant data for a minimum period of five years after completion of a research project;
5) Clear, coherent expression of a research proposal;
6) Cultural needs and arrangements to manage them.

4.8.1 Informed participant consent

The consent letter was given to participants to read and understand then to be signed. Participants were fully informed about the true nature of the research; this information as detailed in the participant information sheet. For the survey, there were two options to complete and return the consent form, online or on paperwork. If participants had access to the internet, they were sent a link to complete the survey. The consent form for the paperwork survey was attached to the survey on the first page so it was returned with the survey. They were reading it and clicking on the 'Agree' button is accepted as an indication of participants' consent to participate in this project. For classroom observation, participants were asked to complete a consent form before participating in the observation.

4.8.2 Voluntary participation and right of withdrawal without sanction

One of the ethical principles is to establish a relationship with participants which respects human dignity. The case study was used in this study, where participants' beliefs and attitudes were faithfully described. The researcher made sure that she did not misuse information or exploit participants whose participation was voluntary (Simon, 2009). The researcher made sure to adhere to the principles described by the USQ ethical principles so written informed consent was obtained from the voluntary participants before data collection (Appendix D). These consent forms clearly state that participants are free to withdraw at any time without comment or penalty.

4.8.3 Confidentiality of participants and records

Confidentiality is how participants' identity and personal data information is secure and not identified to the public. To protect participants' confidentiality, the participants were asked to choose an alias name or code-named before the implementation of case studies (observation and interviews). The researcher is the only person who will keep the original translated interviews transcripts and data information. The researcher's supervisors will only access the information for guiding the data analysis when needed.

Pre-service teachers who completed the survey from the Nalut University were asked to continue in the study for the case studies. Not all participants were asked, but the research will choose particular participants depending on the analysis of the survey. The selection of participants was based on learners' level of proficiency, and their teachers confirmed this. University teachers informed the researcher of some students who were fluent in English, and some who were not.

The researcher had conversations with the interview participants before implementing the interview for some days so that participants felt comfortable and open to becoming engaged in sharing their answers and experience, debates and ideas with the researcher. In addition, to protect the identities of all participants in the study (PSTs, INSTs and university teachers), their names are anonymised and changed to different

names. The schools' names were abbreviated, with each school identified by a code in numbers. Therefore, the two primary schools were coded as school 1 and school 2.

4.8.4 Storage of information

Secure storage of information **and** relevant data has to occur for a minimum period of five years after completion of a research project**.** All data were be kept in two ways. The first way is for hard copy data, signed consents, papers, survey and transcripts. Notes backed up and locked filing cabinet in a study room in the researcher's home. Electronic data were saved as files in a password-protected personal computer and also were backed securely hard drive); all electronic data files were securely stored which require password access. These data will be kept for seven years after completion of the study, and after that, it would be destroyed following USQ ethical guidance.

4.8.5 Clear, coherent expression of research proposals

The research proposal was constructed as standard USQ guidance in term of justification of the need of the study, the aim and research problem. The design of methodology described the methods of conducting the research which aligned to the research questions. The literature review explored what is known as the world of the literature and what is unknown; it also provided evidence of the need for the current study. The research proposal was submitted in semester 2, 2016. The confirmation presentation was on Tuesday 20 December 2016. The candidate approval was confirmed on 15 March 2017.

4.9 Conclusion

This methodology chapter described the methods implied in this study. In summary, a sequential exploratory mixed-method approach was implemented in three stages of data collection. Starting with the quantitative phase, drawing on the collecting and analysing a survey for three independent groups of participants (PSTs and INSTs).

This was followed by the second phase of research data collection, which was qualitative and used case studies for seven PSTs. This phase explored and analysed PSTs' talk. This phase also aimed to support an in-depth insight and understanding of their beliefs and attitudes of CLT. The last phase was an interview with INSTs and university teachers, The aims were to explore their perspectives of teaching communicative language teaching issues that happen in real classrooms; to document and identify issues in real classrooms; to identify the differences therein; to ascertain the expectations of their roles, and to gain more insight into CLT in relation to pre-service teachers' practicums. This chapter concluded with a discussion of the triangulation method used to increase the validity of the study's findings and this was followed by a discussion of ethical issues that were relevant to this study. Chapter Five provide the result of Phase One data analysis to answer research questions One and Two, which are the beliefs and attitudes of PSTs and INSTs.

CHAPTER FIVE: PHASE ONE - QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

5.0 Overview

Chapter Four described the type of data collection instruments (survey, classroom observation, and interviews) and how the data were gathered and analysed. This chapter presents and analyses the quantitative outcomes of the survey administered in Phase One of the research. The data were collected from two independent groups of teachers: pre-service teachers (PSTs) (N=79); and in-service teachers (INSTs) (N=33). The aim of surveying these groups was to establish their beliefs and attitudes towards communicative language teaching (CLT).

First, demographic information is presented for each group. Second, the beliefs about CLT macro-strategic pedagogy are analysed, and the results are compared between the two groups. Finally, the chapter reports on outcomes and findings according to teachers' responses to the CLT attitudes scale. In subsequent chapters, the outcomes of quantitative data are discussed. This chapter addresses the analysis of the data collected to contribute to the first two research questions: 1) What are Libyan preservice EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards CLT? 2) What are Libyan in-service EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards the CLT approach?

5.1 Demographic Information about Survey Participants

The following section describes the demographic information regarding two samples of participants.

5.1.1 Pre-service teachers

The demographic questions focussed on identifying the gender of the respondents, their age ranges, and the names and locations of their respective universities. The question also asked the first names of the respondents for easy identification during the research process. The sample participants were 79 pre-service teachers (69 female and

10 male). Of the entire sample employed in the research (79), 88% of the female respondents were within the 18-24-year-old age bracket. The remaining eight male respondents, 8.8% of the total group of respondents, were within the 25-34-year-old age bracket. This shows that the majority of these PSTs would have entered university from school and their school experience was representative of the current teaching of EFL.

The next question was designed to identify the respondents' English proficiency levels according to an internationally recognised standardised test they may have taken. For the question, "Have you ever taken an English language test, such as TOFEL, TOFIC, or IELTS?", eight respondents answered in the affirmative, having taken either IELTS, TOFEL, or TOFIC, while the remaining 71 respondents had never taken an English test before. When asked if they had started their practical training, and in which school they would complete, it was found that those who answered that their practicum training would begin on 18 March 2018 were completing the survey before they had been assigned to a school. The other section of the demographic questions focussed on the institutions at which the respondents studied.

Additionally, regarding English proficiency, as part of the survey participants were asked to evaluate their level of language proficiency in the four macro skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, by rating from 1 to 10, with 1 to 5 considered below average and 6 to 10 considered above average. This was explained as selfevaluation on their part; the focus was on their perceptions of their proficiency levels as an indication of their self-report and confidence in their English proficiency. However, only 15 of the 79 pre-service teachers rated themselves. Of these, 13 participants rated their speaking, listening, and writing skills above average, while only two participants rated each of these skills as below average. Regarding reading skill, 11 participants rated their reading above average and 4 rated it below average. Table 5.2 summarises these results.

Table 5.1: *The estimate of pre-service teachers' English proficiency (the mean, standard deviation)*

N of pre-service Teachers (PST)	Speaking	Listening	Reading	Writing
PT1	9	7	7	6

PT2	9	8.5	6	7
PT3	8.5	8	9	7
PT4	8	7	4	5
PT5	8	10	9	9
PT6	7	5	7	8
PT7	7	6	8	7
PT8	7	6	8	7
PT9	6	4	5	7
P10	6	9	4	3
PT11	6	7	7	6
PT12	6	7	8	7
PT13	6	6	7	8
PT14	5	7	5	2
PT15	5	7	6	8
Mean (SD)	**6.9(1.338)**	**7.1 (1.514)**	**4.4**	**6.6 (1.632) (1.884)**

Table 5.2 shows that there were no significant differences between speaking (M=6.9) (SD=1.338) and listening (M=7.1) (SD=1.514). These participants appeared to regard their listening and speaking skills as reasonably good. The pre-service teachers saw themselves as competent in reading (M=6.6) (SD=1.632), but some of the PTSs rated themselves quite poorly in writing (M=4.4) (SD=1.884). Although the sample size is small, the results suggest that these participants need support at least in writing. As a group, the pre-service teachers' ratings suggest that they believed they possessed reasonably good skills in listening, reading, and speaking and that they needed support to improve their writing skills. Notably, when completing the survey, some participants mentioned that their greatest difficulty was in listening and speaking skills and that they needed more support to develop their listening comprehension.

5.1.2 In-service EFL teachers

In-service EFL teachers (INSTs) were asked to provide their answers using a hard copy survey (see Appendix G). There are 15 primary schools and 5 secondary schools in Nalut. 139 EFL teachers are working in the primary schools and 20 EFL teachers are working in secondary schools. They were all invited using the snowball technique. A total of 33 completed surveys were returned from 28 females and five males, representing 20 EFL teachers from primary schools and 13 EFL teachers from secondary schools. Demographic questions on the survey collected background information about the INSTs, including gender and age. Table 5.3 shows the teachers who responded from primary and secondary schools, their gender, and their age groups. The years of experience of the teachers were divided into three categories: early career, mid-career, and experienced. On the one hand, as is apparent in Table 5. 3, nearly half of the teachers were inexperienced. On the other hand, a reasonable proportion of the sample of female teachers (10) in both primary and secondary schools was experienced. However, fifteen of the female teachers are inexperienced in both primary and secondary school. There were four males, two inexperienced teachers and one experienced teacher aged between 35 and 44 and one aged between 45 and 54 years old who are experienced, who taught in a secondary school. There was one inexperienced male aged between 18 and 24 in a primary school.

As can be seen in Table 5.3, the ages of female teachers who had zero to five years of experience presented as follows: four teachers in primary school and one teacher in secondary school-aged 18 to 24; four teachers in primary school and four teachers in secondary school-aged 25 to 34; one teacher in primary school and one teacher in secondary school-aged 35 to 44.

The age of female teachers who had six to ten years of experience was as follows: one teacher aged 35-44 in primary schools and two teachers aged 25-34 in secondary schools. The ages of female teachers in primary school who had 11 or more years of experience were as follows: three teachers aged 35-44 and five teachers aged 45-54 in primary schools and one teacher aged 25-34 and one teacher aged 35-44 in secondary schools.

In-service teachers were asked about the number of students in their classes, and their answer was varied, generally ranging from 14 students to 40 students. Teachers in this study had between 17 and 25 students in their current classes. When asked about the number of classes taught, the most common response was two classes.

Regarding the level of proficiency of INSTs, a considerable number of participants rated their speaking (12 participants) as above average and their listening (8 participants) was rated below average. In contrast, all participants rated their reading comprehension as above average, while 3 of the INSTs viewed their writing skills as below average and 12 viewed them as above average.

Table 5.2: *The estimate of in-service teachers' English proficiency (the mean, standard deviation of* INSTs*)*

N of In-Service Teachers (INSTs)	Speaking	Listening	Reading	Writing
INST1	9	10	8	8
INST2	8	8	8	8
INST3	7	9	9	6
INST4	7	7	8	7
INST5	7	6	8	8
INST6	7	2	10	6
INST7	6	5	8	7
INST8	6	8	8	9
INST9	6	8	7	5
INST10	5	6	8	6
INST11	5	1	9	5
INST12	5	1	7	5
INST13	4	4	9	8
INST14	3	4	8	6
INST15	1	4	6	8
Mean (SD)	5.7 (2.01)	5.5 (2.85)	8 (0.96)	6.8 (1.32)

Table 5.2 shows that, in general, there were little differences between the speaking score (M=5.7) (SD=2.01) and listening score (M=5.5) (SD=2.85), which suggests that participants view themselves as possessing average listening and speaking skills. Inservice teachers view themselves as very good in reading (M=8) (SD=0.96), but some of the INSTs rated themselves as quite low in writing (M=6.8) (SD=1.32). Unlike the pre-service teachers, the INSTs saw themselves as having lower speaking and listening.

However, they may be more self-critical since they are practising EFL teachers.

5.2 CLT Beliefs Survey Results – Comparison between PSTs' and INSTs' Responses to CLT Macro-Pedagogical Strategies

As noted in the methods chapter, the data provided descriptive statistics. The analysis was begun by analysing each group separately and calculating the positive and negative ratings. The strategy used for calculating the percentages was to aggregate agreement ratings 6, 5 and 4, and disagreement ratings 3, 2 and 1. The aim was to establish whether PSTs reported more or less favourable beliefs about CLT macro-pedagogical strategies than INSTs. Table 5.5 displays the five EFL macro-strategies on what teachers should do in the classroom and Table 5.6 shows the five macro-strategies that address pedagogical issues. These tables organise the respective statements from those receiving the greatest positive response ratings from PSTs to those receiving the lowest positive response ratings in column one, with the comparative positive percentage ratings of the INSTs presented in column two. Each statement is numbered according to its number on the survey.

Table 5.3: *Comparison of PSTs' and INSTs' agreement with the five EFL macro-strategies on what teachers should do*

Kumaravadivelu's (1994) EFL macro-pedagogical strategies	PST	INST
8. Teachers should <u>help students to learn on their own</u> by raising awareness of effective learning strategies and providing problems and tasks that encourage learners to use planning and selfmonitoring.	96	94
9. Teachers should <u>allow students to become cultural informants</u> by identifying the cultural knowledge learners bring to the classroom and by using it to help them share their perspectives with the teacher as well as other learners.	95	97
4. Teachers should provide enough information for students to <u>infer underlying grammatical rules</u> because it is impossible to teach all the rules of English explicitly.	92	85

1. The teacher's job is not to transmit knowledge but to <u>create as many learning opportunities as possible</u>.	87	94
5. Teachers should get students to learn the formal properties of English and then to <u>compare and contrast these formal properties with their first language</u>.	85	88

The results of a Mann Whitney U test for independent samples, one-tailed, in predicting if pre-service teachers have a statistically significant greater agreement with the 10 strategies, was not significant (p>.05; z-score -0.0378). Concerning Table 5.5, there was close agreement between the two groups with regards to items 6, 3 and 7 that show a mutual appreciation particularly for the need for "meaningful discourses" in EFL learning (6), and for almost three-quarters of each group the need to reduce "mismatches <u>between teachers' intention and students' interpretation</u> of what is being taught" (3). However, item 7 raises some concerns since 42% of both groups did not agree that the separation of the four macro skills was artificial, thus suggesting a lack of appreciation of the need to integrate these skills as part of CLT. Responses to item 10, *<u>Learning English has social, political, economic, and educational dimensions</u> which shape the motivation to learn it, to determine how it will be used, and to define the skills and proficiency level needed to speak it*, shows a greater percentage of pre-service teachers (94%) were in agreement compared with 88% of INSTs.

Table 5.4: *Comparison of PSTs' and INSTs' agreement with the five EFL macro-strategies addressing pedagogical issues*

Kumaravadivelu's (1994) EFL macro-pedagogical strategies	PST	INST
6. <u>Meaningful discourse-based activities</u> are needed to help students to see the interactions between grammar, lexicon, and pragmatics in natural language use.	95	94
10. Learning English has social, political, economic, and <u>educational dimensions</u> which shape the motivation to learn it, to determine how it will be used, and to define the skills and proficiency level needed to speak it.	94	88
3. <u>Mismatches between teachers' intention and students' interpretation</u> of what is being taught should be reduced.	73	71

<u>2. Students should initiate classroom talks</u> (not just respond to the teacher's prompts), such as by asking for clarification, by confirming, or by reacting, as part of teacher-student and studentteacher interaction.	73	94
7. The <u>separation</u> between listening, reading, speaking, and writing <u>is artificial</u>.	58	58

Overall, the beliefs of the pre-service and INSTs towards CLT macro-strategic pedagogy were strongly favourable, as noted in Table 5.6; however, the PST group had more favourable beliefs than the INST groups. Moreover, the INST group rated higher in their beliefs than PSTs in items 9, 1, 5, 2). In general, both groups had favourable beliefs regarding all statements but held less favourable beliefs about statements 3 and 7.

By looking closely at the answers to questions 1 through 10, there are slight differences between PSTs and INSTs for each item. An examination of the questions reveals that pre-service teachers reached the highest level of positivity; PSTs rated it at 95 per cent, on Item 2, namely, "facilitate negotiated interaction" and Item 8, namely, "promote learners' autonomy". PSTs responses were higher than that of the INSTs group, which rated it at 93.9%. In a context in which teachers control classroom events and inputs for learners, it is expected that teachers will encourage learners to take responsibility and become autonomous learners, but without relinquishing their control or management of their students' learning. However, both PSTs and INSTs groups were strongly favourable towards CLT and expressed positive views of promoting learners' autonomy.

Similarly, in Item 6, namely, "Meaningful discourse-based activities are needed to help students to see the interactions between grammar, lexicon, and pragmatics in natural language use", pre-service teachers were more favourable (95%) than INSTs (93.9%). This indicates that teachers were aware of the importance of bringing to learners' attention to the integrated nature of language because teachers can contextualise linguistic input more effectively than a textbook or syllabus.

Item 9, namely, "Teachers should allow students to become cultural informants by identifying the cultural knowledge learners bring to the classroom and by using it to

help them share their perspectives with the teacher as well as other learners", received slightly different responses but all participants were strongly favourable about the statement. The positive attitude of pre-service teachers towards raising cultural consciousness was 94.9%; INSTs' beliefs were higher than the PST group, at 97%. In a context in which English is only used in the classroom, that is, the students speak English in class but their native languages in daily life, teachers' endorsement of allowing students to become cultural informants was not expected because both teachers and learners are from the same culture. However, this is a good sign that teachers provide opportunities to their learners to communicate and share their perspectives with the teacher as well as other learners.

Item 10, namely, "Learning English has social, political, economic, and educational dimensions which shape the motivation to learn it, determine how it will be used, and define the skills and proficiency level needed to speak it", had no differences amongst the pre-service teachers, as is shown in Table 5.4. The pre-service teachers' group rated the item at 93.7% while INSTs' responses were less favourable at 87.9%. This indicates that teachers would not insulate classroom life from the dynamic of social relevance.

A high level of agreement between pre-service teachers was also recorded in Item 4, "Teachers should provide enough information for students to infer underlying grammatical rules because it is impossible to teach all the rules of English explicitly". The PST group was the highest in their agreement (92.4%), while the INST group was 84.8%, although both the groups had positive attitudes about the notion that teachers should create a rich linguistic environment in the classroom so that leaners learn by discovering things and learn from their own experiences.

Item 1, namely, "The teacher's job is not to transmit knowledge but to create as many learning opportunities as possible", had high favourable beliefs amongst teachers, but, surprisingly, the beliefs of pre-service teachers after teaching practicum were less favourable (87.3%) than the beliefs of INSTs (93.9%). Table 5.6 provides statistical differences in ratings amongst the groups of participants. This result indicates that all groups do not see their teaching role as a transmitter of knowledge only and may see themselves as facilitating teacher-centred classroom instruction. This is a good

indication of their support for CLT, but the question remains whether these teachers apply these beliefs in teaching practice. The answer will emerge from classroom observations.

There were almost no differences in Item 5, namely, "Teachers should get students to learn the formal properties of English and then to compare and contrast these formal properties with their first language". There was conformity in belief across all groups. PSTs showed higher agreement (84.8%) than the INSTs (87.9%). However, both groups still considered fully adopting CLT.

For Item 3, "Mismatches between teachers' intention and students' interpretation about what is being taught should be reduced", the beliefs of PSTs (73.4%) and INSTs (72.7%) were very close. However, the groups' agreements with this statement were slightly lower than the previous statements. This may be because the teachers were unaware that, when the gap is narrowed between teacher intention and learner interpretation, the chances of reaching successful learning outcomes becomes greater. Table 5.4 shows the percentages of agreement and disagreement across both groups.

For Item 2, namely, "Students should initiate classroom talks (not just respond to the teacher's prompts), such as by asking for clarification, by confirming, or by reacting, as part of teacher-student and student-teacher interaction", Table 5.6 provides the positive percentages within groups and the differences between participants and, as can be seen, there are differences between groups. Both teacher groups held favourable views of the statement, but when looking closely at the percentages, it can be seen that INSTs had a higher level of agreement with the statement (93.9%) than PSTs (73%). This shows an odd result, which conflicts with other statements where PSTs were more idealistic about the communicative approach.

There was far less support among the groups for Item 7, namely, "The separation between listening, reading, speaking, and writing is artificial". Amongst the groups, slightly more than 50% agreed that English skills should be integrated, and of the other participants, approximately 40% rated the item negatively, meaning that they do not support the integration of English skills.

Nearly half of the participants in each group rated this item positively, while nearly half rated it negatively. PSTs rated it with the same values (58% positive and 41%

negative), while INSTs rated it 57.6% positive and 42% negative. This may be because the item related to realistic communication, and a lack of English communication in a Libyan context suggests that the groups do not realise the benefit of learning these skills together. The outcome of the chi-square test analysis showed no statistically significant difference (*p =.9*). It was expected that greater agreement would be seen among teachers about integrating language skills as they were strongly agreed regarding CLT aspects, but the teachers may have reasons to disagree with integrating all English skills in their teaching. This finding will be discussed in the discussion chapter.

Overall, all two groups demonstrated favourable beliefs towards CLT macrostrategic statements of communicative language teaching, but not equally favourable in all cases. The groups were less favourable towards Item 3 and Item 7. Although the agreement was low between groups, the responses across the groups were consistent in terms of beliefs.

5.3 Attitudes towards CLT Results – Comparison between PSTs' and INSTs' Responses

This section analyses the attitude scale, the second part of the survey which investigated the attitudes of the PSTs and INSTs towards CLT. The section contained 24 questions which were adopted from Karavas-Doukas (1996). Originally, the items were divided into five factors: (Factor 1) group work/pair work statements, 4 items (2, 9, 13, 22); (Factor 2) quality and quantity of error correction statements, 4 items (1, 6, 14, 10); (Factor 3) the place of grammar statements, 6 items (3, 12, 15, 17, 18, 23); (Factor 4) the role of teachers in the classroom, 4 items (7, 16, 19, 21); and (Factor 5) the role of contributions of learners, 6 items (4, 5, 8, 11, 20, 24). However, the correlation between the statements in each category did not justify combining these statements into a repeated-measures ANOVA test.

All CLT principal items were presented in tables, and then each item was analysed separately because the items under each CLT factor do not correlate with each other (see Tables 5.7 and 5.8 for the first principles of CLT). This was consistent with CLT. The data for each principle is presented in subthemes in the discussion chapter. The data were analysed to ascertain the pre-service and INSTs' attitudes and to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in their attitudes towards CLT.

5.3.1 Group/pair work.

The first subscale of the CLT principle was the attitude towards using group-work and pair-work activities. Items 13 and 22 were written in a negative statement, so they did not support the communicative approach. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to examine the correlations between the items that would normally make up a factor (subscale factor or CLT principle), but the correlations were small. As Tables 5.7 and 5.8 show, there were no correlations between items for group-work/pair-work factors for the PST and INST samples. This may be due to the small sample sizes or to respondents' answers. Moreover, the correlation coefficient did not justify combining these items into an overall measure of average scores for each CLT-related factor or using non-pragmatic tests. Therefore, it was decided to analyse them separately rather than as factors.

Table 5.5: *Correlation between statements regarding group work/pair work. PSTs (N=79). Reliability analysis shows Cronbach's alpha=0.339.*

Factor: group-work	QA2	QA9	QA13R	QA22R
QA2	1	0.79	-.079	.237
QA9		1	.108	.031
QA13R			1	.135
QA22R				1

Table 5.6: *Correlation between statements regarding group work/pair work. INSTs (N=33). Reliability analysis shows Cronbach's alpha=0.449*

Factor: group-work	QA2	QA9	QA13R	QA22R
QA2	1	.048	-.096	.108
QA9		1	.235	.262
QA13R			1	.491
QA22R				1

As Tables 5.5 and 5.6 show, the Cronbach's alpha was very small and was negatively correlated with questions: 2 and 13, and 9 and 22 respectively. The only item that appeared to be reasonably correlated was Item 13, with Item 22 in the group of PSTs, but that did not result in any changes to alpha level. Thus, the reliability was rechecked for the item without questions 2 and 9, but it did not demonstrate an alpha. This meant that these questions were not correlated; therefore it is not appropriate to combine their mean score.

Table 5.7 summarises in percentages the results for all statements related to using group-work and pair-work activities. The first subgroup of questions was about CLT related to using group-work and pair-work activities. Of the five statements, two statements were written positively, while the other two statements, those marked with an asterisk, were written negatively.

Table 5.7: *Comparison of PSTs' and INSTs' positive percentage ratings on attitudes towards the group- and pair-work*

CLT Group and Pair-Work Principles Statements	PSTs	INSTs
#2 Group work activities are essential in providing opportunities for cooperative relationships to emerge and in promoting genuine interaction among students	96.2	90.9
#9 Group work allows students to explore problems for themselves and thus have some measure of control over their learning. It is, therefore, an invaluable means of organising classroom experience.	94.9	93.9
#22 Group work activities have little use because it is very difficult for teachers to monitor the students' performance and prevent them from using their mother tongue. *	67	69.7
#13. Group work activities take too long to organise and waste a lot of valuable teaching time. *	40.5	60.6

Note. PSTs (n=79), and INSTs (n= 33). The table presents the respondents' positive percentages ratings of agreement with the statement.

Regarding Item 2, both PST and INST groups positive percentage ratings show they believed fully in the importance of group work activities because they facilitate cooperative relationships and encourage interaction among learners. However, these data suggest that teachers' attitudes towards these types of activities may become less positive after gaining more experience teaching in class. For example, PSTs' ratings were 96.2% positive compared with INSTs being 90.9% positive.

In terms of Item 9, the teachers' attitudes toward group-work and pair-work activities contributed to learners' autonomy. PST ratings amounted to 96.8% positive, and INST rated them slightly less positively, at 93.9%. This suggests that PSTs may be more idealistic about CLT, such that after practicum and gaining more classroom experience they may change their attitudes.

Consideration of Item 13, "*Group work activities take too long to organise and waste a lot of valuable teaching time*" showed PSTs to be more supportive of group work. Only 40% agreed it wasted time compared with 60% of ISTs. Thus, these responses suggest the ISTs preferred whole class teaching because it was easier to manage and control students' behaviour.

Regarding Item 22, only 22.8% of PSTs disagreed with this statement, where approximately 70% of both groups agreed that *group work activities have little use because it is very difficult for teachers to monitor the students' performance and prevent them from using their mother tongue.* This raises a very well-recognised issue for language teachers in need to facilitate students' use of the target language and minimise their interactions in their first language and the current consideration of translanguaging (Kleyn & Garcia, 2019).

The results need to be treated with caution since a chi-square test of differences in the percentages of respondents amongst the two groups who agreed with the statement was not statistically significant for the group/ pair work questions. Overall, these results revealed that both pre-service teachers and INSTs generally hold positive attitudes to using group and pair work activities (statements 2, 9), but their attitudes changed about statement 22, in terms of its implementation in the classroom. This was possible because it was not used in Libyan schools and learners learn better as a whole class than in groups. It suggests that they consider it is difficult for the teacher to monitor the students'

performance and prevent them from using their mother tongue. However, there were differences in pre-service and INSTs' attitudes toward statement 13; pre-service teachers believed that group work can be organised and managed and it is not waste of teaching time, whereas INSTs believed it takes too long to organise and it wastes a lot of valuable teaching time. This reflects a more traditional attitude, where pedagogy is teacher-centred as opposed to student-centred.

5.3.2 Quality and quantity of error correction.

The second subset of questions addressed issues of 'Error correction'. Of four statements, two were written positively, and those marked with an asterisk were written negatively. First, results were presented in table form to show the correlations between the statements for each group. As Tables 5.10 and 5.11 show, the item variables for error correction factors did not show correlations between the items. There were quite a few negative correlations between questions. For instance, question 6 is negatively correlated with question 14 and question 26. Cronbach's alpha was extremely small. Analysis of the responses to these items are reported in Table 5.8 and 5.9 explained separately.

Table 5.8: *Correlation between statements regarding quality and quantity of error correction. PSTs (N=79). Reliability analysis shows Cronbach's alpha=0.004.*

Factor-Error Correction	QA1R	QA6	QA10R	QA14
QA1R	1	-.179	-.249	-.403
QA6		1	.120	-.100
QA10R			1	.233
QA14				1

Table 5.9: *Correlation between statements regarding quality and quantity of error correction. INSTs (N=33). Reliability analysis shows Cronbach's alpha=0.071.*

Factor-Error Correction	QA1R	QA6	QA10R	QA14
QA1R	1	.272	.138	.282
QA6		1	-.501	.103
QA10R				.299

QA14   1

Table 5.1: *Comparison of PSTs' and INSTs' positive percentage ratings on attitudes towards quality and quantity of error correction*

CLT Principles Error Correction Statements	PSTs	INSTs
#6 For students to become effective communicators in English, the teachers' feedback must be focussed on communication effectiveness and not the linguistic form of the students' responses.	88.6	97.0
#10 Teachers should correct all grammatical errors which students make. If errors are ignored, this results in imperfect learning. *	83.5	93.9
#1 Grammatical correctness is a most important criterion*	79.7	87.9
#14 Because errors are a normal part of learning, too much correction is a waste of time.	43	42.4

Note. PSTs (N=79), and INSTs (n= 33). The table presents the percentages of positive responses.

Both groups' percentage positive ratings show they agreed with the first statement, #6, namely, the majority of both the PSTs and ISTs believed "*For students to become effective communicators in English, the teachers' feedback must be focussed on communication effectiveness and not the linguistic form of the students' responses*" as in traditional pedagogy. PSTs rated this statement positively at 88.6%, while INSTs had the most positive attitude towards it, at 97%; yet a chi-square test of differences in the

percentages of respondents amongst both groups who agreed with the statement was not statistically significant (p=.34).

However, at the same time, the majority of both groups agreed with the statement that *teachers should correct all grammatical errors students make. If errors are ignored, this results in imperfect learning believed that teachers should focus on error correction* Statement 10However, this result does not necessarily endorse CLT principles because the suggested strong focus on grammatical correctness is more in keeping with the grammar-translation method. Similarly, while only 16.5% of PSTs disagreed, approximately 83.5% would correct all the mistakes of their learners. By comparison, 6.1% of the INSTs group disagreed, and more than 90% agreed that teachers would correct all the mistakes of their learners. As shown in Table 5.12, the majority of participants agreed that they should correct all learners' errors.

This preference for correcting errors was also evident in their responses to statement 1 although the differences in percentages, as with Item 10, show around ten per cent less PSTs in agreement. Nevertheless, it confirms their view that *grammatical correctness is the most important criterion by which language performance should be judged*. The PSTs' attitudes were 79.7% positive, 10% less than than the INSTs' attitudes, which were 87.9% positive.

This is reinforced by their responses to statement 14 where only approximately forty per cent of each group agreed that *since errors are a normal part of learning many corrections is wasteful of time*, thus showing the majority were not espousing a CLT philosophy. Of the PST participants, 57% disagreed that too much correction is a waste of time, whereas only 43% supported the statement. It was not supported by INST participants either, since 57.6 % disagreed that too much correction is a waste of time, while 42.4% agreed that correction is a waste of time. Although the chi-square test outcome indicated no statistically significant differences among groups regarding the quality and quantity of error correction questions, the results show that each group was somewhat split regarding this practice. In short, the questionnaire data showed the apparent contradictions in the participants' responses to positive and negative items, suggesting that many participants were conflicted about reconciling their beliefs about CLT with classroom practice.

5.3.3 The place/importance of grammar.

The third set of CLT principle items concerned attitudes about teaching grammar. There were six contributing statements: Two statements were written positively and four statements, marked with an asterisk, were written negatively.

As Tables 5.11 and 5.12 show, the item variables for the grammar factor did not show meaningful correlations. Although some items show correlations with others, there was a large number of negative correlations between questions, and the Cronbach's alpha was extremely small, which means that the correlation was very low.

Table 5.2: *Correlation between statements regarding the place/importance of grammar. PSTs (N=79). Reliability analysis shows Cronbach's alpha=0.339.*

Grammar Factor	QA3	QA12	QA15R	QA17R	QA18	QA23R
QA3	1	.296	-.087	.374	.040	.085
QA12		1	-.061	.363	.197	.186
QA15R			1	-.062	-.226	.235
QA17R				1	.015	.366
QA18					1	-.003
QA23						1

Table 5.3: *Correlation between statements regarding the place/importance of grammar. INSTs (N=33). Reliability analysis shows Cronbach's alpha=-.531.*

Grammar Factor	QA3	QA12	QA15R	QA17R	QA18	QA23
QA3	1	-.131	-.047	-.439	-.109	.129
QA12		1	-.012	.198	.158	.037
QA15R			1	-.099	-.179	-.193
QA17R				1	-.024	.081
QA18					1	-.182
QA23						1

Table 5.4: *Comparison of PSTs' and INSTs' positive percentage ratings on attitudes towards the place and importance of grammar statements*

CLT Principles Place and Importance of Grammar Statements	PSTs	INSTs
#18 For most students, English is acquired most effectively when it is used as a vehicle for doing something else and not when it is studied directly or explicitly.	92.4	97
#23 Direct teaching of rules is essential*	88.6	97
#15 CLT leads to fluency but inaccuracy*	72.2	84.8
#17 Rules need to be mastered to communicate effectively*	69.6	75.8
#3 Grammar is taught only as a means, not an end	44.3	63.6
#12 Knowledge of rules does not guarantee correct use	60.8	81.8

Note. PSTs (n=79), and INSTs (n= 33). The table presents the percentages of positive responses.

Among the statements that deal with role and contribution of learners, Statement 18 obtained the highest percentages, indicating that more than 92.4% of PSTs agreed and believed that the target language is acquired most effectively when the focus is not on the language. While INSTs rated higher at 97%, compared with PSTs respondents this result could stem from teachers' long term experiences and a potential greater appreciation of the reality of classroom teaching and the need for students to use the language to make meaning.

The data in Table 5.13 also show the two groups' positive response ratings for the statement referring to the place and importance of teaching grammar in CLT. However, this conflicts with their very high percentage agreement with statement 23 *"direct instruction in the rules and terminology of grammar are essential if students are to learn to communicate effectively"*. Approximately 88.6% of the PSTs group agreed with the statement, such that only 11.4% disagreed. Similarly, the INST group showed a 97% agreement compared with 24% disagreement. Even though the statement is supportive of the traditionally driven model of pedagogy, if the respondents are teaching CLT, then it is likely the topic of grammatical rules would arise during conversation and demonstrating in practice, which is a completely different way from formally addressing a set of rules marked up on the blackboard.

Further evidence of their preference for more traditional pedagogy is reflected in both groups' support for the view that *CLT leads to fluency but inaccuracy;* almost three-quarters (72.2%) of the PST participants agreed, and just over a quarter (27.8%) disagreed. In contrast, 84.8% of the INSTs agreed, and 15.2% disagreed, which may reflect INSTs' preference for the traditional approach and PSTs' learning combined with the way they would have been taught in school. Nevertheless, the potential for INSTs to prefer the traditional approach was also suggested by the results about Statement 17, "By mastering the rules of grammar, learners become fully capable of communicating with a native speaker", where 69.6% of the PST group agreed (and 30.4% disagreed), compared with 75.8% of the INST group agreeing (and 24.2% disagreed). It can be argued that this statement is true to some extent because, if the learners do not know a rule, no one will be able to fully understand what they trying to say. But the fact is that traditional teaching typically does not leave any time and space for learners to experience using the language and taking risks to make any mistakes as part of learning. If the EFL teachers teach in the traditional model, then typically the students would not dare to try to speak lest they made a mistake. However, if teachers can build in the capability for students to have a practice and start using the language, then they would be much more confident, even when they make a mistake, which would encourage them to do more learning. Similarly, a chi-square test of differences in the percentages of respondents amongst the groups who agreed with the statement was not statistically significant. But to sum up the descriptive data, both PSTs' and INSTs' attitudes were positive towards the need for students to learn grammar.

Regarding Item 3, namely, "Grammar should be taught only as a means to an end and not as an end in itself", only approximately 40% of the PST group rated this statement positively, in contrast to almost 65% of INSTs. This suggests the INSTs might be more appreciative of the need to teach grammar as a means of learning the language and comparing with their L1, for example, and PSTs may not be so much aware. However, it cannot be discounted that they may not have fully understood the question.

Item 12, in Table 5.13 shows that 60.8% of PSTs agreed that "knowledge of rules of a language does not guarantee the ability to use it". Their rating was low compared to INSTs whose positive ratings amounted to 81.8%, such that the chi-square test analysis showed a statistically significant difference ($p=.05$) between PSTs 'and INSTs' attitudes

in this regard. The result perhaps reflects differences in experiences of teaching where INSTs may have been influenced by their teaching experience, and the PSTs are at the novice stage with much to learn about the approach.

The result outlined above suggests that the majority of PSTs are thinking traditionally and agree that "direct teaching of rules is essential", which reinforces the traditional mode in their teaching pedagogy. They were also consistent in their traditional view where teaching should focus on grammatical rules to communicate effectively. However, there is also evidence of the INSTs holding traditional views with respect to the statements about teaching grammar. They also appear to bring their experience to their responses, yet inconsistencies were found regarding their positive attitudes towards Statement 23, and negative attitudes towards Statement 3, contrasting grammar as essential, but as a means to an end rather than an end in itself.

5.3.4 The role of the teacher in the classroom

This section addresses the teachers' role in the classroom. As Tables 5.16, and 5.17 show, the items for the grammar factor were not correlated. Item 7 was negatively correlated with Item 11, and Item 20. Item 11 was negatively correlated with Item 24, and Item 20 was negatively correlated with Item 24. Similarly, with the in-service sample, there were quite a few negative correlations between questions and the Cronbach's alpha was extremely small such that these questions did not fall under these factors.

Table 5.5: *Correlation between statements regarding the role of the teacher. PSTs (N=79). Reliability analysis shows Cronbach's alpha=-.121*

Teacher Role Factor	QA7	QA16	QA19R	QA21R
QA7	1	-.057	-.198	.016
QA16		1	-.092	-.063
QA19R			1	.149
QA21R				1

Table 5.6: *Correlation between statements regarding the role of the teacher. INSTs (N=33). Reliability Analysis Shows Cronbach's alpha=-.135.*

Teacher Role Factor	QA7	QA16	QA19R	QA21R
QA7	1	-.169	-.002	-.389
QA16		1	-.161	.034
QA19R			1	-.031
QA21R				1

Table 5.16 indicates that the respondents have different attitudes towards their roles in the CLT classroom. Some statements endorsed CLT, and some statements did not; thus, the statements with an asterisk were written negatively. Items 11 and 19 were written negatively; therefore, they do not support CLT. In general, INSTs rated all statements more positively than did the pre-service teachers' group.

The pre-service teachers' group was generally positive towards Statements 7 and 16, which emphasised the role of the teacher transcending 'authority', 'instructor', and 'transmitter of knowledge'. However, the groups also endorsed the role of the teacher as 'imparting knowledge through explanation'.

Table 5.7: *Comparison of PSTs' and INSTs' positive percentage ratings on attitudes towards the role of the teacher in the classroom statements.*

CLT Principles	The Role of the Teacher in the Classroom	PSTs	INSTs
	#16 The teacher as a transmitter of knowledge is only one of the many different roles he/she must perform during a lesson	87.3	93.9
	#19 The role of the teacher in the language classroom is to impart knowledge through activities such as explanation, writing, and an example. *	86	84.8
	#21 Students do their best when taught as a whole class by the teachers. Small group work may occasionally be used to vary the routine, but it can never replace sound formal instruction by a competent teacher. *	77.2	90.9
	# 7 The teacher as 'authority' and 'instructor' is no longer adequate to describe the teacher's role in the language classroom.	67	81.8

Note. PSTs (N=79), and INSTs (N= 33). The table presents the percentages of positive responses.

Statement 16 emphasises that the role of the teacher in the classroom can be 'transmitter of knowledge' among others, for which both the PSTs and the INSTs agreed it is only one role of many that teachers should perform in their classes. Percentage agreement was approximately 87% and 94% respectively, showing that both groups' attitudes are in keeping with CLT. Similarly, regarding Item 21, the majority of both PSTs and INSTs agreed that EFL learners do their best when taught as a whole class by the teachers, "Small-group work may occasionally be used to vary the routine, but it can never replace sound formal instruction by a competent teacher". However, the ratings suggest that the PSTs were less sure that of this fact with just over three-quarters in agreement (77.2%) compared with 91% of INSTs.

Table 5.16 also shows that responses to statements 7 were also revealing in showing that more INSTs (82%) compared with 67% of PSTs recognised that "the teacher as 'authority' and 'instructor' is no longer adequate to describe the teacher's role in the language classroom". Thus, 35.5% of PSTs saw their teaching role as being a figure of authority in the classroom. The result suggests that the majority of INSTs are familiar with this pedagogical change. While the result of the chi-square test analysis showed no statistically significant differences between the two groups about wholeclass instruction and group work (p=.19), the differences between responses raised the issue of group work in implementing CLT as a potential indicator of teachers' grasp on such strategies in their capacity to provide opportunities for students to use the language for meaningful purposes.

In accordance with this finding, pre-service teachers were not strongly favourable towards acting as facilitators, while INSTs reported being more favourably disposed to acting as facilitators rather than as authority figures. Yet the responses also suggest some need for professional development, since the INSTs also believed that it was easier to manage the whole class and keep everyone busy as opposed to group work, which conflicts with implementing CLT; but this means it is easier to control the classroom. Since the majority of participants across the groups agreed that their role was to impart knowledge, this provides further evidence of some difficulty in transitioning from

traditional pedagogy to CLT and understanding what CLT should look like in practice in the classroom.

5.3.5 Role and contribution of learners.

The last subset of the CLT principles concerns the two groups' attitudes towards the role and contribution of learners in the learning process since learners are expected to construct their learning in CLT. Among the four statements which address the role and contribution of learners, three were positively written statements (Items 20, 24 and 8), and two were negatively written statements (Items 11 and 4). As Tables 5.17 and 5.18 show, the items for the role and contribution of learners were not correlated. There were quite a few negative correlations between questions, and the Cronbach's alpha was extremely small, indicating that the correlation is very low

Table 5.8: *Correlation between statements regarding the role and contribution of learners PSTs (N=79). Reliability analysis shows Cronbach's alpha=0.339.*

The role and contribution of learners	QA4R	QA5R	QA8	QA11R	QA20	QA24
QA4R	1	.174	-.208	.217	.279	.047
QA5R		1	-.031	0.76	.142	-.067
QA8			1	.016	-.026	-.026
QA11R				1	.257	-.232
QA20					1	-.071
QA24						1

Table 5.18: *Correlation between statements regarding the role and contribution of learners. INSTs (n=33). Reliability analysis shows Cronbach's alpha=-.531.*

The role and contribution of learners	QA4R	QA5R	QA8	QA11R	QA20	QA24
QA4R	1	-.166	.072	-.044	-.016	.026
QA5R		1	-.081	.110	-.037	.137
QA8			1	-.066	.031	-.259
QA11R				1	.023	.114

QA20	1	0.54
QA24		1

Table 5.19: *Comparison of PSTs' and INSTs' positive percentage ratings on attitudes towards the role and contribution of learners in the learning process.*

CLT Statements on Role and Contribution of Principles learners	PSTs	INSTs
#20 Tasks and activities should be negotiated and adapted to suit the students' needs rather than imposed on them.	97.5	100
#24 A textbook alone is not able to cater to all the needs and interests of the students. The teacher must supplement the textbook with other materials and tasks to satisfy the widely differing needs of the students.	94.9	100
#8 The student-centred approach to EFL teaching encourages responsibility and self-discipline and allows each student to develop his/her full potential.	92.4	87.9
#11 It is impossible in a large class of students to organise your teaching to suit the needs of all. *	79.7	97
#4 Since the students come to EFL classrooms with little or no knowledge of English, they are in no position to suggest what the content of the lesson should be or what activities would be useful. *	70.9	69.7
#5 Training students to take responsibility for their own learning is futile since students are not used to such a CLT approach. *	53.2	78.8

Note. PSTs (N=79), and INSTs (N=33). The table presents the percentages of positive responses.

Both groups, PSTs and INSTs, were very positive towards Statements 20, 24 and 8, and this emphasises the need for negotiation of tasks to suit learners' needs, followed by the need for teachers to supplement different materials to meet different needs of the students. The student-centred approach to EFL teaching encourages responsibility and self-discipline and allows each student to develop his/her full potential. There was also

approximately 70% agreement for both groups for Item 4: "Since the students come to EFL classrooms with little or no knowledge of English, they are in no position to suggest what the content of the lesson should be or what activities would be useful." However, on Items 11 and 5 the two groups differed in their agreement. For Item 11, "It is impossible in a large class of students to organise your teaching to suit the needs of all", the INSTs were approximately 10.3% more positive (PSTs, 79.7% and INSTs 90% respectively), which again may be related to the experience of the INSTs in the job. Similarly, for Item 5, the INSTs were in much more agreement towards the statement that "Training students to take responsibility for their own learning is futile since students are not used to such a CLT approach" (PSTs, 53% and INSTs 79%, respectively). This difference of 26% may imply INSTs' preference for the traditional approach and a possible lack of understanding about the philosophy underpinning CLT. It also may mean that the PSTs, as novice teachers, may have more understanding of the CLT approach to learning and hope that they can develop their students' ability to take responsibility for their language learning. Based on Chi-square tests for this set of items, only the comparison between the two groups regarding this statement was statistically significant ($p=.01$).

To gain a better understanding and clearer picture of the pre-service and in-service teachers' attitudes towards CLT, Figure 5.1 compares the mean positive percentage ratings of the two groups' attitudes towards the five principles of CLT.
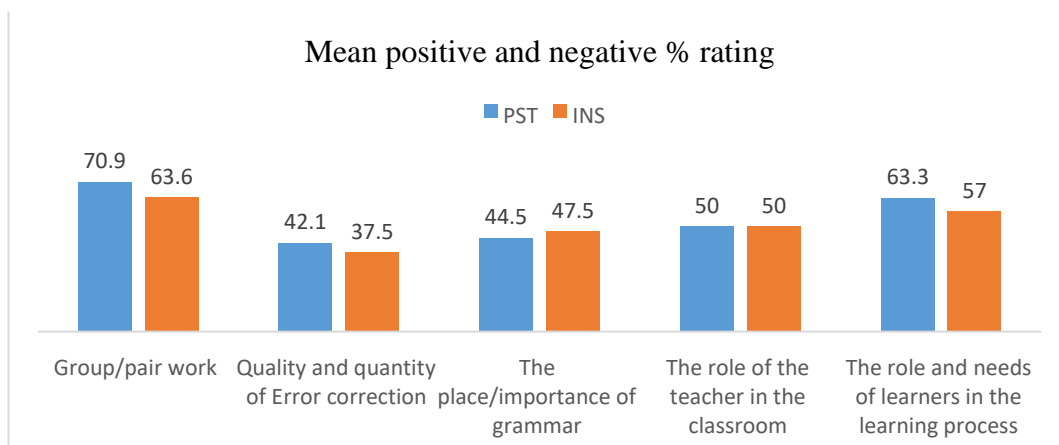
Figure 5.1: Comparison of mean positive and negative percentage ratings of PSTs' and INSTs' attitudes towards the five principles of CLT

Overall the mean positive percentage ratings across the two groups in relation to the five principles of CLT are very similar. While PSTs held more favourable attitudes towards "group and pair work", on average their attitudes towards "the role of the teacher" were the same, although the percentages show a split of 50% for each group. The fact that both groups had less than a 50% positive percentage mean rating of agreement regarding the "Quality and quantity of error correction" and "The place and importance of grammar" suggests that they remain influenced by the traditional approach to language learning. However, in relation to "The role and needs of learners in the learning process", as with attitudes towards "group and pair work", the PSTs appear to be somewhat more positive and therefore supportive of CLT.

Therefore, it seems clear that more than half of pre-service teachers and in-service teachers seem to take a positive view towards involving the learners in their learning and they did not strongly agree that learners come to the classroom with little or no previous knowledge of the target language. Moreover, since the majority of participants agreed that the learner-centred approach (i.e., the communicative approach) encourages responsibility and self-discipline among students and that the target language is acquired most effectively when the focus is not on the language, it can be argued as support for CLT. This is in keeping with the strong agreement that it is difficult to meet all students' needs in a large classroom so that they use textbooks with other materials through activities such as explanation, writing, and modelling.

5.4 Conclusion

The analysis of the present chapter can be summarised as follows: As a group, the PSTs held generally positive attitudes toward aspects of CLT but overall their negative attitudes related to the practical statements such as Statements 1, 10, 17, 19, 21, 22, and 23. This suggested that they aware that these principles were not used in Libyan schools and they prefer to teach directly, teach grammar rules, correct learners' errors and use whole-class teaching. The findings from the beliefs and attitudes analysis also show that the PSTs were aware of the underpinning theory about CLT, but their views about actual classroom practice were different. In addition, at this point, the analysis has shown that, although INSTs hold positive beliefs and attitudes toward CLT, they still show a

preference for aspects of the traditional teaching method, such as taking a traditional view on how teachers structure the classroom talk, and not supporting the inclusion of opportunities for students to have a voice in the learning; rather, they advocate that they should do most of the talking themselves. Thus, they prefer to constantly correct learners' errors and teach as a whole group rather than using pair work and group work.

CHAPTER SIX: PHASE TWO- QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

Classroom observations and interviews with the pre-service teachers

6.0 Overview

The previous chapter demonstrated the main findings from the survey with three sample groups of teachers. This chapter provides an overview of the results gained from classroom observations of participating PSTs. The dialogues were collected from seven PSTs' classrooms; each teacher was observed for two lessons each, and fourteen lessons were observed in total. The observation aimed to discover what PSTs were doing in the classroom according to Walsh's (2006) four modes (managerial, materials, skills and systems, and classroom context), and the way they interacted with the students, to understand the quality of their pedagogy and language teaching. The data from these observations were then compared to their beliefs and attitudes as stated in their survey responses and later discussed in Chapter Seven.

Analysis of the teacher talk was based on the SETT (Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk) framework, interactional features and underpinning pedagogical goals, using a pedagogical dialogue of the transcriptions of audio-data from English language classrooms in Libya. In the words of Shamsipour and Allami (2012) "any attempt to understand the nature of classroom discourse should focus on quality rather than quantity by recognising the relationship between language use and pedagogical purpose" (p. 730). Therefore, using the features of teacher talk modes was expected to help in understanding how the PSTs in the study used the English language and chose the language (Arabic/English) to create a space for learning English as a foreign language, or how they denied their students learning opportunities. The specific SETT features of teacher talk were extracted from the analysis of the transcripts. Exploring teachers' actual classroom teaching practise by focusing on teachers' talk and interacting with the students provided answers to research question four: *To what extent do Libyan pre-service EFL teachers apply CLT approaches in their teaching?*

This section starts with reporting on the analysis classroom observations, firstly reporting the distribution of classroom observational features for each pre-service EFL teacher. Then. How the PSTs' pedagogy reflected the modes of the SETT framework is presented in the sub-sections: 6.2.1 Managerial mode, 6.2.2 Material mode, 6.2.3 Skills and systems mode, and Sub-Section 6.2.4 Classroom context mode, providing sample transcripts of how these modes were enacted. Finally, a summary of these results and implications for the research questions are presented.

6.1 The SETT MODULES

Based on the recorded data, out of 2078 cases of teacher talk features, display questions was the most frequently employed feature (20.85%), followed by scaffolding (20.74%) and extended teacher turn (14.31%), extended learner turn (10.53%), extended wait time (9.20%), content feedback (8.465%) and direct repair (6.54%). But, more complex features were used less with referential questions being only 3.94% and seeking clarification and form-focused feedback with the lowest frequency (2.5%). On the other hand, out of the 2078 cases of teacher talk features for the obstructive teacher behaviour, there was only 5.29% recorded evidence of teacher echo; and teacher interruption and turn completion had the lowest frequency of 2.02%. The following graph provides a clear picture of all employed features, suggesting that the PSTs appear to facilitate interaction and construct students' involvement. The Mann-Whitney U test, the nonparametric parallel of the parametric t-test, was conducted to assess if there was a statistically significant difference between PSTs' use of constructive and obstructive features. Consequently, it was found that the PSTs demonstrated statistically significantly more constructive feature behaviours than obstructive feature mode behaviours ($p<0.05$) (two-tailed test).

Table 6.6: *Descriptive account for the employed features in the classes*

Effect	Feature of Teacher Talk Adapted from Walsh (2006)	Frequency	Per cent
Constructive	Display questions	392	20.85

	Scaffolding	390	20.74
	Extended teacher turn	269	14.31
	Extended learner turn	198	10.53
	Extended wait-time	173	9.20
	Content feedback	159	8.46
	Direct repair	123	6.54
	Referential questions	74	3.94
	Seeking clarification	55	2.93
	Form-focused feedback	47	2.5
Obstructive	Teacher echo	110	5.29
	Teacher interruptions	46	2.21
	Turn completion	42	2.02
	Total	2078	100.0

Figure 6.7 reveals the fact that constructive features appeared to be highly used by many PSTs more than obstructive features in their talk. Analysis suggests that their choice of the language obstructive features such as "teacher echo" was used positively by teachers to draw their attention to the answer or make the students hear the language and repeat it.
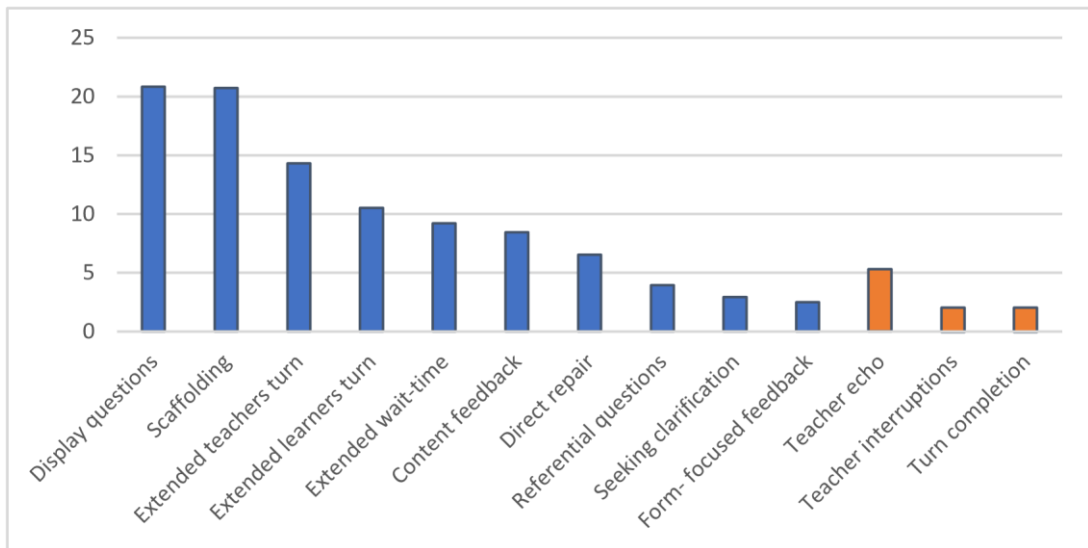
Figure 6.1: Comparison of the constructive features and obstructive features (Blue colour presents constructive features and orange colour presents obstructive features)

Tables 6.6 Figure 6.7 present the descriptive account for the employed features in the classes and comparison of the constructive features and obstructive features. The purpose of this data collection and aggregation was to be able to compare the use of the features between each teacher's two different lessons.

Table 6.2: *Overview of the participating PSTs' lesson information content for each practicum observed lesson*

Teacher names and class levels	T1 Sara School 1, Year 7)	T2 Esra school 2, Year 9)	T3 Aminah (School 2, Year 9)	T4 Malika School 2, Year 7)	T5 Zahra (School 2, Year 8)	T6 Sohad School 2, Year 6)	T7 Amal School 1, Year 7)
Lesson one content	(Unit 6, Animal and nature) Asking about Animals	Unit 8, Lucky Escapes) (Injuries)	Unit 6 Puzzles and problems (Signs)	(Unit 6, Animal and nature) Asking about Animals	(Unit 6, Town and countryside)	Personal possessions	(Unit 6, Animal and nature) Asking about Animals
Aim of the lesson	• Consolidate and extend lexical set for the animal. • Practice asking questions using different verbs forms. • Write a short description of animals.	• Give warnings and advice about first aid • Ask questions and tell anecdotes about accidents **Language focus** • Past simple and continues • Passive voice with by+ agent	• Explain the meaning of signs • Practise listening for gist and detail • Review and practise the first conditional **Language focus** • Making and responding to suggestions	• Consolidate and extend lexical set for the animal. • Practice asking questions using different verbs forms. • Write a short description of animals.	• Revise the previous new words for describing places: natural and man-made • Read CQ that aims for giving opinions • Check their understanding • Write a new grammar rule • Quantity= countable and uncountable nouns. • A lot, lots, much, many,	• Practise talking about possession • **Language focus** • I 've got a (watch) □ I haven't got a (motorbike). • Have you got a (camera)?	• Consolidate and extend lexical set for the animal. • Practice asking questions using different verbs forms. • Write a short description of animals.

		☐ Positive and negative imperatives			enough, and plenty.		
Lesson two content	Where do they live? (about animals) Unit 6	Unit 8, Lucky Escapes) (Injuries)	Unit 6 Puzzles and problems (Shapes)	Where do they live? (about animals) Unit 6	(Unit 6, Laila's neighbourhood)	Personal possessions	Where do they live? (about animals) Unit 6

| Aim of the lesson | • Read and make sentences about animals' habits
• Consolidate and extend the use of frequency use of the adverb
• Introduce and revise words with opposites
• Focus on the vowel sound | • Revise and extend vocabulary for body parts and injuries
• Practise working out meaning from context
• Practise talking about/describing injuries
• Focus on present simple for tameable future | • Revise and extend vocabulary to describe shapes
• Practise forming adjectives from nouns
• Practise describing pictures made up of shapes
• **Language focus**
• Practise descriptions, e.g., the right half of the square is black. The circle touches the sides of the square | • Read and make sentences about animals' habits
• Consolidate and extend the use of frequency use of the adverb
• Introduce and revise words with opposites
• Focus on the vowel sound | • Practise listening for specific information
• Raise awareness of relative clauses
• Practise a dialogue with relative clauses and quantifiers
Language focus
Quantifiers Defining relative clauses, e.g., a house which is by the park | • Learning letters' names e, c, d, g, p, t, and v
• Practise spelling aloud in English
• **Language focus**
• What is this in English?
• With a (p)? No not (persil, it is a pencil | • Read and make sentences about animals' habits
• Consolidate and extend the use of frequency use of the adverb
• Introduce and revise words with opposites
• Focus on the vowel sound |

Table 6.3: *Frequency counts and percentages for the features of teacher talk participating PSTs employed in their practicum classes*

Feature of Teacher Talk Adapted from Walsh (2006)	T1 Sara		T2Esra		T3 Aminah		T4 Malika		T5 Zahra		T6 Sohad		T7 Amal	
	Class 1		Class 1		Class 1		Class 1		Class 1		Class 1		Class 1	
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*
Display questions	76	41.99	32	14.29	35	19.8	17	18.75	43	16.93	14	16.22	8	13.14
Scaffolding	30	16.57	29	22.86	16	33.02	5	17.71	42	16.93	14	12.61	20	4.57
Extended teachers turn	7	5.52	12	20.71	13	15.09	4	5.21	33	16.54	11	12.61	14	11.43
Teacher echo	19	10.50	12	3.57	10	0.94	4	18.75	30	0	5	2.70	4	9.14
Direct repair	16	8.84	20	0.71	21	1.89	18	6.25	43	6.30	18	14.41	23	9.71
Extended learners turn	0	3.87	5	8.57	1	12.26	5	4.17	9	12.99	8	9.91	3	8%
Extended waittime	19	3.87	5	8.57	1	9.43	18	4.17	0	11.81	3	4.50	16	2.29
Seeking clarification	6	3.31	5	3.57	2	1.89	4	4.17	3	1.18	3	2.70	5	2.86
Teacher interruptions	4	2.21	2	1.43	0	0	0	0	4	1.57	6	5.41	23	13.14
Turn completion	0	0	3	2.14	0	0	0	0	5	1.97	5	4.50	1	0.57
Referential questions	16	0	1	3.57	2	0.94	6	5.21	16	3.54	16	7.21	17	1.71
Content feedback	2	1.10	8	5.71	5	4.72	14	14.58	24	9.45	1	0.90	39	22.29

Feature of Teacher Talk Adapted from Walsh (2006)	T1 Sara Class 2		T2 Esra Class 2		T3 Aminah Class 2		T4 Malika Class 2		T5 Zahra Class 2		T6 Sohad Class 2		T7 Amal Class 2	
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*
Form- focused feedback	4	0.22	6	4.29	0	0	1	1.042	2	0.79	7	6.31	2	1.14
Total	181	100	140	100	106	100	96	100	254	100	111	100	175	100
Display questions	22	25.23	19	12.87	44	18.98	46	14.75	38	12.12	13	28.8	29	14.05
Scaffolding	15	20.56	17	18.81	6	32.12	20	25.14	36	19.19	11	12.5	28	15.68
Extended teachers turn	5	14	8	16.83	19	4.38	19	10.93	21	18.18	7	10.6	25	15.14
Teacher echo	5	14.02	8	5.94	18	0	17	2.19	21	3.54	7	4.8	25	5.95
Direct repair	27	4.67	13	3.96	26	0.73	27	4.92	24	7.58	30	10.6	26	2.16
Extended learners turn	2	4.67	4	7.92	7	13.87	3	10.38	12	10.61	3	6.7	12	13.51
Extended wait time	15	4.67	6	7.92	0	13.14	4	9.29	7	10.61	5	6.7	11	13.51
Seeking clarification	2	1.87	4	3.96	0	0	10	5.46	4	2.02	2	1.9	5	2.70
Teacher interruptions	0	0	2	1.98	1	0.73	0	0	0	0.00	1	1.0	3	1.62
Turn completion	4	3.74	4	3.96	10	7.30	0	0	6	3.03	1	1.0	3	1.62
Referential questions	5	1.87	4	3.96	1	5.11	9	1.64	15	6.06	11	2.9	4	6.49

Content feedback	3	2.80	8	7.92	3	2.19	25	13.66	5	2.53	10	9.6	12	6.49
Form- focused feedback	2	1.87	4	3.96	2	1.46	3	1.64	9	4.55	3	2.9	2	1.08
Total	107	100	101	100	137	100	183	100	198	100	104	100	185	100
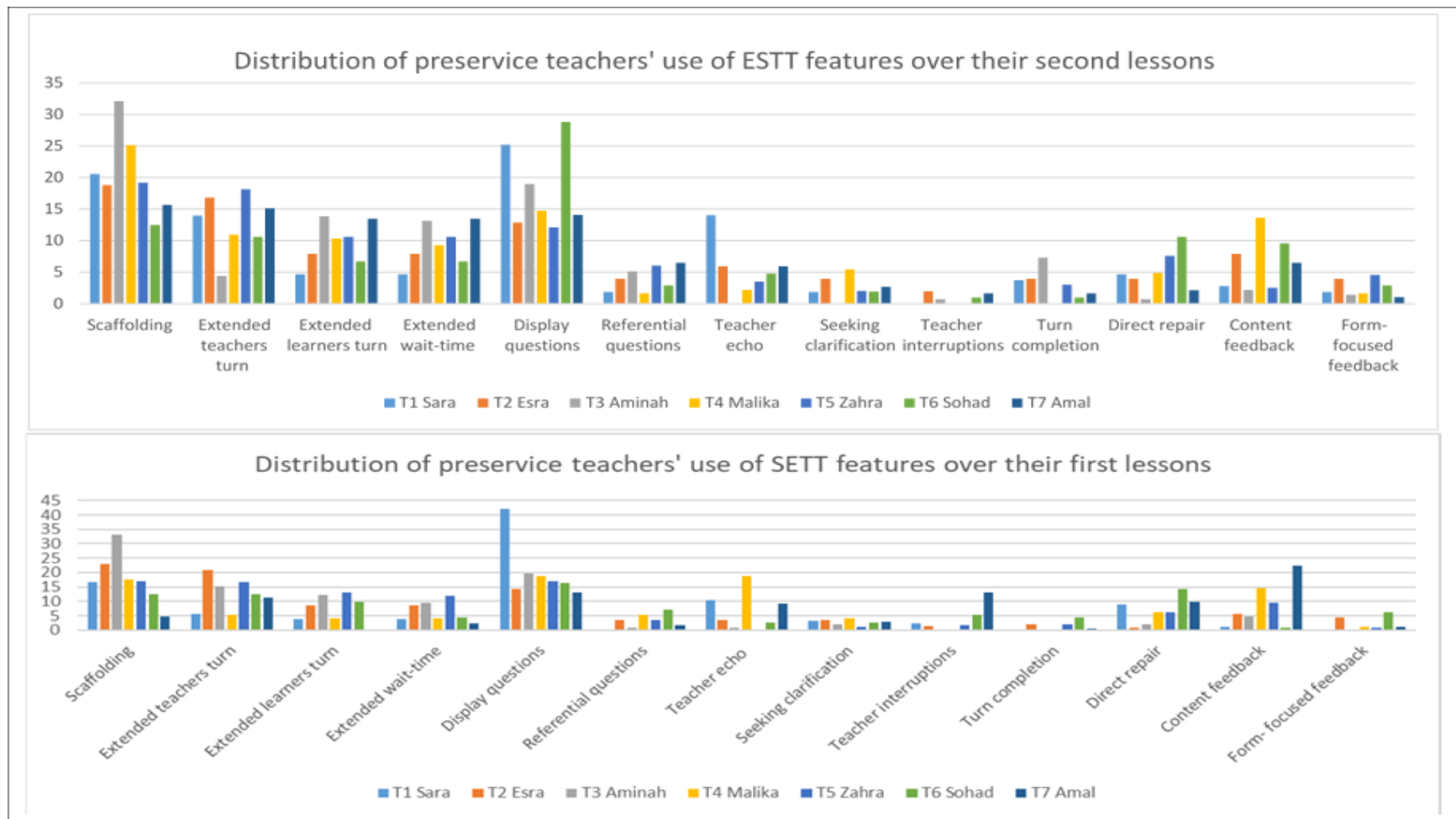
Figure 6.2: Distribution of PSTs' use of SETT features in their two observed lessons: Percentage tally of use of each Walsh feature as a proportion of total tallies

The data from Table 6.5 and Figure 6.1 clearly show that the features of SETT were used most in PSTs' first lesson than their second lesson. For example, T1 used 76 display questions where she used only 22 display questions in her second lesson and the reason for the difference was that she asked the students' names a lot in her first lesson. In addition, the content PSTs were teaching influences the use of Walsh's features, as observed in the classrooms when they were teaching new vocabularies using questions to ask about the meaning and pronunciations. A second example is when they were teaching grammatical rules and how to apply them in sentences where their second lessons were more traditionally focused on repetitions and answering the activities from the textbooks. Examples of each SETT feature are detailed, showing the most prevalent features versus the least prevalent features to check whether issues such as the content of the lesson prevents CLT.

Table 6.6 presents frequencies and percentages for the features of teacher talk employed in the classes per feature for each pre-service teacher's two classes. It shows the performance of pre-service teachers' use of tallies, ordering from the most prevalent feature to the least prevalent feature used across the group. This aggregation of data contributes to providing an overall idea about the reality of Libyan classroom teaching during these PSTs' practicum. The highlighted cells in the table draw attention to the highest percentage for each prevalent feature. For example, Teacher one showed the highest use of display questions over two lessons, and T2 showed the highest use of scaffolding over her two lessons.

Table 6.4: *Comparison of PSTs' use of SETT features over two lessons: Percentage of the tally of Walsh features of total tallies across 14 lessons*

Feature of Teacher Talk Adapted from Walsh (2006)	T1		T2		T3		T4		T5		T6		T7		High to low
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*F*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	
Display questions	103	35.76	33	13.69	47	19.50	45	16.13	67	14.8	48	22.33	49	13.61	1
Scaffolding	52	18.06	51	21.16	79	32.78	63	22.58	81	17.92	27	12.56	37	10.28	2
Extended teachers turn	25	8.68	46	19.09	22	9.13	25	8.96	78	17.26	25	11.63	48	13.33	3
Extended learners turn	12	4.17	20	8.30	32	13.28	23	8.24	54	11.95	18	8.37	39	10.83	4
Extended waittime	12	4.17	20	8.30	28	11.62	21	7.53	51	11.28	12	5.58	29	8.06	5
Content feedback	5	1.74	16	6.64	8	3.32	39	13.98	29	6.42	11	5.12	51	14.17	6
Direct repair	21	7.29	5	2.07	3	1.24	15	5.38	31	6.86	27	12.56	21	5.83	7
Teacher echo	34	11.8	11	4.56	1	0.41	22	7.89	7	1.55	8	3.72	27	7.50	8
Referential questions	2	0.69	9	3.73	8	3.32	8	2.87	21	4.65	11	5.12	15	4.17	9
Seeking clarification	8	2.78	9	3.73	2	0.83	14	5.0	7	1.55	5	2.33	10	2.78	10
Form- focused feedback	6	2.08	10	4.15	2	0.83	4	1.43	11	2.43	10	4.65	4	1.11	11

Teacher interruptions	4	1.39	4	1.66	1	0.41	0	0	4	0.88	7	3.26	26	7.22	12
Turn completion	4	1.39	7	2.90	10	4.1	0	0	11	2.43	6	2.79	4	1.11	13

Chapter Six: Qualitative Data Findings
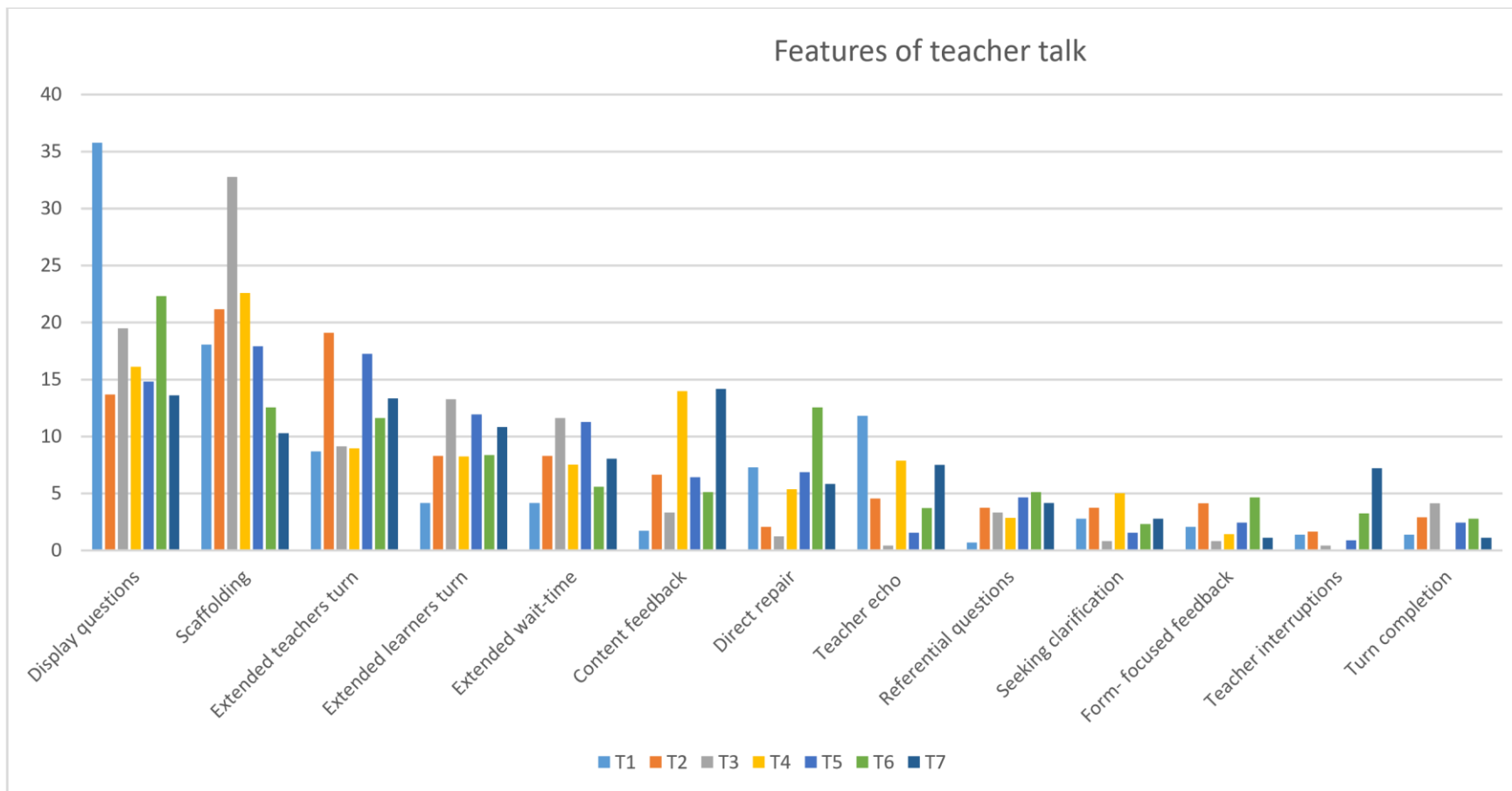
Figure 6.3: Summary of PSTs' use of SETT features over two lessons: Percentage tally of each teacher's use of each Walsh feature as a proportion of total tallies

Besides providing the earlier mentioned comparative analysis of the Walsh features PSTs employed over their two lessons, Table 6.5 displays frequency counts and percentage data of all features used in all seven PSTs' first and second lessons. Table 6.6 and Figure 6.2 show the use of Walsh's teacher talk features by the seven PSTs combined from their two lessons. This result shows that there is an exaggeration in the number of display questions, scaffolding, and extended learner turns. Scaffolding in EFL lessons, such as in the Libyan context of this research, by these PSTs, appears to be limited to the following four activities: (1) asking students to read, (2) drilling the new vocabulary and practising pronunciation, (3) asking for answers regarding the activities following their reading a passage aloud, and (4) questioning and trying to lead the students forward. Also, of interest from these data is that extended learner turns, such as in the cases of Malika, Zahra and Amal, only occurred when the students were reading aloud, which did not fit the criteria to be itemised as "natural talk". Therefore, it could be argued that there were no extended learner turns except during extended reading when the learners were reading in English from the book, and they continued to read aloud until the teacher stopped them. However, again this could be argued to lack authenticity as the turn was structured and controlled by the book text rather than freedom of expression instigated by the student.

In addition, the least frequent use of features related to (1) seeking clarification, (2) form-focused feedback, (3) teacher interruptions and (4) turn completion. These occurred only a few times because the PSTs spent a great deal of their class time explaining grammatical points and so had less time to devote to practising the point taught. Thus, while it can be claimed that almost all interactional features were observed in these seven PSTs' classes, it depended on each teacher's teaching situation as to the scope for their use, as it also depends on the type of lesson/lesson learning objectives, and the students' English level and age.

6.1.1 Managerial mode

The pattern of the managerial mode which is identified by Walsh (2006, p. 67), focuses on setting up activities. The principal pedagogic goals for the managerial mode are:

to give instruction; to organise the physical learning environment; to refer students to the material; to introduce or conclude an activity; to change from one mode of learning to another. The interaction feature that characterises the managerial mode is a single, extended teacher turn which uses explanations and instructions; the use of transitional markers; the use of confirmation checks; and an absence of student contributions. Thus, the analysis of the pre-service teachers' talk from their classroom observation dialogues showed that they used many of these principles. Five examples of the participants' pedagogical goals as part of managerial mode are presented below.

Each shows an extract of dialogue from PST's lesson.

Extract 1 Managerial mode – Esra's first lesson

This extract is taken from Esra's first lesson. The class was an intermediate level class of students, aged 13-14 in Year nine, seated in a U-shape; Esra organised the seating as the class was in rows in what can be described as a traditional classroom layout (See Figure 6.3, which is an example of all Libyan class seatings). The observation extract shows how Esra managed the listening activities for Year nine students to practise the form of present perfect. Esra prepared a shortcut of movies with native speakers using present perfect tense, and she wrote out sentences from the text and pasted them on the wall.

Figure 6.4: Libyan classroom seating (students sit in pairs)

Extract 1 (A) (Observation, Esra, 04/04/2018) (First lesson)
T: Before we start with our lesson, watch this collection of shortcuts from native speaker movies which show examples of present perfect. **Ok, so be quiet. Open your ears. Close your mouth and listen carefully. Ok?**
T: So, these are not just movies to watch but gives you an example of present perfect, so this is the form of present perfect, if you remember, in the movies we heard these sentences. ((*Teacher read from the text on the wall*)).
T: If you remember in the movies we heard these sentences:

1.   I've never seen him before.
     2.   I've never been sick before.
     3.   I've come to talk with you.
     4.   I've made a decision.
     5.   I've missed you so much.
     6.   I've made changes for you.
     7.   I've come to say goodbye.
     8.   Alic has escaped.
     9.   Something wonderful has happened.

T: So, watch again and try to listen to these sentences and how they use present perfect.
T: listen

Note: T (Teacher) = Esra

This example shows how the teacher set up a listening activity and how the teacher dominated with monologic delivery of the instructions. As can be seen from Extract 1(A), the communication was one-way: a single, extended teacher turn in which the teacher mostly uses explanations and instructions, while the learners were not involved in a dialogic conversation. Using several clauses, the teacher tried to convince the learners to speak less and listen more because she maintained it would help them learn. In other words, the managerial mode was prevalent when the teacher made extensive use of instructional language for the learners to hear English language being used, such as 'be quiet, 'open your ears', 'close your mouth' and 'listen carefully'. Esra stated the aim of the activity, which was to listen to how native speakers used the present perfect. Moreover, she checked the sentences that the learners were to hear from the posted wall texts. To remind the learners of the purpose of the lesson, she made use of confirmation checks. After playing the video once, she asked students to listen to the sentences, referring to materials of the present perfect that were posted as text on the wall before

she played the video again. Evidence of the teacher materials is shown in Extract 1 B when Esra assured the students to listen to the examples for present perfect; however, the students looked confused and did not understand.
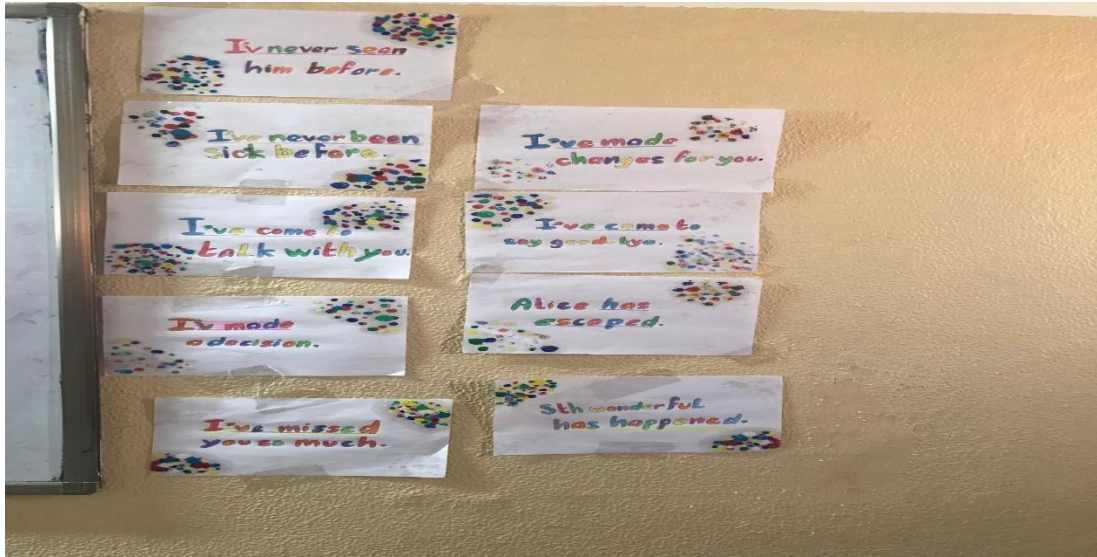
Figure 6.5: Examples of teacher materials, wall texts sentences on the present perfect tense

The last text in the bottom right in Figure 6.4 shows that Esra wrote an abbreviation of 'Something' as 'Sth', thereby implying that Esra knew abbreviations and text message language, but she did not teach the students about them. When she read it, she read as a complete phrase as shown in the sentences in Extract 1 (A). One of Esra's supervisors commented on colouring the texts because students could not see the texts clearly, especially students who were sitting at the back of the class. However, she did not use colour systematically to code the patterns. Her supervisor did not mention it either.

Extract 1 (B) (Observation, Esra, 04/04/2018) (First lesson)
1. T: So, watch again and try three minutes for the video 2.
T: These sentences are an example about present perfect.
3.   T: Listen
4.   T: The video had said all the examples. I have never seen him before. What the tense of this sentence?
5.   Ss: ابلة نفهمشي We do not understand the teacher
6.   T: Ok you will understand I will explain but before, we will study the usage of present perfect. Actually, there are many of present perfect
2. T: Be quiet, be quiet.

Note: T (Teacher) = Esra   Ss= more than one student

The pedagogical example from Esra's lesson demonstrates that she introduced the grammar rule around the use of the present perfect, and she applied speaking and reading activities to illustrate this rule in English-only without the translation of words into Arabic. Her approach made the lesson more difficult for the teacher to give and for the students to receive the grammatical knowledge.

In addition, she used the wrong sequence of introducing the lesson, because her students did not understand why they were watching the video. A suggestion for the teacher, in this case, is for her to introduce the form of the present perfect first, and then show as texts, the sentences and examples that she had prepared on the wall. Later, she could have asked them to listen to the examples as listening activities. Following this procedure, students would have had a clearer idea about what the teacher was asking them to listen to learn the grammatical point.

Extract 2 Managerial mode – examples from three teachers

Another participant (Sara) started her first class by instructing how she was going to use English-only in the classroom, and that the students should tell her if they did not understand. This approach was not audio-recorded but it was written upon the observation sheet. Then Sara introduced herself to students, and she asked about the date, after which she provided instructions on how she would start the lesson.

Extract 2 (Observation, Sara, 25/03/2018) (First lesson)

1. T: My name… Listen… Is Sara and I will teach you this week?

2. T. What is the date today?

3. S. Sunday not Sundia. Sunday all repeating Sunday

4. T. This is the day, not date… the teacher wrote day and date on the board.

5. T. The day is Sunday…

6. T: But what about the date? The date is 25 of March 2018 ((*writing on the board*))

7. T: Close the book please, stop talking!

8. T: Do you remember the last lesson? Do you remember the last lesson? The part of the body

9. T: Stop talking

10. T: Stop laughing, or I will send you out.

11: T: Come on

12. T. So, the parts of the body. I will make a simple review.

13. T. What is your name?

14. S1: My name is Abeer,

15. T So Abeer what is this ((mentioning *to a photo on the PC*)).

16. S1: (….).no answer

17. T next, what is your name?

18 S2: My name is Tasneem.

19 T. Tasneem, what is this?

20 S2: head

21 T. Head. Head, so it is head .it is head ((*repeated 4 times*))

Note: T (Teacher) = Sara   S= random student   S1= First selected student S2= second selected student   S3= Third selected student

From this example of classroom dialogue, it was noted that Sara used some of the managerial principles to introduce herself and her lesson. Also noted is that the class was noisy at the start of the lesson as is evident in lines 1, 7, 9, and 10. The most used pedagogical strategy in this extract was questioning. Sara chose students, in turn, first asking for their names and then addressing the question about parts of the body using pictures from her computer. This strategy took time because Sara was asking each

student about their name. She could have used a more effective strategy of getting to know students' names such as user name tags, or a name-note placed in front of each student.

In Aminah's classes, before she started her lesson on the topic of 'puzzles and problems', she introduced the topic of signs and revised the extended vocabulary. In the teacher's book, the instruction was "to draw attention to the signs and talk about the fact that pictures are used to send a message quickly-specially to show potential danger" (Frino, Ní Mhocháin, O'Neill, & McGarry, 2008, p. 56). The dialogue below shows how Aminah employed this instruction into her pedagogical practice.

Extract 3 (Observation, Aminah, 25/03/2018) (Second lesson)
1. T: So, what does it mean 'signs?'
2. Ss: اشار indicate
3. T: it is an object, what is the object means:
4. [S1: فعل verb
5. S2: صفة adjective
6. S3: verb
7. T: No
8. Ss: Objective:
9. T: No, the object does not move
10. T: Ok now we will do a meaning

Note: T (Teacher) = Aminah Ss= more than one student   S= random student   S1= First selected student S2= second selected student   S3= Third selected student

The interaction feature in Aminah's classroom was that she used transitional markers to introduce the topic and new vocabulary. The teacher's extended turn was also shown in the dialogue as the students were questioning the meaning of words and the teacher was giving them a clue to predict the meaning. Then she defined each sign. Also evident was that Aminah's interaction was in English. When she introduced the topic, she gave instructions and explained the activities while students used Arabic to reply in answering the teacher.

The following example of managerial mode is taken from Year seven data where Amal was their teacher. It presents the change from one mode of learning to another during her lesson of extensive grammar in the use of display questions. Extract 4 is taken from Amal's first lesson. After she had reviewed the homework activities with the

students, she did the reading activities, then changed to review grammatical rules which included 'present simple' and 'present continuous'.

Extract 4 (Observation, Amal, 25/03/2018) (Second lesson)

1. T: Ok, you have taken the present simple, yeah (*1 second*) in previous classes!
2. T: Present simple, so we will revise the present simple and present continuous
3. T: What is the form of present simple? (*4 seconds*)
4. T: What is the form?
5. S: She, are, they, she, and it
6. T: Do you know what it means present simple?
7. Ss: المضارع البسيط present simple
8. T: yeah
9. The teacher wrote the form of the board

Present simple	present continuous
[I] + am	[I]+ am+ verb+ing
[She, He, It] + verb+ s	[She, He, It] + verb+ ing
[They, You, We] + verb	[They, You, We] + are+ ing

Note: T (Teacher) = Amal Ss= more than one student   S= random student

Extract 4 demonstrates that the pre-service teacher used relevant metalanguage to reflect learning from the previous lesson and to review the rule that had been previously introduced to the students. Amal informed the students (line 2) that she was going to revise these grammar rules. She then asked a display question following an extended pause of 4 seconds (inline 3). Amal subsequently repeated the question, which made one student take a risk and speak, saying what she knew" She, are, they, she, and it" (line 5). The teacher's response to this student demonstrated that the student did not know the correct answer. That is why the teacher asked if they knew the meaning of the 'present simple'. Students answered 'yes' (line 7), but the teacher understood that they did not understand the rules. Their response made the teacher explain the rules by writing up the rule structure of each present simple and present continuous on the board, and by eliciting each group of pronouns to the matched verb as shown in the extract, demonstrating the similarities and differences between singular and plural. Amal asked

the students to copy these rules into their notebooks. She waited two minutes for them to complete before she moved on to the next activity.

One of the observed issues was that the students' behaviour was out of control in most classes. The classes were very noisy despite the PSTs trying their best to explain things, but because of the noise, some students could not focus on what the teachers were saying. The example in Extract 5, from Sohad's class, illustrates the situation where students were not paying attention or respect to the teacher. Reasonably, Sohad asked the students to stop talking, but they persisted talking and not listening. One reason for this situation could be that because the teacher was speaking only in English; the students found the lesson incomprehensible or boring and kept chatting in Arabic to their partners.

Extract 5 (Observation, Sohad, 28/03/2018) (First lesson)
T: He hasn't got a motorbike, I haven't got a motorbike. What are the differences between these two sentences?
Ss: (*unclear talking*)
T: You *((teacher mentioned to one student)).* Where is the difference?
S: no answer, ((*student does not understand*))
Ss: (*talking)*
T: stand up, when I ask you classmate please stop talking.
TC: يعني هل الفرق It mean is there a difference... *((Teacher's colleague wants to explain in Arabic, but teacher stopped her and said when I explained she did not bring attention)).*
T: No no stop translating for them. They do not want to understand, and they talking too much and not listening.

Note: T (Teacher) = Sohad   TC= Teacher's colleague Ss= more than one student   S= random student   S1= First selected student S2= second selected student   S3= Third selected student

There is a need to develop a balance between the teacher talk language of instruction and the use of the target language because, if the students do not understand, they will fall asleep or talk aimlessly in Arabic with each other without an explicit purpose.

6.1.2 Material mode

In the material mode, the focus was on how PSTs use the materials, written texts or spoken tapes (using video or audio) to practise the language. The analysis of dialogues between teacher and students showed that the teacher mostly controlled practice and led the activities from the coursebook or students' workbook. The teachers used the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) pattern in their talk. The most used features of teacher talk were display questions, form-focused feedback, and repair.

Extract 1 Material mode – Amal's first lesson

Extract 6 is taken from Amal's class with Year seven students at School 1. The teacher stated in the interview that the aim was to answer homework activities on a given page.

Extract 6 (Observation, Amal, 25/03/2018) (Second lesson)
1.   T: Open your workbook on the page the first question is homework ok. B
2.   "Where are you", who can answer this question?
3.   T: I am in school or you can answer. I am in the class ok. The second one, "what are you doing"?. I am writing, or I am learning English as you want to write the answer you like. The last one "who is sitting behind you"?
4.   S: جنب ₍beside₎
5.   T: Sarah, who is sitting behind you? (I)
6.   S: جنب₍besides?₎ (R)
7.   T: No, behind! (F)
8.   S: Haneen (R)
9.   T: Haneen, So, Haneen is sitting behind you (I). So, what you say, Haneed (.) is sitting behind me ok.
10.   S: Ok

Note: T (Teacher) = Amal   S= random student

As can be seen in Extract 6, the teacher Amal asked a question and then answered the whole class focusing on the use of target grammatical structure in the answers. Then she asked one student to take a turn by asking her a question using IRF sequence in lines (8-14). The teacher provided explicit correction indicating that what the student had said (in Arabic) was wrong (line 10). The teacher's extended turn to elaborate the meaning inline 12, and again, the teacher's echo of the answer focusing on correct grammatical form aimed to ensure that everyone heard the answer about the correct form of language use.

Teacher Amal's pedagogical goals in her first lesson were to provide input or practice around the coursebook. She, therefore, started the class by writing up all the animal names on the board, asking the students to open their course books to page 46. In teaching the animal names, the teacher used controlled practice such as a repetitive and drilling practice, requiring the students to repeat after the teacher many times in practising how to say the names. Then each student was required to recall the words.

Extract 7 (Observation, Amal, 25/03/2018) (First lesson)
1. T: Open your book! The first picture
2. T: Repeat after me; Butterfly
3. Ss: Butterfly
4. T: Butterfly
5. Ss: Butterfly
6. T: Butterfly
7. Ss: Butterfly
8. T: Rabbit
9. Ss: Rabbit
20. T: Rabbit
11. Ss: Rabbit
12. T: Rabbit
13. Ss: Rabbit
14. T: Goat
15. Ss: Goat
16. T: Goat
17. Ss: Goat
18. T: Goat
19. Ss: Goat
20. T: Horse
21. Ss: Horse
22. T: Horse
23. Ss: Horse
24. T: Horse
25. Ss: Horse

Note: T (Teacher) = Amal   Ss= more than one student

The repetition process took a large amount of class time as Amal repeated each word three times with the whole class, and then asked each student individually to name the animal. That transcript is not shown in the transcripts above because of the length. Amal repeated each animal many times for each student when they did not pronounce the animal name correctly in English. Amal mostly focused on language pronunciation accuracy and

how to say the vocabulary properly instead of modelling the use of the language in a meaningful way, such as describing the colours or size of the animals.

The following example shows how Zahra used the pedagogic goal of material mode to provide language practice around the visual image and textual on the course.
In the teacher's guide book, the instruction was "to review vocabulary and brainstorm with the class around all they could say about the picture, and "asking students for full sentences using the picture from the coursebook". However, the focus of language practice shifted to students' understanding and translation from English to Arabic as an alternative to learning how to use English in full sentences. Students engaged in reading the dialogue and activities from the textbook. The teacher checked the student understanding of each sentence in the reading text.
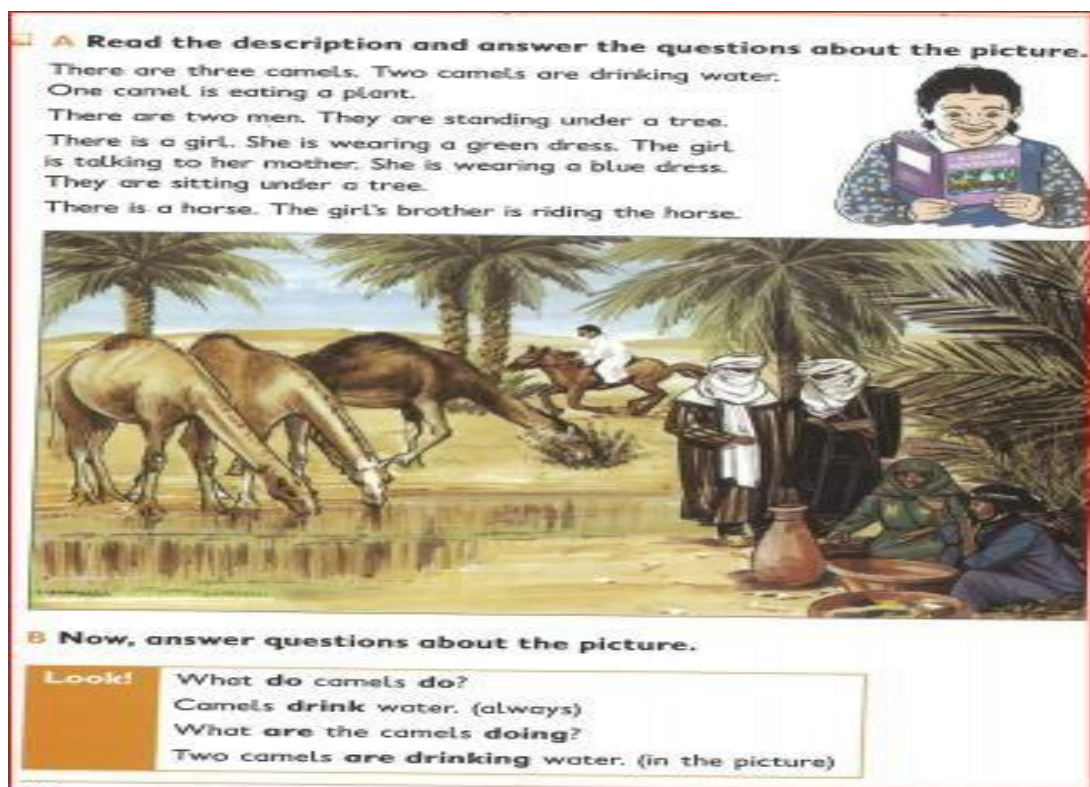
Figure 6.6: A copy of task activities from sourcebook used by teacher Zahra

Extract 8 (Observation, Zahra, 27/3/2018) (Second lesson)

1. **T: Who can describe the picture?**
2. **T: Who can describe the picture? What does it mean 'describe'?**
3. **S1…** *((Low voice))* 4.   T: say it again?
5.   S1: describe يوصف
6.   T: yes, who can describe?
7.   Ss: horse
8.   S2: two اشخاص persons
9.   T: Who can read?
10.   S: me *((raised her hand))*
11.   T: yeah *((mentioned to the student))*
12.   S: Read the description and answer the questions about the picture *((reading from th book))*
13.   S: There are three camels. Two camels are drinking water *((reading the sentence from the book))*
14.   T: So, what does it means, there are two camels?
15.   Ss: وهناك جملان يشربان الماء هناك تلاتة جمل هنالك تلاتة جمال there are two camels drinking water, there is thr camel- here are three camels
16.   T: Ok, continue *((asking the student to read from the book))*
17.   S: One camel is eating a plant
18.   Ss: هناك واحد ياكل العشب there is one eating the grass
19.   T: yeah
20.   S: There are two men, they are standing under a tree. *((reading from the book))*
21.   S1: هناك رجلان there are two men
22.   S2 هناك رجلان جالسون تحت الشجر two men are sitting under the tree
23.   S: There is (t: there is) a girl (t: ok). She is wearing a green dress. *((reading from th book))*
24.   T: So, what does it mean?
25.   Ss هنالك فتاة (there is a girl)
26.   T: yeah
27.   Ss تلبس اخضر She wears green
28.   T: dress, what does it mean?
29.   S: فستان dress
30.   T: The girl is talking to her mother, she is wearing a blue dress.
31.   Ss: هي تتكلم مع امها وتلبس فستان she is talking to her mother and wearing a blue dress
32.   S: وتلبس رداء ازرق and wears a blue dress
33.   S: they are sitting under a tree *((reading from the book))*
34.   T: What does it mean?
35.   Ss: الشجر يجلسون تحت They are sitting under the tree 36.   S: There are a horse. *((reading from the book))*
37.   T: Again?
38.   S: There are a horse
39.   T: Yeah
40.   S: The girls' brother is riding the horse *((reading from the book))*
41.   T: So, what does it mean? What does it mean?
42.   Ss: يوجد حصان There is a horse
43.   T: Yeah

44. Ss: [overlap all student were talking]
45. S: الاخ يركب الحصان ↑The brother is riding the horse

Based on the analysis of Extract 8 in terms of pedagogical goals and interactional features of the materials mode, it is apparent that the teacher's focus was to provide language practice by using a classic exchange IRF sequence: teacher initiation, learner response, and teacher feedback. There are three turns in this extract: teacher-to individual student, and teacher to the whole class. The teacher's turn started by asking a display questions using the target grammatical structure in her focus questions at lines 1, 2, 3, 6 9, 14, 24 28, 34, and 41 to check the meaning in Arabic of particular English vocabulary and to engage learners in speaking.

At the start, it was noted that the students did not respond to the teacher's questions. The teacher repeated the question followed by more specific questions which asked for the meaning as translation. The teacher aimed to help the learners to construct English using the pictures and to provide more opportunities for students to engage with the teacher's talk. However, as can be seen in lines 1 to 9, Zahra failed to give enough wait time for students to use English and to build up their vocabulary. She asked firstly who could read the dialogues from the book and then she asked the whole class for the meaning of each sentence to check learners' grasp of the information. One student volunteered to read the text from the book, lines 13, 17, 20, 23, 30, 33, 36, 40; after each sentence, the teacher asked the class for the meaning. The students then gave the answers in Arabic as shown in lines 5, 8, 15, 18, 21, 22, 25, 27, 29, 31, 32, 35, 42, 44 and 45; it was noticed that student was focusing on the meaning of the language not on form. Inline 45, students provided the translations for the sentences in a loud voice and it was observed that students were competing with the others who answer first.   It was clear that Zahra was asking for the translation such as in lines 2 and 14. Students used English in their responses in lines 7, 8, and 10. Students (inline 7) responded in English (inline 7), but in single words without focusing on grammatical structure; the student in line 8 took a further step and tried to make two words from the picture, but it was notable that she did not know how to say 'persons' in English so she fills the gap using a code switch between L1 and L2 to deliver her meaning. It is interesting to notice that other students become more engaged (produce a translation of full sentences). Inline 10, one student showed her willingness to read the activity from the coursebook, engaging in the lesson by raising her hand.

The teacher's feedback is demonstrated in lines 6, 11, 16, 19, 26, 39, and 43. This extract indicates that some students knew the meaning of individual English words in Arabic, but they did not know how to use English in speaking for communication. Therefore, Zahra should have focussed on how to use a CLT approach for the learners to use English to communicate meaning rather than to focus on translations.

An alternative pattern of IRF is taken from Esra who was teaching a Year nine class using English at the teacher and student turns. Extract 9 shows the pattern of the teacher's talk in which the teacher-initiated interaction by asking a question (to elicit and check a student's understanding of the grammar (line 1), followed by a student's response (student reading the answer from the information on the whiteboard) (line 2). The interaction ends when the teacher accepts PSTs the student's answer by providing feedback (line 3). This level of interaction is considered the first interaction level (AlZahrani& Al-Bargi, 2017) because the interaction occurred in a regular IRF pattern (initiate/ response/ feedback).

Extract 9 (Observation, Esra, 04/04/2018) (First lesson)
1   T: Ritaj, stand up (.) When we use the present perfect?
2   Ritaj: Before ah we use a past sentence to talk about ah experience in a dif (.)
3   T: different) different time.
3   T: Well done, thank you Ritaj (Observation, Esra, 04/04/2018).

Note: T (Teacher) = Esra

A second level interaction was used by Esra in her class, which involved interaction with the whole class. She scaffolded the grammar form (line 4) for students by asking them to express their knowledge of pronouns that occur with the verb forms 'have' and 'has' (line 5). The students' turn was limited to answering the teacher's question (line 6), followed by another question asked by the teacher (line 7) and responded to by students (line 8). The teacher then provided feedback (line 9) with a follow-up explanation and students' contribution (line 10).

Extract 10 (Observation, Esra, 04/04/2018) (First lesson)

> 1. T: Ok, the form of the present perfect (.) subject plus has or have. So, when we use….
> 2. T: Which pronouns come with has?
> 3. Ss: She and He and It   *(students talking altogether)* 4. T: and when we use to have, which pronouns come with it?
> 5. Ss: they, you, I, we
> 6. T: Excellent, so the statement of present perfect, or the form of the present perfect
> 7. T and Ss: Subject plus have or has plus past participial

Note: T (Teacher) = Esra Ss= more than one student

6.1.3 Skill and system mode

6.1.3.1 *Display questions*

Asking questions is part of teacher talk that occurs during classroom interaction and develops a better learning process (Dianti, 2015). Studies like Tsui (1995) of teacher talk reported that 70% of classroom talk consists of the teacher asking questions, nominating a student to answer the questions. This refers to initiation-response-feedback (IRF). In the analysis of 14 classroom observations, it was found that PSTs used verbal questions as the main talk pattern. A large number of questions were asked to check students' names, check students' understanding, and check the meanings of vocabulary or for clarifications or follow up questions.

In language education, teachers use display questions to elicit language practice. Walsh (2006) claimed that using display questions was appropriate for lower-level classes and intermediate. Display questions are designed to elicit learners' previous knowledge and check learners' grasp of the information. Some display question focus on the form of the language and some focus on the meaning of language structure and items. The teacher already knows the answer to display questions.

From the observations in this study, display questions were mostly used for a purpose related to a particular type or stage of the lessons. Concept-checking questions (CCQ) were used to check the meaning and understanding before practising a language form. It was also observed that display questions, particularly 'what' questions, were overused by all PSTs to ask about students' names, the meaning of special words, pictures, and about the forms of language. Questions were also asked to check learners'

understandings, such as 'Have you understood?', 'Do you understand?', and 'Clear?', as well as checking learners' progress by asking 'Ready?' for 'Have you finished?' Questions were further used for language practices such as asking for volunteers to read the text and give answers. Figure 6.8 shows the differences between teachers' use of display questions and individual differences between the first and second lesson.
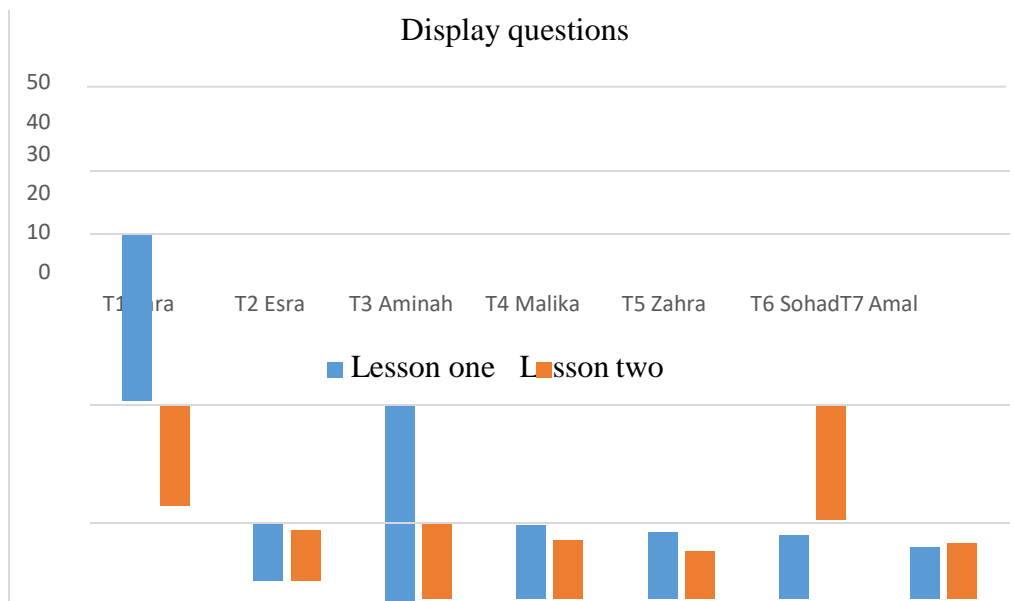
Figure 6.7: Performance of pre-service teachers' use of display questions

As apparent from the graphs above, there is a variation between pre-service teachers' use of display question. It is interesting to note that Sara, Malika and Amal teach the same lesson content to Year seven students but each one had different students. Sara was the teacher who used the most display questions. Display questions were overused in Sara's lesson where she used them to encourage students' attempts to participate and give answers and to make learners understand. However, in Sara's class, the focus was on language accuracy rather than fluency.

Extract 11 (Observation, Sara, 25/03/2018) (First lesson)
1.   T: What is your name? yeah *((mention to the student))* 2.   S: My name is Yusra.
3.   T: What is this? Mention to butterfly
4.   S: but butter…. *((pronunciation difficulties))*
5.   T: Butterfly. S. butterfly again
6.   T: You can … ((*show how to spell b-a-t*)). Ba-tter-fly
7.   S: Ba-tter-fly
8.   T: Butterfly
9.   Ss: Butterfly.

10.	T: Next one what is your name?

11.	S: My name is Nada
12.	T: Nada what's this?
13.	S: Rabbit
14.	T: Next what's your name?
15.	S: ahhh Retaj
16.	T: Retaj
17.	S: Goat

Note: T (Teacher) = Sara   Ss= More than one student

Sara has more than (40%) of display questions in her talk in the first lesson, compared to her second lesson where only (20%) of display questions were used in her talk. In the first lesson, the content was teaching vocabulary about parts of the body and animals' names and to practise asking questions using different verb forms; therefore she asked more questions to check learners' understanding, as she was following more closely the instruction from the teacher's guide book on how to elicit the names of the animals in the pictures and asking questions to check learners' understanding. More examples of Sara's display questions are also presented in the Scaffolding section (6.2.3.2) and extended wait time (6.2.3.5), in the teacher echo section (6.2.3.8) and direct repair section (6.2.3.7). Whereas in Sara's second lesson, where the focus was to practise the use of adverbs, she spent most of the time explaining the rules of using adverbs and sentences structures and focused on the repetition of the opposite words, then she asked display questions about animals.

Extract 12 (Observation, Sara, 26/03/2018) (Second lesson)
1.　　T: Now this one write opposite: Do you know what is opposite? ((display question)
2.　　Ss: عكس *((students are telling each other the meaning of opposite))*
3.　　T: East Ss: west
4.　　T: East　　Ss: East (repeating after teacher)
5.　　T West　　Ss: West (repeating after teacher)
6.　　T: East　　Ss: East (repeating after teacher)
7.　　T West　　Ss: West (repeating after teacher)
8.　　T: So　　Ss: So (everyone laughed, and some said sorry)

Note: T (Teacher) = Sara   Ss= More than one student

Malika used fewer display questions compared to Sara's teaching; the kind of questions asked focused on checking students' understanding. For example, *'Do you know what it means?'* which the learners responded to in their first language (Arabic and Amazigh languages) as shown in Extract 12. Malika did not show any reaction to students' use of the first language, as shown in line 13 when the learners replied in their first language (Amazigh language).

Extract 13 (Observation, Malika, 25/03/2018) (First lesson)
1.   T: What is animal and what is nature? *((teachers specifically asking about the meaning of these two words in Arabic to check students understanding of the meaning))*
2.   Ss: حيوانات والطبيعة _{animal and nature}? *((this reply is in the Arabic language))*
3.   T: Give me the name of animals
4.   S1: Fish
5.   S2: Fish
6.   S3: ابلة نش نش _{me, me teacher} *((this reply is in the Arabic language))*
7.   T: Yeah
8.   S3: Fish monkey tiger elephant ahh
9.   T: Thank you.
10. T: Do you know what it means the part of the body?
11. S: اعضا ا _{body parts} *((this reply is Arabic))*
12. T: Yeah and Do you remember what are these parts of the body?
13. S: هيه تفكر ديسن يا ابلة _{Yes, I remember} *((this reply is in Amazigh language))* 14. T: Yeah tell me what you know.
15. S: Head (teacher: Yeah) neck (T: Yeah SIT DOWN)
16. T: You tell me the part of the body?
17. Ss: Please teacher, me teacher, teacher.
18. S: Arm (T: Yeah) leg (T: Yeah) nick (T: Yeah thank you sit down.)

Note: T (Teacher) = Malika   Ss= More than one student   S1= First selected student S2= Second selected student   S3= Third selected student

The following examples are taken from Amal's lesson; she was doing activities that focus on tenses such as present simple and present continuous tense. She asked questions about the picture in the coursebook activity 6.4, page 48. Amal asked display questions and monitored the students for the correct use of present simple and present continuous tense. However, as shown in Extract 14, Amal also has a lot of grammatical mistakes in her questions.

Extract 14 (Observation, Amal, 27/03/2018) (Second lesson)

1. T: How many camel are in the picture. How many? *((Doing the activities from coursebook))*
2. Ss: [s1: كم العدد How many?
3. S2: Three, S3: three]   4.   T: What are they doing?
5. T: Camels, what are they doing?
6. S: ماذا يفعلون؟ What are they doing?
7. T: Yes
8. Ss: [S1: Drinking (T: yes),
9. S2: Drink water (T: yes)
10. S3: Two camels are drinks water] 11. T: Two camels are drinking water.
12. S: Drinking
13. S4: One camel is eating a plant.
14. T: Ok, what are two men doing?
15. The class bell rings

Note: T (Teacher) = Amal   Ss= More than one student   S1= First selected student S2= Second selected student   S3= Third selected student

Extract 15 (Observation, Malika, 26/03/2018) (Second lesson)

1. T: Tell me the sentence that has "usually"?

2. T. One student tells me a sentence that has "usually"?

3. S1: I usually make a cake.

4. T: Tell me about "often"?

5. S2: "Often" what is often?

6: S3: معناها غالبا it means often

7. S2: Me go shopping often

8. T: "I" not "me"

9. **S2: I go shopping often.**

10. **T: I often go to the shopping.**

Note: T (Teacher) = Malika   S1= First selected student S2= second selected student S3= Third selected student

In Extract 15, in lines 1, 2, and 4, the teacher encouraged students to practise the use of frequency adverbs as a new language focus, in sentences. The teacher did the

exercise and simultaneously managed the class by asking the students, in order, to build a sentence using identified adverbs. The teachers started with a command ('tell me') to increase the thinking and talking time, which is an important part of dialogic teaching

(Swaffield, 2011). Lines 5, 7, and 9 show that learners' extended turns were started by asking for a meaning of an adverb and another student took a turn to give the meaning in Arabic. A student then tried to build a sentence using 'often', and the teacher in turn provided direct repair, as shown in lines 18 and 20, which show evidence that the teacher interrupted the student's turn to provide the correct grammatical structure of using the adverb 'often' in the sentence.

6.1.3.2 *Scaffolding*

Scaffolding refers to the way teacher support is provided for the completion of a task that a learner might not be able to accomplish (Van de Pol, Volman, & Beishuizen, 2010), and the way teachers provide learners with linguistic support to help their selfexpression (Bruner, 1983, 1990, cited in Walsh, 2006). The model of a scaffolding interactional cycle (SIC) (Culican, 2005; Geoghegan, O'Neill, & Petersen, 2013; Rose, 2003) was used in this study to analyse the learning and the interactions in a teacherstudent sequence in a lesson. This model consists of three modes of teacher moves: prepare, identify, and elaborate, where the type of IRE is disrupted (Edwards-Groves, 2013).
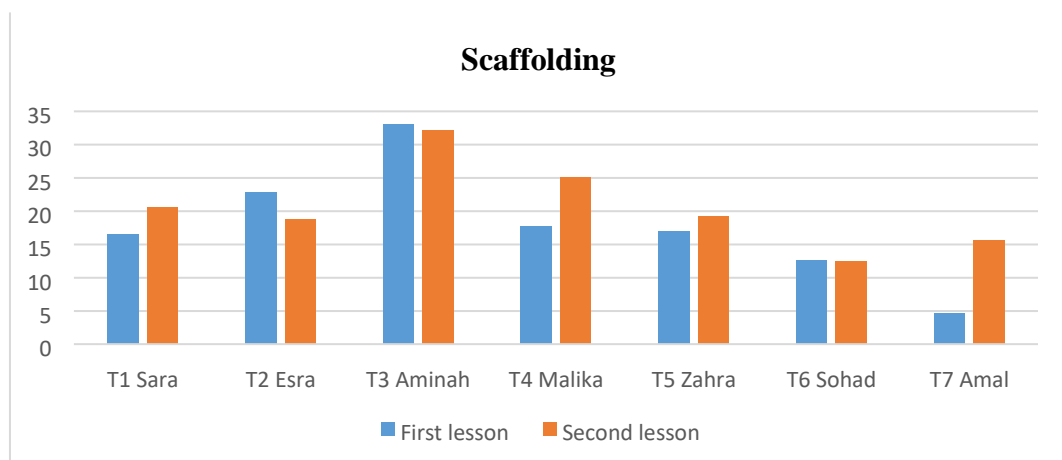
Figure 6.8: Comparison of the seven pre-service teachers' use of scaffolding

The analysis data of pre-service teacher pedagogical practice (see Figure 6.9) shows that Aminah has the highest percentage of use of scaffolding in her teaching in her first and second lessons (32%-33%). Aminah was teaching Year nine students about shapes. She tried to model how to describe shapes to her students. As she thinks aloud, she includes future text for each shape to assist her students in making meaning (Figure 6.10). The analysis of Aminah's talk shows how she was utilising only English to describe and define shapes, and how students used Arabic to guess the meaning of the teacher's talk. It also shows that there were few opportunities for students to use English. However, they only repeat the English after the teacher to practise correct pronunciation.

Extract 16 (Observation, Aminah, 25/03/2018) (First lesson)

1.	T: So, look at a triangle, what does the triangle say? *((Teacher pointing to the textual on the board and pointed to the triangular shape))*
2.	SS: مثلث؟ *Triangular*
3.	T: What does the triangle say?
4.	SS: اربعة اربعة اضلاع *four sides*? تلاتة اضلاع *three sides*?
5.	T: NO
6.	S: اربعة اضلاع *four sides*?
7.	T: YES
8.	T: I have three sides, look, one, two, three sides, and I have three angles one, two, three. ((Counting the angles together with students)
9.	T: Ok
10.	SS: Ok
11.	So, look at what the square say?
12.	Ss: four, اربعة اضلاع *Four sides*
13.	T: Yeah, I have four sides, one, two, three, and four. My opposite sides are equal. Look this side, and this side, and this side and this side are the same. *((illustrating on the triangular shape on the board))*
14.	Ss: كل ضلعين متقابلن متساويين *Every two opposite sides are equals* 15. T: Ok my opposite sides are equal okay? Okay?
16.	Ss: Ok
17.	T: I have four angles, one, two, three, four *((teacher and students reading together))*
18.	So, look, triangle said I have four sides, Yeah and I have four angles:
19.	Ss: اربعة زوايا واربعة اضلاع *Four angles and four sides* **20. T: Say it in English.**
21.	Ss: Four sides and four angles.
22.	T: Okay so look what does the square say:
23.	Ss: مربع *square*
24.	T: I have four sides:
25.	Ss: اربعة اضلاع *four sides*

26.	T: My sides are the same size(students talking)
27.	Listen to me. My sides are same size okay …okay
28.	Ss: Ok
29.	T: I have four angles.
30.	Ss: اربعة اضلاع *four sides*
31.	**T: "I have four angles" in English**
32.	**Ss: I have four angles.**
33.	**T: Okay one, two, three, four** *((teacher and students were reading together))*

Note: T (Teacher) = Aminah   Ss= More than one student
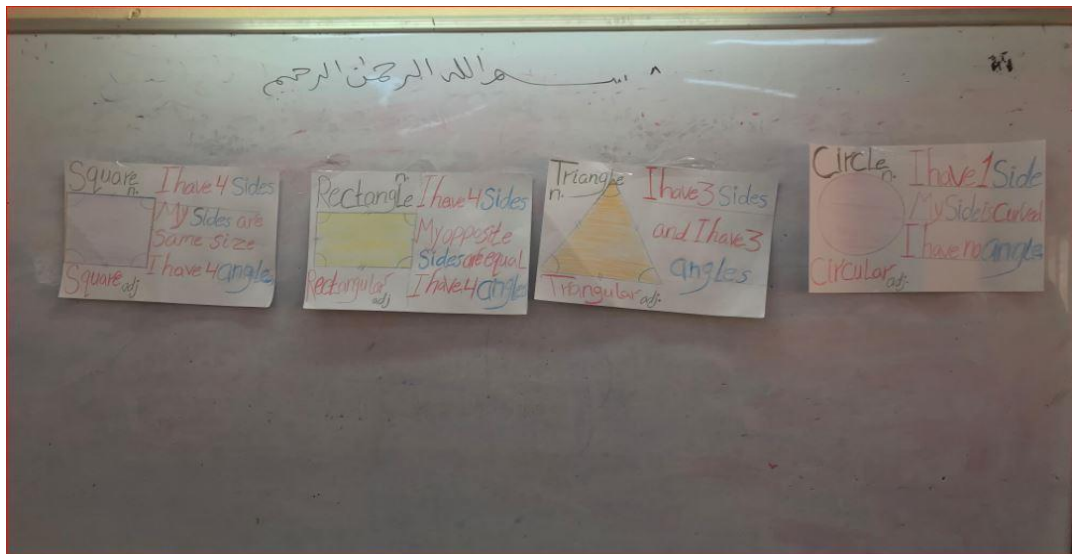
Figure 6.9: Pedagogical artefacts of Aminah teaching the English names of shapes

In this example, it is shown that teacher's turn-taking was based on a three-part Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) sequence of turn-taking (Culican, 2007), whereby the teacher asked or explained to students who were trying to translate the meaning the teacher conveyed as either correct or incorrect. The teacher spent most of the lesson time talking and there was less time for students to think and talk in English because their turns were only to repeat what the teacher said or to give a translation on certain words in the Arabic language. Researchers have called this type of pedagogy a monologic learning environment where the interaction in the classroom is the one-way transmission of knowledge (Edwards-Groves, 2013).

Extract 17 (Observation, Malika, 25/03/2018) (First lesson)

Prepare	1. T: What you have taken in the last lesson? About the part of the body
Prepare	2. T: Do you know what it means "the part of the body"?
Identify	3. S: اعضاء الجسم _{parts of the body}
Affirm… Prepare	4. T: Yeah and do you remember what are these "parts of the body"?
	5. S1: Yes, I remember
Identify	6. T: Yeah, tell me what you know.
Identify	7. S1: Head (T: Yeah) neck (T: Yeah sit down)
Elaborate	8. T: You, _(mentioned to one student) tell me the part of the body?
	9. S2: Please teacher, me teacher, teacher. _(Students raised their hands)
Identify	10. S2: Arm *(Affirm T: Yeah)* leg *(Affirm T: Yeah)* neck
Affirm… Feedback	11: T: Yeah thank you sit down)

Note: T (Teacher) =Malika Ss= More than one student   S= Random student   S1= First selected student S2= Second selected student   S3= Third selected student

Extract 17 is taken from Malika's lesson introduction where she prepared Year seven students by demonstrating the previous knowledge review to engage and motivate them to identify 'the parts of the body'. The teacher illustrated more frequent turn-taking by preparing the students for the task as evidenced in lines 2-7. Malika used the word 'yeah' as content feedback. She also used a confirmation check (inline 6), echo (inline 3), and student echo (inline 5).

Extract 18 shows Year seven students in their English classroom, which was Amal's second lesson of her teaching practice. There were no INSTs or university supervisors present during this lesson.

Extract 18 (Observation, Amal, 25/03/2018) (Second lesson)

1. T: Ok, present simple, for example, "The camel eats a plant". What does it mean? The tense of present simple?

2. Ss: جمع جمع Plural, plural?

3. S1:مضارع البسيط Present simple?

4. T: Look here, the form of present continuous is the camel is a subject plus 'is' auxiliary verb plus main verb plus-*ing*.

5. For the present simple, you add subject I (.) we (.) they or you with the verb and she

6. (.) He or it plus verb and adding s.

7. And here present continuous we add I or you plus are plus-ing

8. The camel is eating a plants, what does it mean? 9. Ss: [ياكل eat يمشي walk

   ياكل eat اه الجمل يجري aha the camel is running]

10. T: In progress 11. Ss:

    ياكل بسرعة eating fast?

12. T: In progress, here the camel eating a plant or example I write. But when I say I am writing, what is it mean?

13. S: يكتب Writing?

14. T: The action in progress

15. S: مازلتي تكتبي you are still writing?

16. T: Yes excellent. The same meaning the camel eating a plant. The camel eat a plant and finished but here, the camel eating a plant, not finish

Note: T (Teacher) = Amal Ss= More than one student S= Random student S1= First selected student S2= Second selected student S3= Third selected student

Extract 18 is another example of scaffolding demonstrated in Amal's lesson. Amal's dialogues show her consistently wanting the learners to be grammatically correct when she is not correcting herself. One example of grammaticality is when Amal was teaching tenses and the students were trying to guess whether it was plural of camel or plural of the plants. They were not communicating accurately together. More interestingly, learners were more communicative than the teacher as they were guessing what words meant and they got the idea of 'present continuous tense' despite the teacher always getting back to explain the grammar.

"And here in present continuous we add 'I' or 'you' plus 'are' plus-ing The camel is eating a plants, what does it mean?
Ss: [ياكل eat يمشي walk ياكل eat

اه الجمل يجري aha the camel is running]"

By looking into learners' use of Arabic, they are using a metalanguage whether they used it rightly or wrongly, students used metalanguage knowledge during the learning process. This is expected because the teacher was teaching grammar.

T: What does it mean? The tense of present simple?

Ss: جمع جمع plural, plural?

S1: مضارع البسيط Present simple?

In addition, the analysis of Amal's talk shows that the construction in English by the teacher has many errors and her modelling is not the way English is spoken and oftentimes, this is an issue of fluency (Walsh, 2011).

A contrasting example of scaffolding was found in Sara's class when she incorporated the use of visual aids to explain the meaning of the vocabulary, so the students could choose the answers. The interaction cycle consisted of the teacher-turns: prepare, identify, and elaborate (Culican, 2007) (with another question).

Extract 19 (Observation, Sara, 25/03/2018)(First lesson)	
Prepare	T: Which animal eat grass? (Teacher looked at her computer to find a picture of grass)
Prepare- affirm	T: So, this is a grass.
Identify	Ss: Grass
Prepare	T: Which animal eat grass?
Identify	S1 [ارنب *rabbit* S2: Goat S3: Horse S4: Elephant]
Elaborate	T: all of these eat grass?
Response	Ss: عشب grass?
Affirm. Prepare	T: In English, all of you say "grass".
Echo	Ss: Grass

Note: T (Teacher) = Sara   Ss= More than one student   S= Random student   S1= First selected student S2= Second selected student   S3= Third selected student

6.1.3.3 *Extended teacher turn*

The interaction level between learners and teachers was limited because learners' levels of English were very low at the primary level. Learners had not used the level of language required for teachers to take turns replying to them, as there was not much conversation in the classes, and the transcripts show that the learners' English was at a

formulaic level. At this stage, learners cannot be creative; they cannot formulate a new type of sentence which is different from what they are learning. Most of the talk was done by PSTs because they were teaching new information.
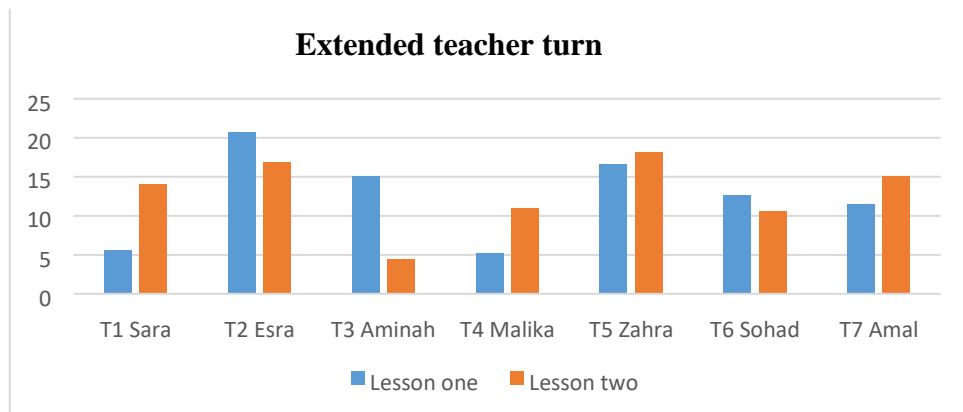
Figure 6.10: Comparison of pre-service teachers' use of extended teacher turn

Figure 6.11 shows that Esra was the teacher who used the highest percentages of extended teacher turn-taking in her classes (20.71%) and (16.83%). There are not many differences in her first and second lessons because she was teaching the same content in both lessons and it was on the same day. This extract also shows that Esra did most of the talk and she was transmitting the information and relied too much on explanations about present tenses.

Extract 20 (Observation, Esra, 04/04/2018) (First lesson)

1. T: So, when we use the present perfect. We use it in a decent time for example, here. "I broke my leg last week". "I broke my leg last year".
2. Ss: ((talking))
3. S1. Past simple
4. T: Yes, past simple
5. T: Why we use past simple not present perfect? Because it is a decent time, this time expression indicates when you broke your leg. Ok, it has time expression. when actual happen, last week
6. S: Last week.
7. T: Yeah so we use past simple, but if we have tiny time expression. Is not known when it happened. Yesterday? Last week? Last month? So we use the present perfect.
8. T: Have you understood?
9. Ss: Yeah
10. T: Look at this example, I've broken my leg. I've broken my leg. So, we use the present perfect. Have + past participle. I've broken my leg. This is past experience in decent time
11. S: Teacher,
12. T: So, when we use past participle we talk about past experience and in decent time.
13. T: When we talk about something happened yesterday or last week. What we will use? What do we use?
14. S1: Past simple
15. T: Yes. Past simple.
16. S2: Teacher should we write these.
17. T: Ok write them in your notebook.

Note: T (Teacher) = Esra Ss= More than one student   S1= First selected student S2= Second selected student   S3= Third selected student

In this example, Sohad was explaining the forms of 'Has' and 'Have' and giving examples to students in English. The teacher took the most turns and she used mostly English language. The Arabic language was used only when students had difficulties in understanding. Sohad also had many grammatical errors in her talk as it shown in Extract 21.

Extract 21 (Observation, Sohad, 26/03/2018) (First lesson)

1. T: Malika has got a watch.
2. S: عندها ساعة انها لها She has a watch, it's her
3. T: Malika has got a watch.
4. T: I have a watch.
5. Ok, today I will teach you the verb 'have'. Have like has. Have like has in the meaning.
6. Just in the meaning.
7. S: يعني بمعني يمتلك It means own
8. T: But it has a rule. It come with pronouns "I" 9.   T: تعرفو شن معناها برونونس

   do you know what pronouns is means?

10. Short form of I've = I have, I haven't = I have not (Teacher wrote on the board)
11. I have always come to the pronoun "I", "we", "you", "they". Have always come to these four pronouns.
12. T: Do you understand?
13. Ss: Yes teacher.
14. S: فهمغش يا ابلة Teacher, I do not understand
15. T; I just explained, you understand 'have' comes with 'I', 'we', 'you' and 'they'
16. Ss: *((talking))* لم نفهم   we do not understand.
17. T: عندك اف تجي مع الضمائر هدي بس هاز تجي مع ضمائر تانية لانه third person.
18. *((Code-switching between first second and third language, this strategy used by the teacher to make information transformation easier))*
19. T: Like "I have" "you have" "we have" "they have". Ah "she has" "he has" "it has".
20. T: He has got a new book. Has coming from third person but have coming with 'I'.
21. T: I have a Bag. You have a bag. We all have bags. *((Teacher was explaining have and has and providing some examples)).*
22. T: Ok, I've, repeat it after me "I've"
23. Ss: I've
24. T: I've
25. Ss: I've
26. T: I have
27. Ss: I have
28. T: I haven't
29. Ss: I haven't

Note: T (Teacher) = Sohad   Ss= More than one student   S= Random student

Another example of extended teacher turn-taking was found in Zahra's second lesson (18%) of her talk, where she was scaffolding the learners' knowledge of

countable and uncountable nouns. Zahra relied on a whole class group discussion using questioning techniques. In this example, students seemed to be more active and responded to the teacher's questions and they were trying to negotiate the meaning in lines 11-13.

Extract 22 (Observation, Zahra, 27/3/2018) (Second lesson)
1.   T: I will give you some words ok and you will tell me countable or uncountable okay'
2.   People, people. What about mountain
3.   Ss: No
4.   T: Why?
5.   Ss: ….
6.   T: What about tree?
7.   Ss: Count count 8.   T: Supermarket? 9.   Ss: Can
10.   T: What about store?
11.   S1: قطة Cat
12.   S2: كتاب Book
13.   S3: طريق Road
14.   T: It is a small shop.
15.   Ss: محل Store
16.   T: Can we count the store? 17. Ss: We can
18.   T: What is the plural of store?
19.   S1: Stores
20.   T: Yeah, what about cinema?
21.   Ss: Yeah can, one cinema, two cinemas, and three cinemas.
22.   T: So, this   we call it countable "nouns"
23.   S: تستطيع عدها Can count it

Note: T (Teacher) = Zahra Ss= More than one student   S= Random student   S1= First selected student S2= Second selected student   S3= Third selected student

6.1.3.4 *Extended learner turn*

The observation data showed that PSTs had provided an opportunity for students to have a second turn, as in Figure 6.12, which shows that all the PSTs used this feature and have different levels of control in students' turn demonstrations.
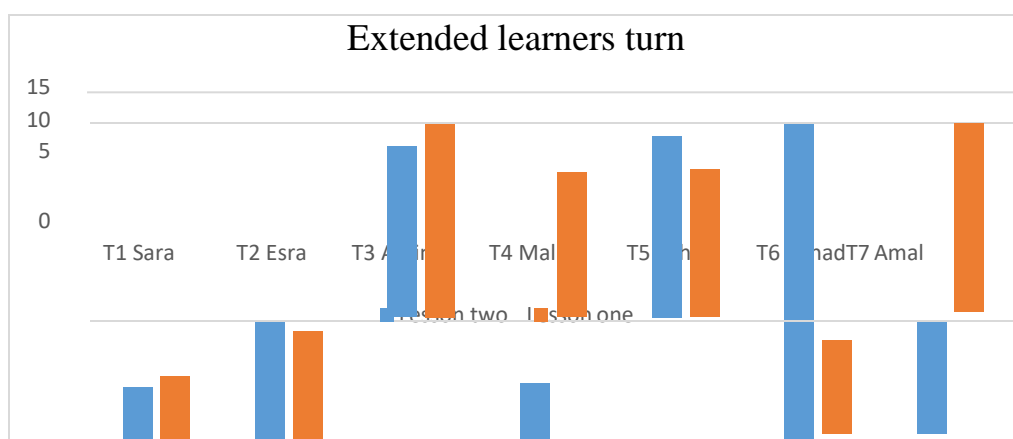
Figure 6.11: Performance of pre-service teachers' use of extended learners turn

In some situations, pre-service teachers' control was minimal while in other situations it was extensive. For example, in Malika's class, there was no control when students did not understand or did not know the answer.

Extract 23 (Observation, Malika, 26/03/2018) (Second lesson)
1. T: **S**o, what about "never"**?**
2. Ss: أبدا _{Never}
3. S5: Me teacher
4. T: Yeah
5. S5: أبدا _{Never}
6. T: Tell me a sentence.
7. Ss: قولي جملة _{Say a sentence}
8. S5: منعرفش _{I do not know} 9. T: Come on.
10. S5: They never at school. They school never. (لا احب المدرسة ما معناها _{I do not like the school how to say it}
11. T: You could say: "They never go to school". It comes like that
12. S5: Yes,هي هدي _{this is it}
13. T: Tell me a sentence about "never"
14. S6: I play never football?
15. T: I what? Raise your voice, please
16. S6: I …
17. T: I never…
18. S6: I never football... Play football
19. T: Yes, thank you.

Note: T (Teacher) = Malika Ss= More than one student   S= Random student   S1= First selected student S2= Second selected student   S3= Third selected student

One interaction exchange started when the teacher asked a student to make a sentence (inline 6), whereas other students took turns (in lines 7 and 8) to provide a

translation of the adverb, which made the task easier for some students. Student S5 volunteered to answer, and she repeated what the meaning in Arabic was, which indicated that this student had not understood what the teacher wanted her to do. The teacher's turn was here used to control student demonstration when the student did not understand and did not know the answer (lines 9 to11). The interaction ended when the teacher provided the correct form (recast), and the student repeated the correct form.

The third student's turn (in lines 13-19) showed that the teacher chose another student and asked her to make a sentence using 'never'. During those turns, the student made a sentence using a verb and adverb in the wrong order, so during the teacher's turn, she echoed, and the student had a chance to say the sentence again in the correct order. However, the teacher did not provide 'wait time' for this student, and instead interrupted her by providing a corrective technique which promoted learner selfcorrection "I never". Turn completion happens in this extract, with the teacher interrupting in relation to S6 not being allowed to complete the full sentence with the adverb placed correctly. Malika used clarification and confirmation checks, but they were not used effectively.

Most of the PSTs did the talk themselves and did not provide enough opportunities for learners to participate in the discussion. Teachers should be able to facilitate classroom talk and interaction in the classroom. Kasper and Wagner (2011) argued that "language acquisition can be understood as learning to participate in mundane as well as institutional everyday social environment" (p. 117). In the following example, the teacher Aminah was asking about the point from reading and answering, learners only gave the meaning of a particular word. Two students were reading an exercise from the book about 'Road work sign in the road'. This result could not be explained as Year nine students were unable to engage in the English conversation because their English level was not sufficient to allow them to talk or because the teacher did not use suitable strategies to encourage them to speak. Had she provided a structure and the sentences, they would have been able to use them in their discussion.

Extract 24 (Observation, Aminah, 25/03/2018) (Second lesson)

1. T: Yes, next
2. S1: Ah "let's take the other road" *((reading dialogue from the book p. 46)).*
3. T: Yeah, why?
4. S2: "Why? This way's quicker" *((reading from the book)).*
5. S1: "But look! There are roadworks. If we go this way, we'll get stuck in the traffic" *(reading dialogue from the book p. 46).*
6. T: Which sign is talking about? Which one? What does it mean road work? 7. Ss: اعمال اعمال work, work
8. T: Yeah because there are roadworks here we expect delay so if we go this way, we'll get
9. 9. Stuck in the traffic. Clear, because there is work in the street, ok and there are a lot of
10. Traffic, so you will get stuck in the traffic.
1. T: Ok clear
2. Ss: Clear

Note: T (Teacher) = Aminah Ss= More than one student   S1= First selected student S2= Second selected student   S3= Third selected student

6.1.3.5 *Extended wait time*

Extended 'wait time' is a feature whereby the teacher should provide more time for learners to respond and to increase opportunities for learning and interactional space. This is done by increasing the waiting time after questioning, and eliciting learners' contributions to activities, and facilitating extended learners' turns. According to Walsh (2006), "teachers need to manage the interaction in such a way that extended wait-time is built into the dialogue" (p. 122).
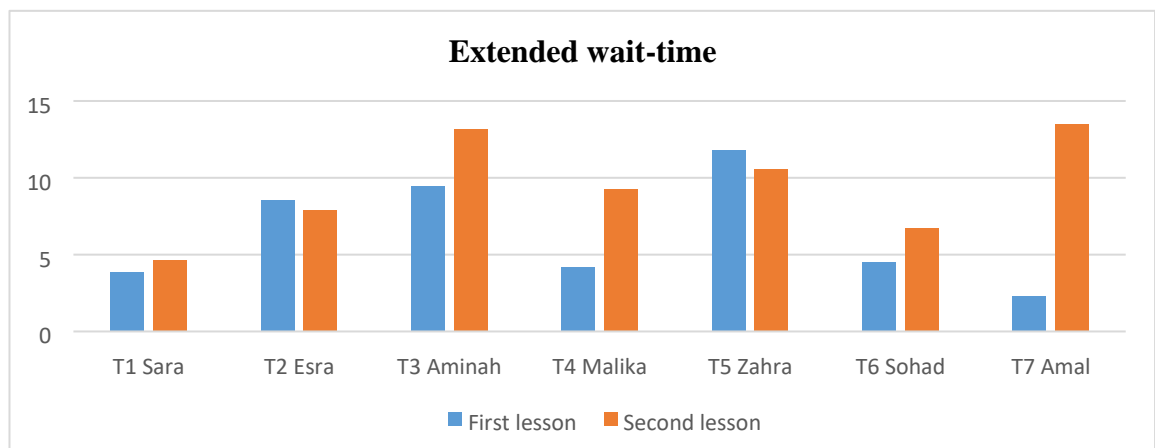
Figure 6.12: Comparison of pre-service teachers' use of extended wait-time

It was noted in Figure 6.13 that some of the PSTs did not provide extended wait time for students to provide answers or to contribute to their learning opportunities. For example, Sara deliberately did not allow response time or for learners to take extended turns. In the extract below, interaction features used include displayed questions and echoing. However, waiting time was used by way of modelling the language (in which the learners' choral repetition was required) when the teacher said the word and waited for the students to repeat the words to practise pronunciation. For example, Sara showed a picture of a cheetah and asked the students to name this animal; some students said it was a tiger, and some said it was a cheetah, and this made them talk to each other to negotiate which was the correct name and to share knowledge. However, the teacher immediately asked them to stop talking and provided the correct answer. In this extract, the teacher scaffolded new information using pictures to compare 'tiger' to 'cheetah', using display questions. The following example showed that the teacher controlled both classroom content and structure of classroom communication.

Extract 25, (Observation, Sara, 25/03/2018) (First lesson)
1. T: What is this?   2. Ss. Tiger…. Ss talking   cheetah *((students correcting to each other))*   3. T: Stop talking… Cheetah   4. Ss: Cheetah *((with noise))*   5. T: Altogether, "Cheetah"   6. Ss: Cheetah *((Repeated two or three times))*   7. T: Spell Cheetah c-h-e-e-t-a-h
8.   T. Cheetah ……. Cheetah has got a black spot. What cheetah has got?   9.   Ss. Black spots   10. T. Tiger. What tiger got? Tiger got black stripes.   11. T: It calls stripes. Tiger has got a black stripe. 12. T: What cheetah has got   13.   Ss: Black spots.   14.   T: What tiger has got?   15.   Ss. Stripes   16.   T: Stripes   17.   Ss: Stripes *((repeated five times))*   18.   T: What fastest animal, Cheetah or tiger? The fastest animal, that can run very fast.   19.   Ss: Talking (4 seconds) Cheetah

Note: T (Teacher) = Sara Ss= More than one student

6.1.3.6 Content feedback

Feedback is one of the most significant tools in learning and achievement; it is provided in response to learners' performance and understanding (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). The type of feedback can take a positive or negative form. The analysis of data found that many of the pre-service teachers (e.g., Zahra) used terms such as 'Yeah' and 'Ok' to confirm that students' answers are correct and to continue or complete the task they do. "Items such as 'yeah' and 'mm' 'ok' perform an acknowledgment function in a conversation" (Paltridge, 2012, p. 119). Furthermore, the finding also demonstrated that PSTs Aminah, Sara, Esra, and Malika paid attention to provide students with positive feedback: 'Well done', 'Excellent', 'Correct' and 'Thank you'.
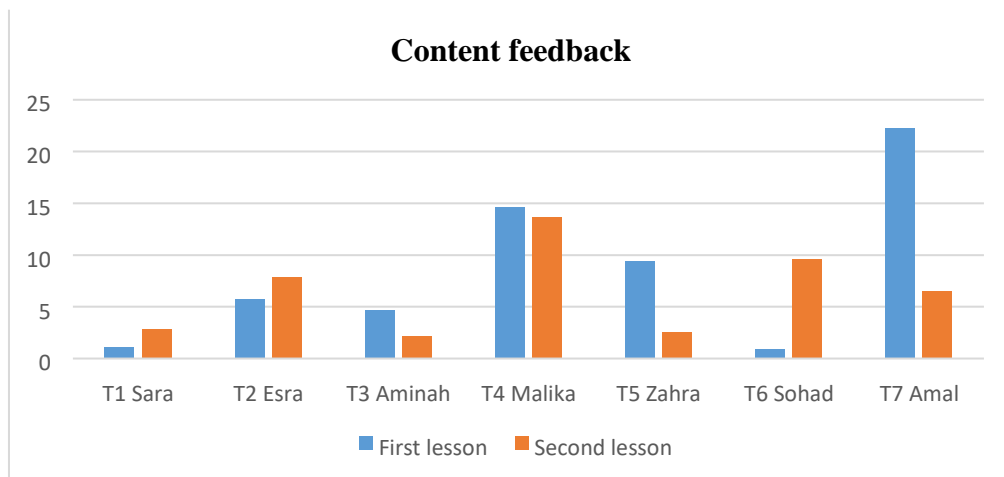
Figure 6.13: Comparison of pre-service teachers' use of content feedback

Extracts 26, 27, 28, 29 and 30	Description
T: Number 5, "you can ride them". S1: Horse! T: Yes, horse and? S2: Camel T: Yes, thank you T: Write quickly, number 6: "They sometimes eat paper". S: Goat T: Excellent T: Number 7, "They eat fruit and nuts" S: Monkey T: Yes, monkeys **(Observation, Amal, 25/03/2018)(First lesson)**	Amal provided content feedback in different ways and terms such as, "Yes", "Yeah", "Ok", "No", "Thank you", "Excellent".

T: I have four equal sides (look at your game) four equal sides (I have explained everything on the board) and four angles. Handel is black. Ss: Square T: **Yes, correct** (clapped with all students). T: A shape has a curved side, the shape has a curved side and has no angles. Ss: Circle T: A shape has three sides, and inside the shape, there is a shape of four sides.	Aminah used game cards for describing shapes, referring students to instructions and signposts. Feedback is used in term with scaffolding. She described each shape, and students' teams predicted the shape name. Feedback was used to confirm the correct answer.

Yeah, yeah, correct. **(Observation, Aminah, 25/03/2018) (First lesson)**	
T: What is your name? S. My name is Omaima T. Omima, what is this Omima? S. Tiger T. Tiger, **well done**. **(Observation, Sara, 25/03/2018) (First lesson).**	In Sara's lessons, content feedback was used to confirm students' correct answers using display questions about animals' names. Sara asked for each student name and then asked about the animal name.

T: Ok, the form of the present perfect (.) subject plus has or have. So, when we use…. Which pronouns come with has? Ss: "She" and "He" and "It" (students together talking) T: And when we use "have", which pronouns come with it? Ss: They (.) you (.) I (.) we T: **Excellent**, so the statement of present perfect, or the form of the present perfect T: Snd Ss: subject + have or has + past participial **(Observation, Esra, 04/04/2018(First lesson).**	One can ascertain from this extract that the teacher's main concern was to elicit students' responses on grammatical knowledge, using display question which is associated with the content feedback
S: Me me: fish monkey tiger elephant ahh T: Thank you S2: Tiger, snake, elephant, fish, monkey, cheetah, giraffe T: Yes thank you set down. T: mentioned to another student and say "and you" S3: Monkey, animal (some students told this student that animal means the name of حيوانات do not count it with the names) Fish, monkey, elephant. T: Yeah, thank you, sit down **(Observation, Malika, 26/03/2018) (First lesson)).**	Malika used the 'thanks to you' phrase as positive feedback to confirm that students answered correctly.

6.1.3.7 *Direct repair*

The term 'repair' refers to "the way speakers correct things they or someone else has said, and check what they have understood in a conversation" (Paltridge, 2012, p. 119). That is, direct repair or error correction is made by self-correction or from others' repair. Four types of error correction were observed during talk analysis of the preservice teachers' classes. Firstly, it is common for English teachers to use direct repair in teaching the form of the language. Usually, in English classes, the teacher spends time correcting learners' mistakes directly (direct repair), or indirectly by recasting. The second type of error correction is made in the form of peer-corrections, whereby learners correct each other when they hear mistakes. The third observed direct repair was teachers' self-correction; some teacher recognised their error in their utterance and tried to self-correct their errors. The fourth observed error was learners' self-correction. The graphs below show the differences between teachers' use of direct repair and the individual differences in their first and second lesson.
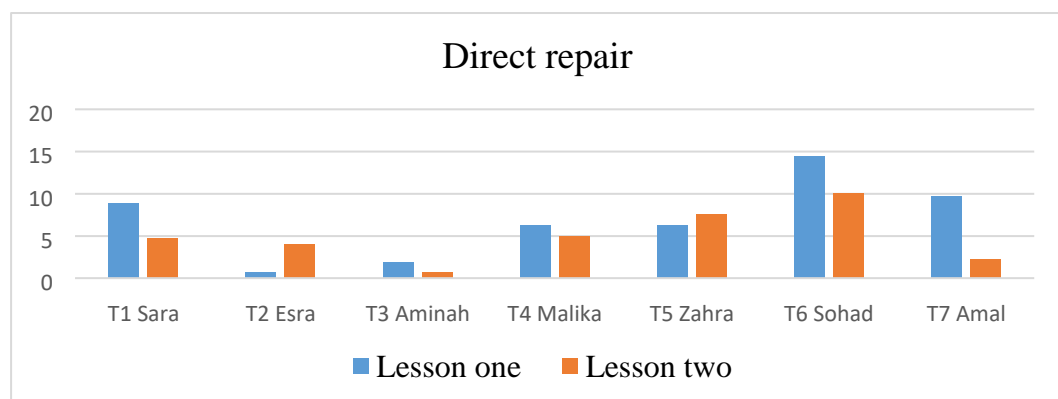
Figure 6.14: Comparison of pre-service teachers' use of direct repair

The following extracts – Extracts 31-35 from pre-service teachers' classes show an instance of direct repair. Mistakes affect students' self-esteem and their ability to communicate, and teachers should teach their learners how to realise the mistakes they have made. However, PSTs in many cases interrupt learners during their reading to correct their mistakes. Therefore, this reveals that PSTs focused on explicit attention to language form and provided direct feedback, which means that they supported language

accuracy, not fluency. One recommended strategy for teachers is to use elicitation that prompts learners for self-correction.

From Figure 6.15 it can be seen that Sohad used direct repair most frequently in her first lesson (15%) and 10% in her second lesson; two extracts are given as an example to show how she corrected her students. In the first lesson, she recasts the student contribution and implicit repair. In the second example from the second lesson, the correction comes from the students themselves. When the teacher asked about one student's name, she only provided an isolated name, then other students interrupted her and said, "My name is...", and that student repeated the full correct sentences. Sohad reaction was just saying "be careful", "be careful".

Extract 31 (Observation, Sohad 25/03/2018) (First lesson)	Extract 32 (Observation, Sohad, 28/03/2018) (Second lesson)
T: What is an auxiliary verb? T: ماهو الفعل الدي اخداه عن النيقاتف والسؤال What is the verb that we took on the question and negative S2: making a question تكوين سؤال S1: سؤال "You have" and "you has" T: It has (direct repair)	T: Asked one student: what is your name? S1: Aya Ss: "My name is" ... *((peer correction on grammar form))* S1: My name is Aya T: Be careful, be careful.

Ss= More than one student   S= Random student   S1= First selected student S2= Second selected student   S3= Third selected student

Extract 33 (Observation, Esra, 04/04/2018) (Second lesson)
1.　　S3: She has bo…rnt
2.　　T: Burnt her hand
3.　　T: Say it again
4.　　Ss: عاوديها *repeat it*
5.　　S3: She is
6.　　T: She has……
7.　　S3: She has burnt her hand
8.　　T: What is the tense of this sentence?
9.　　S3: Number 5 *((answering the activities from the coursebook))*
10.　　T: Ok excellent 5, what tense? Present perfect? 11. S3: Present perfect
12. T: Yeah excellent.

Note: T (Teacher) = Esra Ss= More than one student   S= Random student   S1= First selected student S2= Second selected student   S3= Third selected student

In Extract 33, the interaction was between the teacher and one student; the teacher asked the student to read the sentence and say what tense that sentence was. It is evident from this extract that the teacher used direct repair by correcting the students' mispronunciation and grammar mistakes, asking display questions, and giving content

feedback. However, the teacher did not give students the time to answer what tense it was, as is clear from the last three lines 10-12, where the teacher asked and answered herself, followed by the student echoing the answer. It was also observed that students were translating the meaning to each other. In this extract, students translated the meaning of 'say it again' in (Line 3) for their classmate to help her understand what the teacher was asking. This cooperation between students was observed in many classes.

Extract 34 (Observation, *Zahra*, 27/3/2018) (Second lesson)
1.   S5: The surroundings (T: surrounding) aren't very nice. I don't agree (T: don't agree) with that. Out town has beautiful (T: beautiful) buildings and (T: and parks) parks _(reading from the book).
2.   T: So, what is the point of the discussion here? Surrounding
3.   S: [(*students overlap talking, unclear wording*)]
4.   T: Yeah and
5.   S: وانه جميل جدا it is so beautiful
6.   T: Yeah
7.   T: Our town has beautiful buildings and parks
8.   S: المباني والمنتزهات الجميلة beautiful buildings and parks
9.   **T: Yeah have you heard? Have you heard the conversation? Have you heard?**
10.   Ss: Yeah
11.   **T: So, I do not agree…**
12.   S6: I do not agree with you. I think the countryside is more beautiful _(reading from the book)
13.   **T: So, he do not agree with this opinion**
14.   S: اعتقد ان المدينة اكتر جمالا I think the countryside is more beautiful
15.   T: Thank you

Note: T= Zahra Teacher Ss= More than one student S= Random student S1= First selected student S2= Second selected student S3= Third selected student

In Extract 34, the interaction is about a conversation between pairs of people in the coursebook; the teacher asked two pairs of students to read the opinion and then she discussed the differences between the countryside and their town with the whole class using agree and disagree. There were several classroom interaction features, such as direct repair. Teacher Zahra was correcting students' mispronunciations as they read the conversation. The teacher further monitored the discussions and listened to the phrases students used to give their opinions. However, the teacher also tried to open a discussion amongst students who were translating the texts into Arabic for understanding. Zahra echoed the grammar model to show the learners forms of giving opinions, such as 'I do not agree'.

Sara has explicitly corrected learners' mistakes both pronunciations mistakes (in the first lesson as she focused on teaching the pronunciation of animals' names) and grammar mistakes in her second lesson, as she was teaching the use of adverbs and sentence structure.

Extract 35 (Observation, Sara, 27/03/2018) (Second lesson)
1.   T: Which animals we can ride?
2.   S1: Horse
3.   S2: Camel
4.   T: Yes, Horse and camel. Well done. Horse and Camel *((writing the answers on the board and students were coping in their workbook))*
5.   T: Which animal can eat paper?
6.   Ss: Goat
7.   S: Monkey
8.   T: T: well done, So Goat and Monkey ((writing the answers on the board and students were coping in their workbook))
9.   T: They usually live or sleep in the jungle, do you know what is jungle?
10. Ss: Yes
11. T: What else?
12. Ss: Snakes and monkey
13. T: Not monkey! It is plural Monkeys.

Note: T (Teacher) = Sara Ss= More than one student   S1= First selected student S2= Second selected, student

In Extract 35, it shows that Sara used different pedagogical features in her talk, starting with display questions on doing activities and also, she used to display questions whenever she found new vocabulary as a way of checking learners' understanding. The use of echoing also showed in Extract 27, the purpose of repeating the words because she wanted all the students in the class to hear the answers. Sara gives complimentary feedback every time they answer correctly. At line 12, the teacher was scaffolding and extending learners turn. Sara corrected learners' use of language by raising their awareness of metalanguage knowledge.

6.1.3.8 *Teacher echo*

Teacher echo means teacher repeats what students have said or repeats a learner's contribution (Lindstromberg, 1988). The use of repetitions by echoing a learner's

contribution ensures that other students in the classroom can recover what teachers say and do not get lost (Breen, 1998; Walsh, 2013). Teacher echoing was found in many cases of pre-service teachers' talk as shown in Figure 6.16. It was noticed that teacher echo was not effective because learners did not have turns in English, as they were talking in Arabic.
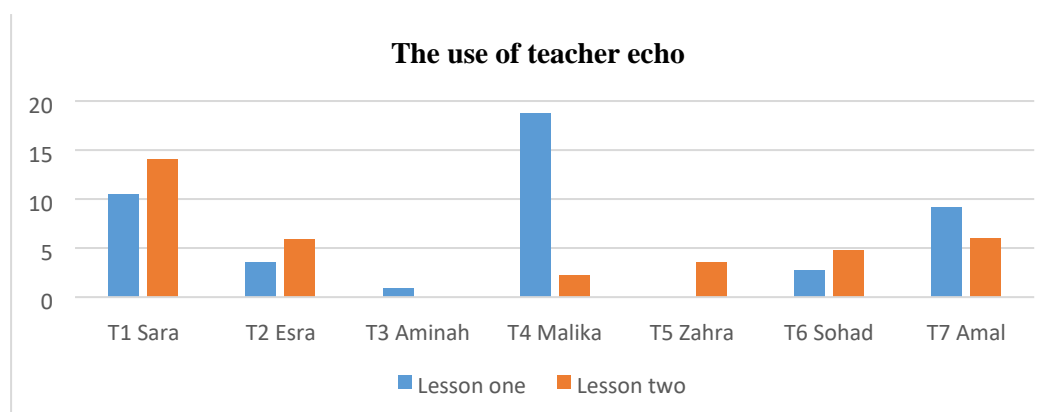
Figure 6.15: Comparison of pre-service teachers' use of teacher echo

Teachers used echo when they asked about students' names, and the only effective teacher echo was found in Extract 36 when the teacher reinforced new correct vocabulary.

Extract 36 (Observation, Sara, 25/03/2018) (First lesson)
T Next, what is your name? S My name is Tasneem   T. Tasneem. What is this? S. Head T. Head. Head so it is head .it is head (repeated)

Note: T (Teacher) = Sara S= Random student   S1= First selected student S2= Second selected student   S3= Third selected student

A second example of where teacher echo was noticed was in Zahra's last lesson when she asked the students to provide word examples of countable nouns and uncountable nouns. Students made a lot of mistakes in their contributions and Zahra controlled this through explaining and waiting time. Extract 37 shows teacher echo inline 2, where she repeats the correct answer and gives feedback to a student, and also in the last line where she repeats the student's correct answers.

Extract 37 (Observation, Zahra, 27/3/2018) (First lesson)

1. S1: There are a lot of people
2. T: Yeah that is right. Thank you
3. S2: There are a lot of mountain
4. T: Uncountable noun
5. S2 Ah there are a lot of traffic
6. S3: There are a lot of car in the traffic
7. T: A lot of traffic yeah or plenty of traffic, lots of traffic

Note: T (Teacher) = Zahra S1= First selected student S2= Second selected student   S3= Third selected student

6.1.3.9 *Referential question*

The aim of referential questions is "to invite students to share ideas during the lesson" (Dianti, 2015, p. 32). There was only a small proportion of referential questions used by teachers over all the lessons. The highest number was found in Sohad's first lesson which represented only 6.06% (an example is shown in extract 38). There are not many differences in using referential questions in Esra's first and second lessons. Aminah used them in the second lesson more than her first lesson and this was opposite to Zahra and Amal, who used referential questions in the second lesson more than in their first lesson; whereas Sara did not use referential questions in her first lesson because her use of display question was much higher.
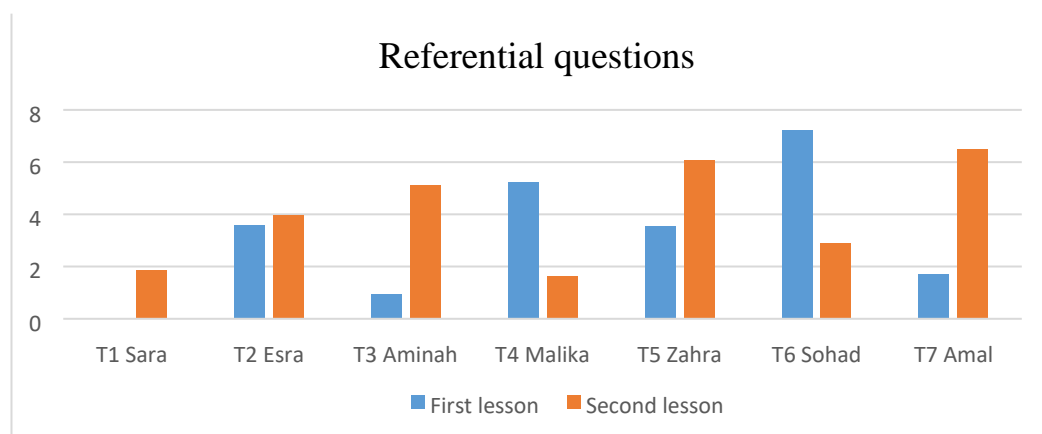
Figure 6.16: Comparison of pre-service teachers' use of referential questions

Extract 38 (Observation, Sohad, 26/03/2018) (First lesson)

T: "Has" always comes with three pronouns "she" "he" and "it".

T: "It" what's mean?

T: "It" used for what?

T: تستخدم لشني؟

S: الاشياء الغير عاقلة Irrational things

T: Like?

T: مثل Like?

SS: [S1 Video

S2: Motorbike

S3 ساعةwatch] T:

He?

Ss: للاشياء عاقلة for sensible things

T: And she?

Ss: للاشياء عاقلة for sensible things

T: Who can give me example?

   S: He is

   T: NO. NO. He has.

Note: T (Teacher) = Sohad Ss= More than one student   S= Random student

Figure 6.17 shows that Sohad has the highest percentages of referential questions (7.21%) in her first lesson when analysing her lesson closely. It was found that she was struggling with asking a question in full grammatical structure, and she followed each question with a translation to simplify her meaning. She used referential questions when asking the students to make sentences. The interactional analysis showed that students' answers focused on the meaning and the teacher was focused on teaching grammar.

However, referential questions require longer responses than display questions. In Zahra's lesson, she used referential questions about (6%) in her second lesson which doubled to her first lesson (3%). In this extract, Zahra was asking referential questions to check the student's understanding of countable or uncountable nouns. However, the student was unable to answer so the teacher completed the turn and gave her the answer.

Extract 39 (Observation, *Zahra*, 27/3/2018) (Second lesson)

1   Ss: Please teacher, please teacher (with had
raised)
2   S6: There is too much rubbish in my street 3 T:
Why do you choose much?
4   Ss: لماذا اخترتي much why do you choose much?
5   T: Because it is an uncountable noun, ok next

Note: T= Zahra Teacher Ss= More than one student   S= Random student   S1=
First selected student S2= Second selected student   S3= Third selected student

The example can be seen in the next transcription (Extract 40) where the teacher
was aiming to teach the present perfect tense and she asked one student to manipulate
the grammar point; the teacher asked 'How do you know' to encourage the student to
provide a more extended teacher turn and extended student turn and to spend sufficient
time on clarifying and practising the new knowledge. Content feedback was also
provided as shown in this extract.

Note: T= Esra Teacher Ss= More than one student   S= Random student   S1= First selected

Extract 40 (Observation, Esra, 04/04/2018) (First lesson)

---

1. T: You, *(mentioned to a student S1).* She has cut her finger. What is the tense of this sentence? *((Display question))* 2. Ss: [S2: past. S3: present simple]
3. S1: Present perfect.
4. T: How do you know? *((referential questions,))*
5. S1: Because …. have plus present tense *((extended learner turn))*
6. T: Yeah, we have the form of present tense. Have and verb yeah. So, give me a negative form? *((teacher extended turn))*
7. S1: She cut her finger *((extended learner turns))*
8. T: Negative, negative
9. S1: She hasn't cut her finger
10. T: Yes excellent *((content feedback))*
11. S2: لا no
12. T: Yeah correct *((content feedback))*
13. T: You can also use never in your sentence. Add never *((scaffolding))*
14. S: She has never cut her finger
15. T: Excellent, so we put sentences with 'never' between 'auxiliary verb' and the 'main verb'. Between has or have and past participle. Never come here without not. *((content feedback, teacher extended turn, scaffolding))*
16. T: Okay, set down thank you. *((content feedback))*

---

student S2= Second selected student   S3= Third selected student.

The teacher allocated each student a turn to answer the question because she noticed that students were not focusing on what the teacher was saying and she, therefore, asked the student to see if she had understood the information. Other students were answering the teacher's questions. The teacher asked another referential question about the perception of knowledge ('How do you know?') to develop thinking skills, encourage discussion, and stimulate new ideas to continue the interaction, as can be seen in line 4 where she provides choices to continue or discontinue the interaction. In this extract, there were six interactional features: display questions, referential questions, scaffolding, content feedback, student extended turn, and teacher extended turn.

6.1.3.10 *Seeking clarification*

Seeking clarification is when "teachers ask for modifications to learners' speech" (Walsh, 2006, p. 13). The teacher asks the learners to clarify something they have said. In this study, it was found that teachers did not carry out any clarification requests and confirmation check from the students. The only observed clarification was on

comprehension check in on many occasions which required the students to express the meaning in the Arabic language. However, it was observed that students also were seeking clarification from their teachers. Figure 6.18 compares the use of 'seeking clarification' feature amongst the PSTs.
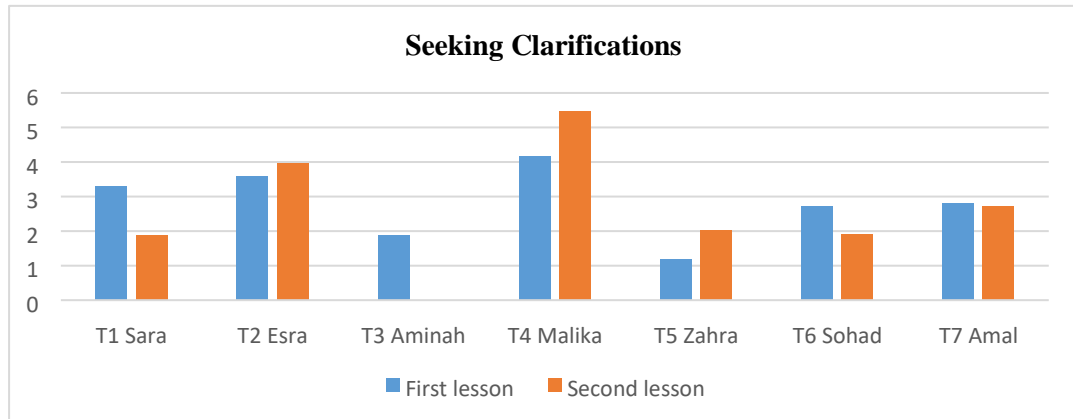
Figure 6.17: Comparison of pre-service teachers' use of seeking clarifications

In the following extracts (Extracts 39 and 40) show how examples from two preservice teachers' responses to the student were asking for clarification.

Extract 41 (Observation, Aminah, 25/03/2018) (First lesson)
1.   T: How can **we form** from adjective to a noun?
2.   Ss: not understand….
3.   T: Circle is from a form adjective is as ular to become circular, it will become circ-u-lar
4.   T: Clear….
5.   T: Circular
6.   Ss Circular
7.   T: Circular
8.   Ss: Circular
9.   T: Make adjective by adding ular
10. T: So, triangle it will become triangular.
11. Ss: Triangular
12. T: Triangular
13. Ss: Triangular
14. T: Rectangle will add ular to become rectangular so to change the noun to an adjective you will add ular.
15. T: Clear
16. Ss: Yes
17. **S: What about square?**

> 18. T: For square, it will stay the same, noun and adjective we do not add anything
> 19. S: Why teacher?
> 20. T: Square ok it just stays the same

Note: T (Teacher) =Aminah   Ss= more than one student   S= random student

In this example, Aminah explained the differences between adjective and noun using the shape names, and she changed the form of shapes from a noun to adjective. One student asked for clarifications of what is the adjective of the noun 'square' and then asked why it remains the same in both noun and adjective, but the teacher answered with a simple answer at line 20, "*T: Square? Ok it just stays the same*", as it is not changed.

Another example of a student seeking clarification showed in Amal's first-class talk, when Amal was saying the animals' names and one student was repeating after her, then another student interrupted the interaction on the word 'Elephant' and asked why 'ph' is pronounced 'F'.

Extract 42 (Observation, Amal, 25/03/2018) (First lesson)
1. T: Last one: ah elephant
2. T: Elephant
3. Areej: Elephant
4. S: ف هم ننطقوهم حا اماتا عفوا ابلة excuse me, teacher, what is the differences between f and ph
5. T: P and H sound f like elephant *((teacher writes on the board))* ph we pronounce it like f

Note: T (Teacher) = Amal   S= Random student

6.1.3.11 *Form-focus feedback*

The results of the transcripts showed that form-focused feedback occurs when teachers give grammatical feedback on pronunciation errors. This kind of feedback was found in some PSTs' talk on several occasions. Form focused-feedback was not used much by the pre-service teachers; the highest percentage was (6.31%) by Sohad followed by Zahra (4.55%).
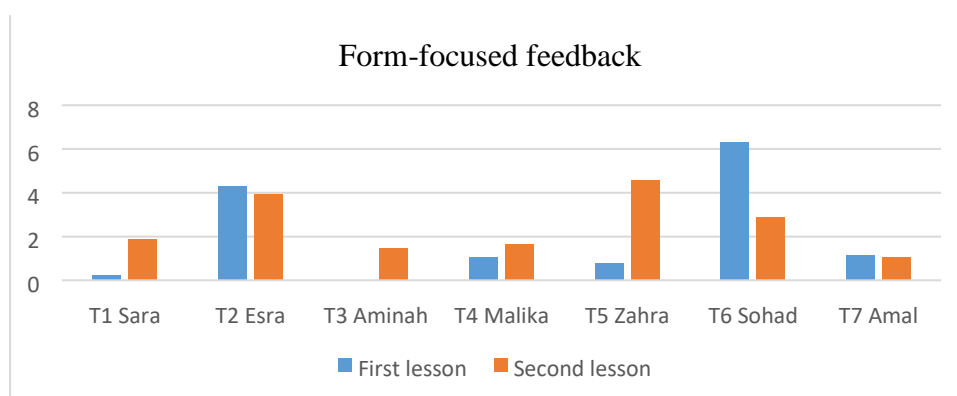
Figure 6.18: Comparison of pre-service teachers' use of form-focused feedback

In Extract 43, Sohad was trying to teach the students about how to change the sentences to question form and negative forms using verbs (have and has). Extract 43 shows that Sohad had difficulties in transmitting the information to students. She switched from English to Arabic to give instructions (lines 2 and 4). Inline 3, students translated the sentences into Arabic and the teacher responded, giving feedback on the form (line 4).

Extract 43 (Observation, Sohad, 26/03/2018) (First lesson)
1. T: Ok look at the first sentences. In your book see the first sentences. Look in your book, look in your book.
2. T: شوفو للجملة الاولي عن شن تتحدث look at the first sentence, what it says?
3. Ss: هل لديك ساعة (Do you have a watch)?
4. T: No, هو مش سؤال (it is not a question) *((Form-focused feedback))*
5. S: تكون to be
6. T: Malak has got a watch.
7. S: عندها ساعة انها لها she has a watch, it is her
8. T: Malak has got a watch.
9. T: I have a watch.

Note: T= Sohad Teacher Ss= More than one student   S= Randomly selected

Zahra used form-content feedback in her second lesson more than her first lesson (see Extract 43). In Extract 44, the form-focused feedback used by Zahra was on the correct use of the verb to be. It is interesting to note that when one student asked for the meaning of a word 'interesting', Zahra did not provide the answer directly, but she made all the class involved to share their knowledge as shown inline 6, students were giving

the translations of the word. This strategy develops thinking skills and allows the teacher to determine how much a class understands.

Extract 44 (Observation, Zahra, 27/3/2018) (First lesson)
1. T: If countable or uncountable just add enough, Ok And here, Ritaj you need to add much because 'much' and 'many' and 'enough'
2. S: شن معناها الكلمة هدي ؟ What does this word (interesting) means?
3. T: Family entertainment or interesting. What is the meaning of interesting?
4. S: Ah (no answer)
5. T: What is the meaning of interesting? ((teacher asked the whole class))
6. Ss: ممتع ممتع استمتاع enjoy, interesting, interesting
7. T: Yeah, and here, you need to use **verb are with many for countable and uncountable noun**. *((Form-focused feedback))*
8. T: Have you understood?
9. S: Yes

Note: T (Teacher) = Zahra Ss= More than one student   S1= First selected student S2= Second selected student

In comparison, the feedback that Esra gave (see Extract 45) was about using never in the question form. It seems that she became confused between 'never' and 'ever' because she was asking about the sentence structure of using a question and one student volunteered to give the form, as shown in (line 5). However, in Line 7, she provided examples of using question forms with and without using ever. Sara was focusing too much on the form of the language and gave too many explanations instead of providing opportunities for students to make sentences and practice talking using these forms. Therefore, teachers need to raise their awareness of these issues.

Extract 45 (Observation, Esra, 04/04/2018 (Second lesson)
1. T: Stand up. stand you and come her *((mentioned to one student to move to a different place because she was talking with a partner))* quickly, quickly
2. T: So, the form of negative we put not after have and has yeah. Okay, you also can use the form never I have never broken my leg. So, this is the form or negative of present perfect. Clear
3. Ss: Yeah clear. clear
4. T: What about the question?
5. Ss: Have plus subject plus never
6. **T: It is optional. You can form the structure of use never ((Form-focused feedback))**
7. Look at this example: have you broken your leg? Is ok and Have you ever broken your leg? also is ok

8. T: Clear?
9. S: Again.
10. T: So, the question form of present perfect. We start our sentence with have + subject yeah pronoun
11. Have you cut your finger?
12. S1: No
13. S2: Have you ever cut your finger?
14. T: Yeah excellent

Note: T (Teacher) = Esra Ss= More than one student   S1= First selected student S2= Second selected student.

In Amal's lesson (see Extract 46), she corrected grammar forms and focused on metalanguage. In her second lesson, the aim was to engage the students' contribution to learning to change the sentence from present simple to present continuous.

Extract 46 (Observation, Amal, 27/03/2018) (Second lesson)
1.   T: Who can give us an example?   **((***Teacher gives an example of subject, and verb for student and asked the student to change it in present continuous***))**
2.   Ss: [unclear words] *((talking with each other))*
3.   T: Please be quiet
4.   S: Huda are standing
5.   T: Why are, are for plural but Huda is singular, so Huda is standing *((formfocused feedback))*
6.   T: Please be quiet, be quiet
7.   T: Verb plus…

Note: T (Teacher) = Amal Ss= More than one student   S= Random student

6.1.3.12 *Teacher interruption*

Teacher interruption showed mostly whenever the students failed to pronounce a word accurately line 6, Extract 45). After the teacher corrects the pronunciation, she asked for the meaning of the main messages in the texts.
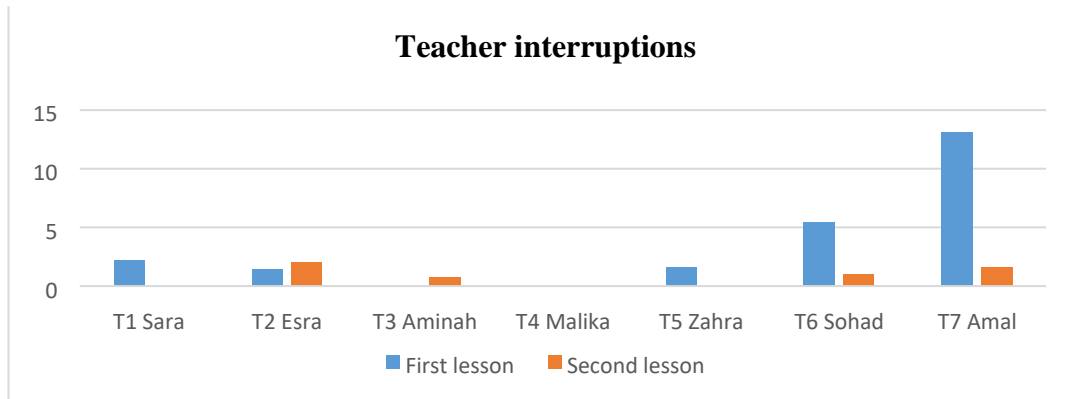
Figure 6.19: Comparison of pre-service teachers' use of teacher interruptions

As shown in Figure 6.20, the pre-service teacher rarely interrupted the students. Teacher interruption only showed in Amal's lesson when she interrupted students' pronunciations of animals' names to correct them, about (13.14%).

Extract 47 (Observation, Amal, 25/03/2018) (First lesson)
1.   T: Do not pronouns r, butterfly
2.   Areej: Butterfly
3.   T: Butterfly
4.   Retaj: butterfly (T: butterfly) butterfly Rabbit goat horse cheetah elephant
5.   T: Good
6.   T: Yeah
7.   S: Butt (T: butterfly) butterfly, ah Rabbit (T: yeah) Bah got (T: goat) ah house (T: not house, Horse) cheetah (yeah last word) elephant

Note: T (Teacher) = Sohad S= Random

Extract 48 (Observation, Zahra, 27/3/2018)(First lesson)
1.   T: The last one
2.   S: Yes teacher
3.   T: Yeah stand up
4.   S7: (5 seconds)
5.   Ss: يلا start
6.   S7: "It's difficult to make friends. I don't agree (T: I do not agree) with that (T: with that). You can (2 seconds) (T: join) join (2 seconds) (T: sport club) sports club and (T: meet lots of people) meet lots of people (T: again, meet lots of people) meet lots of people" *(Reading dialogue from the book p. 47)*

> 7. S8: "Yes, I think people are friendly in the countryside". *(Reading dialogue from the book p. 47)*
> 8. T: So, the meaning here?
> 9. S: aha [انه من الصعب]it is difficult to
> 10. T: Do you agree with this point? That in the town, you can join sport club and meet lots of people.
> 11. Ss: Yes

Note: T (Teacher) = Zahra Ss= More than one student   S= Random student   S1= First selected student S2= Second selected student   S3= Third selected student

6.1.3.13 *Turn completion*

Turn completion happens in EFL classroom when teachers fill in the gaps and advance the discussion (Walsh, 2006, 2011). There are a small number of turn completions observed in the pre-service teachers' classes, as shown in Figure 6.21. Some teachers completed the tasks for students in their first and second lesson, and some of them used the feature only in one lesson.
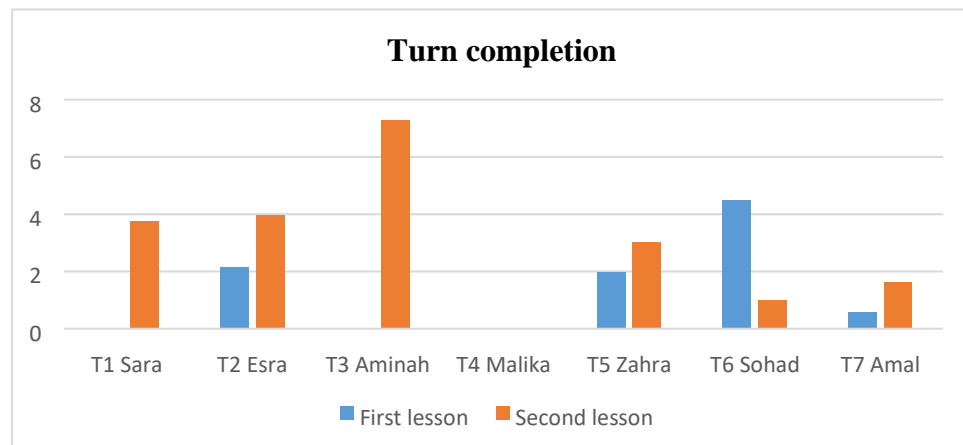
Figure 6.20: Comparison of pre-service teachers' use of turn completion.

The graph in Figure 6.21 shows that Aminah used turn completion many times as she was giving the answers and completing the student tasks in aiming to complete the lesson on time.

Extract 49 (Observation, Aminah, 25/03/2018) (Second lesson)
1. T: Ok, and next please, two, two, come stand her, please
2. T: So, they will read the conversation, we will, I want you to decide which word is missing, Ok? So, each conversation talks about one of these signs.

> While they are reading you need to decide which sign, they are talking about. Ok? Start, please
> 3. S1: Let's try and walk across the lake. *((reading dialogue from the book))*
> 4. S2: No, way, look at the sign. If the ice break, all your close will get wet and mum will get crazy *((reading dialogue from the book))*.
> 5. T: Ok, which sign they are talking about? *((asked the whole class))*
> 6. Ss: Aah this one, get wet. Get wet
> 7. T: About the sign, which sign they are talking about?
> 8. S: Aha, sign four *((she meant picture number four in the book which shows the sign))*
> 9. T: The second one, you have to read and decide which sign ok? So this sign will get wet why get wet because the ice will break and you will get wet, ok? ok*? ((teacher completed the turn as she provided the correct answer and give them more explanations))* 10. Ss: Ok

Note: T (Teacher) = Aminah Ss= more than one student   S1= First selected student S2= second selected, student

In Extract 49, Aminah chose two students to read the activity from the course-book and asked them to decide which signs of the pictures in the workbook are being talked about. However, the students kept making mistakes; therefore, she completed the task by providing them with the correct answer and demonstrated more explanation for the next question.

In Sohad's class, she was explaining the grammar rules to Year six students. When she asked the students about the pronouns that come with 'has' and 'have', students were unable to answer correctly. Therefore, Sohad felt that she asked a grammatically wrong question. So, she stopped the students inline 4 and repeated the question inline 5 (see Extract 50).

Extract 50 (Observation, Sohad, 26/03/2018) (First lesson)
1. T:تجي مع شني has (has come with what?)
2. T: Has come with pronounce three, what is these pronounce?
3. Ss: Got. It go got got
4. T: Me me just me
5. T: Has comes with three pronounce, what is these pronounce? Self-repair in asking question
6. S: Got
7. T: No, no I said pronounce not verb
8. S: It (Yeah) he (Yeah) is (no no 'is' is an auxiliary verb)

Note: T (Teacher) = Sohad Ss= More than one student   S1= First selected student S2= second selected, student

Turn completion was found in Amal's first lesson when doing speaking activities (see Extract 51). This activity was designed as a listening activity and the aim was to elicit what animal is being spoken about from the students, then the students were required to practise the conversation in pairs. However, the cassette was not available. Therefore, Amal used the activity as a speaking activity; she chose two students to read the conversation. Inline 11, she echoed the answer form 'It isn't' for students to draw their attention to the answer. She then asked the sentence means inline 14, which made the students concentrate on translating the meaning in Arabic. Inline 20, the teacher continued to ask questions about the animal and the students were still focusing on the translation, which resulted in completing the task where require she asked and answered at the same time. This activity aimed to provide an opportunity for students to practise asking and answering the questions about an animal and she put the students in pairs to try the task using other animals. But Amal kept working with the whole class and did not use any pair work for practising asking and answering. From this observation, Amal's teaching was controlled practice and the way she asked questions made the student translate the meaning into Arabic.

Extract 51 (Observation, Amal, 25/03/2018) (First lesson)
1.   T: Ok so in the coursebook practise the conversation between Ahmed and Omar.
2.   T: Stand up (mentioned to one student) 3. S1: Has it got four legs?
4.   S2: Yes, it has
5.   S1: Has it got big ears?
6.   S2: Yes, it has 7. S1: Can it run?
8. S2: Yes, it can 9.
S1: Is it a rabbit?
10.   S2: No, it isn't
11.   T: (it isn't)
12.   S1: Is it an elephant …?
13.   S2: Yes, it is.
14.   T: So, what does it mean has it got four legs? 15. S1: هل عندها اربعة ارجل does it have four legs?
16. T: Yes, thank you set down
17. T: Has it go big ears?
18. Ss [] S1: هل تملك اذن كبيرة؟ Does it have a big ears

19.   T: Yes ….
20.   T: Can it run? Can it run?
21.   Ss: ؟ هل يمكنها الجري Can it run
22.   T: It is a rabbit? 23. S:ارنب هل هي Is it a rabbit?
24. T: Is it an animal? Is it an animal?
25. T: Yes, it is

Note: T (Teacher) = Amal Ss= more than one student   S= random student   S1= First selected student S2= second selected student   S3= Third selected student

6.1.4 Classroom context mode

In classroom context mode, as shown in Table 6.3 presented at the first section of this chapter, the pedagogical goal was to enable students to express themselves clearly, to establish a context, and to promote dialogue and discussion. Interactional features are supposed to include extended student turns, the short teacher turns, minimal repair, content feedback, referential questions, and scaffolding and clarification requests (Walsh 2003, 2006). However, these features were not used to meet the purpose of classroom context mode. Instead, other modes can be seen whereby teachers did not allow any interactional space in English nor did they focus on oral fluency. Their teaching was only one way: English was used by teachers but not by students.

Malika attempted to involve the students in conversation in activity 6.2B from the Year six coursebook. This activity required the teacher to play a cassette for the students to listen to and then practise the conversation. However, because the teacher did not have a cassette, extract 52 shows that the teacher instead used it as a speaking activity by involving students in role-play, but not all students got a chance to make conversation. It could be claimed that this strategy is reading aloud rather than speaking in dialogue. The teacher gave students five minutes to work in pairs and do this activity. Figure 6.22 shows activity 6.2B from the Year six coursebook.
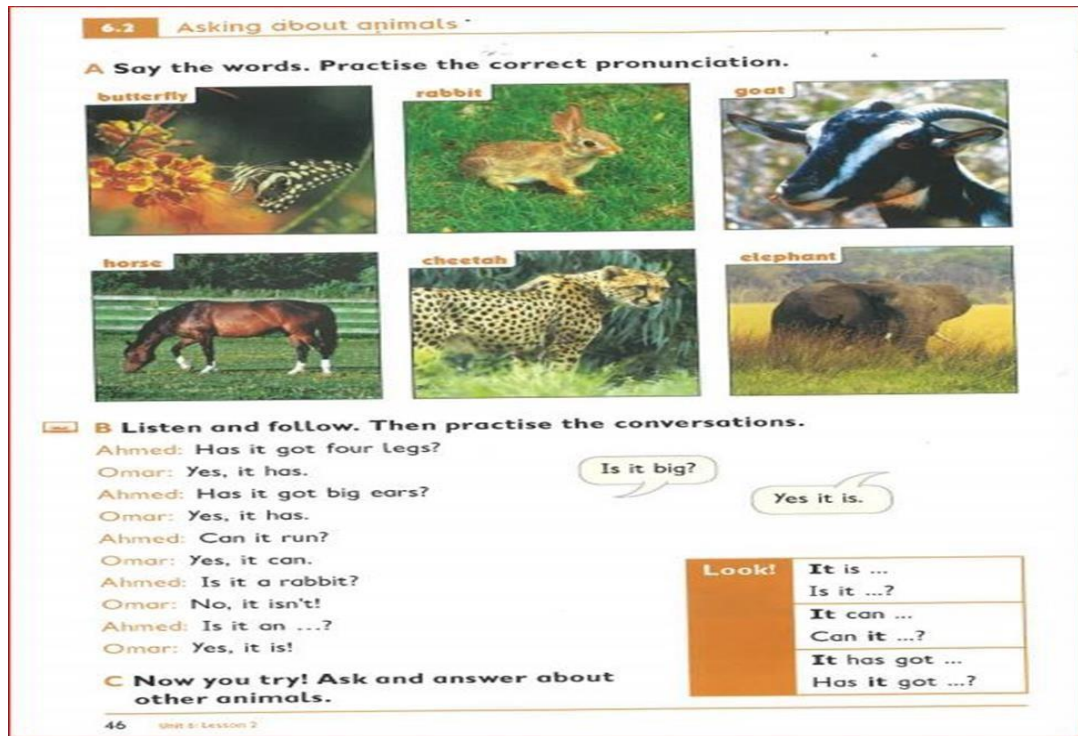
Figure 6.21: Pedagogical artefact: Activity 6.2B from the Year six coursebook (p. 46)

Extract 52 (Observation, Amal, 25/03/2018)
1.   S1: Has it got four legs? *((reading from the coursebook))* 2.   S2: Yes, it has ((*Teacher choose another pair*)) 3.   S1: Has it got big ears?
4.   S2: Yes, it has.
5.   T: Yeah ((*mentioned to other pair*))
6.   S1: Can it run
7.   S2: Yes, it can
8.   T: Yes next (another pair)
9.   S1: Is it a rabbit?
10.   S2: No, it isn't
11.   S1: Is it an elephant (Another pair)
12.   S2: YES, it is

Note: T (Teacher) = Amal S1= First selected student S2= second selected student   S3= Third selected student

Extract 52 provided evidence that PSTs were mentoring the class to do reading activities. This activity was supposed to be part of listening activities, but the teacher chose some student pairs to read aloud in front of the class. As a result, the teacher did not get Year six students fully involved in a communicative activity. The macro skills

of listening and speaking were ignored. The teacher paid more attention to completing all the planned activities in the lesson time.

6.2.4.1 Teaching pronunciation

Drills are one of the traditional language teaching techniques used in foreign language classrooms that have focused on the accuracy of language. Teaching pronunciation aims to get the learners to pronounce accurately enough to be easy for others to understand (Ur, 1996). One of the principles of the audio-lingual method of language teaching is to focus on repeating structural patterns through oral practice. Repetition drill is still used in Libyan schools by English teachers to practise the structure of language and new vocabulary items, through hearing words and saying words and sounds. Repetition of drills was one of the observed techniques used by PSTs in their teaching methods to teach new vocabulary, and practise phonetics. Pre-service teachers conducted drills chorally, with the whole class repeating as well as individuals.

The findings showed that PSTs (Sara, Amal and Sohad) used control practices such as repetition, drill and imitation in teaching pronunciation and practising the new words in the lessons. Sohad asked her students to imitate her pronunciation to practise contraction words such as 'have' and 'has'. Sohad asked the students to repeat after her many times the use of 'I have' and 'I've'.

6.2.4.2 Teaching vocabulary

Some of the pre-service teachers' lesson objectives were to present new vocabulary. For example, two PSTs (Sara and Amal) were assigned to teach Year seven classes, to teach 'Unit 6' about 'Animal and natures'. In the teacher's guidebook, the learning objectives for the lesson were as follows: "present vocabulary for 'parts of the body'; review and cover a lexical set of animals; read and listen to short descriptions of animals; practice describing animals; language focusing on 'have got' and 'can' for ability" (Quintana, O'Neill, & McGarry, 2012, p. 48). The pedagogical practice guide in the teacher book clearly shows how to elicit names of parts of the body by pointing to them and looking for their words in English. The sample from the guidebook is presented in Figure 6.23. Students individually wrote the words and matched them to the pictures. The teacher Sara monitored for correct spelling and understanding of the

words, providing feedback to the class in the process. This included teaching new vocabulary using flashcards to reinforce the written form. The teacher's book suggested using pictures from the coursebook and suggested that students could brainstorm in groups before feeding back to the whole class.

Figure 6.22: Pedagogical artefact: Sample from the guidebook.

Section summary

In this chapter, teachers' talk has been analysed using four classroom modes: Managerial mode, Material mode, Skill and system mode and Classroom context mode. It was found that teachers' talk dominated classroom talk. There are signs of the use of scaffolding and the sequence of turns taken by PSTs. However, the opportunities for learners to talk in English was minimal, with a focus on students translating teachers' talk into Arabic to understand the message, instead of practising language use in meaningful ways. As a consequence of the role of the teacher in leading the lesson using

English and the type of questions asked, students, focused on translation and therefore their opportunities to perform in the target language were limited. It was found that the classes of PSTs were teacher-dominated classrooms, which were characterised by the teacher speaking most of the time, and leading activities; it was further noticed that teachers were focused on students' accurate use of English of language rather than on fluency, but on many occasions, the teachers' use of English was not accurate either. In addition, many of PSTs used mechanical repetitions and lengthy monologues among the seven PSTs, which highlights strong evidence of being a grammar-translation method.

6.2 Data Triangulation – Survey, Observation, Interview and Teacher Guidebook

This section of the chapter presents the triangulation of the results to explore the associations between pre-service teachers' beliefs and their teaching practices. Data gathered from lesson plans, teacher guide-book, classroom observation and interviews with each PST in this phase of the research were analysed using constant comparative analysis. Data triangulation aims to explore *what factors might shape Libyan pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards implementing CLT*. The significant emergent factors that could shape the PSTs' beliefs and practices of CLT are reported in this section. By using thematic analyses in analysing the interviews data, factors are constructed under emergent themes as follows:

It was noted that pre-service teachers faced many challenges through their teaching practice, which limited their desired teaching practices. Interview questions designed about classroom observation data needed these PSTs to justify their beliefs and attitudes on their choice of teaching in a particular way and identify the issues that need to be improved in schools and university level. The following section reports the results of the interviews with PSTs and similarly compares their beliefs with evidence of their practice. The results allowed a comparison between what they said were their beliefs and what they practised during the teaching of their class lessons.

Participants

The same participants from the observation phase were supposed to be interviewed straight after the classroom observations. However, the PSTs were preparing their thesis projects and preparing for their last exams. The researcher also had to travel back to Australia at that time. Therefore, the recall interview was not able to be conducted on the research site. After the researcher returned to Australia, some time passed before she was able to try to contact the participants, such that only 4 out of the 7 PSTs replied. The four PSTs who replied were interviewed through Viber and Facebook messenger.

Table 6.5: *Pre-service teachers' participants in interviews*

Participants	Age	Gender	
Sara	18-22	Female	Libya
Zahra	18-22	Female	Libya
Esra	18-22	Female	Libya
Sohad	18-22	Female	Libya

Table 6.6: *Themes related to factors that shape Libyan PST EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards using implementing CLT*

Themes
English language proficiency.
The use of L1 versus L2
Implementation of group-work/pair work activities.
Lack of speaking and listening classes at the university level: • Pre-service teachers ignored teaching speaking and listening activities. • Students' low English level.
The use of teaching methods and the implementation of CLT
Parental influences on pre-service teachers decision making

Suggestion to improve teaching practicum.

6.2.1 English language proficiency

This section describes the English proficiency level of teacher participants as it has an important role in using English to communicate. The measure of the teacher English proficiency level used in the survey was the participants' self-estimated score. Statistics on the English language proficiency itemised in the survey indicated that the PSTs had confidentially rated themselves as good in listening, speaking and reading, but they felt they encountered problems in writing.

Pre-service teachers were eager to develop their English proficiency during their learning program. From interviews, some PSTs stated that they were keen to improve their English level, so they participated in paid English courses and they found it effective in their proficiency and language performance.

Participants identified difficulties experienced as students relating to the development of their speaking and listening skills at university. The participants manifested a shortage of training in English speaking and listening skills at university, and they felt unhappy with the number of oral classes each week This indicates that the teachers at a university setting focused on the way of teaching and learning English is to master its grammatical structure but not forcing on developing students' communicative ability.

> *As English students, the imbalance in lectures that focus in the conversation and speaking skills, we had only one lesson a week which is not enough for us as 17 students in the classroom to get a chance to develop our speaking skills. It is useless in learning grammar rules without using them in the conversation's classes.* (Pre-service Teacher 1, Sara).

Sara was one of the preservice teachers who was certified with high English proficiency. She believed that learning grammar rules would help the learners to become a good speaker if they do not practise in real conversation. However, in her classroom teaching, she used the audiolingual method, where she focused on repetitions of vocabulary and teaching grammar rules. Most of the questions she asked were display

questions and she did not ask referential questions. The language she used was from the textbook, but she also showed her ability to use appropriate English to elicit responses from the students to explain more words.

Also, Esra suggested that the university should invite native speakers, so they could get a chance to communicate with them.

> *I would suggest having social English day, university need to invite native speakers on that day, so we have a chance to speak and practise the English language, and therefore our communicative competence will be improved.* (Pre-service Teacher 4, Esra)

The pre-service teachers continued to identify the areas of language learning that they need support in, particularly their speaking and listening skills. Participants suggested that the university can provide facilities for them to meet English native speakers. This could involve using the internet and social networking through Zoom or video conferences to give them actual communicative practices with a real native speaker. Esra suggested that the university should provide adequate classes for listening skill for students to practise and develop their abilities. Not only are additional classes needed, but there seemed to be a lack of resources to support listening skills. In addition, computer-assisted language learning does not seem to cooperate with the Libyan system yet:

> *Listening skill is another aspect that we need support to develop our abilities to listen to. Like speaking skill, only one lesson a week provided to use for listening in addition to computer lap that needs a lot of conservations, therefore our marks in always listening low.* (Pre-service Teacher 4, Esra)

Esra and Aminah also were certified with high English proficiency by their university teachers. Esra was aware of the problems they were facing in learning and teaching at university. In her teaching context, she was trying to integrate language skills in her lessons, as she provided authentic teaching aids such as listening to native speakers using present perfect. The classroom observation revealed that Esra was

confident in using English, and she showed a sign to encourage the students to extend their turns. However, Esra used lengthy explanations and instructions. The way she asked for the meaning of new words led the students to respond in the Arabic language.

Aminah showed her ability to use appropriate English to introduce her lesson content and to elicit students' responses. She tried to use interactive activities such as group work activities many times but the students were unfamiliar with these activities. She spent most of the class time in giving instructions and explanations of the lesson content. There was little evidence that she was aware of the need to teach appropriate communication skills because she did not show any intention to encourage students to extent turns, instead she used a lot of display questions and asking for the meaning for vocabulary and grammar rules and translation.

The other pre-service teachers (Malika, Zahra, Amal, and Sohad) were less proficient in English than Sara, Esra and Aminah. The way they used English in their classroom confirmed this. They used English from a textbook, and they showed problems in the English they used, especially when they asked questions and when they were eliciting students' responses. They terminated short turns by echoing utterance. These PSTs used repetitions of new words and they were concentrating on teaching grammar rules and translation. There is not any student-student interaction in English. There was little evidence that the PSTs were aware of the need to teach English for appropriate communication skills. It could be argued that the inability of PSTs to use their English effectively to create learning opportunities and make interactive classroom meant that there was limited evidence of how they encouraged the students to use English to learn it; instead, their lengthy explanations suggested that the PSTs' English proficiency did not always translate into effective classroom teaching. These results coincided with the result of Canh and Renandya (2017) who argued that "teachers' general language proficiency seems to play an important role in providing good models of language use to the students" (p. 78).

In the literature of EFL and ESL, teachers' command of spoken English has been found to have influences on teaching dimensions. These dimensions are stated as follows:

> A teacher with a poor or hesitant command of spoken English will have difficulty with essential classroom teaching procedure … A teacher without the requisite language skills will crucially lack authority and selfconfidence in the classroom, and this will affect all aspects of his or her performance. (Cullen, 2002. p. 220)

It was observed that pre-service teachers were speaking English fluently but not accurately as they had errors in their spoken English and this could influence the learning process. Previous studies such as Nel and Müller (2010) argued that "student teachers' limited English proficiency affected their learners' acquisition of English as a second language negatively … teachers' English language errors were transferred to learners" (p. 644).

6.2.2 The use of L1 versus L2

Using English as a classroom language is challenging for pre-service teachers who are trained to speak only English at university. Full English delivery cannot be achieved in teaching beginner learners who do not know the language. The result suggested that PSTs do not hold a strong belief about using English, only during their teaching practicum. However, data indicated that some PSTs (Malika, Sara and Aminah) claimed that using English with teaching aids will help learners understand the language and make them want further exposure to the language. Before their teaching practicum, other PSTs (Amal, Sohad and Zahra) reflected on their concern about using English only, as they believed that they needed to use both languages (Arabic and English) with beginner learners. However, their supervisors have a strong influence on their teaching practices.

As reported in the observations chapter, it was found that most of the PSTs used English only during their classes for introducing new topics, new vocabulary, and grammar forms and explaining activities or giving directions about classroom tasks. When students did not understand what had been said or asked for clarification, the preservice teachers tried to explain in other words and avoiding the use of Arabic.

Some pre-service teachers used Arabic in situations where students had difficulties in understanding the message. For example, Malika used Arabic to explain questions in the workbook activity after several attempts with an English explanation; she felt that the students did not understand, even when they said 'yes' when she asked

them if they understood the question. But when she asked in Arabic if the students understood, they said 'no', thus showing their lack of comprehension of spoken English.

Extract 53 (Observation, Malika, 25/03/2018) (First lesson)
1. T: Exercise one: read the sentence. Which animals are these? (Reading from course book)
2. T: I will read the sentence, and you tell me which animal. Understand?
3. Ss: (no answer)
4. T: Do you understand what the question is about?
5. Ss: (no answer)
6. T: Understand or not?
7. Ss: Yes
8. T: Do you all understand?
9. Ss: Yes
10. T: What about you? (Mentioned one student)
11. S: What teacher?
12. T: What about you, do you understand or not?
13. S: No answer
14. T: فهمتو ؟ (Do you understand?)
15. Ss: لالا (No No)
16. T: سأقرأ الجملة وأنتم أخبروني عن اي حيوان تتكلم (I will read this sentence, and you have to tell me in which animal is talking about)   17. Ss: Ok

Note: T= Malika Teacher Ss= more than one student   S= random student

Extract 53 shows that students hesitated when the teacher sought to clarify if they understood the question presented in the English language, e.g., "Do you understand?". They all said 'yes', even though they did not understand. When the teacher asked an individual student, that student kept silent, not answer at all. This suggests that the students did not understand what the teacher had asked. This extract provides evidence that when the teacher switches to using Arabic, the students were able to respond accurately.

It is obvious that, since the students were using their first languages (Arabic and Amazigh) during the lesson when the teacher used English, they needed to translate. It was also noticeable that the teacher did not focus on the students' use of English; her aim here was to have them understand the content as opposed to facilitating their production of English, i.e., their communication in English to make meaning.

The interviews with the pre-service teachers provided an opportunity for them to reflect on these aspects of their teaching and help add justification as to why they spoke English only. In response to the researcher's request to Malika (the teacher) on this issue, it was found that she deliberately used English during her classes and avoided using Arabic or Amazigh language in her teaching. As she explained:

> *We speak only English in our teaching because our teachers told us to try to use English as much as we can and avoid using Arabic; teachers recommended we use different teaching aids and said, just do not talk Arabic.* (Pre-service Teacher 1 interview, Malika)

She stated that some students understood the teacher's English when she used different teaching aids like visual aids and explanations, but many students did not understand the concept. Malika offered another reason as to why she spoke only English in her classes. This was the potential impact on her practicum evaluation marks assessed by her supervising teacher. She explained:

> *What made the pressure on us to use English only is that our supervising teachers told us if you talk in Arabic you will lose marks for sure. Therefore, we pre-service teachers were afraid that they would reduce our marks if we use Arabic.* (Pre-service Teacher 1 interview, Malika)

The interview with Pre-service Teacher 2, Sara, further highlights the issue of the use of L2 versus L1 in classroom talk. She believed that teachers need to use Arabic since all too often the students did not understand the teacher's use of English. She focused on how the students resorted to having to translate the teacher's English language talk, rather than being enabled to communicate and make meaning in English:

> *EFL teachers should use Arabic in their classroom teaching because English is a foreign language to students. However, the use of Arabic in English language classes should be the last resort for teaching English. If students do not understand after the teacher has used the English language more than once, they should use Arabic.* (Pre-service Teacher 2 interview, Sara)
> However, Sara's beliefs and practices are influenced by her supervisor's

instructions. She felt that, if she focused on speaking English and the students were willing to translate her talk and show their understanding, this would give her a high mark in the supervising teacher's assessment of her practicum. This was because she reflected that their supervising teachers evaluated them on the way that their students understood them during their lessons. She stated that: "*Most of our supervisors evaluate us based on students' ability to understand and translate our teacher' talk in the English language*" (Pre-service Teacher 2 interview, Sara).

This data indicated that the supervisors in actual practice were more satisfied when they saw the students understand what the pre-service teachers were saying in English by translating their talk into Arabic.

Sohad embraced the use of the students' first language to explain and manage the activities in the classroom. She detailed how teachers need to use Arabic since all too often the students did not understand the teacher's use of English. The use of Arabic in Sohad's classes, to give instructions or explain the meaning, was also evident in her teaching practice. Students experienced difficulties understanding the teacher when she spoke only English. The dialogue between teacher and students and between teacher and her colleague of the choice of the Arabic language was experienced in a previous lesson with students:

Extract 54, (Pre-service Teacher 5 interview, Sohad).
1. T: and what is an auxiliary verb? 2. T: ماهو الفعل الدي اخداه عن النيقاتف والسؤال (what is the verb that we learnt in making a question and negative sentences)   3. S1: تكوين سؤال (making a question)   4. S2: you have, and you has   5. T: it has (direct repair)   6. S3: have and has   7. T: تجي مع شني has (has come with what?)   8. Colleague: English (She gave a sign to the teacher to use English)   9. Teacher: They will not understand English, you saw them yesterday)

Note: T= Sohad Teacher Ss= More than one student   S= Random S1= First selected student S2= Second selected student   S3= Third selected student

Sohad recognised the need to use Arabic in giving instructions or explaining the meaning in her English teaching practice. However, it was noticed that she used only English in the lesson when her supervisor attended her class.

Amal believed that listening to teacher talk (English only) would provide a source for learners to develop their English language. Learners need to speak and this provides a source for learners to practice listening. When Amal was asked for the reasons why she spoke only English in her classes, she reflected on this by stating that there is not an opportunity for students to listen to the language outside the classroom and because their English teacher was using Arabic all the time. Therefore, she felt that it was their role to fill this gap, by providing students with enough opportunity to hear the English language. She said:

> *I feel that student is prosecuting, they do not have a chance to practice English and grasp it, and so we were forced to speak English. When I asked students if they understood, they said yes, and even the nature of the curriculum forced us to use only English.* (Pre-service Teacher 3, Amal)

Amal mentioned that the nature of the curriculum required them to use only English. This showed that she had a misunderstanding about how to develop learners to use language communicatively instead of focusing on the translation of teachers' talk.

The use of English to give instructions took a lot of class time, especially when the learners were beginners and had low English levels. Therefore, teachers need to be aware of when and why they need to control the balance of using the first and second language in the way it helps students to understand the task and the instructions and gives them a chance to practise English language.

Before teaching practicum, three of the pre-service teachers (Malika, Sohad, and Amal) met with the researcher to sign the consent letters for the researcher to observe their teaching classes. During the meeting, they expressed their concern about the use of English only in teaching primary school students. Amal stated that:

> *The observation of teachers classed that we had was in secondary schools and our actual teaching practice will be in primary school, this makes us confused and worries to how to use only English because the level of the student is low. I am worried they won't understand me.* (Pre-service Teacher 3, Amal)

However, scholars and experts (Cohen, 2015; Ghorbani, 2013; Lee & Macaro, 2013; Swain & Lapkin, 2013; Tian & Macaro, 2012) showed that using the first language in lower classes has benefits for teachers and learners. The data reported from the PSTs regarding the use of English only reported different reasons and justifications for why they decided to speak only English and avoided their first language, such as being constrained by the syllabus and their fear to lose marks (Malika), feeling it was their responsibility to help students to use English (Amal), and making learners understand and translate teacher talk will satisfy the supervisors (Sara). In short, it could be seen that PSTs used English only in their classes, but they did not give adequate opportunity for students to use English, because students were translating what teachers were saying all the time.

6.2.3 The use of group-work/pair work in the classroom

Table 6.7 shows more closely the seven PSTs' beliefs and attitudes to the use of pair-work and group work activities. Their beliefs in the survey suggested variations in their agreements. From the observation data, PSTs rarely used these kinds of activities in their classrooms. Only Sara, Aminah and Sara implemented pair-work and group activities in their classes. Aminah (T3) is more likely to support the most statements except statement 13. She supported the statement that group activities take too long to organise. Sara (T1) supported most of the statements, but she also believed that teaching the whole class is better and it is very difficult for teachers to monitor the students' performance.

Table 6.7: *Differences between 7 PSTs' beliefs about the use of pair work-group work activities* (SA= Strongly Agree. A= Agree. SLA= Slightly Agree. SD=Strongly D= Disagree. SLD=Slightly Disagree)

Group work-pair work statements	SA	A	SlA	SD	D	SLD

#2 Group work activities are essential in providing opportunities for cooperative relationships to emerge and in promoting genuine interaction among students	T1- T3-T5 T6- T7	T2-T4				
#9 Group work allows students to explore problems for themselves and thus have some measure of control over their learning. It is, therefore, an invaluable means of organising classroom experience.	T5- T7	T1-T2-T3-T6		T4		
#13. Group work activities take too long to organise and waste a lot of valuable teaching time. *		T6-T3	T5- T7	T2-	T1	
#21 Students do their best when taught as a whole class by the teachers. Small group work may occasionally be used to vary the routine, but it can never replace sound formal instruction by a competent teacher. *	T5	T2-T4-T7	T1-T6			T3
#22 Group work activities have little use because it is very difficult for teachers to monitor the students' performance and prevent them from using their mother tongue. *	T6	T1	T2-T4T7		T5	T3

The following examples are from Sara (Extract 55) and Aminah's (Extract 56) implementation of pair work and group work from their teaching practicum. Sara successfully used pair work activity in her second lesson when she asked the students to find the words that have similar sounds as the following example.

Extract 55 (Observation, Sara, 25/03/2018) (Second lesson)
1. T: I will pronounce these words and then you will work in pairs two, two, two, two and try to find the same pronunciation. Okay?

2. T: Listen to the same pronunciation like dry fly near ear
3. T: شوفو الكلمات ال نطقهم يشبهو بعض وديروهم مع بعض
4. Have you finished?
5. Ss: no
6. T: Come on finish quickly (2 seconds).
7. T: Have you finish?
8. Ss: Yes
9. T: So, Abeer and which one?
10. Pair 1: fly dry.
11. T: yes (wrote it on the board fly and dry)
12. T: Next
13. Pair 2: near and ear
14. T: YES, next one?
15. Pair 3: wet and get

Note: T= Sara Teacher   Ss= more than one student   S 1= First selected two students
Pair 2= second selected two students   Pair 3= Third selected two students

Aminah also utilised group work in her second lesson. She prepared cards that had descriptions of different shapes on each card. First, when she asked the students to make groups. Students did not understand what she wanted them to do. One of the teacher colleagues interpreted for the students in Arabic. Aminah asked the groups to listen to the description and decide which group has the shape.

The first attempt from one student was with a lot of struggling and asking for teacher help in reading the definition of the shape. Then other students became more engaged in the activity. When they understood the process they become more actively participating with the teacher and waiting for their turns.

Extract 56 (Observation, Aminah, 25/03/2018) (Second lesson)
1. T: now we will play a game using cards so each card of these have a shape.
2. T: Do five groups.
3. Teacher colleague: ديرو خمسة مجموعات Do five groups
4. T: Each time I describe a shape you have to say what it is?. Each group has the shape should rise it up.
5. T: Describe with your group the shape you have to a class.
6. Ss: Square
7. T: Yes, correct and clapped with all students.

Note: T= Aminah Teacher   Ss= more than one student   S1= First selected two students
Pair 2= second selected two students   Pair 3= Third selected two students

Some activities require students to work in a pair or groups. It was noted that most of the interaction between teachers with the students was based on an individual basis

or with the whole class. The PSTs were asked to reflect on their views on how they were using pair and group work and what were the main reasons for not using them in their classes. Most of the PSTs believed that learners' low English levels and limited lesson time are the main reasons for not implementing pair work and group work activities.

Teacher Malika said that she used these activities when she gave the students animal pictures; she described the animal, and they have to say the names. However, it was not clear that she was using group work or pair work because she was asking or describing the picture and all the students were talking together.

An illustration came from Sara about the value of using group-work and pair-work and the factors that hindered her to use them in her classes, such as the level of the students and the duration of the lesson class. She also pointed out that:

> *I did not use them because I had no extra time, the class duration was 40 minutes; it is not enough for me to explain the lesson and do the extra activities such as conversations between students. In addition to the level of a student was zero. Most of them were unable to say the keywords that their teacher should say them in every class, and this will take much time. If I was their teacher, I would be able to run these activities because the time consuming will be not important to me*. (Pre-service Teacher 1, Sara)

This response indicated that the teacher had a traditional outlook, where she holds a belief about learning as transmitting the information from teacher to students and, more importantly, she views the conversation as an additional skill that should not be integrated into her priority objectives. Also, the point is that Libyan beginner learners cannot be creative with the language because they are stuck with the formulaic language and they need to have some base of languages such as phrases, sentence, vocabulary and interactive skills before they become more fluent and are be able to do conversation activities and interactive communication.

Another insight was received from Amal in regards to the reasons for not implementing some pair-work and group-work into her classes. Her answers were in points. First, she indicated that the class was not hers and, if she had been with the students from the beginning of the school year, she would have got to know the students well, and

she pointed out that she could be able to deal with handling these activities if the teaching practicum was longer than one year. The second point made by Amal was that English teachers, in general, were complaining that students were unable to understand English, so they customised their teaching to use Arabic and Amazigh in English classes. Then she went on to say that she used pair work to read from the board, but time constraints limited her ability to apply these activities.

> *If they gave us a longer period than four classes, then I can apply that. What*
> *you have said. In one of my classes, I am not sure if you were attended or not.*
> *One of the activities of that class was speaking. I asked two students to read*
> *the conversation from the whiteboard. I wrote the conversation on the board*
> *on that day.* (Pre-service Teacher 7, Amal)

One explanation for these participants was that the teaching practicum program was inadequate to prepare PSTs to learn to teach because these PSTs showed their desire to apply pair and group work activities. However, they did not find the facilities they anticipated, such as time, materials and even the students' levels. The following two extracts demonstrated Amal's dissatisfaction with the teaching practicum program duration as the main reason for the limited use of pair work or group work activities:

> *If I have found what I was expected, I would have applied the group-work*
> *activity and pair-work activity because it will give a greater chance for*
> *students to understand. In case one student understood than others will*
> *understand too because it helps them share their ideas and suggestions.*
> (Pre-service Teacher 7, Amal)

> *We wished that we had a longer time with the students in our practicum*
> *program because we just started to get used to know each other. If the*
> *university provides us with more time to practise, I would be able to apply*
> *the pair and group work activities. It should be at least a month, or more so,*
> *I will be able to handle them.* (Pre-service Teacher 7, Amal).

The interview with Pre-service Teacher 4, Zahra, added insights on the reason that hindered her to use pair-work and group-work activities in her classes. She expressed

that when she tried to apply for group work in the first class of her practicum, the students resisted doing tasks because they were unfamiliar with such activities and they were uninterested to continue doing it. This was because students were talking in their first language and they were showing off-task behaviour. She stated that:

> *I found that students were distracted when we do group works; they were chatting in pairs and not doing the task. If I explain something or said something, I repeat it five times to make them understand the thing; every student wants me to explain to her individually because they do not pay attention.* (Pre-service Teacher 5, Zahra)

These results show that students are not familiar with group work activities and they might not understand the instructions the teachers gave in English. This resulted in them asking teachers to repeat several times and made them not interested to complete a task because they are incapable of organising it. Also, data from classroom observation provided evidence that the PSTs tried to implement the group and pair work activities, but students were not familiar with such activities.

As a solution, the two languages, English and Arabic, should be combined in giving instructions about how to implement group work, and also teachers should use one group in front of other students to show the effectiveness of these activities in learning.

6.2.4 The use of speaking and listening activities

In reporting the challenges and difficulties that PSTs experienced in using speaking activities in their classes during teaching practicum, one of these challenges and difficulties was students' low English levels, which make the teaching situation hard for the teachers to produce speaking activities and making group work. Zahra mentioned:

> *As for conversation activities, I tried to apply these activities, but I found that students cannot speak any English except one or two students because they do not use English for conversational activities regularly in their classes and they have not implemented in their educational system.* (Pre-service Teacher 5, Zahra)

However, there was learning cooperation between students and this increases the desire of learning amongst the students inside the classroom. Zahra felt that students in her class were cooperative when one of them took a risk to speak in English. They were correcting her English by choosing the correct word or another word that has a similar meaning. Zahra felt that this situation would improve students' English if they kept taking a risk in speaking in English, with peer correction and using synonym words to fill the gaps in their talk.

> *I found that when one of these students wanted to speak in English, other students were helping her to speak, although most of their vocabulary was not were supposed to be. I mean they have assimilated which word comes the same meaning. But over time and frequent use of this process in the classroom, students will get used to it, and their English level will be improved.* (Pre-service Teacher 4, Zahra)

6.2.5 The use of teaching methods and the implementation of CLT

The pre-service teachers were asked if there was a particular method they required to apply to their teaching. The researcher had expected them to say that they required more instruction to teach CLT because the principle underlining the school curriculum is CLT. However, the PSTs reported that they learnt six teaching methods in the third year of their program, and they were asked to use them all and adjust which method is suitable for their lessons and to apply it.

> *For teaching the English language, all the methods are allowed, we were asked to use the method that suits the lesson that we teach. We learned the teaching methods in Year three, and honestly, for myself, I used them, and I found them useful. (Pre-service Teacher 5, Zahra)*

About teaching methods, one of the PSTs named the methods they had taken: Grammar translation methods (GTM); Communicative language teaching (CLT); Total physical method; Suggestopedia; Community language teaching; and the Audiolingual method. One of the pre-service teachers mentioned that:

> *We are encouraged to use these methods in our teaching practice; we used the audiolingual method the most were the focus of repetitions of the words, where the teacher pronounces the word and students repeat after her* (Pre-service Teacher 5, Sohad)

When asked about the method that they were required to apply in their teaching practicum, the pre-service teachers expressed that all of these methods were required, depending on the students' level and the type of the lesson, and there were no particular methods required to use during the teaching practicum. This indicated that there is no special focus on training the PSTs on how to implement CLT for their teaching practicum at university.

In Chapter Eight (Section 8.5.1), both university teachers recommended the PSTs to use the teacher guidebook in their teaching. The analysis of lesson plans for the PSTs showed that they adopted their plans from the guidebook with no additional changes. However, their practice did not show that they followed all steps; their focus was on the controlled teaching practices that concentrated on teaching vocabulary and pronunciation and grammar roles. As described in Chapter Two (Section 2.3.1) and Chapter Three (Section 3.4), the Libyan English curriculum is a weak version of CLT that integrates both the form and meaning focus instruction on language within communication (providing opportunities for students to communicate and receive feedback at the same time). In Chapter Six, the data revealed that most of the PSTs were concentrated on language forms where they implemented the accuracy of grammar and pronunciation. The controlled practise was used more than using the free practices. Classrooms were teacher-centred than learner-centred.

> *What made the pressure on us to use English only is that our supervising teachers told us if you talk in Arabic you will lose marks for sure. Therefore, we were afraid that they would reduce our marks if we use Arabic.* (Pre-service Teacher 4, Malika)

Sara felt that if she focused on speaking English and the students were willing to translate her talk and show their understanding, this would give her a high mark in the supervising teacher's assessment of her practicum. This was because she reflected that

their supervising teachers evaluated them on the way that their students understood them during their lessons.

6.2.6 Beliefs about the interest in English and parental influence

Parents serve as a major influence in students' area of study interest and future career aspirations. However, some students have a limited interest in the study and have problems in knowing where to begin, as explained by the following comment from Zahra.

> *My experience was that I desired to study medicine and science, but the school was located in a different city, so my uncle refused because he did not approve of the idea of staying in students' internal accommodation. Therefore, I chose an English major to study because it is a good area and it is good to learn something that not all people know.* (Pre-service Teacher 4, Zahra)

Parents think about their children's future career prospects, so they are a part of the decision their children make. In Libyan culture, most parents do not let their daughters work in a hospital or any other public places, because it is mixed gender. This can lead to not being able to study a preferred area:

> *Do you want the truth, for me, it is not my wish, but I did not find what I wanted to study. There are other students for whom English was their first choice to study. The issue is that you want a specific specialty, but your family does not want you to study that. You are not interested in other specialties. However, you may not find the answer to the choice you are considering.* (Pre-service Teacher 5, Sohad)

> *The majority of students choose to study an English major because they do not find what they need to study. In a specialised secondary school, some students study an English major because their parents want them to study English. Other students do not have any available major they are interested in so they chose English like their friends. A few students choose English because they feel they are willing to learn the language. At the secondary*

level, we admitted 36 female students and only two males, but only 17 who studied the English major continued to university level study. (Pre-service Teacher 1, Sara)

6.2.7 Pre-service teachers' suggestions and recommendations

The pre-service teachers' suggestions and recommendations showed their thoughts that the university should provide academic support in learning and teaching. Regarding the teaching practicum program, teachers suggested having a fixed teaching practicum program. In this way, they could make it a longer period, because pre-service teachers and university teachers were not satisfied with the length of the current teaching practicum program.

> *In my view, there is a need to prolong the training period. In the beginning, it is necessary to integrate the training process with the observation period so the trainee can interact with the classroom teacher and learners, and to establish a good relationship between them also to know the basic factors that deal with the teacher's methods that are used in that class.* (Pre-service Teacher 3, Zahra)

Also, Sara suggested that:

> *It is necessary to have a whole semester for teaching the practical program for the one who dedicates herself to it. I was pressed between the project and the preparation of the exam, which was followed by directly after teaching practicum program with other responsibilities because some of us were married and have children.* (Pre-service Teacher 1, Sara)

Amal compared between the teaching practicum from other Libyan university and the program at Nalut University, by stating that "i*n Zawia, they have universities that have three months teaching practicum program, and we have only one week*" (Pre-service Teacher 3, Amal).

Regarding the teaching observation, the pre-service teachers suggested that their observation component in the pre-service training program was done in secondary

school and their actual classroom teaching was in primary so far as teaching the lower students' level was concerned.

6.4 Conclusion

This chapter's analysis from the transcripts of the teacher dialogues has revealed the issues in teachers' and students' use of language and the specific pedagogical practices they used. Major findings include: (1) teachers' talk dominated classroom talk because the teachers were using English only during the management of their class activities; (2) students' use of English was limited because of their low levels of proficiency, and they were focused on the translation of teachers' talk into Arabic for understanding, and therefore their learning of using English was very limited; (3) the pre-service teachers tried their best to provide authentic materials such as listening cassettes, recorders, videos, pictures, PCs, mobile phones, and text posters; however, most of their interaction with the students was controlled practice. The pre-service teachers needed support in how to use pedagogical practices using language in English, for example, by scaffolding; (4) students' behaviour was out of control as the learners were talking and making noise during the lessons, which is because they knew that the pre-service teachers could not award any de-merit marks in their classes; (5) pre-service teachers did not have alternative skills and responses that they could utilise when students had no answers; (6) the pre-service teachers used only whole-class interactions and there was no sign of the use of pair-work or group work activities; (7) the classroom was teacher-centred as the pre-service teachers did most of the talking, (8) some preservice teachers did not get appropriate feedback on their teaching from their supervisors. Pre-service teachers, therefore, need more communication about, and feedback on, their performance after each lesson to improve their teaching.

The case study of observations found that some of the pre-service teachers used authentic materials, prepared instructional aids by using technology in the classroom (projector, mobile phones and PC) as well as objects, handouts, wall charts and texts. Although the pre-service teachers desired to use English in their instructional practice, their practice would still be considered traditional practice. Teaching continued to occur

in a teacher-centred classroom where teachers managed most of the class talk and failed to provide opportunities for learners to use and communicate in English. Only two preservice teachers tried to use pair or group work, but they then changed to something else, such as rote or repetition learning. These predominated in some of the pre-service teachers' classrooms. These findings have implications for teachers, who need professional development to know how to gather the activities to allow students to use English to communicate in a meaningful way.

CHAPTER SEVEN: INTERVIEWS WITH IN-SERVICE TEACHERS

7.0 Overview

The previous chapter reported the results from classroom observation and interviews with pre-service teachers, which provided evidence of the many challenges they perceived they experienced in implementing the current curriculum that focuses on educating pre-service EFL teachers in the effective implementation of a communicative language teaching (CLT) approach. This chapter presents the results of semi-structured interviews with two in-service teachers.

These results showed that the INSTs were using the traditional grammar-translation method in their teaching of EFL, thus showing that at the time of this research there was no chance for the learners in the class to use English in their classes. The INSTs were found to be following the instructions from teacher guidebook, but at the same time, they were filtering the content and pedagogy of the curriculum according to what they felt was important for the students to answer when they were later tested in the examination required by the education department. This examination was a 'pencil and paper' test that required only reading and writing in a multiple-choice type test.

The following sections begin with general educational information about the participants. This is followed by reporting on the data, including some pedagogical artefacts, and the results of the two INSTs' beliefs and attitudes towards CLT. The first issue that emerged from the analysis related to the pedagogical practices being used by the INSTs. Taking the definition of pedagogy by Westbrook et al. (2014), into consideration: "pedagogy comprises teachers' ideas, beliefs, attitudes, knowledge and understanding about curriculum, the teaching and learning process" (p. 7), the reporting starts with teachers' beliefs about language use. This included the interpretation of their language preference and their beliefs about how English should be used both inside and outside the classroom (during the interview) and how they used the English language in their actual practice (classroom observation).

Second, an analysis was undertaken to consider all aspects of current pedagogical practices, which were being used by these teachers. Finally, tensions and difficulties associated with the teaching of the CLT approach are presented. These include the impact of students' English' proficiency levels, the importance of understanding the lack of teaching facilities and resources in their schools, the amount of time allocated to EFL, large classes, and students' resistance to classroom participation.

7.1 In-service Teachers' Use of Language

Three main themes regarding teachers' use of the English language have emerged from the analysis of interviews and classroom observation data. The first theme relates to the participants' preferences for the language for the interviews. The second theme relates to how teachers were using the English language inside the classroom (based on observations). The third theme focuses on the INSTs' beliefs towards how language should be used (from interviews).

7.1.1 Participants' preferences for the language for the interviews

Before each interview, each participant was asked about their language preferences to use during their interview. Both Hayat and Raihan preferred to speak in Arabic, and they demonstrated their lack of confidence in using English when the researcher asked them if they preferred the interview to be in English or Arabic. The researcher checked their willingness to use the English language, for example, as per the following dialogue:

Researcher: Do you prefer to be interviewed in Arabic or English?

Raihan: Let me tell you my story. When I was in high school, I studied 'life science' for three years because it was my interest and I planned to study medicine. Then I changed my plan to study English major instead of medicine, and that was four years. During the four years at university, the first year was spent learning general English and the last three years were more focused on developing our language skills, but that was our only chance to learn English while I was at the university for four years. So I did not get used to speaking, and I cannot do it. However, this group of pre-service teachers are excellent in

English because they have done the specialised secondary school course which strengthened their English and gave them extra years to learn and practise English, So, I think my English is not so good. (Interview, Raihan, 22/04/2018)

In the above extract, Raihan gave the background of how she learned English. She stated that only four years was not adequate for them to develop their English language skills and to be good English speakers. This explains why their English learning at the university level at their time of study did not provide them with the required support to develop effectively the four English macro skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and suggests it was mostly focused on grammar and vocabulary knowledge.

Raihan further compared the English ability of a group of pre-service teachers who were attending the school for teaching practicum as they had extra years in their study journey. She said that they had "*excellent in English*" "*because they have done the specialised secondary school which strengthened their English and gave them extra years to learn and practise English*". Raihan added that: "*The next groups, who did not do specialised secondary school, have a lower level of English*" (Interview, Raihan, 22/04/2018). This shows that the role of specialised secondary school was important for English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers as it strengthened their English and gave them more years to learn the English language in more depth.

In addition, Raihan positioned herself as having a lack of confidence to give the interview in English, as her statements: "*I think my English is not so good,*" "*So I do not get used to speaking,*" "*and I cannot do it*", reveal that she could not speak in English because she lacked confidence in using English. However, this does not necessarily mean she was not confident in other English skills, such as reading and writing.

Similarly, in the interview with Hayat, the researcher started by asking her if she would prefer to be interviewed in Arabic or English. She also preferred to speak in Arabic, stating that: "*Let us make it in Arabic, better because I cannot express the ideas in English like I do in Arabic*". This reveals that this teacher preferred to use Arabic to more clearly express their ideas and to provide greater depth in the interview situation than might be possible in English.

Since these two INSTs appeared to be reluctant to use English and preferred to speak in Arabic with the researcher, this could contribute to them not using English or speaking in English in their classes, or speaking in English with English teachers among themselves during school hours, suggesting there is also a challenge with their opportunity to maintain their English language proficiency.

7.1.1.2 Teachers' beliefs about English language use

The teachers reflected upon their beliefs on how language should be used both inside and outside the classroom. Acknowledgment of the significance of ensuring students' learning of the language was enjoyable was demonstrated by both participants. They recognised the importance of teaching students to 'speak' and 'use' the language. For example, Raihan noted the following:

> *Teachers should teach students a language that enables the learners to speak and use it not teach the students words or grammar only to answer the exams; this way will not get the desire to learn the language. I mean teachers have to teach it enjoyably, you know* (Interview, Raihan, 22/04/2018)

This statement shows the INST's acknowledgment of the need to motivate students to learn the language and to use it not to answer the exams only. The way Raihan provided the class with an opportunity to learn English was by using formulaic methods. That is, she recited everyday language, such as 'meet and greet' and basic instructions, and encouraged the students to say them when they needed to ask about things and the formula was applicable. She explained as follows:

> *Even if English is difficult for students and they cannot speak, I try to speak with them in English during the class, can I drink water; can I go to the toilet; can I open the door etc. Because, it is a language that is not required to read and memorise but it is a language they know the meaning of it, how they can use it. Unfortunately, the currently used method does not give the students aspiration to learn and acquire the language.* (Interview, Raihan, 22/04/2018)

This extract shows that Raihan expressed the knowledge of how a teacher should teach the students in a meaningful way, using the language, making mistakes, learning in a meaningful way instead of memorisation. All these aspects came from the principles of CLT, but she also admitted that she was using traditional methods as exemplified in the following statement:

> *The traditional way gives homework, filing the activities at class, giving simple grammar rules. I give them the answers from the coursebook, and then I do a quiz for them on the paper to see if they are with me or not. I started to do this way so they would pay more attention during the class.* (Interview, Raihan, 22/04/2018)

This revealed that Raihan had difficulties in putting her knowledge into practice as she held positive believes and attitudes toward CLT instruction in the teacher guidebook, but her teaching pedagogy was a grammar-translation method. In comparison, Hayat also expressed how she encouraged the students to use the English language inside the classroom. For example, she asked the students in English when she asked about things in the class and requested them to answer in English.

> *I encourage them to use in English in their everyday life. I use language at class such as open the door, close the window, what is today etc, what is our lesson today one or two and they answered me.* (Interview, Hayat, 25/04/2018)

Students' resistance to engaging in speaking English was evident when Hayat stated that only two students tried to answer in English. This may be because they have low-level English proficiency or were unmotivated to learn the language.

Also, the results showed that the teachers were encouraging the students to create their learning outside the classroom as well, such as speaking with their parents in English. This included 'talk' like saying 'good morning' in English instead of saying it in Arabic, or practising the grammar rules while doing the house-work through repetition and making up tunes out of the grammar rules. This is evident from Hayat's interview:

I always try to teach them in the way that they enjoy, I encourage the female students to practise the grammar rules such as 'we' 'they' and 'you' that comes with 'do' and repeat it at home and whenever they wash dishes or when they do cleaning stuff like making it in a song; 'they' come with 'do', 'you' come with 'do', 'you' come with 'do'. (Interview, Hayat, 25/04/2018)

However, remembering the grammar rules does not guarantee students' ability to use the language, and is well recognised as an ineffective way to learn a language. Thus, there is a need to raise these teachers' awareness of how they can focus on teaching the students to 'use the language to make meaning' rather than to just 'know the language'.

7.1.1.3 The case of Raihan's classroom: Observations of language use

Observing one of the INST's classes (Raihan) class was not the main plan, but it was very informative in exploring her practice - what she did and how she used language in the lesson. On the day the researcher interviewed Raihan, she invited the researcher to observe one of her classes. The observation was conducted in the class before conducting

Time	Activities and pedagogy	Language type
5 Minutes	Reviewing and answering homework activities	English + Arabic
15 Minutes	Teacher writing on the board. Students copying. The teacher waits until students finished.	Silent
4 Minutes	The teacher reads and says the highlighted new words in English. Students translation in Arabic	English +Arabic
2 Minutes	Repetition of new words. (Teacher say the word and students repeat after her).	English

10 Minutes	The teacher explains the grammar rules from text reading in English and translates the text into Arabic.	Reading in English and explaining in Arabic
4 Minutes	Chatting about exam and classes.	Arabic

the interview. Table 7.2 provides an insight into the lesson showing the lesson structure according to the amount of time spent on each component, the kind of activity and pedagogy and the use of English and Arabic and the purpose for switching languages.

The lesson objective in the teacher's guide book was to practise listening for specific information and practise talking about tasks that have/ have not been done recently, developing the use of adverbs such as already, just, and yet. However, Raihan was not applying these objectives but was only completing activities from coursebook and writing the answers on the board and students were copping from the whiteboard.

Table 7.1: *Raihan's EFL lesson: Lesson structure, activities and pedagogy and language use*

As apparent in Table 7.2, Raihan was using both English and Arabic in her classroom. The Arabic language was used to give instructions and explain the meaning of words and grammar. The English language was used to read the words and texts and activities. However, there were no communicative interactions between the teacher and the students to use the language for meaningful purposes. The teacher was interacting with the whole class, but no English conversation was involved. Also, these data revealed that Raihan was using a grammar-translation method in her teaching; she translated each word and sentence into the mother tongue by encouraging the students to guess the meaning in Arabic. This result indicates that the students did not have an opportunity to learn how to speak the English language in the classroom. The main emphasis was on grammar rules and translation rather than using English to make meaning.

In summary, the result revealed that the teacher held positive beliefs towards some of the CLT principles. However, they demonstrated a mismatch between their beliefs about EFL pedagogy and their practice which showed a traditional approach to teaching through the use of grammar-translation methods. These results show that, despite the

INSTs being able to espouse the practice of CLT, observations of their practice showed otherwise. They did not practise what they preached so to speak. Thus, it was concluded that these teachers needed intensive professional development by EFL professional experts in CLT.

7.1.2 In-service teachers' pedagogical practice

Teaching communicative curriculum required the teachers to change their behaviour on what and how to teach and improve their teaching practice. The main themes that emerged from the interviews about teachers' EFL pedagogy were about teaching vocabulary and grammar. Participants described the process of their teaching practice; for example, Hayat demonstrated how she teaches vocabulary. She stated:

> *I follow what they gave me in the curriculum, during the lesson. First I write new words on the board, then I read what I wrote, and students read after me and letter by letters. I read the word, and then I spell it with students. If it is a long word, I divide it into two or three, such as computer I divide it in two. Tax- the machine is already divided.* (Interview, Hayat, 25/04/2018).

> *Teaching them how to divide the word to make different meaning, for example, shopping (a shop which is a store and shopping, fish fishing, motor-bike. (Which has no meaning) I even use English every day like (listen to me) so when they hear listen in the lesson they say they know the word.* (Interview, Hayat, 25/04/2018).

The process shows that Hayat's priority goal in her teaching was regarded as grammar and morphology of the language, knowledge and accuracy, and rote memorisation. Also, the results of the study indicated that the teachers spent a long time teaching words in isolation as lexical items rather than in authentic meaningful contexts as required for teaching vocabulary in CLT. Therefore, they emphasised knowing the vocabulary rather than using it. These results showed that there is a gap between what was expected from teachers to teach and what was being taught in the classroom. Thus, teachers' practice in introducing new words using the CLT approach needs to be assessed to take into account the different levels of English in the classroom in more detail.

Regarding the teaching of writing skills, on the other hand, Hayat demonstrated her strategy and she aimed to develop students' writing and literacy by giving them writing tasks and encouraging them to write and think about what to write, and by expressing their ideas, and using the translation from their first language (L1) to the second language (L2), without worrying about making mistakes.

> *In my teaching, I give students a chance to write about themselves, like name, age and how many family members in their home. Sisters' names how many brothers, how many sisters, my sister's name is Rabab or Rehab etc. even in the exam I told them do not be afraid to make mistakes, write what do you want to say and I will give you full marks for it, just try to write even in Arabic and then write it in English. I found this way improves their levels.*
> (Interview, Hayat, 25/04/2018).

The above result showed that these in-service teachers were providing prompts to help their students to express themselves in writing without the pressure of getting the English correct. This strategy provides students with an opportunity to improve their writing skills and a chance to increase their writing. Although only two INSTs were interviewed and observed, it is highly likely that this represents the general state of the teaching, given the PSTs' experiences and the university teachers' research results who are familiar with the schools.

7.2 Challenges Facing In-service Teachers in Teaching CLT

The analysis of data reveals that INSTs' teaching challenges demonstrate a tension for them; multiple themes were positioning around these challenges and difficulties, including students' English proficiency levels, the importance of understanding the lack of teaching facilities and resources in their schools, the amount of time allocated to EFL, large classes, and students' resistance to classroom participation. Each theme is discussed below.

7.2.1 Issues of getting students to understand the teacher

Problems that teachers reported that they experienced with their students in terms of understanding grammar and meaning involved syntax and morphology and the

meaning of words. Students' struggling in learning and understanding the rules of the English language was the main concern of teachers. When Hayat was asked to reflect on her students' English proficiency levels, the curriculum and textbook, she started the reflection by highlighting the learning difficulty that students had with understanding. The following dialogue reveals Hayat's concerns about her students' difficulties understanding:

> Hayat: I am currently teaching them times and clocks. When I tell them 5:45 minutes which is quarter to six they write it quarterly to five. I do my best to explain it, but they do not understand it.
>
> Researcher: Which year do you teach?
>
> Hayat: Year six.
>
> (Interview, Hayat, 25/04/2018)

In this dialogue, it is evident that the students' difficulty was with the content in not understanding digital time. Hayat went on to offer some examples from content pedagogy to illustrate the difficulties that her students had relating to learning. Besides "*telling the time',* she identified '*using particular special terms such as 'past quarter', 'quarter to".* She was concerned about the way she might cover the message to them. However, Hayat could have used a variety of teaching aids to assist the teaching of the content and to contribute to simplifying the lesson for language purposes. Also, teachers should be aware of these challenges through raising awareness towards the similarities and differences between the first language (L1) and second language (L2), because the way that students say the time in Arabic is different from English. For example, the common way of telling the time in English is (Minutes + PAST / TO + Hour) and the common way of saying the time in Arabic is (Hour + and/less minutes), so half-past three in Arabic would be "three o'clock and a half" and quarter to five in Arabic would be five o'clock less a quarter". Thus, teachers need to be aware of cultural aspects, as well as conceptual, when teaching English.

Hayat demonstrated that another example of her students' difficulties related to grammar rules. She noted that her learners made errors with grammar rules in terms of

missing verbs. The following statements indicated Hayat's concern about her students' understandings of grammar rules as follows:

> **Hayat:** We teach them about making negative sentences in English**,** when you have (She, He and It) you put the auxiliary verb (does). 'She goes shopping'. They write, 'She not'. (Interview, Hayat, 25/04/2018)

> **Hayat:** Yesterday, I was correcting their exam; most of them wrote 'she not'. She not! Without the auxiliary verb. Here, I do not have an auxiliary verb, Isn't it? Because we do not have 'is' and 'has got'. When you found 'she' means, 'does' goes with it right? (Interview, Hayat, 25/04/2018)

> **Hayat:** I spent two months explaining this grammar rule, and now I stopped to take a new topic on grammar rules, I do not take unit 8 because I want them to focus on these rules first. (Interview, Hayat, 25/04/2018)

> **Hayat:** Look, when they talk with you, Masha Allah. I feel their level is great and they have the knowledge, and when I ask them in the class, they answer me, but they do not answer on the paper in the exams. Especially these grammar rules. (Interview, Hayat, 25/04/2018)

The most repeated mistakes occurred in written examinations. For example, the students were always confused in adding the verb to the sentence such that Hayat felt disappointed with her students because they kept repeating the same grammatical mistake. She focused on "*especially these grammar rules*". This result indicates that the teacher's approach was based on grammar-translation, and she focused on students mastering English grammatical rules instead of how they learn and how to use them naturally in communication. Concerning the evidence of how students learn more naturally, she alluded that the students answered the rules correctly when they engaged in classroom activities more successfully than what they did in the examinations.

Because of these difficulties, Hayat decided to stop teaching new topics and spend more time on teaching the use of verbs and telling the time. This led the teacher to take

time from other topics, but she felt that patience and dedication were the keys to learning success.

The English level in Libyan students depends on their interests of the language and their learning manner. Some of them only learn from inside the classroom, and some others create their own learning spaces, such as reading books or watching movies in English.

The students' English proficiency level in Year eight was described as very good by Raihan:

> *They know English, their knowledge exceeds coursebook knowledge. They understand what the teacher says in English. I think they watch English movies or something like that. They have a background in English. Unlike the other year level students who have only knowledge from textbooks, these have more than that.* (Interview, Raihan, 22/04/2018)

Raihan intimated that her students had good knowledge in English, but she did not take advantage of this feature to create an English learning environment where they could interact in the English language and she could encourage the students to speak in English to develop their English proficiency.

Compared with students from different levels, who were reported to be very low in English, for example, Hayat taught different students and classes. She taught mixedgender classes and female classes. She reported that the level of students in mixed classes was better than those in separate classes. She also reported that male students' English levels were better than females'; she was disappointed with the current year females' level, explaining that they were struggling in their leaning as per the following extract:

> *Last year students were ok with this grammar; the year before, students were males. (Jabber Ben Zaid School). At that time, the school was mixed between males and females. I taught males. The boys' level was very good in English. Then the school system changed up to Year five; the boys moved to separate schools, so only primary still had mixed gender. Anyway. The*

English level of the female students' last year was ok, but this year, the female students are very low. (Interview, Hayat, 25/04/2018)

Notably, the old education school system had changed from mixed-gender education; some schools separated students based on gender into different classes and some separated into a different building. Usually, the separation of the sexes from Year five to Year twelve depends on reasons that may be religious or traditional, or because the separation is a general desire of parents.

7.2.2 Constraints of time in teaching CLT

One of the greatest hurdles to implementing the CLT activities as directed by the teacher guidebook was found to be time. Since the curriculum is rich in content and students are only at the beginner level, it is not surprising that the teacher participants reported that the amount of class time over the year (in seven or eight months) was inadequate to complete the curriculum, because the school system at Libya starts from October to May, and school holidays are from June to September. Instead, the teachers believed a whole year of teaching was necessary to complete the established curriculum.

When teachers were asked what they believed about the current curriculum, they said that it was fine, but what was of concern was the time for implementation. This was evident from the extract below:

The curriculum is fine, but the time is not, it is impossible to cover all the curriculum content in-class time. We need the whole year teaching to teach all curriculum, not in seven months. (Interview, Raihan, 22/04/2018)

A similar response was presented when they were asked about their beliefs towards the teacher guidebook, as it was noted that 'time matters'.

The teacher guidebook is 100 % good, but if they or I follow all the steps and structures in the book, it is impossible to complete the lesson because it asks a lot of practice and to do group work, and it will take time, and the lesson is only 40 minutes, it is impossible. (Interview, Raihan, 22/04/2018)

These results indicated that Raihan's personal beliefs affect her decisions regarding teaching CLT and pedagogy. Although she has positive beliefs about the instructional guide book, she was not applying the CLT activities, such as group/pair work or the listening and speaking activities as required. Raihan expressed that there is not enough time to apply group work activities in her classes, "*there is no way to do group work in the class*" (Interview, Raihan, 22/04/2018).

Students' abilities and levels were another concern in slowing the process of teaching CLT, which was raised by the participants. For instance, Raihan explained:

> *. . . because the curriculum is not that easy for students, they take a long time to complete the activities, if I asked them to read or write something they take time in this activity and students' time matters. The time is not enough to cover all the activities.* (Interview, Raihan, 22/04/2018)

Clearly, the INSTs expressed concern about the difficulties of the communicative curriculum; they felt that student characteristics such as ability and English level did not make it a feasible instructional technique for applying CLT. Raihan was filtering the content and pedagogy of the curriculum according to what she felt was important for students to complete the lesson and the topics and, as noted earlier, the examination.

Compared to interview data from Hayat, when she was asked about the curriculum and things that need to be improved, she strongly endorsed the content of the curriculum by stating that it contained grammar rules, which the young learners need to learn.

> *No, it is better. The curriculum includes (have and has); (do and does); presents tense better for this age group because the children at younger ages learn better and have a clean mind to acquire the language.* (Interview, Hayat, 25/04/2018)

This indicates that Hayat is a knowledge-based teacher and sees that grammar is the most important factor for learners to acquire the language. She did not mention anything about communication or communicative language teaching.

7.2.3 Lack of teaching resources

It was also reported that a lack of resources at school resulted in difficulties in learning and teaching; teachers reported that they had difficulties in printing material for their teaching because the school did not provide printers. Thus, the teachers had to use the old way of printing by using carbon papers. Since this takes time and effort from teachers to print, and the result is unsatisfactory because not all pages were clear, teachers lacked support. The extract below provides evidence for improvement in this area:

> *The school does not provide resources such as printers; they gave me papers and told me to use carbon paper to make copies of activities for students. One paper is clear, and one is not clear, I feel we depressed for the students with this way. Many of them do not see the letters when trying to find the word activities in which students have to find sight words in a snake by separating and highlighting letters inside the snake to make words.* (Interview, Hayat, 25/04/2018)

Word-finding activities provide a fun way for learners to make the connection between spellings and recognition of the words. Figure 7.1 is an example taken from coursebook of Year six to show the reader what participants meant by "*find sight words in a snake*". However, there is no need to print this activity as students can answer it in their book. The teacher may need to print activities that were not inside the book.
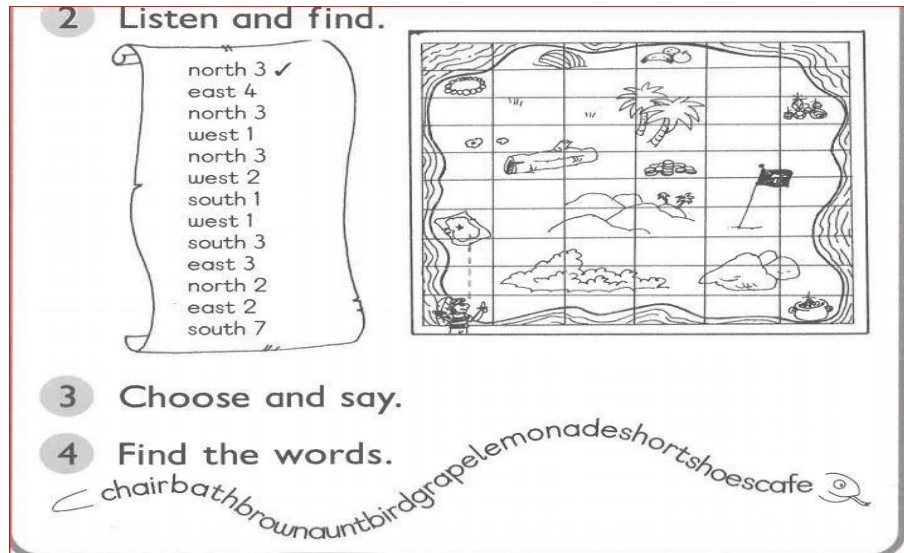
Figure 7.1: Word-finding activities from the Year six course-book

Another factor that influences teachers' work is administrative interventions. One of these interventions was the resistance of teachers in their decision-making on the examination format. Teachers were required to write exam questions on the white paper and give it to one of the school administration officers to tape it on to the computer and print copies for students, but to print the whole list, as she stated, was too long. They asked the teacher to revise and shorten it because the person who was responsible for data and typing entry refused to do the job.

> *This year, I wrote an exam questions list which was a long list. However, they*
> *said to me it is a too long list, and I have to decrease the number of questions.*
> *From three and a half pages to only two pages. It is not the time that matters*
> *but typing and printing these questions. I talked to the lady who is responsible*
> *for typing the exam question on the computer; she said it's too much for her.*
> (Interview, Hayat, 25/04/2018)

The teacher felt that if she allowed students to have multiple parts of their exam and had mixed question types and questions, this would give them a better chance to have a good mark. 'Less for more' was described as how they break the marks upon questions to provide for students to pass the exam. For example, Hayat indicated that:

> *My purpose was to give students a chance if they do not answer the first*
> *question they will answer the second if not the second the third, the*

questions are varied, such as filling gap questions, choose the words or complete the missing letter, match the words or question to answer. (Interview, Hayat, 25/04/2018)

The above section presents an illustration of Hayat's reflections on how the examination was done and the issues that influenced her practice and what teachers faced in their decision of writing the exam format. However, this illustration only reflects on the written examination; no one mentioned how they assessed the students on listening and speaking. This was because it is not applied in the school. The only examination was focused on grammar and reading. Students expected the teacher to ask the questions that they had already memorised for the exam.

7.2.4 The role of teacher aid or English expert

New rules applied in Libyan schools to assign one of the older generation EFL teachers (e.g., with more than 20 years of teaching experience) for each school to assist the practising English teachers. These teachers are called expert teachers, acting as a teacher leader, teaching aid and teaching advisor. One of the INSTs (Hayat) explained the role of the expert teacher in facilitating their teaching.

> *The expert teacher is employed to help all English teachers in the way they teach EFL if they have a question or do not understand something in teaching or how they deliver the information to the students. Sometimes teachers cannot explain and simplify things to students, so teachers ask the expert teachers for help.* (Interview, Hayat, 25/04/2018)

Hayat also reported that an expert teacher helped her in providing resources such as typing printing materials:

> *This expert teacher helped me a lot in printing papers and typing questions on computer etc. she has a printer at home, and she prints things for me. Some lessons I start with quick dictation or revision, I do it on a piece of paper, it takes a long time from me, when I explain and when I write on the whiteboard*

and students took a long time to do a job so this experienced teacher helped
me by printing. (Interview, Hayat, 25/04/2018)

These insights provided into the activity of the expert teacher seem to reinforce the lack of resource support, but it also suggested that the expert teacher is not actively engaged in providing leadership on CLT pedagogical matters.

7.2.5 Class size

The large class size was considered one of the major factors that can hinder the implementation of CLT. The teachers talked about the large classes as a problem, but the rationale behind their reasoning was more related to how class size should differ. Participants in this study preferred a small number of students in their classes because they wanted to control the students' behaviour more easily to help their teaching and delivering the information to the students. The issue related to when teachers give a task to students to work on in groups or when the discussion is required. They were concerned about noise and also control. However, although it was deemed acceptable to have meaningful noise, the teacher Raihan preferred to have quiet students:

Currently, each class has 20 or 21 students for this school. There is another
school that has 30 students or more in each class. If a class has a small
number of students, you can control the class. Students will get more chance
to understand what the teacher says and would be less noisy, and there is no
comprehension for the lesson. I think up to 10 students is fine. (Interview,
Raihan, 22/04/2018)

Also impeding the implementation of CLT was found to be the use of a marking system designed to control students' behaviour. This was implemented to control students' participation in the learning activities in the classroom and was therefore an important strategy in classroom management in the Libyan context.

Also, it was noticed in this study that students in the INSTs' classes were quiet but, when the PSTs were operating their lessons, the students' behaviour changed to being out of control. As an in-service teacher, Hayat reflected on these issues and why the students were quiet in her class. The reason was seen as being the fact that the

students feared the loss of a mark from their main teachers, so they kept quiet. In contrast, they knew the preservice teachers would not make any changes to their marks, so they did not give the PST the same respect or attention as the INST.

> *Yes, students get out of control, and they were careless and were disrespectful to their temporary teachers because students know that they are not giving the marks or exams. So, what makes students fear is to lose marks that is why with their original teachers they care and listen to teachers whereas other teachers, they do not take it seriously.* (Interview, Raihan, 22/04/2018)

7.3 The Absence of In-service Teachers in Mentoring the Pre-service Teachers

In many educational sectors around the world, in-service teachers are expected to act as mentors and experience partners as part of their professional development (Genç, 2016). In this study, data revealed that INSTs did not have this role as in mentoring the pre-service teachers in their practicum program, and there was no cooperation and collaboration between INSTs to serve as a mentor to PSTs on practicum. The only cooperation and collaboration between schools and PSTs' education programs were to arrange the classes, times and dates for the PSTs for their practicum duration.

The in-service teachers in this study were asked if they attended with pre-service teachers classes or asked for assistance. They expressed that they did not attend with them as they are not required to attend the classes. Hayat indicated that in the prior decade, INSTs were required to attend and teach with the PSTs: "*Before years ago yes, but now in later years, teachers started to take a rest and leave the pre-service teachers alone at class*" (Interview, Hayat, 25/04/2018). The dialogue below shows the conversation between the researcher informing the role of INST and the different benefits INSTs attending with the pre-service teachers, which provides more chance for participants to reflect on their experience with INSTs, in this case when Hayat was a pre-service teacher:

> Researcher: In other countries, some pre-service teachers learn from the classroom teacher because they already have experience. And some are opposite; the INSTs learn from PSTs because they bring new teaching methods and skills they learnt from the university. Which one are you?

Hayat: Yes, when I was in a teaching practicum, I liked how the teacher taught funnily. She made students enjoy the lesson. The teacher said things with love, not in a very serious way. For example. How are you?

Hayat: So this method stayed in my mind, and I am using it now in my teaching.

Hayat: There are many things I learnt from an in-service teacher. So I am like the first choice you mentioned.

Researcher: Was that in your teaching observation period?

Hayat: When I did my teaching practicum, we did not have observation hours, we only had teaching hours. So each pre-service teacher cooperated with the in-service teacher in teaching a lesson. I remember we taught fruits and animal names, so I took some toys from my home and magnetic fruit from the fridge to use them in my teaching. (Interview, Hayat, 25/04/2018)

This experience as a pre-service teacher with the in-service mentoring showed that it created a collaborative and cooperative atmosphere for this participant, and she enjoyed her teaching and learnt to teach strategies and methods from the in-service teacher. Unfortunately, this collaboration and cooperation were absent in the current school system and teaching practicum program.

These results show that there is a gap in the design of the educational program for the pre-service teachers in this study in terms of the role of INSTs in mentoring the preservice teachers while on practicum.

7.3.1 Changing career from teaching English to another discipline

Teachers were asked to write the reasons why English teachers change their career to other subjects or discipline areas. Many English teachers were employed in the past but are not employed now because of changing their career to teach other subjects. Some of them had taken short workshop type courses for Tamazight language and went to teach young children. So, the researcher sought to explore the reason behind them changing their subject after having graduated. The question of what the reason might be behind changing the career of teaching English to other subjects was asked at the end of the

survey. The following points provide a summary of the most important reasons that were offered:

- Inability to teach perfectly.
- Students' level of proficiency is considerably low.
- Difficulties in transmitting knowledge and information to the students.
- The teacher does not have sufficient English language to teach effectively,
- Teaching the English language is not like learning it so not sufficiently rewarding.
- Making the wrong decision from the beginning, such as a teacher's desire to specialise in English.
- Lack of teaching aids and resources.
- Teachers lack language development. In other words, teachers need to develop their English skills and use modern methods to cope with current literature.
- Lack of student interest and motivation to learn English.
- Most of the students, especially males, tend not to learn English, so teaching it is considered too difficult.
- There is a little incentive that motivates a teacher to do their job well.
- Teachers are put off by the lack of good student outcomes despite their great efforts to do a good job.

7.3.2 Barriers or problems of applying communicative language teaching.

In-service teachers were asked to list the most important challenges for their teaching of the English language that they faced in terms of implementing CLT. The question was written at the end of the survey. Not all teachers answered the question; only 10 out of 33 of them answered. The following statements are the summary answers of the teachers:

- The problem is not with the methods but is with teachers themselves who are not competent to teach English language or apply the method which is given in the book in showing the correct way.
- Studying a language needs much practice, which we do not have; some students want to learn English, but the issue is that they cannot find the time and the place to use their English for meaningful communicative purposes.

- The curriculum is much focused on students in addition to its repetition; that means the information is the same in each year.

- The length of the lesson is not enough to finish a lesson or teach a rule.

- The first problem facing each teacher in teaching the English language is concentrating on lessons (reading), so the teacher focus on pronouncing the words and their meaning depends on memorisation. The second focus on grammar, where most of the explanation is about the same rules where the students have learnt, starting in preparatory school and continuing to the high school level. Thus, students build a belief that the grammar they learn is to make them pass the exam only, so they forget once the exam is finished. In addition, high school teachers find that students learn these grammatical rules, but they have forgotten them because they have learned it traditionally through memorisation.

- The Libyan education system does not provide special means to support language teaching.

- There is no strong curriculum accreditation by this college or Libyan universities.

- There should be a focus on teachers' language proficiency to allow them to teach.

- The curriculum is not applied correctly; the communicative curriculum has a long methodology, such as in Year eight and Year nine the level of students has subsided.

- Teachers choose the important things in the lesson to teach students which is the grammar that will be the focus of the exam, so students learn this to get a good examination result. Therefore, the aim of learning English is not to learn the language or to be able to speak it to do something better for the future.

- Students are asked to translate every single word without tiring.

- Attitude and perseverance are important since every language is hard to learn especially when people have not learnt it since a young child; with a strong belief and intention to learn there is nothing impossible.

7.4 Conclusion

The evidence from the in-service teacher participants' points to limited uptake of CLT in this case study context of Libya. The analysis of interviews and classroom

observations showed that there were no signs of an authentic implementation of CLT in the in-service teachers' practices, such as applying the principles related to group work or pair work or providing an environment for the students to interact in the English language. Rather, there was strong evidence of teacher-centred whole-class work and the widespread use of the students' first language of Arabic. As well, the INSTs focused solely on students' learning of grammar and vocabulary. Thus, they were using Arabic for instruction, explaining activities and words in the students' L1. Also, the teacher preferred to use Arabic during the interviews. The results of the interviews showed that the INSTs did not have any role or responsibility in mentoring the PSTs or any plan for schools to assist the PSTs while on their teaching practicum; they only gave them classes to teach with no directions. The pre-service teachers were also challenged by the way the INSTs controlled their class through the threat of taking away marks from the students.

CHAPTER EIGHT: OUTCOMES OF INTERVIEWS WITH UNIVERSITY TEACHERS

8.0 Overview

This chapter reports the results from interviews with two English as a foreign language (EFL) university lecturers. As mentioned in Chapter One, this study aimed to explore their perceptions towards communicative language through provided to teach CLT both at university and school level. This chapter explores the findings in detail to answer the following question: *How do university EFL teachers perceive how the application of CLT can be improved at the university and school levels?* University teachers identified their understandings of pre-service teachers' motivations and perceived language level capability to lead into how CLT can be improved. The university teachers' approaches and understanding of English language teaching and their language proficiency were the key findings in influencing the way CLT is used at university and school level

Thereafter, an analysis is conducted to identify current challenges faced by university teachers that hinder the effective implementation of CLT and solutions suggested through strategies for better ways of implementation. The participants identified teaching challenges, such as a lack of speaking and listening classes, a lack of teaching resources, such as library books, and issues related to network delivery and Internet connections.

Further, since these university teachers supervised pre-service teachers in their teaching practicum, they were able to provide insights into how pre-service teachers conducted their teaching. Consequently, the following two themes emerged: 1) perceptions of the teacher guidebook and teacher training and improvement, and 2) how these perceptions were assessed and which support procedures provided by the teaching practicum program may require improvement in the future.

Also, these university teachers reported their perceptions regarding the EFL policy of the curriculum, English usage and teaching practicum policy, and university

admission; they also provided suggestions to improve these policies. Finally, participants discussed teacher training and development in terms of university teachers' perceptions of their teaching and learning throughout their teaching.

The following sections, which report the data collected and results, begin with the participants' educational information.

8.1 Perceptions regarding teaching the pre-service teachers

8.1.1 Pre-service teachers' interest in becoming English teachers

The findings of the interviews revealed that the level of student teachers' interest before they graduated in studying English and becoming an English teacher has a potential role in their individual language development and progress as teachers. Both university teacher participants provided their perceptions regarding student teachers' levels of interest and their impact on language development. Both university teachers discussed the English levels of university students and their desire to learn English and become English teachers.

In the initial interview, Abrar was asked about her beliefs regarding the English levels of student teachers. She provided a detailed account of three different types/levels of English student teachers: highly motivated student teachers; student teachers who were shy and anxious; and student teachers who were forced to study English. How Abrar described the types of English student teachers indicates her interest in this area and reflects her knowledge of her students and their interests. It was evident that these levels/types depended on why they chose to study the English language, as they showed varied interests and levels of motivation:

> *Excellent students, they are interested in learning the language, they want to speak, they want to improve their language, and they always seem to be motivated to learn English during the lecture, they always ask questions, they want to learn, they want to improve themselves … umm the others, uh not most of them are very shy, they are always afraid of making a mistake,*

and they do not participate in the class so this affected them negatively, and they couldn't even produce a simple sentence, so this is um … another thing. We have a third group of students who are not interested in learning the language because they are forced to learn the language, so they are not interested in learning the language so they uh … I always come late and are mostly absent. (Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018)

The above extract reflects three different levels of interests among student teachers in their choice to study and become English teachers. It appears that the first group of EFL students who had a great interest in being English teachers and were highly motivated in learning and developing their skills were also fluent in English, as their teacher Samah said, "Some of them are well fluent in English, although you may find mistakes".

The second group of students had a barrier in their learning; therefore, their speaking and communication were limited. Abrar explained them as being shy and anxious students who did not participate orally in the class because they were afraid of making mistakes, but they provided correct answers in their written exams and reading comprehension.

The third group of students chose to study the English major to be an English language teacher, but English was not something they were interested in; it was more like they were forced into it by their parents, as Abrar described it (more evidence of parental influence is reported in Section 6.1.9, Chapter Six, from pre-service teacher participants). Therefore, they were not motivated to develop their English skills, which was evident by their absence or lack of punctuality for their classes. The result of being forced to learn a language and to undertake the role of an English teacher was a slowdown in their learning progress and development. Abrar expressed her disappointment to see such unmotivated students who were forced on to this path by their parents' wishes. Below, she recounts how a student spoke to her about having a low level of English fluency due to a lack of interest in learning English from the beginning of the university year:

I still remember one student told me "I don't want to learn the English language because my dad forced me to study the English language". Because the father studies the English language, he wanted his daughter to study the language. But she's not interested in the language, and she does not try even to improve her levels; she just said I don't like it, so I will remain the same, so there's been no improvement from Year one to Year four, its uh ... disappointing, you know it's extremely disappointing and a waste of time. (Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018)

However, this one case cannot be considered evidence. Based on reports from Abrar, disinterested student teachers cannot become future EFL teachers because they lacked a basic level of interest in learning and teaching English (although they will graduate and obtain the requisite qualifications).

Also, the second group of PSTs who were not confident in speaking English would not be able to implement CLT activities, which require listening and speaking skills as part of the current Libyan English curriculum (more details about this approach are provided in Section 1.0, Chapter One). Thus, their reluctance to contribute to discussions was a distinct and ongoing hindrance to any effective implementation of CLT.

8.1.2 Motivation strategies used in teaching the pre-service teachers

Motivation is related to energy, direction, persistence and equifinality, all of which are aspects of activation and intention (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 69). Research explains that people are moved to act on account of very different types of factors, which may be internal or external, as propounded in self-determination theory (Gagne & Deci, 2005; Eccles, Wigfield, & Schiefele, 1998). Having internal motivation leads to selfdirected learning that empowers their own learning decisions. In the field of the second language (L2) acquisition, motivation is derived from cognitive and social psychology.

Two forms of motivation come from cognitive psychology: instrumental and integrative motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). From a social cognitive perspective (Eccles, Wigfield, & Schiefele, 1998; Lerner & Steinberg, 2009), an individual's interests have a significant influence on opportunities and choices later in life, such as in the area of

educational and occupational achievement. In social psychology, there is a distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, which are the basis of goals, which are the basis of the action. Internal motivation implies being 'selfdetermined' and involves engaging in activities because personal interest motivates the person, whereas extrinsic motivation "involves engaging in an activity because it leads to some separate consequence" (Hallqvist, 2012, p. 44).

In the interviews, it was noticed that the teacher educators often contradicted themselves when describing different aspects of teaching related to motivation. Interestingly, people may discuss and reflect on their perceptions, but the discussion and perceptions do not present the actual reality. The actions are the reality, and these realities come from interpretations such as this case. Initially, when the researcher asked the university teachers about how they motivated their students, both Abrar and Samah indicated that they did not attempt to motivate the students because it was not worth it. They said that their learners were 'mature enough' to take responsibility for their learning. For example, Abrar explained her viewpoint that motivation must come from the students themselves. In other words, Abrar believed that students should have internal or intrinsic motivation. However, later in their discussion and description of how as university teachers they taught and encouraged their students, their encouragement to students was orally for the students to become more responsible for their learning and expand their learning opportunities. That is, they aimed to encourage them to motivate themselves. Abrar said:

> *I encourage them to learn. I always say that if you will get a scholarship, you will be a better teacher than me because you were taught English for four years and you had lots of new stuff when you will go overseas. You will not face the same difficulties we faced. I do say some positive stuff, but I do not motivate them.* (Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018)

In the above interview extract, Abrar believed she was increasing her students' enthusiasm by setting a goal-directed motivation. Second language (L2) researchers found that motivation has been influential in students' learning. For example, Dornyei (1997) indicated that "L2 motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate the learning

behaviour and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process; that is, all the other factors involved in L2 acquisition presuppose motivation to some extent and, indeed, motivation is usually mentioned in explaining any L2 learning success or failure" (p. 261).

Besides, Tuan's (2012) study revealed that one of the factors that negatively influenced students' engagement in learning was the lack of resources in teaching strategies, which led to demotivation among university students. He claimed that students "wanted their teachers to motivate them by applying various motivational activities" (p. 438). Some of these activities required resources and strategies such as incorporating technology and giving positive feedback, which in turn can stimulate the interest of bored students and the participation of shy students.

In the current study, Samah was suggesting that teachers' feedback would not motivate learners and would not make any difference in the learning process; she suggested that learning is dependent on the students motivating themselves:

> *I can't tell you whether the teacher motivates just by saying well done or things like that so we are at a high level, saying all the time well done, well done, well done. I know well done will not make any change because they are mature enough to understand. I know they motivated by themselves so saying well done excellent and things like that in some cases might work but in some cases might not wor., Sorry.* (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

Subsequently, in the interview, Samah also described the different motivational strategies that she was using in her teaching. She provided different kinds of motivation, she believed that creating a classroom event and changing the students' classroom places would encourage learners to be more motivated, increase their ability to express themselves, and give them a chance to experience the language:

> *If the students are in at an open atmosphere, like outside the class, they will be highly motivated to speak, because we just doing something new, ok, so as you know, if you use every time trying to change or trying to set something new the student are not used to that then. Of course, that will motivate them*

more and they will accept what they are doing. (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

Abrar expressed her belief that motivation was developed by classroom EFL teachers through the language, by providing different learning inputs and changing the teaching methods, as it is essential for learners to experience the language. About other aspects of motivation, learners' autonomy and motivation played a positive role in teachers' motivation. She stated that if students are motivated to learn, the teacher also would be motivated to teach.

> *When students are motivated, the teacher also um … they transfer this to the teacher. So, the teacher becomes more motivated, and so they always ask to get more, which is a very positive thing. I see the desire to learn in my students.* (Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018).

These findings suggest that both university lecturer participants held opinions consistent with the literature; they considered "intrinsic motivation to be more desirable than extrinsic motivation, and that learning outcomes of intrinsic motivation are better than those obtained under extrinsic motivation" (Lia, 2011, p. 10). The data also showed that some students were already intrinsically motivated to learn English, whereas others were not because of external pressure.

However, these findings, overall, suggest that these participants made contradictory statements because the lectures were orally motivating the students and also changing the atmosphere and motivating the learners. Knowing how to promote an active form of extrinsic motivation is an important strategy for a successful teacher. In addition, the results reveal that some learners were already intrinsically motivated to learn English, whereas others were only learning because of external pressure and enforcement. The teacher's role is to provide extrinsic motivation to these learners because giving a task to students that is not interesting or enjoyable (passive and controlling) will limit the active and volitional motivation (Ryan & Deci 2000).

8.1.3 Pre-service teachers' English proficiency

Data from interviews revealed that although motivation plays an important role in learning a language, it is not the only factor. The university students had some issues in terms of communication, so they focused on the kind of English that is not communicative. Abrar described how these students had difficulties in using the grammar rules and vocabulary in their English speaking. Although their knowledge of grammar and their vocabulary was rather good, their ability to be communicative learners was limited. According to Abrar,

Students are keen to learn the language and to improve the level of proficiency but uh ... they face many problems like they cannot apply what they learn when they speak, so they take grammar always. Also, I teach them in reading this year so um ... we take lots of new words, technical words, and I always advise them to use them um ... the difficult words they use but they can't integrate reading, writing, speaking, and listening and use them when they speak, so I think um ... this is the way to improve their language but uh ... they can't, and I don't know why it is hard. (Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018).

The above section presents an illustration of Abrar's reflections on students' speaking ability and the difficulties she faces in improving her students' English proficiency. Abrar added another aspect of student teachers' understanding of the language and how they learn it, which affected their English development. She indicated that students had difficulties in translation from the mother tongue to a second language and that this caused the students to spend a long time in practising their oral proficiency. Abrar believed that these students made no improvements in their language proficiency because they depended on memorisation, in particular, memorising their oral presentation. As this is the traditional way of learning not only English but other subjects in Libya, they also used it to learn English. Abrar said:

I can't tell that there is any improvement maybe this is an offensive judgement but um. I see this when they have to present or, so it's like they

just memorised the whole presentation sometimes they don't even know the meaning of some words, so I don't benefit them in any way, in opposite or in contrast to students who are motivated to learn so they know what part to present, they try to speak although they make mistakes as I say, there is a difference between someone who presents and has known from his or her mind and someone who is just reciting. (Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018).

It appears that these learners were making a conscious effort to learn the English language, but they did not try to learn by actually communicating in the second language but rather by rote learning. Abrar believed that these English skills must be integrated into language teaching and learning, and she considered that grammar rules must be used in practical situations for her learners.

In the interview with Samah, she was asked about students' English proficiency in her classes. She replied that there are differences in students' levels of English proficiency:

Some of them are fluent in English, although you may find them making mistakes as well, they still considered fluent, for some no sorry, so there is a mixture between their ability and even in your subject they have, so some can pass, while others cannot pass. (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

First, she mentioned that she encourages her students to speak only English in her classes, even if they make mistakes. Such strategies and rules of using English only were also adapted by pre-service teachers in their teaching practicum (see Section 7.1.1). About reading comprehension, participants added their experience with issues related to students' level of understanding of the language. For example, Abrar stated that certain students have difficulties in their cognition process and meaning-based learning.

She explained this concerning her previous experience with students' understanding of examination questions: students' understanding issues of exam questions when she changed the structure:

Uh ... comprehension I think still needs more work on that because um ... I see this when I have to fix grammar, especially grammar examination students mostly struggle to understand the meaning of the question what the teacher wants me to do so, when I explain the question, they can answer. But sometimes they don't understand the meaning of the question, even if it's clear for me um ... I always say nothing, nothing new comes, it's just what we studied before, and you have to see what the questions are then you can, maybe from the questions, see what you can and have to do, but this is the problem, I see um ... they can't comprehend the meaning of questions when you just make a slight change in the questions, so they face problems in understanding questions. This is one, instead of reading but this is the general issue I face with my students; this is my fourth year of teaching, but I have seen this problem happening each year. We don't understand what you mean by this question. We don't understand this question. So, I think they have a, maybe lack of uh ... vocabulary. (Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018)

Samah encourages her students only to speak English so that they can learn from their mistakes. This explains why the pre-service teachers adopted this strategy of using English only in their teaching practicum. Samah felt that students need support in reading comprehensions because they always fail to comprehend the meaning of the question, which may be because of a lack of reading resources; learners need to read as much as possible so that they can gain knowledge and build their ability to understand the English language.

The participants outlined that teaching to students who are at different levels is a real issue and makes it difficult for them to teach. The university teachers were aware of situational factors, particularly, dealing with individual differences.

The most difficult part is to make the whole class understand what you are giving. That's the big problem. You know students are different in terms of their ability to understand, the level of their speaking even everything, so to

make the whole class understand you are really difficult; you need to find ways to make those who are intelligent as well those who don't understand you. The way of conveying the information is the most important. (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

8.1.4 Perceptions of oral language learning and teaching

The above section presents data evidence of how learner differences affect their learning and the fact that knowing the language does not guarantee its use. The interview data produced in this study led to a discussion of the conditions that the teacher (Samah) used in teaching the oral language. These conditions are motivation and the opportunities to use the language and providing a supportive atmosphere where the learners can experiment with the language.

This shows that Samah used a variety of activities to support learners' subconscious mechanisms, such as creating a classroom event and holding parties. She focused on increasing the learners' level of motivation to increase their chances of speaking the language, thereby enabling their communicative development.

You need to change something to give them a big motivation like setting party maybe, changing atmosphere maybe, ah… conducting your class outside the class itself. We have done it, so I know that there is a problem for students because they can't carry their laptops and materials, but that is needed for speaking class so if the students are in an open atmosphere like outside the class, the students will be highly motivated to speak because we're doing something new. (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

Another aspect of teaching speaking skill is to provide opportunities for learners to say what they think and present their opinions without feeling threatened. Samah explained how she provided these opportunities to increase the level of speaking among her students. Samah further explained that in case her students do not understand her, she uses simple language to explain the meaning of new information and then puts this

information into listening and speaking practice, thereby avoiding the use of the students' first language.

> *In one class, I have to make them speak um ... English so to show them emotional feeling then I just think um .... Let's have a party, a small party. Before the party, I asked them to prepare something at home, maybe prepare sweets or cake so something they have made on their own; then, in our class we each taste one. Then, after tasting or writing about it, I asked them what you think about that thing. What are you're feeling about what we have done already? Then, because I have got something real in front of them, it gives them the motivation to speak, so they find that easy and can enjoy; even those who do not listen to the conversation in classes began speaking well.* (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

One of the strategies that these participants use in developing students' English language proficiency and overcoming speaking issues is providing an authentic setting and subjects for the learners to use the language, which is an example of learning by doing. Samah stated that using authentic learning encouraged students to engage in learning and overcome their anxiety, as she observed that the more shy and anxious students were more engaged in these activities.

When the researcher asked Samah about the strategies she used with her students, she specified that her preference was CLT because it integrated the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). She added that CLT played an important role in motivating students to learn because it involved activities where students worked together and increased their spoken fluency. Samah said:

> *Communicative language teaching will provide a motivating atmosphere where students work together or work in a pair or groups so that will give them the motivation to speak; however, in some cases where it depends on the subject or the materials, there needs to be a strategy or the methods that you need to use must be related to what you need actually to teach.* (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

The result showed that Samah had a better understanding of the choices concerning how teaching styles can be changed depending on the subjects and level of the learners. She believed that the teacher's job is to find the best fit for her classes. Similarly, Abrar also provided strategies to encourage learners to use and speak English. She stated that since all English faculty staff were speaking English, so the students were required to communicate with them in English. However, they still encountered a few students for whom shyness and anxiety were barriers in their speaking. Abrar stated,

> *The only way it is used is that all staff speaks English, we always use English, and we encourage them to speak. Uh … again those who want to learn, they communicate with teachers even outside class time, so they speak to me in English, they text me in English. Ummm … the others who are not interested or may be shy, so they do not care ah… about CLT.* (Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018)

When asked about students' cooperation and how she used group activities, she explained that she used group activities only if she found positive and active students, because she believed it is ineffective and that not all students participated in group discussions and, occasionally, the group relied only on one student.

> *I encourage if it's done with positive students because some students rely on others; so one student is relaxed, one is stressed and doing hard work, so this is one positive point of group work, and you'll find that one student always talks, and the others remain silent.* (Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018).

Dealing with students' attitudes was a major concern for teachers and implementing a few activities was difficult for the teacher. This limited the students' participation in discussions. Abrar reflected on her experience of having students with negative attitudes towards learning English and towards their classmates.

> *I have seen them they don't discuss, they just listen, and are afraid of making mistakes, so they listen because some students have a negative attitude and use inappropriate words toward each other. This has a*

negative effect on those students, and they just remain silent. (Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018)

Abrar indicated that learners were disrespectful towards each other and many of them were afraid to make mistakes, so they did not participate in group discussions, which prevented her from employing such activities. She described that when she implemented group discussion activities, she found them ineffective in her teaching. She explained that: "*I have used it once or twice, but I did not see the effectiveness of using it, so I don't use it; it could be useful for some purpose, but when I used it, I saw that it has no purpose*". In this case, it could be argued that if English students were not familiar with such activities, their attitudes and motivation to participate in them were limited.

8.2 Curriculum and pedagogy in university

8.2.1 University teachers' perceptions of the university curriculum

The current challenges facing teachers require them to become strong decisionmakers. The interviews with the two university teachers about university curriculum revealed that the university provided a document to guide teachers. This document contained all the subjects for each year, but each subject only outlined themes. One of the responsibilities of the teachers was to develop the content of her subject; they were required to make a decision about the content and choose the most suitable resources for their learners. As Samah explained,

I am here at this university! Do you know what they give you? For the curriculum, they give us only headlines. The content you have to research and find it. You have to bring it from anywhere we only give you a headline, and our job is finished. (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018) Abrar also stated:

For the textbooks, we don't have textbooks, we just are given the titles for each subject, and we have to search and prepare the lectures and exercises, and everything related to what we were given um so, we do not have course readers and such uh textbooks. (Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018)

Therefore, it is evident that participants felt that they did not have any support from the university about content planning, as they explained that reading is the most difficult subject and the policy of the curriculum states that it must be "chosen by the teacher". This coincided with a clearer message from the curriculum policy for teachers to be the main decision-makers for their subjects. The following extract provides evidence of this:

Like we have the reading subject, which is considered the most difficult subject, for the content it says 'chosen by the teacher'. Because of this reading subject. You haven't defined anything on it. I have to find the materials and the details, and you know the resources are not provided and access to the internet is limited; this creates huge challenges and a problem implementing the curriculum. (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

The lack of resources and materials was a significant challenge that became more problematic for teachers in terms of their content preparation. This certainly highlights the importance of teachers' awareness of the challenging situation of their teaching. Despite teachers recognising and accepting this challenge of choosing, the university management gives orders in terms of what subjects the teachers must teach. However, teachers were reluctant to change their subjects each year because they put considerable effort into searching for and designing the content of their subject. The interviewees stated that the university management occasionally gave them a different subject to teach and they gave their current subject to another teacher, which was disappointing for them. For example, Samah said:

We have been working on one subject for the whole year collecting and searching the content. What is happening is that the faculty sometimes assign teachers to teach a different subject and we have to work on the content for the first three months because the previous teachers do not always give her content. (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

8.2.2 University teachers' perception of the current teaching methods

Although the schools' policy curriculum determined the teaching method, which is CLT, university policy did not specify which methods teachers must use. Therefore, university teachers were interviewed to gain an insight into their perception towards CLT and the method used at the university. When the university teachers were asked about how CLT was used in schools and universities, they indicated that CLT was a preferable approach. Samah acknowledged that CLT is a factor in motivating the learners and encouraged them to enjoy the subject. She explained these views in the following manner:

> *I do think to learn English because it is just a second language, communicative language teaching methods will work more than other methods ... well that is your students, and that is your subject, if you are using something boring in your teaching then, of course, students will hate that subject but if you are using something communicative or motivating then the students of course love subject and start to learn and work or study hard on that.* (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

Further, she also made the following comments about grammar-translation methods during the interview:

> *For me, I hate the grammar-translation method because it is just saying or writing something on the board and repeating and translating, well we do not use grammar-translation method in this institution at all for all teachers. Maybe in the past year, but now things have changed.* (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

Samah used the strong word 'hate', thereby displaying her attitude toward the method, which can be interpreted in different ways. The first interpretation is that her perspective as a teacher was that she did not want to use this method to teach students. The second interpretation is that her attitudes come from her own experience as a student when she experienced being taught using the grammar-translation method. This method can be rather boring, and this explained why she had such a strong opinion, as students

did not enjoy it and, thus, it was not useful for the teacher. The third interpretation of her opinion or attitudes is that she knew that the researcher considered that CLT was better than the grammar-translation method (GTM), so she may have provided an answer that the interviewer wanted to hear. The last interpretation could be a combination of all of the earlier responses, which were most likely to be a mixture of factors influencing teacher perceptions.

From a different part of the interview, when asked about the strategies Samah used, she provided her perceptions regarding preference for teaching methods, which demonstrated that she knew CLT when she expressed that CLT integrated the four language skills and increased students' motivation levels for improving their speaking skills. She said:

> *I prefer the communicative teaching because I think it is just a way of saying how to improve their speaking with listening with writing with reading, all of which are skills needed in the communicative language; communicative language creates a motivating atmosphere where students work together or work in pairs or groups, which gives them the motivation to speak.* (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

Another perception that emerged from the interview was that teachers determined the choice of methods to be used in their teaching, depending on what types of subjects were selected. For example, GTM is aligned with grammar subjects:

> *If it is grammar class so, I do think communicative will work there but the problem is what we use is the grammar-translation method and to change from that or to jump from grammar-translation method to communicative then you need more than one class to do that.* (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

Also, when Abrar was asked if she thought her class was a teacher-centred or student-centred one, she was honest in her answer by saying that her class was a teachercentred because she spent most of the lecture time in talking and explaining.

It is teacher-centred for me because it is uh lecture type, I am delivering, um I am delivering stuff for students until uh when I finished so, of course. So, when they have difficulties in understanding something that has not to understand so they ask and talk to each other so they can stop me at any point they have difficulty in understanding it so but mostly it's teachercentred because it is me who delivers, and students listen and a get note and when I finish or during explaining they can ask questions yeah but mostly centred. (Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018)

Abrar showed her understanding of her role as being teacher-centred because she spent most of her class time talking to her students: Abrar's common and repeated statements were, "*I am delivering stuff for students until uh when I finished*", "*but mostly it's teacher-centred because it is me who delivers and students listen and take notes when I finish or while I explain*". She also demonstrated the students' right to talk and ask her or other students questions when they do not understand the message: "*when they have difficulties in understanding something, so they ask and talk to each other so they can stop me at any point when they have difficulty in understanding something*" and "*when I finish or while I'm explaining they can ask questions yeah*".

8.3 Challenges in Implementing the CLT in the Classroom

During the interview, the researcher asked Samah about the greatest challenges to her teaching. She felt that students' acceptance of the subject was significant in their success or failure, library resources, and the lack of speaking and listening classes. She also mentioned the importance of teaching material in implementing CLT, and indicated that classroom size influences the implementation of CLT. She believed that this was also applicable to a large class of students. The following extract is evidence of what she thought about class size: "*If a teacher has the materials, then the use of communicative language is easy. And that gives the important result if the class is not big; if the class is not large, the communicative language teaching will be ok*". (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

8.3.1 Perceptions of the characteristics of good English language teachers

Concerning teachers' perceptions of being a 'good' and 'effective' English teacher, Abrar used certain aspects needed to be a good teacher to promote productive and receptive skills, such as "speaking well", "listening to students", "reading with no pronunciation mistakes", and "writing on the board with no spelling mistakes". Also, Abrar described a good teacher as one who has "knowledge", "skill", and "personality"; moreover, concerning how a teacher must react to various situations and high expectations of students, she said:

> *You cannot be a good language teacher without knowledge and skill and if*
> *you have knowledge and skill, but you are shy how you can be a good*
> *teacher, so you have to have knowledge skill and personality and know how*
> *to deal with students and how to maybe react in different situations. I think*
> *all of them make a good teacher and there is no good teacher without*
> *knowledge. I think it is very important to know.* (Interview, Abrar,
> 01/04/2018)

In contrast to Samah, her perceptions of effective speaking skills and the level of teacher fluency are used in conjunction with grammar accuracy. In the EFL context, teachers could speak freely and authentically without pausing, but their speaking could have several mistakes; therefore, fluency does not always imply accuracy. According to Thamarana (2015), "fluency is emphasised over accuracy to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use" (p. 93). Further, Samah added that using English every day without mistakes would help the students learn the basic language, which is a form of "formulaic teaching". When learners were concerned about formulating the accurate words and sentences with correct pronunciations, they might not utter what they remembered in their heads. Samah explained the traditional view of language learning in the following manner:

> *I think if the teacher is fluent, I guess these without any mistake in grammar,*
> *of course, their students will follow them even in the simple structure like*
> *"open the door", "close the window" and things like that, so if the teacher*
> *is making mistakes in this how can we expect the students to follow that*

teacher and produce the language correctly; so, of course, training new teachers or training students to teach I think need to be focused first on their speaking ability. If they speak well, there's no problem. (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

She further indicated that being a good English teacher signified being good at grammar. This is a traditional view of language teaching as the primary goal is to focus on the language accuracy, as was stated in the survey that "rules need to be mastered to communicate effectively". However, CLT views that "knowledge of the rules does not guarantee correct use". Therefore, learning grammar rules will not make learners speak fluently or become effective communicators. Even though Samah is a teacher of listening and speaking and attempted to implement various methods and strategies to develop learners' speaking skills, she still considered that grammar was the most important criteria, as evident from the extract below:

I think English is based on a way of saying that if you are good in grammar because it is is just our second language, so if you can construct if you can build good sentences and structure in grammar, you can speak without any problems, and if you feel that you can't then you can't even work on your subject. (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

The two extracts above suggest that Samah's statements about the qualities of a good English teacher focused on grammar. Samah related the characteristics of a good teacher to grammar, and she believed that mastering grammar has an essential role in developing English fluency.

8.3.2 Lack of speaking and listening classes

Teachers at Nalut University recommended that the university should provide more listening and speaking classes for students to develop their communication and speaking abilities. They stated that their challenges in teaching listening and speaking were mostly in terms of the lack of available materials, the inadequate number of lessons provided each week, and students complaining that their teacher did not give them

sufficient opportunities to speak. Abrar referred to speaking and listing problems and students' complaints in the following manner:

> *They don't have enough materials for the development of listening and speaking in English. I think they are not up for the uh they are not up to the students grade maybe they are this type of topic that can increase students or motivate students to talk; and also students complain in speaking classes that they don't speak enough so they don't feel like they are improving enough and the topics they are given do not help them improve, especially presentations don't help them improve their language because they are memorising and delivering.* (Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018)

Further, in an interview with pre-service teachers Sohad commented:

> *As English students, the imbalance in lectures that focus on the conversation and speaking skills, we had only one lesson a week which is not enough for us as 17 students in the classroom to get a chance to develop our speaking skills. It is useless in learning grammar rules without using them in the conversation classes. Listening skill is another aspect that we need support to develop our abilities to listen to. Like speaking skill, only one lesson a week is provided to us for listening. In addition to a computer lab that needs a lot of conversations, therefore our marks in listening are always low.* (Interview with pre-service teacher 5, Sohad)

These particular points from the pre-service teacher suggest the current lack of training at the university; thus, both the university and the teachers need to take action to change the program, because students need an opportunity to practise their English in these classes and use computer labs to complete a variety of linguistic activities, which include listening activities.

Sohad indicated another major challenge faced in their speaking skills—the different English dialects of each teacher; since every teacher has graduated from a different country, they speak English differently:

A lot of confusion and interference has happened in terms of our pronunciation of words because our lecturers have graduated from America, Britain, and Australia. Each teacher has adapted the manner of speaking of the particular country she/he graduated from, so we felt lost on which one we should use. (Interview with pre-service teacher 5, Sohad)

8.4 Perceptions of the Teaching Practicum Program

Another aspect of the current study is the teaching practicum; the university teachers were asked to give their opinions of the teaching practicum program and how it could be improved in the future. Key themes that emerged from the interviews in relation to the teaching practicum and the pre-service teachers included perceptions towards using the teacher guidebook; perceptions toward the practicum program, but this was also related to the policy of the teaching practicum program, so it was included in the policy section; perceptions towards teacher training and improvement; and perceptions regarding teaching preparation for pre-service teachers.

8.4.1 Perceptions of the teacher guidebook

In all schools in Libya, textbooks and teacher guidebooks are provided to teachers and pre-service teachers during their practicums. The teacher guidebook is a part of the school curriculum, which contains direct instructions on how to implement CLT activities, answers to workbook questions, and coursebook for filling gaps in activities, and the kind of homework that teachers must give to students. The university teachers were asked to reflect on how they gave instructions to pre-service teachers to use the teacher guidebook and it was used in their teaching. Abrar believed that the teacher guidebook is important in supporting the pre-service teachers because it was their first experience in teaching; however, she also indicated that she had not noticed whether the pre-service teachers were using it. She said:

I did that many times last week because um it tells what to do. It is like almost a ready lesson plan that one should follow. It contains both explanations of some activities, how to do them, and how to deal with students, so helpful because it is their first time to teach. But I do not see students using that

because their lesson plan is not really as it should be … yeah, its short plan year. (Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018)

For this university teacher, the teacher guidebook was very important, and she indicated the benefit of using it in her statement. This shows that Abrar was aware of the pedagogical practices provided in the book, the students and teachers' roles, and the types of activities. However, she stated that she was not satisfied with her students because they do not seem to have used the guidebook.

In contrast, Samah mentioned that the pre-service teachers were using the teacher guidebook; this is because her students were different from Abrar's. However, similar to Abrar's comments, Samah endorsed the use of the teacher guidebook and she valued it. She stated that even though the pre-service teachers were competent in English, they were experiencing teaching for the first time and so needed to follow this guide.

While they were in the teaching practice, they were using the guideline book or guidebook they follow that even they have not got it for each class, they need to. Well, to design their map for teaching, so that simplify their teaching if they have good material it is easy to teach ahh, by using that and if it is not available then it is really difficult because we are experiencing that with regard to preparation and students and all of that. (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

She added her own experience as a pre-service teacher and commented that, because teaching is difficult, it was essential to use the guidebook. Samah further explained how the pre-service teachers were using the guidebook in their teaching and the importance of using it for each class. However, none of these teachers mentioned CLT when they talked about the teacher guidebook. It was reported from pre-service teachers that they were required to implement six different methods, depending on the students' level and the lesson type, which they learnt from the university course, as mentioned in the previous chapter (Section 6.2.6). These methods were: the grammar-translation methods (GTM); communicative language teaching (CLT); total physical method; Suggestopedia; community language teaching; and the audiolingual method. This reveals that university teachers did not teach their students how to teach CLT.

8.4.2 Perceptions of teacher training and improvement

The first aspect that emerged from the discussion with the university teachers about how pre-service teacher training could be improved was the level of speaking skill. For example, Samah discussed that pre-service teachers must practise their speaking levels to be an effective teacher in the future: "Of *course, training new teacher or training student to teach I think they need to be focused on their ability to speaking first so if they speak well no problem*". (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

In contrast to Abrar's comments on the way the university must train future teachers, she stated that teachers must have extra time for teaching practice to make them more confident about their teaching experience. She noted that the pre-service teachers feel stressed when their supervisors evaluate them—"but one week I think is very frustrating and the supervisor comes from the first time". It also gives them time to build a relationship with students and know their names:

> *I think the period of teaching should be longer than one week I think one week is not enough to assist the students maybe one month is very enough so they get confident they can as you said they can build a relationship with students so this helps them to be more comfortable so they can give their best; but one week I think is very frustrating and the supervisor comes from the first time and even the teacher does not know the students' names and the teacher has to do everything, so one week is not enough I think.*
> (Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018)

8.4.3 Perceptions on the assessment of the pre-service teachers using the evaluation form

The evaluation forms for the university teachers at Nalut University were predetermined by the English faculty. University teachers were not involved in designing the evaluation forms. The participants of this study were supervisors of the pre-service teachers. Abrar told the researcher that, in her first year of supervising the pre-service teachers, she was using the form that she designed, but in the second year, the faculty

administration provided them with a new one and told them to use that one. However, they were not satisfied with the current evaluation form. Abrar explained:

> *I do observe for this year I observe three students, two students, last week and I still have another student in this week, so yeah I do assess them. I have an assessment rubric, which is not comfortable with this is what we use to assess our students so I have to fill this so uh um for three visits so its um we assess them for three visits then we take a summation for these three weeks, to have one month we prefer that this is the best way, because um for each visit we advise students what is good and what to improve as well.* (Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018)

Further, these supervisors indicated that each university teacher was assigned to three pre-service teachers, to attend the classes with them and evaluate them. There were three visits for each pre-service teacher. Abrar was asked about how she provided feedback to their students on their teaching; she indicated that she provided them with an oral and written feedback after their classes: "*Yes, I do give the feedback after the class, students can improve their ... or where they have to improve, and I also appreciate them and where they did well and encourage them to do more*" (Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018).

In addition, Abrar added her perceptions of how she assessed the pre-service teachers on their lesson plans; she stated that a lesson plan takes a long time to prepare and it is difficult to give tasks to students. In addition, she elaborated on her own difficult experience preparing her first lesson plan. This influenced her beliefs and attitudes on how to assess the lesson plan. She explained:

> *Yeah because the lesson plan takes a long time and it is hard for the first time they do not practise how to do a lesson plan so this is one problem and this is why I do not assess them on the lesson plan, I just give them a general mark. I don't care about specific things, I just give a mark for whether they follow or not I did not assess on why you did this and you did not do this; I advise them but I do not assess them because I know it is hard. I remember the first lesson plan I wrote in my life; it took a long time, it took me one*

week to prepare one lesson plan. It was good, but it is hard for the first time.
(Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018)

8.4.6 Large classes

Both university teacher participants (Abrar and Samah) and pre-service teachers (Sohad and Zahra from the last chapter) commented that a large number of students are a major problem, particularly when attempting to implement CLT; large classes indeed present more challenges than small classes, particularly in terms of teaching English classes. Samah mentioned that there was a decrease in the number of students, which was unlike previous years: "*This year is the fourth year in which we have 17 students, in the third year we had only 5 students, but what we used to have in the past was more than thirty students, 35, 39, 40*" (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018).

The above extract indicates that the number of students who choose to study English as a major is decreasing as compared to the last few years; this might be because students find another pathway to study or they might be not interested in English as a foreign language.

I want to have in the future or what they need to have really, they want the government to reduce the number of students in each class. So, each class needs to be 10 students and that is the maximum for that class'. (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

The above statements suggest that each class must have at least ten students. Moreover, Samah believes that future change can be brought about if the government changes the rules in this regard.

8.5 Perceptions of Using Self-evaluation Forms

Abrar was asked where she used the self-evaluation record; however, she initially misunderstood the question and reflected that she was using a kind of survey for evaluation based on what the students think about her. This evaluation form did not contain questions about her lessons but was related to knowledge. She provided a reference from her form, for example, "the teacher is well organised; the teacher knows her subject; the teacher comes always on time".

> *Yeah, their speaking teacher used it as part of methodology so she records them then they hear what they say and say oh my god is that me? How did they say that? There are many effective methods used by teachers, but I think the problem is that talking about myself, I do not see the result of that and this is the problem, it is like you did nothing.* (Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018)

This was confirmed during the interview by the teachers who taught listening and speaking. Samah explained how she used the recorded transcripts. She used it for her students to assess and evaluate the ability of pre-service teachers to use English accurately, avoid grammar mistakes, and have correct pronunciation; in addition, it also helped to judge their knowledge of the actual methodological background of CLT.

> *Of course, I am just using that especially in the exams so each student has to record her voice because they are girl students or female students so record themselves and after finishing so they need to give me transcripts of their presentation and then we will take that or take some examples and then will work on that on the board to find out the mistakes; we do this even with pronunciation because we have a record or with the grammar, because we have the transcript.* (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

It is evident from the above extract that teachers used it only for exams but not in actual learning classes. However, when the researcher asked the participants if they used it to evaluate their talk, their perception changed, and they said that they did not use it and they did not have to use it. For example, Samah emphasised:

I hate my voice. (Laugh). No, I have not used that yeah I haven't recorded myself at all just when we have teaching practice or preparing I have not recorded myself, but what do you think if you record yourself what will add to you I think before coming to teach you to need to see and look at your self are you able to teach are you able to speak do you have a problem in your speaking? So if you do not have all that why you need to stand in front of students? (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

Samah reflected that she was able to teach CLT, and she thought about it when preparing her lessons; then she delivered what she prepared and she felt that should be sufficient. However, the researcher's point was that if the teacher records the lesson, it is not necessary to consider the content or have a better understanding. Moreover, the CLT strategies that she wanted to use were not organised by sitting at home and preparing, but came by being before a class full of students—from the manner of presentation, of interacting with the students, or how they ask questions; thus, CLT strategies involved a certain manner of doing things and manner of saying things to students. These can only be picked up if the teachers recorded the class; therefore, this demonstrates that the teachers had a lack of understanding of what is CLT is real and how it is manifested and displayed when teaching in the class, as is evident from the following extract:

Because the principles of communicative teaching, so because the principles are already known in your mind, of course, you will follow them, and I know if you are using the translation method there is no way to use group discussion or pair work or anything like that, or even to let time for your student to speak, so that is not the translation method. But I think because grammar-translation depends on the kind of the subject may be, for me, listening and speaking and writing so I need to use communicative language teaching. (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

One of the aspects of Libyan culture is that teachers are considered knowledgeable and sufficiently experienced to teach everything at different levels, and they are understood as belonging to varied subjects because they are teachers. They are required

to at least give the appearance to the students that they know everything and that they do not need improvement, even though the researcher explained how effective it is to examine how the teacher talks by analysing their spoken dialogues. However, Samah still refused to engage with the idea of using professional dialogue; she preferred a lesson plan, searching for suitable materials, and delivering what she prepared during the lecture.

> *No, before just entering the class, everything is clear in your mind ok so if you at home prepared you a lesson that gives you a chance to see what suits to teach your students really to find out what method you need to follow to simplify materials or even the things that you need to download from the internet so that will come to your mind before you start your lesson so. I think this is important if you just come in and start to explain without anything in your mind will feel yourself in a bad situation really (laugh) all the thing before come in and start your lesson.* (Interview, Samah, 09/04/2018)

While Abrar has similar perceptions, when the researcher clarified the meaning of the teacher self-evaluation form, she mentioned that has not used it but she would use it if there was a purpose for using it. She said,

> *Yeah maybe if I have the purpose of using it but uh I do not need I know what to do maybe I am confident enough so I do think I need to use it maybe if I have a purpose to use it but I do think I have the plan to use it or maybe next year when I will have to teach young learners maybe so I will try to see where to change the language to suit them maybe.* (Interview, Abrar, 01/04/2018)

8.6 Conclusion

This chapter revealed that the university teachers identified the issues which led to how CLT can be improved in terms of their understanding of pre-service teachers' motivations, perceived language levels and abilities. They identified many dilemmas and

challenges in EFL learning and teaching at Libyan universities and schools in terms of the implementation of CLT, such as the curriculum, policy, lack of resources, and lack of teacher training, which needed to be fixed. In addition, other findings which might hinder the improvement of implementing CLT is that university teachers consider themselves experts who do not need any professional development, although they see that the classroom teachers require professional development. The analyses revealed that the university teachers had some understanding of the principles of CLT, but there is not enough evidence of its use. They did attempt to overcome some of the dilemmas, such as internet access, and encouraged the use of English constantly to improve their students' English-speaking proficiency levels. Moreover, the findings also suggested that there was a need for changes in the EFL policy and the teacher practicum program in universities, to ensure more effective preparation for understanding and implementing the CLT approach in the future.

CHAPTER NINE: DISCUSSION

9.0 Overview

This study investigated the beliefs and attitudes of pre-service and in-service teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) about Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in Libya, in Tripoli. This chapter discusses the results from both the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study in light of the research questions and conjunction with existing literature.

The discussion is divided into five main sections. It starts with Section 9.1, which revisits the research questions of this study. Section 9.2 then provides an explanation and discussion of the outcomes of the quantitative data analysis presented in Chapter Five. The research focused on two different participant groups (PSTs and INSTs) by comparing their beliefs and attitudes towards CLT with the related literature. The third section, Section 9.3, discusses the practical outcomes presented in Chapter Six (quantitative data analysis from classroom observation) to answer research question 2. This section is followed by Section 9.4, which discusses the main factors that might shape Libyan pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards implementing CLT. These factors come from the findings in Chapters Six, Seven and Eight. Section 9.5 presents the challenges facing Libyan university teachers when preparing EFL teachers to teach CLT.

9.1 Research Questions Revisited

This study aims to answer the following questions:

1)   How do Libyan pre-service and in-service EFL teachers perceive CLT in terms of their beliefs and attitudes?

   A.   What are Libyan pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards CLT?

   B.   What are Libyan in-service EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards the CLT approach?

2)   To what extent do Libyan pre-service EFL teachers apply CLT approaches in their teaching?

3) What factors might shape Libyan pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards implementing CLT? Why?

4) What challenges do Libyan university teachers face when preparing EFL teachers to teach CLT?

9.2 Research Question One

How do Libyan pre-service and in-service EFL teachers perceive CLT in terms of their beliefs and attitudes?

The discussion of the two sub-questions of research question one is combined because no significant differences between the two groups were found. Through a case study approach this research investigated Libyan pre-service and in-service teachers' perceptions of post method EFL pedagogy by surveying their extent of agreement with Kumaravadivelu's EFL macro pedagogical strategies and Karavas-Doukas's (1996) Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI). Their survey responses provided insights into their current knowledge, practice and beliefs about EFL pedagogy in the light of the current shift to a more social constructivist approach to language learning where making meaning through authentic language use is paramount. Overall, their responses showed some contradictions in their views about traditional EFL pedagogy and the CLT approach, which imply a lack of depth of knowledge about how CLT is evidenced in practice.

Concerning Kumaravadivelu's EFL macro pedagogical strategies, the vast majority of both groups agreed with each of the five EFL macro-strategies that described what EFL teachers should be doing when implementing CLT. These related to developing learner autonomy, the importance of raising students' awareness of comparative cultural knowledge, and facilitating their ability to infer grammatical rules through their authentic use of the language. They also included the need to create a range of learning opportunities rather than focus on the transmission of knowledge in their teaching, besides having students learn and compare the formal properties of their L1 and L2 as part of their learning. In comparison, their responses to the five EFL macrostrategies that described typical pedagogical issues in EFL showed some

contradiction in their understanding. This implied a lack of depth in their grasp of how CLT ideally occurs in practice. Although almost all agreed that meaningful discourse-based activities were necessary and that learning English involves different dimensions that both determine the language use, and defines the skills and proficiency level needed to speak it in line with CLT, their remaining responses were less appreciative of this approach.

For instance, over a quarter of both groups disagreed that mismatches between teachers' intention and students' interpretation of what is being taught should be reduced. This showed that both PSTs and INSTs resisted changes in their classroom behaviour to a more interactive way of teaching and involving learners in the process of learning by "clarification and confirmation, comprehension checks, requests, repairing, reacting, and turn-taking" (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, p. 34). This result was supported by classroom observation: when students asked pre-service teachers a question, which was irrelevant to the content of the textbook, they declined to answer and replied that it was not stated in the textbook. This has a strong influence on students who are waiting for the answer from teachers and it might decrease their motivation for learning. The theories that underpin CLT, such as socio-cultural theory and system functional linguistics theory (Halliday, 1992) reflect the need for teachers to create authentic, meaningful communicative interactions. Teachers should, therefore, provide the answers to all students' questions and, if the question is hard to answer, they should try to direct the question to the whole class in a flexible way (Chen, 2014). The previous educational experience of Libyan teachers influences the successful implementation of communicative language teaching, through their continued focus on traditional teachercentred methodology and GTM, thus, they may tend to teach as they were taught (Simmons, 1995; as cited in Wilhelm, 1997). Secondly, the teachers may not have been prepared to foster a collaborative relationship as some of them had not experienced collaboration and an appreciation of how language functions to make meaning in their own language learning experience (Horwitz et al., 1997).

In addition, less than two-thirds of each group recognised that from the perspective of CLT, teaching each of the four macros skills separately was artificial. On the other hand, the ISTs appeared more supportive of students initiating dialogue during the lesson as opposed to merely responding to teachers' prompts; yet almost all PSTs

and ISTs had recognised the importance of students needing to use the language for meaningful purposes.

Thus, overall both groups' knowledge and beliefs in relation to the teaching of EFL suggested a lack of depth in putting CLT into practice and some confusion. The results of the BALLI revealed that both PSTs and ISTs held contradictory views, thus providing weak support for the implementation of CLT. Their varied responses showed a lack of connection between how theory is evidenced in practice and vice versa to be able to differentiate between the traditional method and CLT. The importance of integrating the four macro skills through involving students in purposeful interactive, authentic language use in keeping with CLT, therefore appeared weak. Their seemingly stronger focus on teaching, as opposed to students' language learning, was borne out in their lack of awareness of how, when the gap is narrowed between teacher intention and learner interpretation, the chances of reaching successful learning outcomes becomes greater. In terms of facilitating classroom teaching, the interaction could be facilitated through group work and pair work. Evidence from the triangulation of the results from the survey, interviews and classroom observations showed that many teachers preferred whole classroom teaching rather than group and pair work because they thought that it saved time. In addition, these Libyan PSTs and INSTs mentioned that English language skills cannot be integrated and they preferred to teach each skill separately. Therefore, they ignored speaking and listening skills because they believed them to be less important than the skills of reading and writing. However, CLT principles apply equally to reading and writing activities that involve learners' interpretations, expression and negotiation of meaning through their integration (Savignon, 2017).

Studies that used the same attitude scale on pre-service teachers (Yilmaz, 2018) and in-service teachers (Amin, 2016; Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2017; Lashgari, Jamali, & Yousofi, 2014; Razmjoo et al., 2006; Sanderson, 2013) found that teachers hold differing views towards CLT, but they concluded that overall teachers hold positive beliefs toward communicative language teaching (CLT).

Thus, it was found that PSTs and INSTs have positive views on group/pair work activities and the roles and needs of learners in the learning process. Half of both groups

had positive attitudes to the role of the teacher and the other half did not support the teacher's role in CLT. This study found that participants in both pre-service teachers and INSTs groups have negative views on the quality and quantity of error corrections and the importance of grammar in the CLT method. This finding is similar to research about Iranian teachers by Razmoo (2006) and Lashgari, Jamali and Yousofi (2014), and research on teachers' attitudes in Chile in South America (Sanderson, 2013). However, they are different from teachers' attitudes in Amine's (2016) study in North Cyprus, where he found that teachers hold positive attitudes to grammar and error corrections more than other CLT principles.

For a long time, most of the Libyan language classrooms were dominated by traditional approaches where teaching was perceived as the transmission of knowledge from the teacher to the passive learner. Therefore, there are some obvious constraints in employing the communicative approach and having teachers accept contemporary socio-cultural beliefs. The INSTs are seen not as facilitators of learning but as a fountain of knowledge, where they deliver information without any concession to students but which students struggle to understand (Halliday, 1992). In contrast, once learners are included in the learning community, they become constructors of knowledge along with their teachers, rather than knowledge receivers (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998),

The in-depth analysis of participants' responses revealed that they answered in the same way to both positive and negative statements, again showing their lack of understanding of the principles of CLT. These results coincide with the findings of Karavas-Doukas (1996), who concluded that teachers hold contradictory views towards CLT principles and Mangubhai et al. (1998) who found that teachers' understanding of CLT principles was not strong. Nevertheless, Karavas-Doukas explained that "a teacher may well respond to both statements having in mind the teaching context in which both teacher-centred and learner-centred practices have an important role to play" (p. 193).

With regard to the quality and quantity of error correction and the role of grammar in learning, this study demonstrates that over 88% of Libyan PSTs and INSTs held a strong view that it was necessary to correct all errors and that making errors was not a normal part of learning. There was consistency in their views of error correction, and this corresponded

with the findings of Lashgari, Jamali, and Yousofi (2014), who noted that more than 60% of Iranian teachers believed in the importance of correcting all errors. The current study demonstrates that over 80% of PSTs and 90% of INSTs agreed about the statement 'grammatical correction from the beginning' because they think 'grammatical correction is a more important criterion'.

The research participants preferred that 'feedback should be focused on communicative effectiveness, not on linguistics from students' responses', and 'knowledge of rules does not guarantee correct use of the language', thus showing that they hold inconsistencies in their attitudes. This suggests that they agreed to the statement because they think it does not apply to Libyan students to become active communicators; rather, their expectations of Libyan language teaching are that there is a need to memorise the knowledge to meet the examination content instead of making the language classroom more interactive and communicative. These imply that more awareness and understanding for language teachers are needed before expecting them to apply pedagogical innovations.

The results of the survey also revealed that Libyan teachers focused on the direct teaching of rules because they believed that CLT leads to fluency but not to accuracy. Because of this, they preferred to use a traditional method of teaching over CLT. This has also been noted by other researchers. For example, according to Qinghong (2009), traditional methods focus on using correct grammar while "CLT shifts the stress to fluency" (p. 50). Qinghong argued that teachers should pay more attention to "both accuracy and fluency" because they "are complementary" (p. 50). CLT does not mean excluding teaching grammar because "grammar serves as a basis for communication to take place efficiently" (Chang, 2011, p. 27). Studies like those of Kpoblahoun (2017) and Yilmaz (2011) also reported a concern regarding error correction, because their participants agreed to both error correction and the importance of grammar rules less than other CLT principles. Yilmaz argued that, in the EFL context, more attention is focused on correcting learners' grammatical errors regardless of their communicative competence and this, in essence, pinpoints "the ultimate purpose of language learning" (p. 109).

The role of teachers in CLT requires them to be facilitators rather than dispensers of knowledge to learners (Mangubhai et al., 1998). However, Libyan PSTs and INSTs held contradictory attitudes to the role of teachers in the classroom; for example, both groups agreed that teachers should negotiate and adopt tasks and activities to suit students' needs: "the teacher must supplement the textbook with other materials and tasks to satisfy the widely differing needs of the students". However, they also agreed that it is impossible in a large class for teachers to organise their teaching to suit the needs of all students.

Another contradictory attitude showed when they agreed to take a role as a transmitter of knowledge, which is only one of the many different teachers' roles. They also agreed with the contrary statement that the "authority and instruction are no longer adequate to describe the teacher's role in the language classroom". However, they also saw themselves as imparters of knowledge. Hall (2017) suggested that "teachers can be as authoritative when guiding a learner-centred activity as when 'teaching from the front', albeit in a different way" (p. 7). Previous studies, including Mangubhai et al. (1998) and Yilmaz (2018) drew similar conclusions. For example, Mangubhai et al. argued that "teacher roles have not been incorporated into teacher behaviour because of a lack of concrete exemplars of how this can be done" (p. 10). The role of teachers is not only of how they teach, but it is also, about how they engage learners in learning (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003). The ability of teachers to carry out a facilitator role effectively depends on how much they can establish rapport with their students and on the level of their skills and knowledge (Brown, 2007). This indicates that these teachers needed to develop their skills and knowledge about how to foster learners' autonomy (Tochon, 2014) instead of seeing the role of the teacher in CLT as diminishing teachers' power and authority.

9.3 Research Question Two:

To what extent do Libyan pre-service EFL teachers apply CLT approaches in their teaching?

This study observed the pre-service teachers' classes and investigated their views to determine the extent to which pre-service teachers applied CLT in their teaching. In

response to research question two, observations were made of pre-service teachers' behaviour in terms of whether they were using a traditional approach or CLT. Central to the theoretical base underpinning this study is the view that teaching can be considered on a continuum between traditional behaviourism and social constructivism. In other words, teaching can be perceived as the transmission of information versus teaching as social constructivism, and learning is seen as being constructed through interactions and discussion while being scaffolded through the skill of the teacher. The latter approach is evident in the dialogue the teacher develops with students and their use of meta-language (Bruner, 1990; Kim 2001; Lantolf, 2000; Vygotsky, 1978; Walsh, 2003).

Through data analysis and findings from classroom observation in Chapter Six, the results indicate that even though the school lacked resources and teaching aids, preservice teachers used teaching aids and provided resources for students to encourage their learning. These teaching aids were not provided by the school itself, but the teachers brought them to school. For example, they used different teaching aids such as mobile phones and projectors, as well as personal computers, to show photographs of new vocabulary. They used flashcards, audio and videos and printed materials, which corresponds to the statement of the post-method strategy "contextualising linguistic input of language practice". These results reinforce the previous studies which found that teachers made insufficient use of teaching aids (Mudra, 2018; Nguyen, Warren, & Fehring, 2014; Ylimaz, 2011). According to Nguyen, Warren, and Fehring (2014), there are two reasons for not using teaching aids effectively. The first reason is that teaching aids take the teachers' time in preparing visual teaching materials. The second reason they mentioned is "teachers' skill in using technology and technical equipment" (p. 102). A similar study's findings in Indonesia (Mudra, 2018) reported that pre-service teachers faced many challenges such as a lack of teaching aids and resources. The current study demonstrated that pre-service teachers advocated the use of technology in their classes, but these resources were used for drilling new vocabulary instead of extending students' English awareness.

Regarding teaching interaction, pre-service teachers preferred whole class interactions because they did most of the talking, and when the teacher asked questions,

mostly concerning grammar, vocabulary and translation of the meaning, about 20% of the classroom talk consisted of the teacher asking display questions, which required a short answer and translation of particular vocabulary. The number of learners' turns and the teacher's turns appeared to be high for some teachers, but they were often reading dialogues. As an example, Zahra was asking the students for the meaning of translations (e.g., Extracts 22, 34, 37, and 39). Therefore this practice was not scaffolding the English language used based on meaning-making. Students had very limited opportunities to increase their use of language for meaningful purposes. These results corroborate similar findings in other contexts such as China. Chen (2014), for example, found that the EFL teachers in his study agreed with the use of post-method strategies but they did not create learning opportunities; their teaching practices were predominantly explaining texts and exercise most of the time, thus viewing their learners as passive receivers while correcting all their mistakes. They concentrated on teaching grammar rules, vocabulary and translation. Although the pre-service teachers in the current study demonstrated in their teaching practice focused on grammar relating to reading or writing, they should have also had a focus on using the language to communicate through speaking. They needed to develop students' talk in the target language as well as each individual's contribution to comprehensible output (Swain, 1995). The results from interviews of this study revealed that pre-service teachers focused on explaining the grammar rules during their practicum. These practices correspond to their beliefs and attitudes from the survey. However, the instruction policy for teaching grammar statements in the teachers' guidebook (Quintana, O'Neill, & McGarry, 2012) stated that:

> The grammar is always presented in context and is recycled throughout the book in other contexts. It is not assumed that students will have mastered a grammatical point after a single presentation. In line with current research, the book recognises the need to notice grammatical patterns repeatedly and practise them frequently before students can acquire the grammatical rules. (p. 7)

The curriculum instruction for grammar teaching demonstrated how teachers should teach grammar deductively rather than using an inductive method, where the learners have an opportunity to discover the grammatical rules themselves. Savignon (2017)

noted that CLT principles apply equally to the expression and negotiation of meaning, and this "does not exclude a focus on metalinguistic awareness or knowledge of the rules of syntax, discourse, and social appropriateness" (p. 6). However, all of the preservice teachers concentrated on teaching the language form instead of the meaning, but the findings from classroom transcripts showed that they were making many grammatical mistakes as in the case of Amal in Section 6.2.3.2. This finding is not a surprising result, as it is likely that these pre-service teachers were influenced by their previous experiences as learners or their university teachers who taught them deductively might have influenced them. Tantani (2012), who conducted his study in Libya (in Zawia University), reported that university teachers were teaching grammar deductively to EFL students at university, even though they claimed that they knew to teach using the inductive method. In the current study, it was not discovered how university teachers taught grammar to pre-service teachers; therefore, more research is needed to ascertain a clear answer to this question. Also, this study demonstrated that pre-service teachers held negative attitudes toward the quality and quantity of error correction and the place of grammar in learning. The classroom observations revealed that they only implemented controlled practice and ignored free practice. This suggested that their attitudes tended to be more traditional.

Regarding the implementation of group work and pair work, it was found to be not used by many of the pre-service teachers, because the students were unable to understand the instructions that the teacher gave. Only Esra and Aminah tried to implement group work with Year nine students, but they implemented it with difficulties, as students were afraid to respond to teachers for the first time. This result suggested that more training is needed for both teachers and students to make sure they are familiar with these activities.

One of the CLT principles is that learners need exposure to the language in use as much as possible for user interaction. However, the results of this study revealed that the pre-service teachers were not monitoring the students' use of English; instead, they were focused on themselves using English all the time and the students were translating their utterances. Littlewood (2013) pointed out that the main reasons behind a failure to implement CLT activities are when students are not monitored. When this happens,

many of them revert to the mother tongue and, therefore, they do not challenge themselves linguistically. He suggested the use of scaffolded group work to develop learners' independent interactions (Chen, 2014).

For many years, there has been a shift in teaching methods away from traditional teaching. As Millar (2000) expressed it, the focus was on language form and accuracy focused on language expression. To achieve that, teachers used language exercises that were teacher-centred, as with this approach the teacher-directed the learners during the lesson. However, over time, the focus shifted to how to use the language (including essential aspects like fluency, communicative tasks, students' initiative, and active participation) thus became situated on a continuum towards learner autonomy in keeping with Tochon's (2014) language learning philosophy, providing more authentic contexts and stimulating lifelong learning.

9.4 Research Question Three

What factors might shape Libyan pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards implementing communicative language teaching (CLT)?

The findings from the survey, classroom observation notes and interviews indicated that pre-service teachers face many challenges and problems in their teaching. In particular, there is the inconsistency of their supervisors' recommendations of what method they have to use in their teaching and a mismatch between expectations of classroom practice and recommended practices between university teachers and PSTs. This highlights the inconsistency in the pedagogical understandings and conflicting practices within the triadic relationship of university teachers, INSTs and PSTs Nguyen (2017). Other challenges presented as contradictions that had a bearing on PSTs' development during learning to teach. These included insufficient teaching hours of the teaching practicum program, the lack of contextual knowledge and classroom management skills.

The results revealed that there was a mismatch between the expectations of classroom practice and recommended practices. These mismatches played as a factor that shaped pre-service teachers' classroom beliefs and practices. The first mismatch was the difference in expectations between PSTs and their supervisors in terms of the

use of the language in the classroom. University teachers recommended that pre-service teachers use the language in their classrooms to engage learners in the learning process and help them understand the language using different teaching aids. They recommended avoiding the use of the first language during their teaching practicum program. Therefore, PSTs used only English, because they were afraid of losing marks if they used the learners' first language. This choice of language use in the classroom and the exclusive use of the first language led the students to translate and try to make sense of what the teacher had said. However, the opportunities for learners to talk in English was very limited because they kept focusing on translating the teachers' talk from English to Arabic and to understand a message instead of practising language use. The PSTs were keen to follow their supervisor's instructions and teaching style. This result is similar to the finding of Yuan and Lee (2014) when the PSTs supported the CLT approach, but they followed their mentors' teaching styles, as they were traditional teachers focusing on grammar and vocabulary.

At the start of the teaching practicum program, the PSTs recognised the differences between primary and secondary school regarding the use of English only. The practices observed in secondary school with the challenges they had during the teaching practicum seemed to be crucial (Beacham & Rouse, 2012). The pre-service teachers were unable to see the practical implications of the use of English only in the classroom and the CLT principles. This implies that the focus should be not only on training the PSTs but also on university teachers, who need to see the implications of many of the principles of CLT. The existing literature examines the role of the first language in learning a target language, such as implementing grammar explanations and explaining tasks. Cook (2001) argued that teachers should use learners' first language for grammar instruction because a low-level learner has little knowledge of English. Kang (2008) found that Korean teachers' exclusive use of the target language "was ineffective in controlling classroom troublemakers and led to the students' loss of interest" (p. 219).

Furthermore, pre-service teacher Amal tried to use the English language in her classes as much as possible, because she felt that students do not have the opportunity to hear English outside the classroom. However, this practice produced dilemmas and

shaped classroom practice differently. For example, the use of English by learners was very limited, because they were focused on translating what teachers were saying. As one of the university teacher's instructions was to make students understand what the teacher says in English, pre-service teachers interpreted it as students translating the meaning of English to reflect their understanding. Many researchers have suggested that, instead of wasting time defining and elaborating on the meaning of certain words to help learners in English, L1 translation is considered the best alternative (Almoayidi, 2018; Atkinson & Flint, 2001; Brown, 2002; Cook, 2001; Tudor, 1987). Ocak, Kuru and Özçalışan (2010) argued that the English language should be used in classroom communication effectively and that teachers are the significant source of motivating students and making them speak in English. Morozova (2013) and Rahman and Deviyanti (2018) also stated that the best teacher is one who can make students speak to the best of their ability.

This study argues that the overuse of translation by learners is a significant limitation to utilising CLT in English classrooms. Since the PSTs had these beliefs of using English and concerns of losing marks during their practicum, their beliefs might change over time (Cota-Grijalva & Barajas, 2013) when they become fully qualified classroom teachers. The findings from classroom observations support previous studies that found that pre-service teachers' pedagogical practices were still dominated by teacher-centred and translation approaches (Johnson, 2015) and that the grammartranslation method was still a more popular method than CLT (Nguyen, Warren, & Fehring, 2014). This indicated that the issues facing pre-service teachers in using traditional methods, which limited the implementation of CLT, are not only happening in Libya but they are also happening in other EFL countries. According to Cook (2001) and Richards (2001), teachers are familiar with the grammar-translation methods because they usually follow the textbooks page by page, and answer exercise by exercise with the whole class.

This preference could be another factor that leads Libyan teachers to continue using the traditional methods because it "does not require much effort, preparation and imaginations for teacher" (Nguyen, Warren, & Fehring, 2014, p. 102). Therefore, there is a need for both pre-service teachers and university teachers to raise their awareness

on how to use language to learn it. McInerney and McInerney (2010) stated that selfawareness provides teachers with the chance to make more up-to-date and useable choices for themselves and their students, which means that "teachers can explain their teaching choices and model-valued behaviours to their students to enhance student cooperation and understanding" (Mergler & Spooner-Lane, 2012, p. 77). In addition to raising awareness, Borg (2003) claimed that teacher education trainers need to take into account their prior beliefs of their student teachers and use these beliefs for shaping their classroom practice and behaviours. In this way, for teacher education programs to be effective, teacher trainers need to take into account student teachers' prior beliefs.

There is a lack of opportunity to practise English inside and outside the classroom. The findings of this study were very interesting regarding the use of the mother tongue because pre-service teachers were in a challenging teaching situation where the students in their classes were using Arabic a lot in learning. However, this did not force the pre-service teachers to respond in Arabic or use it in giving instructions. This finding supports other researchers' studies (See Section 1.1 in Chapter One) who stated that pre-service teachers tend to teach the way they were taught (Kennedy, 1999; McMillan, 2010; Oleson & Hora, 2014; Owens, 2010; Warner et al., 2007; Wright, et al., 2002). University teachers A and B stated that they used only the English language in the university context, in their interactions with students and with other faculty members. Therefore, the PSTs could develop their beliefs from their university teachers. However, INSTs were using Arabic with their students and the use of English was minimal. This is similar to the findings of other studies, which showed that because students were using Arabic a lot in their learning, this forced the INSTs to use Arabic too (Omar, 2013; Rajab, 2013).

The teacher-training programs of education faculties in Libya, such as in this study, need to have a clear rule about which teaching methods the pre-service teachers should use or how they should encourage pre-service teachers to implement CLT in schools, even though they have learnt about the modern approaches for foreign language learning in their curriculum studies, including communicative language teaching. At this stage, there is no clear policy in the teacher training programs to train PSTs to be social constructivists. On the one hand, PSTs were asked to use all methods, with their

selection depending on the kind of lesson. On the other hand, pre-service teachers were told to follow the teachers' instructional guides, which explained the use of CLT principles. This makes these teachers perplexed and not clear about choosing appropriate methods.

In relation to factors related to contextual knowledge and classroom management skills, the findings revealed that the PSTs' practice lacked knowledge about classroom management skills and sometimes the context itself influenced their knowledge and practice. Classroom management was one of the other contextual factors which influenced the pre-service teachers' practice in the classroom. Three strategies around classroom management were revealed in this study: memorising the students' names, organisation of the classroom setting, and managing students' behaviours in the classroom. Pre-service teachers need training and increased awareness of strategies to manage the classroom to teach CLT flexibly.

Knowing students' names helps to improve the classroom climate; however, remembering students' names is difficult and frustrating in the first lessons, especially when teachers try to retrieve students' names when asking them to do a task. In some cases, teachers felt uncomfortable about forgetting the students' names too many times. Pre-service teachers used different strategies to remember students' names. Some of the pre-service teachers, like Sara, Amal and Zahra, used direct questions during the lessons to ask about the name of each student. This strategy is ineffective because it wastes class time. Another strategy that was observed was a visual association, used by a pre-service teacher, Esra. She asked the students to make a name tag card. Students wrote their names using a marker on the bottom half of the card and then they folded the card in half. Esra asked the students to put the tag in front of their seats with the names facing the board so the teacher could see it. This strategy was very effective and helped her memorise the names, so she did not have to ask the students' name each time she interacted with them. Other PSTs (Amera, Malika, and Sohad) taught as a whole class, so they did not need to ask each student for a name. It was noted that these participants did not ask the students' names or, rather, they only called students names they already knew. These specific techniques were not taught at university, but they depended on individual PSTs' mistakes and the experiences and knowledge of their university

teachers. To conclude, there were differences between PSTs and their knowledge about teaching and classroom management strategies.

Seating arrangements have a vital role in students' learning engagement and development (Wannarka & Ruhl, 2008). Social constructivists have different arguments for managing classroom settings and seating students in a row. Some said that this seating does not provide an opportunity for learners to interact with each other, and resulted in students' disengagement in learning because the only interaction would be with their teacher (Gremmen et al., 2016; Wheldall & Lam, 1987). Others, like McKeown et al. (2015) and Weinstein et al. (2004) showed that classroom management is considered a concern for teachers, mainly because of cultural and behavioural differences in classrooms. Gremmen et al. (2016) claimed that row seating can "support students' on-task behaviour during independent work" (p. 751) and that making students face the teachers can decrease their opportunity to talk and keep them focused on the tasks. In contrast, it has been claimed that seating arrangement in groups can increase motivation and facilitate interaction between learners (Savignon, 2017). However, Savignon argued that group work was considered not an essential feature in CLT, because it may be inappropriate in some EFL contexts.

In the Libyan context, where this study was conducted, classroom desks were arranged in rows and all learners were facing the whiteboard and teacher. In the current study, some pre-service teachers used different classroom seating arrangements, although some of them did not make any changes and left the seating as it was for the class designated teacher. Sohad, Malika, Sara and Amal did not make any changes in classroom seating, so the students were sitting in rows and facing their teachers. On the contrary, Esra, Zahra and Amera rearranged the seating in their classes. For example, Esra and Zahra implemented a U shape; the literature (Gremmen et al., 2016; Savignon, 2017; Wheldall & Lam, 1987) shows that this kind of seating encourages students to engage in discussion and interactions. However, Esra and Zahra's students were unfamiliar with this seating arrangement and they were very noisy, off task and out of control. Teachers need to learn some strategies about how to make students familiar with this seating gradually.

Managing students' behaviours in the classroom were found to be challenging for pre-service teachers. The findings from classroom observations of pre-service teachers and the interviews with INSTs indicated that pre-service teachers 'struggle to manage students' behaviours during their teaching practicum. The kind of classroom behaviour that was found in this Libyan classroom environment is encouraging because of the way it is managed. For example, one of the techniques used by classroom teachers (INSTs) is extrinsic motivation, where teachers give students' marks as rewards on their good behaviour and take off marks from misbehaving students. As a result, the students were always keen to be quiet in their classes. According to cognition evaluation theory, "competence and self-determination [depends] on whether they are perceived as informational, controlling, or motivational" (Cameron & Pierce, 1994, p. 395). From this perspective, Libyan INSTs were using controlled motivation to manage students' behaviour in the classroom.

However, in the pre-service teachers' classes, they faced challenges in controlling students' behaviours because these teachers had no control over giving marks and commenting on students' demotivation. Therefore, students did not pay attention to their behaviour during pre-service classes because they knew they were not being marked on their behaviour. From the perspective of the classroom-based ecological model (Conroy, Sutherland, Haydon, Stormont, & Harmon, 2009), classroom problem behaviour is a form of functional communication. These authors claimed that when "children are unable to manage language demands of the classroom, they may resort to challenging behaviour to gain access to preferred items, or activities, or attention, or to escape the aversive environment, demand activities or attention" (Hollo & Wehby, 2017, p. 6). There is a need for the program to accept the microteaching sessions that are aligned with "actual classroom lessons in which theoretical strategies for classroom management, behaviour management and learning-teaching strategies for establishing positive connections between teachers and their students are generally embedded in the lesson plan" (p. 209).

Another issue raised in the pre-service teachers' classes was the fact that they were speaking only English and the students were only listening, but they seemed not to understand their teachers, and therefore they were bored. This resulted in them speaking

with each other and ignoring the teachers. Disruptive classrooms influenced the PSTs' teaching so they finished their classes with uncompleted lessons. Similar problems were found in the Moroccan context (Moussaid & Zerhouni, 2017) and the Indonesian context (Mudra, 2018). This may indicate poor engagement of students with their teacher, so the best way to prevent this is to use one of the interaction strategies that the pre-service teachers should have, such as knowing the names of students so that students do not interfere with the environment of the classroom. The absence of their real teachers during teaching practicum also affects the students' behaviour. This finding implies that pre-service teachers need to know how to provide appropriate motivational support for their students, such as knowing when they can use the first language and integrating different activities and tasks for students. Oga-Baldwin et al. (2017) asserted that "by engaging students in learning tasks through appropriate support of their needs, teachers can help to build a sense of autonomous motivation at the end of the school year" (pp. 146-147).

9.5 Research Question Four:

What challenges do Libyan university teachers face when preparing EFL teachers to teach CLT?

This question addresses the main challenges that university teachers face in preparing EFL teachers. This results from interviews with university teachers revealing that university teachers face many challenges when preparing EFL teachers to teach CLT. These challenges are 1) teacher personal and cultural beliefs and the lack of understanding of many principles of the communicative approach; 2) inconsistent support for education policy challenges; 3) differences in students' motivations; 4) socio-economic challenges, and 5) poor socio-cultural perspectives.

Libyan university teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning play an important challenge in their knowledge development. It was found that both the Libyan university and the school teachers (INSTs) in this case study faced challenges in the challenge for EFL teachers understanding the socio-cultural and contextual factors that hamper

students' learning of the English language. This highlights the weakness of the triadic relationship in the practice of this Initial Teacher Education Program. As seen in Chapter Eight, the university teachers considered themselves as experts who did not need further professional development, but they recognised the need for professional development for school teachers. These challenges are influenced by their beliefs and culture about learning (Elabbar, 2011). According to Elabbar (2011), "university teachers are skilled enough to teach and do not require any further knowledge or promotion" (p. 162). Another important factor facing Libyan university teachers is that university administrations and heads of faculty give different subjects to university teachers to teach every year, as they consider that the university teachers can teach all subjects. University teachers complained about it, as they require spending time searching content and resources for that subject. Elabbar (2011) showed that "the Libyan community, the teachers themselves, and the students … consider that all university teachers can teach all courses" (p. 162). Elabbar also argued that in the "Libyan culture of teaching, it will be a shame (not nice) if any teacher refuses or can't teach any course given by the department and the department manager themselves are influenced by the Libyan beliefs/culture of teaching" (p. 55).

While university teachers should prepare EFL teachers to teach CLT, they are facing problems regarding their lack of understanding of CLT. The university teachers advocated a continued emphasis on the importance of grammar and pronunciation. Although one of the university teachers (Samah) considered herself a CLT teacher, she believed that that effective teacher should not make any mistakes to stage a successful grammar performance. Such a statement shows that she supports only language accuracy, which focuses on issues of the appropriateness of grammatical forms (Rahman & Deviyanti, 2018), and the ability to produce pronunciations easily (Syakur, 1987). CLT, however, focuses on the accuracy and fluency of language learning, which should be used to develop the students' communicative competence and linguistic knowledge (Chang, 2011; Spade & Lighbowm, 1993; Rahman & Deviyanti, 2018).

Masters (2015) viewed the term "effective teacher" as one who has good content knowledge in terms of curriculum and good pedagogical content knowledge. Furthermore, there is evidence which demonstrates that university teachers lack

understanding of many principles of the communicative approach. This lack of understanding, or confusion, was also verified in interviews held with the teachers, where teachers either did not understand or were unable to see the practical implications of many of the principles of the communicative approach. The EFL teacher-training program needs further improvement. On top of its current emphasis on CLT principles, university teachers should achieve a deeper understanding of not only those principles but the related underpinning theory of social constructivism and the relevance of systemic functional linguistics in its ability to use and adapt the English language with students for meaningful purposes and then apply them in the EFL teacher-training program. They should train the pre-service EFL teachers in their future classrooms.

There is inconsistent support by educators for university teachers. According to Suwaed (2011), "university teachers are left implementing what they think is appropriate for students without receiving support from the university in term of support for professional development" (p. 128). The committee of higher education assumed that university teachers who hold MA and PhD degrees have sufficient knowledge to be quality teachers (Suwaed, 2011). Therefore, they did not provide adequate support in terms of materials and training. This assumption gave shape to university teachers selfimage**s** as prospective English teachers in Libya, and a resistance to being challenged. As the current study illustrates, university teachers face challenges in planning materials with the absence of internet and resources at the university. These teachers try to overcome these challenges by paying their internet connection to search for the content of their subjects.

In terms of the teaching practicum program, the decisions related to the program structure, the head of the faculty of education of each university are responsible for assigning university teachers to supervise the students and provide the evaluation form. University teachers were complaining about the structure of the evaluation form. In their opinion, it is inappropriate and does not cover the practical elements. For example, Teacher Abrar argued that the teachers at university created an evaluation form for themselves to use, but the head of the faculty refused it and asked them to use his evaluation form that was written in Arabic (See Appendix L, a copy of the evaluation form, and Appendix M, the English translated version). This implies that the university

EFL policy needs improvement: the change from a top-down approach to a bottom-up approach was not implemented completely at the university level.

By following this way of teaching, the teachers can implement measurable and identifiable goals of the learning program, which will help them recognise the value of Libyan English as a Foreign Language (EFL), not just in an idealist way but also in a realistic way. The major beliefs and values of Libyan teachers and students make it possible to determine their tendency of teaching methods using the ten macro-strategies of post-methods pedagogy. The instructional model, as well as the teaching process, can be changed as per the recent educational background of Libya, wherein teachers must take innovative steps and decisions to handle the different type of students in Libya (Rogers, 2003).

CHAPTER TEN: CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

10.0 Introduction

This study has investigated pre-service EFL teachers' and in-service teachers' beliefs, attitudes and practices in relation to CLT in eastern Libya. The previous chapter discusses the results and findings of the survey phase and the qualitative phase.

Teachers' beliefs and attitudes have been recognised over several decades as having an impact on their pedagogy and practice and this was confirmed by the present research. In exploring PSTs' and ISTs' views on pedagogical macro skills and beliefs about CLT through a survey the research found that the context for learning and the long-established traditional pedagogical approach and the inadequacy of the triadic relationship remained a powerful influence on trying to shift to implementing CLT. Both PSTs' and ISTs' responses showed a lack of depth of understanding of how CLT principles appear in practice and how they relate together to facilitate students' meaningful language use in comparison with the traditional grammar-translation method that is reliant on a textbook.

The results of this study have shown that EFL pre-service teachers faced many challenges which were around classroom management, teaching aids and media, the choice of language use, and learners' motivations. Libyan pre-service teachers think that the right method to teach language is through the language itself; i.e., they avoid using the mother tongue in the class. As a result, the students were focused on translations and were not exposed to the functions of the English language to make meaning. In addition, poor socioeconomic conditions can be attributed to preparing the EFL teacher to be unsuccessful in implementing CLT.

10.1 Implications

In light of the discussion in previous chapters, many challenges are facing Libyan English teachers in implementing CLT. This study makes unique contributions to the CLT literature by offering the main implications that relate to the implementation of CLT in Libya, and these pave the way for relevant recommendations. This study provides pedagogical and practical implications for pre-service EFL teachers, for university EFL teachers and in-service EFL teachers for better implementing CLT.

10.1.1 Implications for pre-service teaching

The study suggests that pre-service teachers were doing their best in the classroom and they were following the teachers' guide to implementing CLT. This is despite the factors and challenges that they faced during their teaching practica, such as insufficient hours of their practicum, a lack of resources, a mismatch of recommendations and practices, and supervisors who were interfering with the practices of CLT. However, the fact is that, form the basis of the interviews with the university teachers, they also do not fully understand CLT teaching compared with their background, which is grammartranslation methodology. This implies that they require professional development.

A main finding of the study was that the teacher practicum program was planned inappropriately in terms of the duration of classroom observations and teaching sessions. Pre-service teachers and university teachers thought that the program would

be more effective if it was longer than one week because their period of teaching was the first experience they had in teaching and it may affect their identity in the future. A similar conclusion was reached by Hong (2010), Nghia and Tai (2017) and Yuan and Lee (2014), who found that the experience gained from teaching practicum by preservice teachers directly influenced their identity development.

Pre-service teachers should be given power in determining their teaching practice, and to be involved in different tasks, such as testing the learners, marking their work and being treated as a real teacher in the school. This is because marks are considered the most powerful factors for managing students' behaviour, as found in this study.

In addition to the problem of behaviour management, which goes with traditional methods, traditional teachers keep students sitting in their seats doing work to keep them well behaved because they believe that learners cannot do anything independently. If traditional teachers change this belief of not trusting learners to the adoption of the postmethod condition and social constructivism, with an understanding of functional linguistics, they would be teaching learners to be independent and allowing them to make decisions for their learning. Traditionally, teachers do not prefer to implement group-pair work activities, because they are not trusting the learners because they believe that when they give them the freedom they will make a noise in the classroom. Group work activities help learners to develop important social and personal dimensions, through collaboration in which the group works to maximise its members' learning (Long & Porter, 1985). The strategic framework outlined in the literature review (Kumaravadivelu, 1994) represents a descriptive scheme, where it should be treated, not as a fixed package of the ready-made solution, but as an interim plan to be continually modified, expanded and enriched by classroom teacher-based ongoing feedback. On this basis, teachers can use the ten macro strategies to transform PSTs into strategic teachers and strategic researchers of their pedagogy and practice. Using a strategic framework can transform classroom practitioners into strategic teachers and strategic researchers. Strategic teachers spend a considerable amount of time and effort in (a) reflecting on the specific needs, wants, situations, and processes of learning and teaching; (b) stretching their knowledge, skill, and attitude to stay informed and involved; (c) exploring and extending macro strategies to meet the challenges of

changing contexts of teaching; (d) designing appropriate micro strategies to maximize learning potential in the classroom; and (e) monitoring their ability to react to myriad situations in meaningful ways (Kumaravadivel, 1994, p. 43). Moreover, the adoption of these strategies would support the teachers to understand the importance of teaching students to use the English language for meaningful/functional purposes as opposed to grammar-translation.

10.1.2 Implications for university teachers

The findings of this study indicate that pre-service teachers can teach CLT effectively, if there are changes in the policies relating to teaching, particularly to their practicum. The policy of using English only is the main factor that shifted the PSTs' pedagogical teaching beliefs about the focus on learning English to the focus on translation and understanding teachers' talk. In addition, the university should assign supervisors who hold social constructivist views and understand the functions of language if it aims to implement CLT. In addition, the university teachers professed a belief in CLT but did not implement it in their curriculum, therefore they need support for developing a sound EFL teacher education curriculum.

The present study argues that there was a mismatch between PSTs' supervisors in terms of pedagogical recommendations and practices. Supervisors who do not hold social constructivist views in their pedagogical teaching would not be able to develop pre-service teachers to teach CLT during the teaching practicum. University EFL programs need improvement in their supervisory teams, including the provision of CLT training and professional workshops.

Libyan cultural assumptions about teaching and learning influenced conducting this study, mainly within the methodology section, which involved asking questions during the interviews, especially in relation to professional development. Teachers refused to accept the fact that they needed any professional development because, as part of the Libyan culture, being a university lecturer means they are professional teachers and do not need any further development. This was evident when the researcher asked the university teachers if they were implementing self-evaluation of teachers' talk and when researchers asked them to review their interview transcripts for

clarification and to add any comments. They refused and said they were confident of what they had provided and had no need for clarification.

In term of supervising the pre-service teachers, there should be a commonality in university teachers' advice for pre-service teachers regarding teaching pedagogy. Some of them asked the PSTs to follow the curriculum document (Teacher guidebook) and some asked them to apply the knowledge and skills of the teaching pedagogy they learnt at university.

10.1.3 Implications for in-service teachers

While the communicative approach has been officially adopted in Libyan schools, it has not been implemented effectively. The whole idea of CLT was the need for language teaching to develop communicative needs for learners and make meaning from the language; this was missing in the Libyan classes. According to Savignon (2017), classroom observations from worldwide studies reported challenges facing teachers: those eager to teach the grammar-translation method are resistant to change, so that "teachers remain adamant about explicit attention to form through practice drills, completion of textbook activities, and grammar practise worksheets" (p. 6). Changing from traditional teaching to social constructivist teaching does not happen overnight. Traditional teachers' and students' roles can be improved over time with any socially established set of behaviours and guidelines, and practising pedagogical discourse patterns to become familiar with them (O'Neill & Geohegan, 2012). Therefore, providing Libyan EFL teachers with the appropriate quality of professional training is the most effective strategy in fulfilling the goal of the Libyan English curriculum plan.

Genç (2016) claimed that in-service teachers are expected to undertake a mentoring role in many contexts around the world, which may be partnered with professional development. In the context of Libya, this study shows that in-service teachers are not required to act as mentors because neither school administrations nor the university system asks them to do so. This result shows that there is no cooperation between the university and the school system. In-service teachers need to be involved in professional development such as mentoring roles because "mentored learning to

teach plays an important role in in-service teachers' professional preparation" (Lai, 2010, p. 443).

In the Libyan educational system of EFL, there is a need for a critical paradigm shift to help teachers and learners become critical thinkers (Kincheloe & McLaren, 2000). As discussed in Chapter Four (Section 4.2), a human is born into a culture in which knowledge has been socially constructed and influenced by power relations within society. Libyan teachers hold beliefs that the critical paradigm is needed to help teachers understand about establishing their beliefs and their roles as teachers in a teacher-centred classroom, and critical theory to stimulate teachers' creative thinking about a student-centred classroom. It is not sufficient for EFL teachers to be good at grammar; they need to develop their beliefs, awareness about how to teach to maximise students' learning, and this could be achieved through an analysis of their talk in the classroom and their reflective practice.

10.2 Research Recommendations

The results of this study suggested that:

1. The pre-service EFL teachers' training program understudy needs to be reviewed in the light of this research and professional development provided for the university teachers. Attention needs to be given to alternative pedagogical approaches to ensure participants gain a deep understanding of theoretical concepts such as 'social constructivism', 'systemic functional linguistics', 'dialogic pedagogy' and 'teacher metacognitive processes' while acknowledging the challenge in needing to implement the current curriculum. It is also important to integrate Kumaravadivelu's (2003) ideas of post-method pedagogy where he viewed it from the perspective of three dimensions: "particularity, practicality and possibility" (p. 37). It provides teachers with the "freedom to apply different methods to suit local conditions and culture" (Roy, 2016, p. 15). Therefore, the macro strategies of post-method pedagogy need to be part of the future practice to develop a post-method L2 pedagogy that suits the Libyan context.

2. University administration and university teachers could use the findings of this study regarding insufficient practicum hours and preparation and the availability of

inservice class teachers as mentors (subject to their professional development); they also need to consider how to motivate students and learn specific strategies and skills to manage classroom settings and students' behaviour to be able to facilitate pedagogical change.

3. The challenge of change in school practices needs to be addressed since it seems change does not occur because there is a lack of leadership. School administrations should recognise the need to provide support to teachers to promote collaboration, innovation and change. There is a need to build a partnership between universities and schools in relation to in-service teachers' professional development as well as that of university teachers to create a strong triadic relationship.

4. While the curriculum document provided an integrated approach (traditional and CLT) for teachers to use, they mostly used the traditional methods and ignored the activities that were required for CLT. Therefore, university authorities should provide training and understanding of how to implement this guide for both preservice teachers and in-service teachers as well as university lecturers.

5. Classroom teachers (in-service teachers) need professional development and training in the post-method era, to change the way that classroom teachers are teaching. In the Libyan context, there is an absence of recognition of the need for quality EFL teachers, and an absence of students who are aspiring to learn EFL. Therefore, this recommendation is of assistance when pre-service teachers come to practice teaching, by them being placed in a better situation to be able to do post-method pedagogy because many school teachers are still using the grammar-translation method and this makes the task difficult for the pre-service teachers to implement CLT/post-method pedagogy.

6. The other vital issue is if the examination system for testing school students' EFL achievement does not change, the teachers will not change their pedagogy because the teachers do not have to be concerned about teaching speaking, since students are tested only on reading through a multiple choice. Therefore, the examination system needs to be changed to support English teachers' practice.

7. Both pre-service teachers and university lecturers need to be aware of the factors influencing the implementation of CLT; therefore, they need to reconceptualise their

practice to better assist PSTs to achieve the desired outcomes from the teaching practice (Heeralal & Bayaga, 2011; Kiggundu, 2007).

8. The following points are also recommended: (1) the head of the English department at Nalut University should instruct teachers to be clear about what constitutes good practice in CLT. (2) It is also recommended that teachers should recognise their misconceptions about CLT, such as the use of 'English only' during lessons, which influences the focus of the pedagogy from the practice of meaningful use of the language itself to the focus on the translation mode.

10.3 Contribution to Knowledge and Practices

The present study extends earlier research about teachers' beliefs, attitudes and practices by investigating EFL pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards CLT in the Libyan context. The findings of this study provide insights into the realities of factors that shape pre-service teachers' classroom beliefs and practices and how preservice teachers have been challenged in their preparation to teach in inappropriate practicum situations.

Furthermore, this study has added to the existing knowledge on Libyan EFL teachers' knowledge and implementation of CLT, revealing the challenges they have in the Libyan context, such as a lack of teaching resources and technology in their classrooms. More importantly, Libyan university teachers have to search for their resources relating to the content of their subjects, as they are trying their best to cover the content from their network, which is why it is recommended the school system develop stronger networks. This study also showed that Libyan EFL INSTs and university teachers should incorporate professional learning and development opportunities both at the school and university levels. As part of professional, development, teachers need to be aware of the history of teaching languages, and the way, the pedagogy has changed over the years and understand the fact that currently, it is moving in the post-method era. They also need to be familiar with social constructivism and systemic functional linguistics and their impact on changes to pedagogy and the relevance to CLT. Dialogic pedagogy needs to be integrated into professional learning and teaching in Libya, including the SETT as a tool to self-assess. According to Freier and Shor (1987)

"Dialogic pedagogy should be seen as an epistemological position" because it invites learners to "participate actively in reshaping their understanding of reality" instead of viewing the learners passively and "the teacher as the one who 'knows' and transfers this knowledge to students by telling them what to learn" (p. 46).

Methodologically, the previous studies investigated secondary school teachers and some of them investigated university teachers' beliefs in specific teaching skills, using survey, interviews, and observations incorporating different models and questions. The current study is the first attempt to investigate pre-service teachers' beliefs, attitudes and practices in Libya through a survey of the macro strategic post-method pedagogy in the survey and attitudes scale, and the investigation of teaching practice through classroom observations, using the SETT model to analyse classroom teachers' talk. This also provided powerful insights into the long term issues involved in language teaching worldwide, including the approach to L1 and L2 language use, and provided an approach for replication as well as leadership for EFL educators to explore in their respective contexts.

10.4 Limitations of the Study

There were some difficulties encountered during the research, which imposed significant limitations on this study. These limitations are outlined as follows:

1. This study used a mixed-methods approach and was based on contemporary theory as well as modern models in data analysis, which helped to deepen understandings of the situation of EFL teacher preparation in Libya. The triangulation of the data from the different methods of data collection combined with the impact of the history of teaching EFL across Libya as explained in Chapter Two, Sections 2.5 and 2.6 provide a strong case that it would be similar in other places in Libyan schools.

2. The study also had some shortcomings in terms of conducting interviews where time constraints were the main barriers to the scope of data collection, as there was no time to conduct the interviews when the researcher was in the country. This was outside the control of the researcher, so the interviews were conducted after returning to Australia. However, not all participants were available; only some of them were

interviewed through social media, Facebook Messenger and Viber, but unfortunately, the interviews did not cover all aspects of their practice time and unstable Internet presented some restrictions. However, to a large extent, this was countered by being able to survey and observe PSTs teaching.

3. Since Libyan participants were not familiar with online surveys, this form of data collection had limited uptake in the study. Although the researcher invited many participants from different Libyan universities, only participants from seven universities of the 13 Libyan universities responded because the researcher contacted friends who worked in these universities and they, in turn, contacted EFL Year four PSTs to enter the link and showed them the steps to complete the survey. Nevertheless, this reinforced that Libyan students are still not familiar with the use of technology for both teaching and personal use.

4. The number of participants in terms of in-service teachers and university academic are very small, it would be interesting to investigate more participants in future research.

10.5 Suggestions for Future Research

The study would have been strengthened if the research had included workshops to raise pre-service teachers' awareness on language use and on the SETT model, then asking pre-service teachers to analyse their language use during classroom interaction through Stimulated Recall Interviews (SRI), which would have enhanced the PSTs' reflection on their practice. These suggestions could be effective in future studies about pre-service teachers in Libya and elsewhere.

Likewise, more research is needed to examine university students' beliefs from the beginning of their journey at university, as this would reveal more details of how their beliefs were shaped and changed during the teaching practicum. In addition to this, future studies should investigate the context of the university in detail, how university teachers teach EFL students, and what methods they are using to ensure their ability to implement CLT. In addition, it is important to research best practice on how university teachers prepare pre-service teachers for the teaching practicum.

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Appendixes

Appendix A: Confirmation of Candidature letter

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN QUEENSLAND

usq.edu.au

Hi Sana

USQ is contacting you regarding 0050091620-sana Karash-confirmation Of Candidature. Below you'll find the details for your reference.

Response via Email from Pranjali on 15/03/2017 11.19 AM

Hello Sana,

Thesis Title: Communicative language teaching: The beliefs, attitudes and practices of pre-service EFL teachers in Western Libya

I wish to confirm that you have now been admitted as a confirmed candidate as of 15/03/2017 to the Doctor of Philosophy program at the University of Southern Queensland. Your expected completion date is 07/07/2020

This is a significant milestone in a research higher degree student's journey, and I congratulate you on reaching this stage.

I wish you well in your future studies.

Kind regards

Pranjali Dabadi
Office of Research Graduate Studies
University of Southern Queensland
Toowoomba | Qld | 4350

Email: usq.support@usq.edu.au

Appendix B: Human Ethics Approval Letter

OFFICE OF RESEARCH
Human Research Ethics Committee
PHONE +61 7 4687 5703| FAX +61 7 4631 5555
EMAIL human.ethics@usq.edu.au

UNIVERSITY
of SOUTHERN
QUEENSLAND

21 April 2017

Ms Sana Karash

Dear Sana

The USQ Human Research Ethics Committee has recently reviewed your responses to the conditions placed upon the ethical approval for the project outlined below. Your proposal is now deemed to meet the requirements of the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007)* and full ethical approval has been granted.

Approval No.	**H17REA063**
Project Title	Communicative language teaching: the beliefs, attitudes and practices of pre-service EFL teachers in Western Libya
Approval date	21 April 2017
Expiry date	21 April 2020
HREC Decision	**Approved**

The standard conditions of this approval are:

    (a)   Conduct the project strictly in accordance with the proposal submitted and granted ethics approval, including any amendments made to the proposal required by the HREC

    (b)   Advise (email: human.ethics@usq.edu.au) immediately of any complaints or other issues in relation to the project which may warrant review of the ethical approval of the project

    (c)   Make submission for approval of amendments to the approved project before implementing such changes

    (d)   Provide a 'progress report' for every year of approval

    (e)   Provide a 'final report' when the project is complete

    (f)   Advise in writing if the project has been discontinued, using a 'final report'

For (c) to (f) forms are available on the USQ ethics website:
http://www.usq.edu.au/research/support-development/research-services/research-integrity-ethics/human/forms

Samantha Davis
Ethics Officer

University of Southern Queensland
usq.edu.au
CRICOS QLD 00244B NSW 02225M TEQSA PRV12081

Appendix C: Participant Information Letter

University of Southern Queensland

Participant Information for USQ Research Project Questionnaire

Project Details

Title of Project: **Communicative Language Teaching: The Beliefs, Attitudes and Practices of Pre-service EFL Teachers in Western Libya.**

Human Research Ethics Approval Number: HXXREAXXX

Research Team Contact Details

Principal Investigator Details

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Description

This project is being undertaken as part of PhD project.

The purpose of this research project is to investigate pre-service English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers' beliefs, attitudes and practices in relation to communicative language teaching (CLT) before, during and after their practicums. This study will also explore newly employed in-service EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards the CLT approach to teaching EFL and compare these beliefs and attitudes with those of pre-service EFL teachers. It is structured to
(1) explore the choices the pre-service EFL teachers make to either engage in an EFL teaching practice that is (a) Grammar translation method (GTM) or (b) CLT.
(2) To gain insights into what facilitates EFL teaching and
(3) To identify how to develop appropriate training for CLT teachers. It is expected that the questionnaire will take about 30 to 45 minutes to complete. If you consent to participate, your responses will be kept confidential. The information provided will be used solely for the purpose of this research project and only aggregated results will be reported in reputable academic publications. No persons other than my supervisors and I will have access to the information you provide.

Participation

Your participation will involve completion of a questionnaire that will take approximately 30 to 45 minutes of your time.

Questions will include three parts. First part is general questions, the second part

Page 1 of 2

Your participation in this project is entirely voluntary. If you do not wish to take part you are not obliged to. If you decide to take part and later change your mind, you are free to withdraw from the project at any stage. Please note, that if you wish to withdraw from the project after you have submitted your responses, the Research Team are unable to remove your data from the project (unless identifiable information has been collected). If you do wish to withdraw from this project, please contact the Research Team (contact details at the top of this form).

Expected Benefits

It is expected that this project will directly benefit you by identifying your beliefs and attitudes towards communicative language teaching (CLT) and the choices the you make to either engage in an EFL teaching practice that is (a) Grammar translation method (GTM) or (b) CLT, (2) to gain insights into what facilitates EFL teaching and (3) to identify how to develop appropriate training for CLT teachers.

Risks

There are no anticipated risks beyond normal day-to-day living associated with your participation in this project.

Privacy and Confidentiality

All comments and responses will be treated confidentially unless required by law.

Any data collected as a part of this project will be stored securely as per University of Southern Queensland's Research Data Management policy.

Consent to Participate

The return of the completed questionnaire is accepted as an indication of your consent to participate in this project.

Questions or Further Information about the Project

Please refer to the Research Team Contact Details at the top of the form to have any questions answered or to request further information about this project.

Concerns or Complaints Regarding the Conduct of the Project

If you have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the project you may contact the University of Southern Queensland Ethics Coordinator on (07) 4631 2690 or email ethics@usq.edu.au. The Ethics Coordinator is not connected with the research project and can facilitate a resolution to your concern in an unbiased manner.

Thank you for taking the time to help with this research project. Please keep this sheet for your information.

Page 2 of 2

Appendix D: Consent Letter

University of Southern Queensland

**Consent Form for USQ Research Project
Classroom observation**

Project Details

Title of Project: Communicative Language Teaching: The Beliefs, Attitudes and Practices of Pre-service EFL Teachers in Western Libya.

Human Research Ethics Approval Number   HXXREAXXX

Research Team Contact Details

Principal Investigator Details
Sana Karash
Email: W0091620@umail.usq.edu.au
Telephone: (07) 46875675
Mobile: 0405542468

Other Investigator/Supervisor Details
Professor Shirley O'Neill
Email: Shirley.ONeill@usq.edu.au
Telephone: (07) 3470 4513
Mobile: 0409264883

Statement of Consent

By signing below, you are indicating that you:

- Have read and understood the information document regarding this project.

- Have had any questions answered to your satisfaction.

- Understand that if you have any additional questions you can contact the research team.

- Understand that the classroom observation will be audio recorded and the observation will take 45 minutes for each lesson.
- Understand that the researcher will observe two or three lessons during your teaching practicum. ×
- Understand that you are free to withdraw at any time, without comment or penalty.

- Understand that you can contact the University of Southern Queensland Ethics Coordinator on (07) 4631 2690 or email ethics@usq.edu.au if you do have any concern or complaint about the ethical conduct of this project.

- Are over 18 years of age.

- Agree to participate in the project.

Participant Name	
Participant Signature	
Date	

Please return this sheet to a Research Team member prior to undertaking the focus group.

Page 1 of 1

Appendix E: Support Letter from Principle Supervisor

To whom it may concern

This is to certify that Sana Karash is doctoral student at the University of Southern Queensland, in the School of Linguistics, Adult and Specialist Education Faculty of Business, Education, Law and Arts in the state of Queensland, Australia, She has ethics approval to conduct research on the topic of *Communicative Language Teaching: The Beliefs, Attitudes and Practices of Pre-service EFL Teachers in Western Libya*. This research will make an important contribution to knowledge in the field of preservice teacher education in the EFL context.

Should you have any queries I can be contacted on e-mail: Shirley.ONeill@usq.edu.au or +610409264883; +61734704513.

Yours sincerely

Principal Supervisor
23 November 2017

Dr Shirley O'Neill
Coordinator, Applied Linguistics Discipline
Professor Language and Literacies Education,
School of Linguistics, Adult and Specialist Education | Faculty of Business, Education, Law and Arts
University of Southern Queensland I Springfield | Queensland | 4300 | Australia

Appendix F: Permission Letter for Libyan University Administration

Permission to Conduct Research at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University (Nalut campus)

School of Linguistic, Adult, and Special Education

Ms Sana Karash

Doctoral student

PHONE +0405542468

EMAIL w0091620@umail.usq.edu.au

26 February 2017

Re: Permission to Conduct Research at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University (Nalut campus).

I am writing to ask your permission to conduct research at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University (Nalut campus) for a study entitled as: *Communicative Language Teaching: The Beliefs, Attitudes and Practices of Pre-service EFL Teachers in Western Libya.*

This research is being conducted by Ms Sana Karash under supervision of Professor Shirley O'Neill and Dr Ann Dashwood from University of Southern Queensland as part of the Doctor of Philosophy.

The study has been approved by the University of Southern Queensland Ethics Committee (Insert Approved number when approved).

The aim of this study is to investigate pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs, attitudes and practices in relation to CLT before, during and after their practicums. This study will also explore two newly employed in-service EFL teachers and two university EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards the CLT approach to teaching EFL and compares these beliefs and attitudes with those of pre-service EFL teachers. It is structured to (1) explore the choices the pre-service EFL teachers make to either engage in an EFL teaching practice that is (a) GTM or (b) CLT, (2) to gain insights into what facilitates EFL teaching and (3) to identify how to develop appropriate training for CLT teachers. The study aims to answer the following questions:

1. What are Libyan pre-service EFL English teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards CLT?
2. What factors that might shape Libyan pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards using implementing CLT?
3. To what extent do Libyan pre-service EFL teachers agree with the application of the CLT approach in their teaching?

If you give permission for the research to be conducted at the Al Jabal Al Gharbi University (Nalut campus) would you please sign the form below that acknowledge that you have read the explanatory statement, you understand the nature of the study being conducted and the risks and likely benefits of participation in this study.

I Jamal Ali Khalefa Mtaawaas (the leader of site Name: Al Jabal Al Gharbi University (Nalut campus) have been fully informed as a nature of research to be conducted in the study entitled: *Communicative Language Teaching: The Beliefs, Attitudes and Practices of Pre-service EFL Teachers in Western Libya.*, give my permission for the study to be conducted.

Signature: Date:

Yours Sincerely,

Ms Sana Karash

Doctor of Philosophy

Appendix G: The Final Version of the Survey

Part one: Please tick choice and fill in the blanks as Requested Qn1.

What is your first name?

Qn 2. What is your age?

Qn3. What is your gender?

Qn4. Have you ever taken a test of English, such as TOFEL, TOFIC, or IELTS? If yes, which test you had?

1. Please estimate your English proficiency for each of the macro skills on a scale of 1 to 10 where 10 is excellent and 1 is limited.

2. Speaking

3. Listening

4. Reading

5. Writing

Qn5. Do you work for a primary or secondary school?

Qn6. How many years have you been teaching EFL?

Qn 7. How many classes do you teach?

Qn 8. How many hours of class do you teach per week?

Qn9. How many students are in each of your classes (on average)?

Part two: Pre- and in-service EFL teachers' beliefs about pedagogical macro strategies. Please tick the box that represents your level of agreement with each of the statements adapted from Kumaravadivelu (1994). If you have comments or notes, write them in the last column.

Belief Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Slightly	Disagree	disagree Strongly	disagree Slightly
1. The teacher's job is not to transmit knowledge but to create and manage as many learning opportunities as possible.						
2. Students should initiate classroom talks (not just respond to the teacher's prompts), such as by asking for clarification, by confirming or by reacting, as part of teacher-student and student teacher interaction.						
3. Reduce mismatches between teachers and students' beliefs about what is being taught.						
4. Teachers should provide enough data for students to infer underlying grammatical rules, because it is impossible to explicitly teach all the rules of English.						

Statements						
5 Teachers should get students to learn the formal properties of English and then to compare and contrast these formal properties with their first language.						
6. Meaningful discourse-based activities are needed to help students to see the interactions between grammar, lexicon and pragmatics in natural language use.						
7. The separation between listening, reading, speaking and writing is artificial.						
8. Teachers should help students to learners to learn on their own by raising awareness of effective learning strategies and providing problem and tasks that encourage learners to use planning and selfmonitoring.						
9. Teachers should allow students to become sources of cultural information so that knowledge about the culture of the L2 and of other cultures.						
10. Learning English has social, political, economic and educational dimensions that shape the motivation to learn it, determine how it will be used and define the skills and proficiency level needed to speak it.						

Part three: Please tick the box that represents your level of agreement with each of the statements (adapted from Karavas-Doukas, 1996).

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly agree	Slightly disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. Grammatical correctness is the most important criterion by which language performance (actual language used) should be judged.						
2. Group work activities are essential in providing opportunities for cooperative relationships to emerge and in promoting genuine interaction among students.						
3. Grammar should be taught only as a means to an end and not as an end in itself.						
4. Because students come to EFL classrooms with little or no knowledge of English, they are in no position to suggest what the content of the lesson should be or what activities would be useful.						

5. Training students to take responsibility for their own learning is futile, because students are not used to such an approach.					
6. For students to become effective communicators in English, the teachers' feedback must be focused on communication effectiveness and not the linguistic form of the students' responses.					
7. The teacher as the authoritative instructor is no longer adequate to describe the teacher's role in the EFL classroom.					
8. The student-centred approach to EFL teaching encourages responsibility and self-discipline and allows each student to develop his/her full potential.					
9. Group work allows students to explore problems for themselves and thus have some measure of control over their own learning. It is therefore an invaluable means of organising classroom experiences.					
10. Teachers should correct all the grammatical errors that students make. If errors are ignored, this results in imperfect learning.					
11. It is impossible in a large class of students to organise teaching to suit the needs of all.					
12. Knowledge of the rules of English does not guarantee the ability to use English.					
13. Group work activities take too long to organise and waste a lot of valuable teaching time.					
14. Because errors are a normal part of learning, too much correction is a waste of time.					
15. The CLT approach produces fluent but inaccurate students.					
16. The teacher as a transmitter of knowledge is only one of the many different roles that he/she must perform during the course of a lesson.					

17. By mastering the rules of grammar, students become fully capable of communicating with a native speaker.					
18. For most students, English is acquired most effectively when it is used as a vehicle for doing something else and not when it is studied in a direct or explicit way.					
19. The role of the teacher in the language classroom is to impart knowledge through activities such as explanation, writing and modelling.					
20. Tasks and activities should be negotiated and adapted to suit the students' needs rather than be imposed upon them.					
21. Students do their best when taught as a whole class by the teacher. Small group work may occasionally be useful to vary the routine, but it can never replace sound formal instruction by a competent teacher.					
22. Group work activities have little use because it is very difficult for teachers to monitor the students' performance and prevent them from using their mother tongue.					
23. Direct instruction in the rules and terminology of grammar is essential if students are to learn to communicate effectively.					
24. A textbook alone is not able to cater to all students' needs and interests. The teacher must supplement the textbook with other materials and tasks to satisfy students' widely differing needs.					

5-How relevant is the school curriculum? (Teachers- university supervisory teachers)

6-How popular is CLT in your school? (Teachers- university supervisory teachers)

7-How is language assessed? Reading? Writing? Listening? Speaking? (Teachers)

8- Are there any barriers to teaching CLT? (Teachers- university supervisory teachers)

D. Class organisation (teacher/student roles) (how to pair work, group work and individual work is organised)

1.   What do you think is a teachers' role in the classroom? What are the students' roles?

2.   What sort of skills do you think pre-service EFL teachers need to be effective EFL teachers?

3.   How are pre-service EFL teachers prepared to teach in their practicums? (university supervisory teachers)

4.   Do you observe pre-service EFL teachers in the classroom when they are teaching in schools? How often do you observe? Do you assess them?

5.   Do you keep a journal on your supervisory role for each pre-service EFL teacher?

E.   What makes a good language teacher (knowledge, skills and personality)

1. What characteristics make for a good English teacher?

F. Important and difficult parts in teaching (e.g. grammar, language points and communication skills).

1. What do you think is the most difficult part of teaching EFL and why?
2. How do you motivate students?

Appendix I: Sample of Transcript Analysis

T: Good morning!
T: What have taken in the last lesson? Open your book? *Referenal Q*
T: What have you learnt about the town and the country side? *Referential Q*
S: هل يمكنني أن أقول يا آنسة *Can I say teacher?*
T.T T: Yeah try!
S (text) shopping ….
Display Q
Scoffld T: Yeah what else, who can try?
S.T Ss: هل يمكنك أن تعيدها يا آنسة *Can you repeat teacher?* *Seeking Clarification*
T: Who can give us examples about town like building a lot of shops? What it has? *Referential Q*
Scaff T: Scenery (3 second waiting time) *Referialq Q*
T.T·ST S: Supermarket *echo*
T: Yeah supermarket what else.
Scraff S: مستشفى *Hospital* ((One student whisper in low voice and saying hospital in Arabic to her partner))
T. T T: Yeah hospital (teacher heard the answer) *echo*
Scaff T: What about country side: what we have there
Ss: ((No answer)) *Refereiol Q × 2*
T: You have not review your lesson?
Ss: Aha
T: You have not studied your lesson before you attend your class? *Feed back↓*
S1: Yes s2: yes s3: ah yeas
T: Today will going to finish the last topic which were the conversation on page 47
Scaffol T: Which talks about opinion (agree, disagree)
Ss: موافقة غير موافقة *Agree disagree*
T.T T: Who can read? *Display Q*
Ss: Me, me, me
T.T T: You start
S.T S1: "There's aren't enough shops in the country side". I agree with that. (Reading from the book)
T.T·T T: So, "I agree with" *echo*
S.T S2: "Yes. I do too. There's only one" ((Reading from the book)) *Direct repair* *Direct repair* *Direct R*
T: Repeat, repeat
S.T S2: "Yes, I do too. There's only one (T one) small shop in our (T our) village. It sells (T sells) food. You can't buy any clothes" ((Reading from the book))
T.T T: What is the meaning of village? *Display Q*
S1: village?
S.T·S.T S2: قرية *Village* Ss: قرية *village*
Scaff T: So, the meaning here (2 second) is opposite to each other. The first one talks about the "town", has
T.T a lots of shops but country side have only one shop which sells the food but no clothes
Scaff Ss: ملابس ملابس *clothes clothes*
T.T T: Yeah, who can read the second conversation? *Display Q*
T: Yeah the second conversation
Ss: Me, me me teacher me
T.T T: Yeah try stand up. ((Mentioned to one student)) *Direct repai.v*
S.T S3: There's no entertainment (T entertainment) in the countryside, so there's nothing for young people to do. "I agree with that". (Reading from the book)
Scaff T: The meaning is there is no entertainment there is nothing for young people
T.T T: Have understood? *Display Q - Gramatically wrong*
Ss: Yeah
T: Second conversation
S.T S4: Yes, you're right ((Reading from the book))
T.T T: Yes 'you are right' you agree with this point. *echo*
Ss: Me, me teacher, me, me ((students raised their hands))
T: yeah *Direct R*
S.T S5: The surroundings (T surrounding) aren't very nice. I don't agree (T don't agree) with that. Out town has beautiful (T beautiful) buildings and (T and parks) parks. ((Reading from the book))
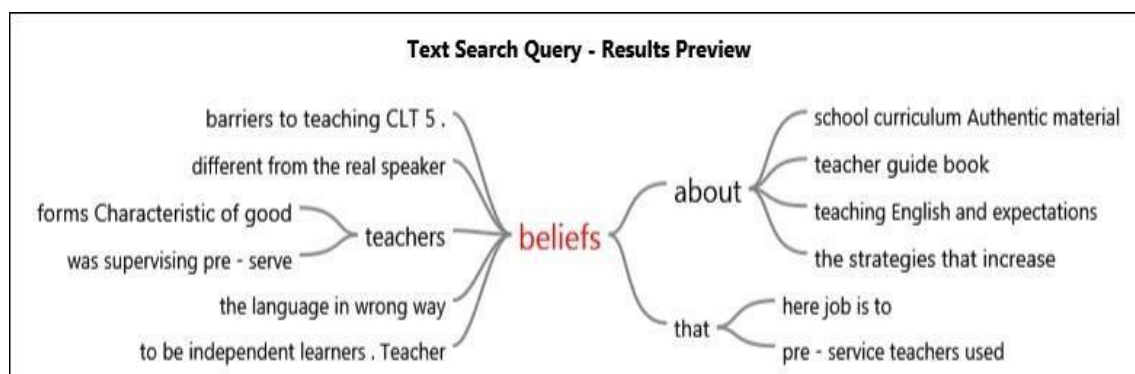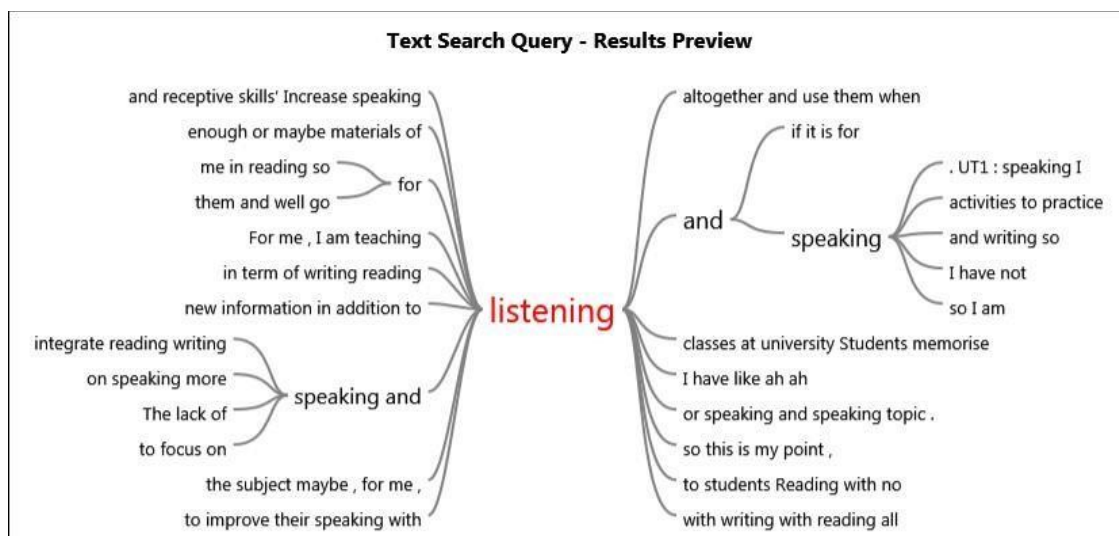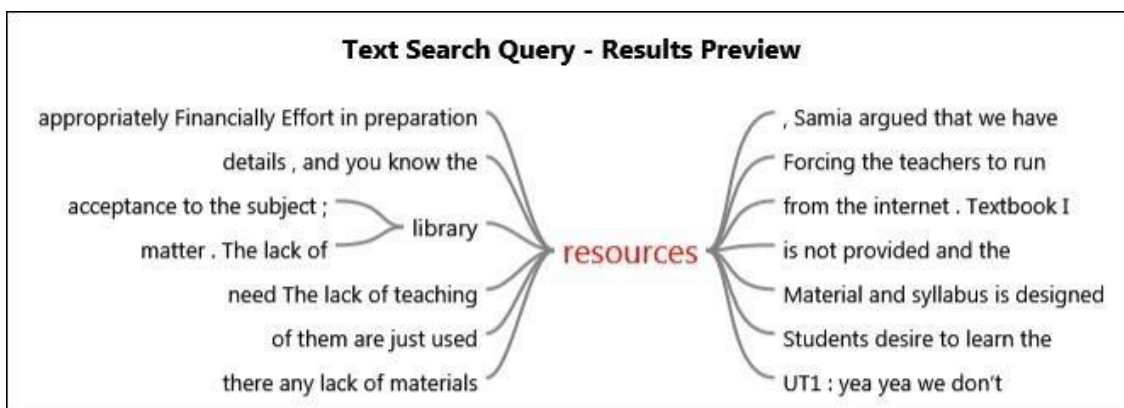*Scaff* T: So, what is the point of discussion her? "Surrounding" *Direct R*
T.T *Direct R*

Appendix J: The Sample of Interview data Analysis

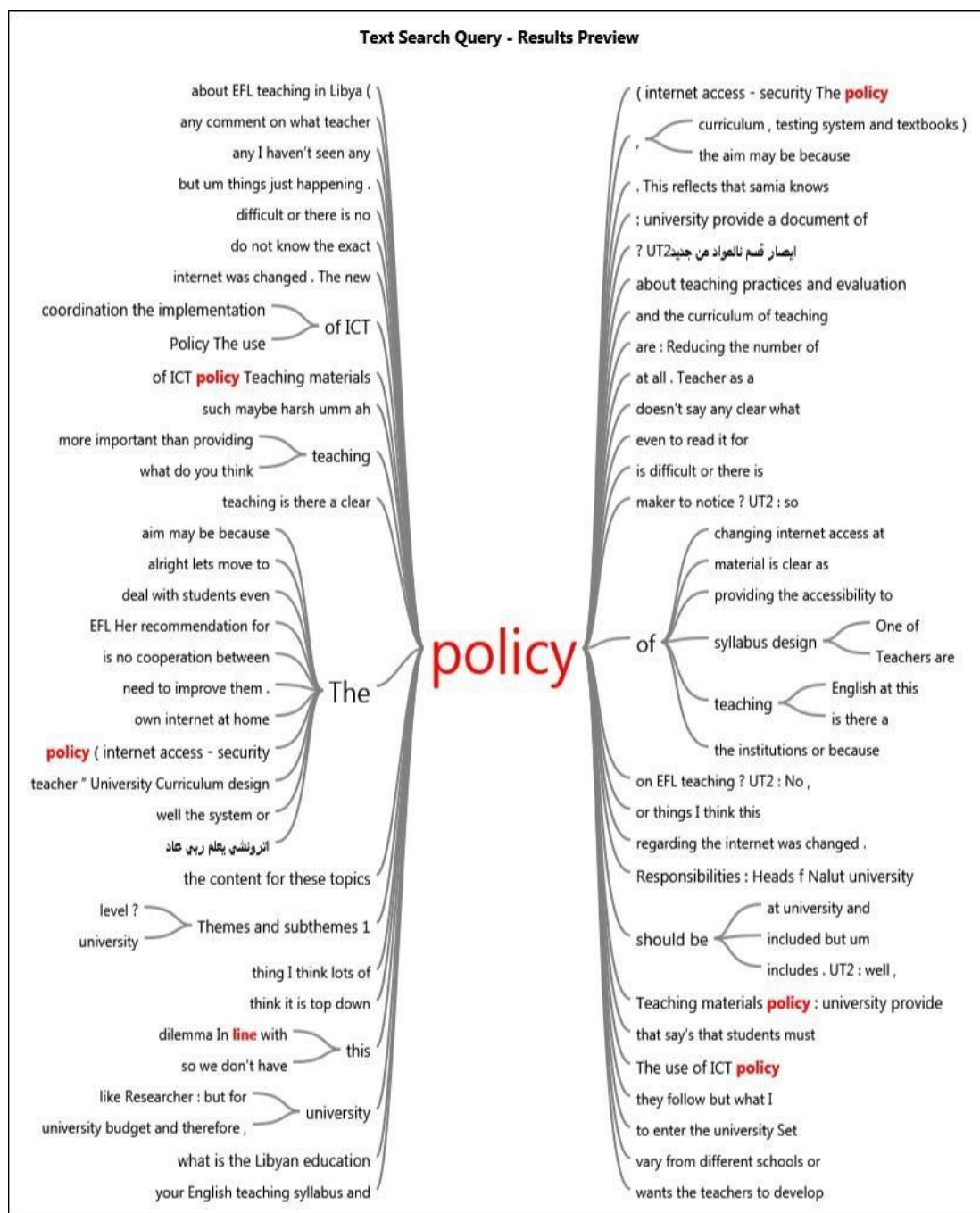| Text	Codes	Notes
Researcher: Let us start with general reflection on students' level, materials, textbooks and any comment you would like. Abrar: This year I am teaching um graduating student's year four and year three. Um Generally it is um, how can I say, I cannot say there are outstanding for even um. I can't say there are maybe C students mostly C students we do have HD students um high distinction students but they are 2 3 4 and we do not have HD students in year 3 um Because um those students uh excellent students they are interested learning language, they want to speak they want to improve their language and they always seem to be motivated to learn English during the lecture they always ask questions, they want to learn they want to improve themselves um **the others** uh not most of them are very shy the always afraid of making a mistake so they always remain high, and they do participate in the class so this affected them negatively and they couldn't even produce a simple sentence, so this is um one another thing we have the third party of students who are not interested in learning the language because they are forced to learn the language, maybe to study English language the English language so they are not really interested to learn the language so they uh always come late and are mostly absent, so that's why they are not interested to learn. uh year three students, they are really keen to learn the language and to improve the level of proficiency but uh they face many problem like they cannot apply what they learn when they speak so they take grammar always but they cannot apply what they learn when they speak. In addition, I teaches them in reading this year, so um we take many new words technical words. I always advise them to use the to use um. The difficult words they use but they can't integrate reading writing speaking and listening altogether and use them when they speak, so I think um this is the way to improve their language but uh they can't and I don't know why it's hard but they had the opportunity more than us to do that, and when I teach them. I always explain, I mostly use it for more comprehension, but I see no results and that is disappointing for me, for the text books. We don't have text books we just are given the titles for each subject and we have to search and to prepare the lectures and exercises and everything related to what we were given um so we don't have course readers and such uh text books.	Learners' purpose of learning English and their desire to be English teachers Three level of student teachers Student teachers with high motivated Student teachers with shyness and anxieties Student teachers who forced to study English Difficulties in improving English proficiency Difficult to using the grammar rules and vocabulary in their English speaking Teacher teaches grammar and reading. Teachers role is to search the content of the lessons	This reflects the challenges that university teachers have facing different students levels and interests in studying English language (Q4) Teachers need to develop their abilities to help students to learn and become independent learners Another challenge facing at university teachers is lack of resources(textbooks) Responsibility of searching the content of subject they teach. (Q4)

Researcher: So, you just said students are forced to learn the English and choose the major, who forced them: **Abrar:** Yea uh some of them uh I still remember one student told me I really don't want to learn the English language because my dad he forced me to study the English language. Because he studies English language so he wanted his daughter to study the language but she is not interested. She is actually the one that falls just here as she is not interested in the language and she does not try even to improve her levels she just said: "I don't like it so I will remain the same" so, no improvement from year one to year 4. It is uh disappointing, you know it is extremely disappointing waste of time.	Beliefs about the interest in English and parental influence	
Researcher: How well did the student use English for comprehension and production: **Abrar:** For production, I think um they face the problem of translating from Arabic to English. Therefore, they take some time uh they do try um this tiny minority of students of course not the majority of students when they speak they have this problem. Therefore, they take some time to translate from Arabic to English then speak so they make some mistakes. However, they are fine; they are being improved uh by the time. For the others, I cannot tell, that there are any improvement maybe this is an offensive judgement. but um I see this when they have to present so, it's like they just memorised the whole presentation sometimes they don't even know the meaning of some words so I don't benefit them in anyway, in opposite or in contrast to students who are motivated to learn so they know what part to present they try to speak although they make mistakes as I say but there is a difference between someone who presents and has knowledge from his or her mind and someone who is just reciting uh reciting so is just reading what he or she has memorised, uh comprehension. I think still need more work on that because um I see this when I have to fix grammar especially grammar examination students mostly struggle to understand the meaning of the question what the teacher wants me to do so when I explain the question so they can answer sometimes they don't understand the meaning of the question even its clear for me um I always say nothing, nothing new comes its just what we studied before and you have to see what's the questions then you	Using translation, Spending time to translate from L1 to L2 making mistakes Low level students try to memorize the whole presentation when speaking High motivated students keen about fluency and no problem of making English mistakes	These data shows how EFL students develop their speaking skills at university and their differences in presenting oral presentations. Also, it shows that university teacher recognised the differences and the need for students to focus on language meaning instead of learning the linguistic knowledge.

Appendix
K: The Sample of Interview data Analysis using INVivo

Text Search Query - Results Preview

appropriately Financially Effort in preparation
details , and you know the
acceptance to the subject ;
matter . The lack of → library → resources
need The lack of teaching
of them are just used
there any lack of materials

, Samia argued that we have
Forcing the teachers to run
from the internet . Textbook I
is not provided and the
Material and syllabus is designed
Students desire to learn the
UT1 : yea yea we don't

Text Search Query - Results Preview

and receptive skills' Increase speaking
enough or maybe materials of
me in reading so
them and well go → for
For me , I am teaching
in term of writing reading
new information in addition to
integrate reading writing
on speaking more
The lack of → speaking and
to focus on
the subject maybe , for me ,
to improve their speaking with
→ listening

altogether and use them when
if it is for → and → speaking
. UT1 : speaking I
activities to practice
and writing so
I have not
so I am
classes at university Students memorise
I have like ah ah
or speaking and speaking topic .
so this is my point ,
to students Reading with no
with writing with reading all

Text Search Query - Results Preview

barriers to teaching CLT 5 .
different from the real speaker
forms Characteristic of good
was supervising pre - serve → teachers → beliefs
the language in wrong way
to be independent learners . Teacher

→ about
school curriculum Authentic material
teacher guide book
teaching English and expectations
the strategies that increase
→ that
here job is to
pre - service teachers used

Appendix :

Text Search Query - Results Preview

L Supervisors' Evaluation Form for Pre-Service Performance

دولة ليبيا
وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي
جامعة نالوت / كلية التربية نالوت
العام الجامعي: 2018/2017 م

بـطاقة تقـييم طـــالب التربية العملية

اسم الطالب المتدرب/ .... التخصص/ ....

اسم المدرسة / .... الفصل/ .... المادة/ ....

ملاحظات	عدد الزيارات			الدرجة	جوانب التقييم التربوي	ت
				5	الاهتمام بالمظهر اللائق والسلوك الحسن	01
				5	استخدام الوسائل التعليمية والتربوية	02
				5	السيطرة والاتزان في إدارة الفصل	03
				5	وضوح نبرات الصوت وتنوع الحركات التعبيرية	04
				5	الاهتمام بالأنشطة الصفية	05
				5	الحيوية والنشاط والمهارة والابتكار	06
				5	استخدام السبورة بطريقة منظمة وسلامة الكتابة لغويا	07
				35	المجموع الكلي للدرجات	

ملاحظات	عدد الزيارات			الدرجة	جوانب التقييم التخصصي	ت
				7	الاهتمام بكراسة التحضير	01
				7	شمولية خطة التدريس للعناصر الأساسية (الأهداف - التمهيد - العرض ، الوسائل ، الأنشطة ، التقويم)	02
				7	التسلسل المنطقي للمادة العلمية وترابط الأفكار أثناء العرض	03
				7	استخدام اساليب التدريس الحديثة المحفزة للتعلم والتمكن من المادة العلمية	04
				7	المهارة والتنوع في اساليب تقييم الطلاب	05
				35	المجموع الكلي للدرجات	

اسم المشرف / .... التوقيع/ ....

التاريخ : /   /   20م

Appendix :

:

Appendix M Translated Version of Supervisors' Evaluation Form for PreService Performance

State of Libya
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
Nalut University/ Faculty of Education Nalut
Academic year: 2017/2018 M

....

Evaluation form of student's Educational practical
Name of trainee student/........................ Discipline/...........................
Teacher name/....................... Class/....................... Subject/...................

N	Aspects of pedagogic evaluation	Marks	Number of visits				Notes
01	Attention to appearance and Good character	5					
02	The use of educational and pedagogical resources	5					
03	Control and balance of the class management	5					
04	Clarity of the voice and diversity of the movement and expression	5					
05	Attention to classroom activities	5					
06	Vital, active, Skilful and innovative	5					
07	Using the chalkboard in a structured way and proper written language	5					
	Overall Total grads	35					

N	Aspects of specialised evaluation	Marks					Notes
01	Attention to preparation notebook	7					
02	Inclusive Lesson plan of key elements (Aims, introduction, display, resources, activities, and timetable).	7					
03	The logical sequence of the study material and association during the presentation	7					
04	The use of modern teaching methods that stimulate learning mastery of the scientific material	7					
05	Skill and diversity in students' evacuation methods	7					
	Overall Total grads	35					

Supervisor Name/........................... Signature/.............................. .
Date: / / 2020

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Appendix : English

      N   **Curriculum Objective for Year Five in Libya**

English :

تقسيم المقررات الدراسية لمرحلة التعليم الأساسي

للعام الدراسي 1438–1439هـ / 2017 – 2018 م

المادة : اللغة الإنجليزية		الصف : الخامس	الوعاء الزمني :(4) حصص في الأسبوع	
الكتب المنفذة:	English for Libya, Primary (5) Pupil's Book + Activity Book		تأليف:	Terry Phillips

General Objectives

- **Listening:**
  1. Follow simple classroom instructions.
  2. Recognize familiar key words in stream of speech.
  3. Understand the meaning of short spoken texts.
  4. Begin to acquire good pronunciation habits.
  5. Obtain simple information from short texts.
  6. Follow the global meaning of a short story that is supported with extensive visuals.

- **Speaking:**
  1. Ask and answer a range of formulaic questions.
  2. Name a range of common objects.
  3. Use a range of formulaic language functions.
  4. Make short statements about objects, possessions and people.
  5. Say numbers up to 10.
  6. Make short personal statements.
  7. Take part in short formulaic exchange.

- **Reading:**
  1. Recognize key vocabulary.
  2. Read and say key vocabulary.
  3. Read and understand short phrases and simple sentences when supported by visuals.

- **Writing:**
  1. Acquire and practise lowercase print handwriting.
  2. Experience writing at word, phrase and simple sentence level.

ملاحظة: الاستعانة بكتاب (English for Libya, Primary (5) Teacher's Book) لتوظيف المادة.

Appendix : English

Appendix O   **Curriculum Objective for Year Six in Libya**

: English

تقسيم المقررات الدراسية لمرحلة التعليم الأساسي

للعام الدراسي 1438–1439هـ / 2017 – 2018 م

المادة : اللغة الإنجليزية	الصف : السادس	الوعاء الزمني :(4) حصص في الأسبوع
الكتب المنفذة:	English for Libya, Primary (6) Pupil's Book + Activity Book	تأليف: Terry Phillips

General Objectives

- **Listening:**
  7- Understand a range of instructions.
  8- Follow the main ideas of a text.
  9- Follow sequences of events.
  10- Acquire good pronunciation habits.
- **Speaking:**
  8- Ask and answer a range of questions about self, objects, people and places.
  9- Ask and answer simple questions about past events.
  10- Ask for and tell the time.
  11- Give a range of instructions.
  12- Talk about routine events.
  13- Talk about and order food.
  14- Take part in semi-rehearsed conversations..

- **Reading:**
  4- Use a simple word list/dictionary.
  5- Recognize and understand the meaning of core words within a text.
  6- Understand simple written instructions.
  7- Understand questions on familiar topics.
  8- Follow the main ideas of stories supported by visuals.
  9- Develop understanding of real-world examples.
- **Writing:**
  3- Use written form to practise target language.
  4- Label pictures and diagrams.
  5- Write short sentences from dictation.
  6- Use memorized phrases to write simple descriptions of people and places.
  7- Make first attempts at freer writing about self and family.

ملاحظة: الاستعانة بكتاب (English for Libya, Primary (6) Teacher's Book) لتوظيف المادة.

Appendix : English

    P   **Curriculum Objective for Year Seven in Libya**

<div dir="rtl">

تقسيم المقررات الدراسية لمرحلة التعليم الأساسي

للعام الدراسي 1438–1439هـ / 2017 – 2018 م

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الوعاء الزمني :(4) حصص في الأسبوع	الصف : السابع	المادة: اللغة الإنجليزية
Jenny Quintana, Helen O'Neil and Fiona McGarry : تأليف		English for Libya, Preparatory (1) Course Book + Workbook :الكتب المنفذة

General Objectives

- **Listening:**
  1- Show detailed understanding of simple texts.
  2- Follow simple directions.

- **Speaking:**
  1- Convey simple factual information.
  2- Discuss simple schedules and arrangements.
  3- Give simple directions.
  4- Narrate simple past events.
  5- Talk about future events.
  6- Take part in simple unrehearsed conversations.

- **Reading:**
  1- Use understanding of text organization to facilitate more detailed comprehension.
  2- Develop ability to deal with a broader range of text types.
  3- Further develop understanding of real-world examples.
  4- Read and perform conversations.

- **Writing:**
  1- Describe what is happening in a picture.
  2- Describe a person or a simple scene.
  3- Expand short answers into full sentences where appropriate.
  4- Develop writing of short texts on familiar and predictable topics.
  5- Write short massages and postcards.
  6- Write extended sentences from dictation.
  7- Begin to retell extracts from a story in writing.

<div dir="rtl">

ملاحظة: الاستعانة بكتاب (English for Libya, Preparatory (1) Teacher's Book) لتوظيف المادة.

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: English

Appendix :

Appendix Q: English Curriculum Objective for Year Eight in Libya

تفسيم المقررات الدراسية لمرحلة التعليم الأساسي

للعام الدراسي 1438–1439هـ / 2017 – 2018 م

المادة : اللغة الإنجليزية	الصف : الثامن	الوعاء الزمني :(4) حصص في الأسبوع
English for Libya, Preparatory (2) Course Book + Workbook :الكتب المنفذة		تأليف: Jenny Quintana, Helen O'Neil and Fiona McGarry

General Objectives

<u>Listening:</u>
3- Show detailed understanding of short texts.
4- Follow a range of directions.
5- Follow simple processes.

■ <u>Speaking:</u>
1- Convey detailed factual information.
2- Discuss schedules and arrangements.
3- Give a range of directions.
4- Narrate past events and talk about future events.
5- Take part in unrehearsed conversations.
6- Describe people and their occupations.
7- Describe simple processes.

■ <u>Reading:</u>
5- Develop scanning for specific reading goals.
6- Develop search reading to locate information on predetermined topics.
7- Develop skimming for gist.
8- Develop detailed reading for comprehensive understanding of text.
9- Understand simple official public information, e.g., on road signs and posters.

■ <u>Writing:</u>
8- Fill in a simple form e.g.(personal details).
9- Write short letters and e-mails e.g.(invitations and replies).
10- Write short paragraphs from dictation.
11- Write short paragraphs about familiar and predictable topics.
12- Retell extracts from a story in writing.

ملاحظة: الاستعانة بكتاب (English for Libya, Preparatory (2) Teacher's Book) لتوظيف المادة.

R English Curriculum Objective for Year Nine in Libya

تقسيم المقررات الدراسية لمرحلة التعليم الأساسي

للعام الدراسي 1438–1439هـ / 2017 – 2018 م

الوعاء الزمني :(4) حصص في الأسبوع	الصف : التـــاسع	المادة : اللغة الإنجليزية
تأليف: Christine Barker, Chris Gough, Helen O'Neil and Fiona McGarry		الكتب المنفذة : English for Libya, Preparatory (3) Course Book + Workbook

General Objectives

Listening:
6- Follow sequences in narrative texts.
7- Follow process description.
8- Extract specific information.
9- Follow the detailed meaning of longer texts.
10- Identify the context, purpose and setting of a dialogue.
11- Identify the mood and role of speakers in dialogue.
12- Understand the gist of texts.

- **Speaking:**
1- Ask for and give directions and supply information.
8- Communicate the main points of a process or event.
9- Describe activities in their lives, including hobbies and interests.
10- Report events and occurrences in their lives in the past.
11- Describe familiar and unfamiliar people, places and things.
12- Describe past and present routines and abilities.
13- Make and discuss arrangements.
14- Express likes, dislikes and basic feelings.

- **Reading:**
10- Follow the sequence of information in a narrative text.
11- Understand the general meaning of a factual text.
12- Identify and differentiate between fact and opinion in a text.
13- Follow sequence of information in a process description.
14- Interpret, extract from and transfer information to maps and charts.

- **Writing:**
13- Convey information.
14- Convey directions.
15- Describe past events.
16- Communicate news and information.
17- Transcribe spoken texts of up to 50 words.
18- Practise target language.

ملاحظة: الاستعانة بكتاب (English for Libya, Preparatory (3) Teacher's Book) لتوظيف المادة.

Appendix :

Appendix S: Marks Distribution for Year five to Year eight

توزيع الدرجات لمادة اللغة الانجليزية وفق نظام الفصلين الدراسيين بمرحلة **التعليم الأساسي**

للصفوف الخامس والسادس و السابع و الثامن

للعام الدراسي 1438–1439هـ / 2017 – 2018 م

الوعاء الزمني:(4) أربع حصص أسبوعياً .

الدور الثاني	مجموع درجات الفصلين	مجموع درجات الفصل	درجة امتحان نهاية الفصل	مجموع درجات أعمال الفصل	درجات أعمال الفصل			النهاية الكبرى
					امتحان منتصف الفصل	الأنشطة اليومية*	متوسط درجة التطبيقات	
96	160	80	48	32	16	8	8	160

* توزيع درجات الأنشطة اليومية .

المجموع	نشاط الفصل	الشفوي	القراءة والفهم	التحريري	
Total	C.A	O.W	R.C	W.W	
				W.B	N.B
8	1	1 ½	1 ½	1 ½	2 ½

C.A = Class Activity   O.W = Oral Work
R.C = Reading and Comprehension   W.W = Written Work
W.B = Work book   N. B = Note book

ملاحظات:

1. يجرى أكثر من تطبيق في كل شهر خلال الفصل الدراسي قبل وبعد امتحان منتصف الفصل ثم يؤخذ المتوسط .
2. تحسب الدرجة النهائية للتلميذ من مجموع درجات الفصلين (الأول والثاني).
3. يشترط لنجاح التلميذ التقدم لامتحاني نهاية الفصلين الدراسيين و الحصول على: أ– 40% من مجموع درجات امتحاني نهاية الفصلين.
   ب– 50% من الدرجة المقررة للمـــــــــــــــــادة.

مركز المناهج التعليمية والبحوث التربوية

45

Appendix :

      T Marks Distribution for Year nine

توزيع الدرجات لمادة اللغة الإنجليزية لشهادة إتمام مرحلة التعليم الأساسي

للعام الدراسي 1438–1439هـ / 2017 – 2018 م

الوعاء الزمني:(4) أربع حصص أسبوعياً .

الدور الثاني	امتحان نهاية العام	مجموع درجات الفترتين	مجموع درجات الفترة	درجات أعمال الفترة			النهاية الكبرى
				امتحان نهاية الفترة	الأنشطة اليومية *	متوسط درجة التطبيقات	
96	96	64	32	16	8	8	160

* توزيع درجات الأنشطة اليومية .

المجموع	نشاط الفصل	الشفوي	القراءة والفهم	التحريري	
Total	C.A	O.W	R.C	W.W	
				W.B	N.B
8	1	1	2	2	2

C.A = Class Activity   O.W = Oral Work
R.C = Reading and Comprehension   W.W = Written Work
W.B = Work book   N. B = Note book

ملاحظات:

1. يجرى أكثر من تطبيق في كل شهر من أشهر الفترة .

2. تحسب الدرجة النهائية للتلميذ من مجموع الدرجات المتحصل عليها في الفترتين الأولى والثانية وامتحان نهاية العام .

3. يشترط لنجاح التلميذ الحصول على: أ– 40% من امتحان نهاية العـــــام.
                           ب– 50% من الدرجة المقـررة للمــــادة .

مركز المناهج التعليمية والبحوث التربوية

46